

Situated Hope: Understanding Teacher Educators' Notions of Hope

by

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ABSTRACT

This study examines teacher educators' understandings of hope related to teacher education. The study provides a previously unforeseen perspective on teacher educators' hope or lack of hope, and gives insight into that hope's foundation and maintenance. I have designed and implemented a rigorous multi-method study, beginning with developing and conducting a nationwide on-line survey with 625 participants. From a pool of 326 participants expressing interest in participating in interviews, I interviewed 23 teacher educators selected from a randomized and purposive sample. Finally, 25 participants took part in a writing prompt sent in lieu of an interview.

Findings reflect that teacher educators' "hope" is a construct, a mixture of abstract ideas, emotions, dispositions, attitudes, that is hard to conceptualize or measure, but appears to be a very relevant and influential and hope for teacher educators takes place on a continuum from bystander to actualizing. The results of this study serve as a way to encourage educators to be more explicit about hope and discourses about teaching. It raises awareness about "false senses" of hope, which arise from narratives of redemption, paving the way for a conception of hope grounded in a strong understanding of the multiplicities of teaching, and how things "are."

This conception of hope has the potential to foster discussions and actions of what education can be, rather than dwelling in the rhetoric of what education is not. Further, this research has the potential to open up spaces to discuss both the

importance of and how to begin to think about incorporating hope into curricula through critical pedagogy and pedagogies of hope.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Every time I turn on the television, pick up a newspaper, or read a periodical, I see or hear a piece on education. The thrust of the piece is most often a critique of public education, exposing how our school-age children are lagging behind other nations in test scores. The positive news reported tends to be an example of a businessperson who has taken over a school with great test results. Teachers and teacher educators are confronted daily with lines such as “College students not learning much” or “Why are U.S. children falling behind?” (Gorski, 2011).

Critiques of education have been ongoing for decades, escalating first in the 1950s with the race for space, and arising again in the 1980s with *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Each of these public movements raised concerns about the state of education (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Marshall, Allen, Sears, Roberts, & Schubert, 2007), but the past 12 months seem to have reached a high point in the coverage dedicated to education. Recent educational news stories include the unveiling of the Race to the Top (U.S. Department of Education, 2010), the release of *Waiting for “Superman”* (Weyermann & Guggenheim, 2010), NBC’s 2010 Education Nation Summit and its on-going website, and CNN’s Perry’s Principles (weekly segments on education). Education is being critiqued from all sides and sites of teacher preparation are particularly attacked in these critiques.

Take, for example, comments made by U.S. Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, who publicly denounced the quality of teacher education programs, calling them “cash cows” for universities because of their high enrollment and low overhead costs (Medina, 2009). Duncan was quoted further: “By almost any standard, many if not most of the nation’s 1,450 schools, colleges, and departments of education are doing a mediocre job in preparing teachers for the realities of the 21st century classroom” (2009; para. 3). Alternative teacher certification programs are emerging and expanding throughout the U.S. and play a role within the Obama administration’s Race to the Top competition for federal education funds. While there is no concrete definition in the literature to define alternative certification, I follow Darling-Hammond’s (1990) distinction between traditional undergraduate programs and alternate programs (as cited in Zumwalt & Craig, 2005). She views alternative programs as those that provide non-traditional routes to certification for those who already hold a bachelor’s degree. The Race to the Top program provides extra points toward states’ overall plan score if said plan to improve schools includes alternative certification paths for teachers and administrators (Foderaro, 2010).

Teacher preparation programs are also feeling pressure from budget cuts. In 2010, state budget cuts resulted in universities across the U.S. disestablishing or restructuring colleges, departments, and programs in teacher education. Just a few of the major universities whose teacher education programs have been affected include Arizona State University (disestablished on March 31, 2010), Dillard University (changed on April 20, 2010), St. Cloud State University,

(disestablished on March 22, 2010), University of Arizona, (program areas were eliminated on February 27, 2009), and University of Iowa, (disestablished on February 17, 2010). With up to 50% of new teachers leaving within their first five years of teaching and 62% of teachers saying their teacher preparation programs did not prepare them for the realities of P-12 classrooms, these concerns have significant impact on teacher education (Levine, 2006), and are cause for concern.

Politics have “become a way of life in teacher education” (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 185). By this I mean that politics are present in everything, from debates on how teachers are to be taught within and outside of higher education settings to curricular decisions. These politics are not only at the macro level (departments of education policy), but also at the local level, between faculty. Yet, if one looks at the state standards articulating what must be taught in teacher preparation coursework, politics and other power-related issues go unaddressed in preservice teacher education classrooms. Further, there continues to be the sentiment that a) anyone can teach, and b) that teachers and teacher educators do not know how to do their jobs or how to do them well. These notions may also lead to feelings of hopelessness among teacher educators. Bullough & Gitlin (1995) reiterate this sense of hopelessness by describing current educational settings: “schools are lousy places to work, young people are alienated, and the curriculum is fundamentally and perhaps fatally flawed!” (p. 7). In essence, teachers who are simultaneously blamed for economic woes, for not preparing students to compete

with other nations, and told that they are ill-prepared themselves, are also being told that education is the hope to renew national prominence.

Popular media has also been taking up questions about the effectiveness of teacher education. The New York Times Magazine cover for March 7, 2010 asks, “Can we build a better teacher? Can educators be educated about how to educate?” (Green, 2010). The March 6, 2010 cover of Newsweek pictures a chalkboard with the following statements written across it: “The key to saving American education: We must fire bad teachers.” The authors of the Newsweek cover article, Thomas and Wingert (2010), assert “teaching can be taught, to some degree, but not the way many graduate schools of education do it, with a lot of insipid or marginally relevant theorizing and pedagogy” (p. 24). A Time magazine poll (Kaji, Borinstein, & SBRI in Ripley, 2010) asking Americans their thoughts on the current state of public education showed that 30% of those polled believed that “better training in universities” will improve teacher effectiveness the most, tying with the 30% who believed “mentoring by more experienced teachers” is the key to improving public education. Even with those critiques, those polled also believed the key to improving student performance was “more involvement by parents” at 52%, while “more effective teachers” rated at just 24% (Ripley, 2010; p. 40).

The attacks teacher preparation programs face by the federal administration, funding sources, popular media, and within their own settings are significant. It is easy to understand why a sense of hopelessness could pervade teacher education. As a former P-12 teacher and a current teacher educator, I

admit my personal concerns about the possibility of teacher preparation as a hopeful institution. As I prepare to join the full-time faculty ranks, these concerns have prompted me to seek an understanding of how teacher educators understand hope, what that hope is for, and how they remain hopeful.

Purpose of the Study

Missing and muted in public discussions about how teachers are prepared, are the voices of the main actors of teacher education, the teacher educators themselves. With the exception of a few, such as Linda Darling-Hammond of Stanford University and Deborah Ball of the University of Michigan, teacher educators are not heard from except within their own profession. Understanding the perspective of teacher educators regarding their role in preparing future teachers, as well as their notions of “educational hope,” is timely both pedagogically and conceptually. This is especially relevant at a time where teachers and teacher educators are routinely blamed for the country’s educational problems, which are equated to the downfall of the nation’s economic and national security. Further, media portrayals of teacher educators as being disconnected from the realities of today’s schools reinforce a public perception about the lack of relevance of teacher education programs in preparing competent teachers (Green, 2010; Miller, 1996). Without disregarding the problems and likely shortcomings of teacher education programs, I feel it is important to attend to teacher educators’ notions of hope during this period of time, which may be creating a sense of hopelessness among teacher educators.

Hope within education can be situated on both individual and social levels. On an individual level, a person may be hopeful that they can succeed in life if they have a good education. From a social perspective, there is the hope that education can lead to democratic ideals being actualized; however, upon closer examination, a distinction needs to be made between education and schooling, as they are considered two separate entities (Apple, 2004). Schooling is related to the activities taking place within the spaces of an actual P-12 school, whether it is an on-line school or traditional brick and mortar school. Education can take place anywhere. Further, schooling takes place differently in public and private schools. Public P-12 schools, for example, are required to take state standardized tests; private P-12 schools are not required to do so (a distinction enacted by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act [ESEA] in 1965). However, this is a fact is often left out of the discussions when relaying data representing public education in the U.S. and comparing it to international data. This data is then used to raise concerns about the U.S. P-12 education system and how teachers are prepared.

Teacher preparation programs, like the community college faculty Seidman (1985) researched in his seminal piece *In the Words of the Faculty*, are “so intertwined with the complexities of life in the United States (U.S.), that simply criticizing [them]...for the broader social inequities reflected in them does community colleges and their faculty a serious injustice” (p. 12). I agree with Seidman’s assessment and believe the attacks on education writ large are replete with pundits and politicians who are deflecting issues of inequity and placing

blame for the country's ills on education. Pundits and politicians use their experiences from their own background as P-12 students, to make assumptions about the skills and knowledge necessary to teach. These assumptions fuel their belief that they know and understand what is necessary to be a "good" teacher. Ultimately, these beliefs oversimplify the complexities of educational issues, neglecting differences in students' previous knowledge, language issues, access, and learning styles. Further, the assumption that once a person is certified to teach and labeled highly qualified based on his/her degree, is problematic. Being a good teacher or teacher educator requires ongoing development.

Research Questions

Through this study, I sought to gain an understanding of teacher educators' perceptions of hope in teacher education. Further, I sought to illustrate if and how these teacher educators came to an understanding of hope in and for the profession, and what hope might mean for teacher education both presently and in the future. Conversely, I also wanted to learn more about the teacher educators who no longer have hope or are losing hope.

I utilized a multiple methods approach in designing this study to allow for deeper and richer levels of understanding, and to look more closely into the contexts described by the participants, themselves. Specifically, the multiple method approach I used to "extend categories and propositions" (Morse, 2003, p. 41) of teacher educators' notions of hope. To do this I conducted a nationwide e-survey, and used interviews and writing prompts to focus on the "explicit and implicit narratives of hope and teaching" (Larsen, 2009, p. 153-154). The

overarching research question guiding this study was: what are teacher educators' understandings of hope about teacher education?

Subsequent questions were:

- What are the characteristics of teacher educators?
- What shapes how they view, understand, and experience hope (in teacher education)?
- How does hope (or a lack thereof) influence the pedagogical and curricular practices of teacher educators, if at all?
- Why do teacher educators remain in teacher education?

To begin to understand U.S. teacher educators' notions of hope, this research was conducted in two phases, explained in detail in Chapter 3. The first phase consisted of an e-survey administered through QuestionPro and sent to 3,625 teacher educators, in all 50 states and the District of Columbia, at 235 different institutions of higher education, with variations in size and type (e.g., Private, Public) (See Appendix A for the invitation to participate). The second phase of the research included collecting responses to a writing prompt and interviews to learn more about participants' understandings of hope.

Overview of the Findings

I found that most teacher educators who participated in this study (78.8%) have hope for the field and profession of teacher education. My first assertion is that "hope" is a construct, a mixture of abstract ideas, emotions, dispositions, and attitudes. It is a hard word to conceptualize or measure, but appears to be a very relevant and influential construct for the professional teacher educators who

participated in this study. My second assertion is that there are three types of hope used by teacher educators, which are bystander, rescuing, and actualizing hope. My third assertion is that teacher educators draw upon their sources of hope in order to maintain hope and continue on in the profession. These findings are discussed in Chapter 4.

Significance of the Study

My research relocated the focus of existing literature about teacher education to the perspectives of teacher educators in the U.S. The contribution of this research is to lend voice to the people who are not heard in discussions of teacher education, the teacher educators themselves. In this way, this study contributes to the present literature by adding their perspectives. Much of the existing literature on teachers has been conducted on P-12 teachers (Ayers & Schubert, 1992; Barone, 2001; Bullough, 1989; Bullough & Baughman, 1997; Casey, 1993; Eddy, 1969; Nieto, 2005; Weiler, 1988) or student teachers (Bullough, 2008; Fischman, 2000), rather than on teacher education faculty. Additionally, the research conducted on teacher education faculty in the U.S. primarily tends to utilize three perspectives. The first is an autoethnographic or self-study viewpoint (Allen & Hermann-Wilmarth, 2004; Fischman, 2009; Miller, 2005; Russell & Korthagen, 1999; Tompkins, 1996; Witherell & Noddings, 1991). My study helps to fill a gap in the literature by creating a space for the voices of teacher educators to be heard. The second perspective is through program evaluation (Goodlad, 1976; 1984; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Levine, 2006) and the third perspective is from a historical point of view (Cuban,

1993; Fraser, 2007; Spring, 2005). This research also contributes by studying teacher educators who teach in the present political and educational climate, as opposed to a historical perspective.

In my research, I “studied up,” (Priyadharshini, 2003, p. 420) by conducting research with participants who came from a position of power, rather than a subordinate group such as students (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993) which contributes to the scholarship conducted with participants who are part of a more privileged or powerful groups than the researcher. I believe that through understanding participants’ notions of hope, my research will open up spaces to disrupt discussions that narrow preservice teacher education curriculum, interrupting the rhetoric that there is too much wrong within the education system to bring about transformative change.

Outline of Dissertation

The remainder of this dissertation is presented in five chapters. Chapter 2 is the literature review and discussion of my theoretical frame, which is grounded in critical pedagogy and theories of hope. The literature review addresses the history of teacher education, policies affecting teacher education, and includes frameworks addressing the role and place of hope in educational transformations or its importance in pedagogical arenas. Within my theoretical frame is a discussion of critical pedagogy and hope.

Chapter 3 provides a rationale for a mixed methods approach, a description of the research methods, and discussion of the data analysis procedures. Chapter 4 is a display and discussion of the findings. Chapter 5

contains a discussion of the findings in relationship to the literature and the limitations and implications, along with the conclusions of my study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAME

When I first began thinking about hope and teacher educators, I struggled with how I might articulate my theoretical framework and situate this study in the literature. I began with a strong foundation on the literature around teacher preparation, to help me understand teacher educators. I decided to use the term “lens” to describe the ways I perceived my research. These lenses constitute the ways I read the world; they specifically informed the perspectives I took up for my research. I ground my own teaching practice in the lenses of critical pedagogy and pedagogy of hope.

I used the macro-lens of critical pedagogy to focus on hope, but I also needed the micro-lens of hope to fine-tune my understanding of hope. To communicate my thinking on teacher education and hope, I have divided this chapter into two main parts. In the first half, I present literature on teacher preparation and teacher educators, and in the second portion, I explain my theoretical framework using the macro-lens of critical pedagogy and the micro-lens of hope.

Teacher Preparation

I begin with a brief history of teacher preparation to situate the study within socio-cultural, socio-political, and historical contexts. I also discuss the perceptions of teacher education as a hopeful institution that presently exist within the literature. This history of teacher education contextualizes my research involving hope and teacher education in education reform efforts, which

contribute to the present climate of negative rhetoric regarding education in the U.S.

History of Teacher Preparation

Teacher preparation in the U.S. has evolved since its beginnings as an extension of the elementary education school or its equivalent. Beginning in the late 1600s, the colony of Massachusetts began to require the education of children, a job that ministers often took up, even though they had little formal education themselves, save for being able to read the Bible. As compulsory education expanded the need for more teachers, there was little consistency in teacher preparation requirements. Requirements varied between individuals and schools, and ranged from graduation or completion of the available coursework that would have been the equivalent of graduating from K-6 or K-8, to completing a training program at a normal school. Teachers were primarily women; teaching was considered a “noble profession” and good training for motherhood, since women had nurturing dispositions (Cuban, 1993; Fraser, 2007; Urban & Wagoner, 2004).

Normal schools prepared those who were going to teach what would be considered elementary school (K-6). Normal schools also prepared individuals who were not “ready” for university-level work. This division between normal schools and universities helped create the perception of teacher education/preparation as second rate, compared to the education of other degree programs in higher education. This was due in part to the progression of normal schools becoming regional colleges, and then becoming universities (Goodlad et

al, 1990; Grumet, 1988; Milam, 2010; Spring, 2005). It was also due to the gendering of the teaching profession and expectations and beliefs about women and their intellect. Through the 1800s, teachers were certified by individual school boards and often hired only after answering questions regarding their moral character, rather than questions about their preparation or formal schooling experiences (Goodlad et al, 1990; Grumet, 1988; Marshall et al, 2007; Spring, 2005; Tyack & Cuban, 1995).

As high schools sprung up around the country at the turn of the twentieth century, requirements for secondary teachers increased over those required for elementary teachers and states took over the regulatory position of certifying teachers. To teach in high schools, states began to require a university degree focusing on a content area and called for a liberal arts education rather than just basic proficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Universities began to provide classes in pedagogy in the early 1900s. At the same time, normal schools were either phased out or absorbed as more universities and colleges filled with students looking to teach (Fraser, 2007; Goodlad et al, 1990). During this time, the role of universities shifted from offering a “liberal education as provider of the discipline and furniture of the mind...to that of servicing the needs of the corporate state” (Spring, 2005, p. 305). Many of these changes in education were attributed to the shift of scientific management in society, which in turn spread the ideals of “scientific study of education” (p. 311). Thus was born an emphasis on quantitative evaluation of education through standardized tests to measure the

output of schools and to develop efficiency in the education process (Giordano, 2007).

At the turn of the 20th century, the immigration booms supporting the country's workforce also resulted in changes to curriculum at the K-12 level¹, along with great increases in student populations at the high school and university levels. In K-12 settings, a push to ensure the formation of a democratic union began. Educating children in the most efficient manner became a means to promote a common democracy and culture (Cuban, 1993; Spring, 2005; Tyack & Cuban, 1995). These philosophies carried over to higher education (post-secondary) in an effort to meet the demands of the increased enrollment in K-12 schools. These changes shifted teacher preparation programs by promoting specific classes clearly outlined as the most important to prepare teachers.

Despite these many changes to teacher preparation programs, Cecelski (1994) and Miller (1996) concur that up to this point in time, teacher preparation programs were largely hopeful institutions because in many cases, they were the only places where marginalized groups (women and persons of color) were able to learn. In general, the years up through the 1960s saw women and persons of color "tracked" into particular professions. For example, unmarried white women typically were encouraged to work as secretaries, nurses, or teachers. People of color were allowed to teach, but often only in segregated settings. These groups often did not have options beyond "secretary," "nurse," or "manual laborer." To

¹ I use K-12 rather than P-12, because of the time period. The shift to P-12 came in the 1990s.

some extent, teacher preparation programs expanded these options for marginalized groups.

History of Critique and Reform

Having shared this history of teacher education, I also wish to address critiques of education and teacher preparation woven into the policies affecting teacher preparation, which stem from said critiques. I also provide a brief review of policies presently affecting teacher education.

Present-day critiques from curriculum scholars are directed at the P-12 curriculum and professional development models for P-12 teachers resulting from the shift to a “McDonaldized” model of curriculum (Pearson, 2007, in Reilly, 2009). McDonaldized refers to the quick fix menu of standardized curricula so often developed by corporations and used in educational settings. While standardization trends have been occurring since the turn of the twentieth century, increased momentum began during the Sputnik era and the Woodshole conference in the 1950s and early 1960s. The race for space and concerns based on fears of the Soviet Union surpassing the U.S. as the sole superpower fueled this movement. The legislation of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965 resulted in recommendations about the types of curricula that would help the nation. ESEA effectively attacked U.S. education by comparing it and finding it deficient to other nations (Marshall et al, 2007). Economic and national security concerns continue to be at the forefront of education critiques 50 years later.

Policies affecting teacher education. The standardization of and explosive attacks on education are also evident in *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), Goals 2000 in the 1990s, and culminating with No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) (Marshall et al, 2007; Spring, 2005; Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Presently Race to the Top (2010), the Obama administrations revision of NCLB includes changing the language from punishing low-performing schools to rewarding schools that make progress. Race to the Top represents a shift from NCLB discourse that mandated students reach Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) to a discourse stating high school graduates will have the skills to either enter college or the workforce “prepared to be successful for either” (U.S. Education Department, 2010). However, this shift in language is not all rosy. The law’s language shifts the focus of accountability away from the student by identifying the teacher as the primary source of responsibility for student success. In many states, the teachers’ scores are also being linked to the university where they received their institutional recommendation (IR), which is factored into the scoring equation of Race to the Top, to measure the effectiveness of the teacher preparation program (Ravitch, 2011).

Higher education has also moved toward standardized practices in curricula, due to policy mandates on federal and state levels (Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Milam, 2010; Smith, 2004). Decisions about minimum requirements have shifted from the universities and colleges who prepare teachers to the individual states’ departments of education (Smith, 2004). For example, politicians in Arizona mandated phonics as “the” method of preparing preservice teachers for

reading instruction, ignoring the benefits of whole language approaches (Smith, 2004).

The passage of NCLB (2002) ensured that public schools would have highly qualified teachers in every classroom (Sloan, 2007). But even with NCLB's specific mandates, each state is still able to determine the test to be used for certification and the type of bachelor's degree major required. For example, some states use the Praxis exam and require preservice elementary educators to major in a content area with a minor in education. In Arizona, the Arizona Education Professional Assessment (AEPA) is the certifying exam and preservice P-8 teachers major in elementary or early childhood education, 9-12 teachers major in a content area. Legislation in the form of the Reauthorization of the Higher Education Act (HEA, 2008) required that universities that grant teacher education degrees must have a passing rate of 75% for their graduating students on the respective states' teacher certification exams. Universities whose students do not have this 75% passing rate lose their ability to grant IRs. The IR is the symbol of "traditional and dominant view of teacher education as training, which has its primary concern the mastery of a set of techniques or skills" (Bullough & Gitlin, 1995, p. ix). Students receive an IR when completing their teacher education degree program in the U.S. State departments of education are now setting the requirements for how preservice teachers are prepared, rather than schools/colleges of education who have traditionally been able to set the standards for the teachers they prepare.

NCLB and the HEA legislation are the federal government's efforts to ensure that all children have highly qualified teachers in their classrooms, but these policies also include a huge push for standardization. Highly qualified means all newly certified/licensed teachers have a minimum of a bachelor's degree, as opposed to past practice, which "grandfathered" in certified teachers with two year degrees when state requirements changed (Sloan, 2007). However, the bachelor degree does not have to be in education, as was dictated in past requirements. In addition to passing the standardized certifying exam, newly certified high school teachers must also have a bachelor's degree in the content area or equivalent credit hours in the subject they are teaching. Teaching is a profession where individuals who are outside of the profession set the requirements for certification, unlike medicine, law, or plumbing (Milam, 2010). The rhetoric is that since most of the policymakers attended some type of formal schooling, they understand what is necessary for teachers to be able to teach students to be successful (i.e., pass the standardized tests).

Suggestions on how to revise teacher education are seen within public periodicals (Green, 2010) and even cable television shows (Perry's Principles-CNN). These calls for change have also been noted in research conducted by those within education including Goodlad (1984), the Holmes Group (1986; 1990; 1995), Labaree (2004), and Levine (2006). Goodlad (1984) called for teacher educators to produce research showing how and what was being done to improve P-12 education. I continue this section with perspectives from education researchers.

The Holmes group was comprised of deans from colleges of education around the country who called for changes such as professionalizing teachers, and building and strengthening partnerships with P-12 schools in ways that move research to practice (Labaree, 2004). Labaree (2004) argued that schools of education have largely ignored calls to change their practices and bridge the gaps between research and practice. Levine (2006) contends that only a few programs prepare teachers in effective manners. He predicted the demise of colleges and schools of education because of their inability to change their practices in preparing future educators. In his critique of teacher education, Levine detailed how the teaching profession has not changed in decades; he downgraded faculty in teacher education programs lack of recent practical experience in P-12 settings and emphasized how the “best and brightest” college students are not going into education as evidenced by low admission standards. He further described the necessity of certifying agencies and preservice teacher education programs to revise the process of becoming a teacher and expand the avenues toward certifying highly qualified teachers, especially for those entering the profession later in their work careers, in direct contrast to Goodlad’s (1984) call for eliminating backdoor entries to teacher certification. Recently, Ball (2011), called for an overhaul of how teachers are prepared with the caveat that as a profession we need to stop arguing about how to repair teacher preparation and begin making and implementing changes.

What is clear in present-day policy is that participation in a teacher education program is not as important as it once was. Outside entities such as

state education departments have much more control on the curriculum set for preservice teachers, rather than curriculum being designed and set by education faculty in universities and colleges. For example, in 2006, Arizona Department of Education (ADE) added the requirement of two Structured English Immersion (SEI) methods courses and mandated the curriculum's requirements, including how many course hours are to be dedicated to particular topics (Markos, 2011).

Researchers (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005) have noted that standards and mandates on teacher education programs have increased in the past 10 years. Yet, while the requirements for teacher education have increased, the push for increasing avenues to enter the profession has resulted in lowering the number of credits needed to obtain a teaching degree. As an example, the Arizona Board of Regents lowered the number of credits required to obtain an undergraduate degree in P-12 education, even as the Arizona state department of education (ADE) simultaneously increased the standards for what teachers are expected to know how to do upon certification. Programs dropped courses such as child or adolescent psychology, replacing them with a general educational psychology course. Courses in classroom management and assessment were cut, with that content being woven into methods courses. The elimination of these courses subsequently increases the standards, content, and competencies to be taught in typical 3-credit courses (Christine & Rivers, 2009).

Conclusion of history of critique and reform. Even while expectations are high for teachers to prepare students for the workforce and to prepare the next

generation of leaders, as evidenced by reform efforts such as NCLB and Race to the Top, teacher education is equally responsible for preparing teachers to deliver content and curriculum. Calls for education curriculum for preservice teachers are to include the multiplicities of the changing educational landscape and the varying ways in which students learn within P-12 settings. Preservice teachers must know subject knowledge, teaching methods, understand student learning and assessment, all within a context of accountability through high-stakes testing and state standards set for their students (Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Freire, 1998; Nichols & Berliner, 2007; Smith, 2004; Wink, 2005).

In spite of these mandates to improve education, the quality of teacher preparation remains in question by a skeptical public. Recently, the New York Times Magazine front cover on March 7, 2010 asked, “Can we build a better teacher?” The article described techniques developed by Doug Lemov, a former teacher-turned-administrator out to improve the ways teachers deliver information to improve student test scores (Green, 2010). Lemov argues that preservice teachers and current teachers who follow his methods of teaching will raise students’ test scores and improve all children’s education. It is this cookie-cutter mindset about methods of instruction that reinforces the rhetoric that all that is needed for student success is to follow a recipe or set of steps. Teachers need only administer the prescription written in the instructor’s manual and students will follow along, complete with high-test scores.

Sputnik, *A Nation at Risk*, Goals 2000, NCLB, Levine's Educating Teachers Report, and Race to the Top represent policies, educational research, and social trends illustrating the debates that contribute to hope and hopelessness in teacher education. These constant changes in education barrage teachers and teacher educators, which become more confusing when politicians, educators at all levels, journalists, and researchers all have differing opinions on what constitutes hope and change and the role of education for our nation's students. Yet these debates tend to distort recognizable progress on individual, school, or district levels in P-12 and higher education, especially when their foundations are set on the platform of standardized test results (Berliner & Biddle, 1995). In truth, all of this rhetoric and continued critiques of teacher education contributes to my own sense of hopelessness for the field, and became a primary rationale for conducting this study.

Studies of Teacher Educators

Having presented a brief history of teacher education in the U.S. and a synthesis of the political and social trends contributing to conversations about it, I now move to discuss the literature that describes and interprets the lives of preservice teacher educators. The research on teacher educators is often rooted in autoethnography or self-study (Allen & Hermann-Wilmarth, 2004; Miller, 2005; Russell & Korthagen, 1999; Tompkins, 1996; Witherell & Noddings, 1991). The work of Allen & Hermann-Wilmarth (2004), in particular, takes into consideration how teacher educators may not always practice what they teach. When encouraging the use of a particular practice to their preservice teachers,

Allen and Hermann-Wilmarth question whether they are continuing to perpetuate a banking education model (Freire, 2000), a metaphor, which likens teaching to depositing information in students' heads. They question this banking model because they want to go beyond the dissemination of information to talk and work with preservice teachers, and to provide opportunities for their students to be engaged in the learning process. Ellsworth (1989) also wrote from an autobiographical position in her seminal piece "Why doesn't this feel empowering?" reflecting her frustration in using a critical pedagogical approach to teach a class.

Examples of research conducted about university faculty through the voices of the faculty include Larsen (2009), Seidman (1985), and Snyder (2005). Seidman's (1985) seminal piece became one of the first research projects focusing on higher education faculty from a qualitative perspective. He interviewed community college faculty to discern their understandings and experiences, believing that this was "central to understanding the complexities of community college education in this country" (p. 14). Larsen and Snyder both approach the study of faculty from a counseling psychology perspective. Larsen is the director of research for the Hope Foundation housed at the University of Alberta. Her work involves using hope-based approaches "from both health and educational perspectives" (<http://www.hope-lit.ualberta.ca/>). While they both view hope from a counseling psychology perspective, Snyder's work differed from Larsen's because he also developed a survey based on a scale of hope. He uses this scale to predict adults' levels of hope and conducted focus groups and interviews on

university faculty. Other large-scale research on university faculty has been conducted throughout the last 30 years using survey methods (see the Higher Education Research Institute for examples: <http://www.heri.ucla.edu/>).

With the exceptions of Larsen (2009), Seidman (1985), and Snyder (2005), most of the research I present is autoethnography or teacher research. My study is of particular importance as it focuses on the perspectives of teacher educators from an insider/outsider perspective, rather than a strict quantitative or qualitative study. As a result, my study contributes to the literature on teacher education as well as hope.

Although there have been studies on teacher education programs (Goodlad, 1984; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Labaree, 2004; Levine, 2006) few have focused on particulars of those who are preparing teachers, the faculty themselves. Some demographic and characteristic data (including teachers' years spent teaching, whether or not they had doctorate degrees, and their recent research experience) was collected in Levine's (2006) study. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) (2009) reported data regarding teacher education faculty type, race/ethnicity, and institution type (public/private). A recent study from the Thomas B. Fordham Institute by Farkas & Duffet (2010) contains both demographic data (such as faculty rank, teaching level, subject area, years at the college level, years in K-12, years since K-12, political views, age, race, ethnicity, and gender) and data from focus groups with participants. However, this is only a small beginning in addressing the perspectives of those who work in teacher preparation programs. My research

contributes to the literature of teacher education because its primary focus was on the faculty themselves, a missing component of the literature.

Through the data analysis process, I uncovered a finding related to the importance of communities of learning as a source of hope for teacher educators. This next sub-section includes a brief perspective of communities of learning in education.

Communities of Learners

One way to create and maintain hope in teacher education and in research is in creating communities of learners (Shulman, 2004). This can be done in research teams or groups where a member or group focuses on one issue and the group tackles the problem together in ways that combine their strengths and balance their weaknesses. Shulman describes six principles that typify communities of learners, which can also be applied to the classroom as a community of learners:

1. The subject or content...is *generative*, essential and pivotal to the discipline...and can yield new understandings...
2. The learner is an *active* agent in the process, not passive, an audience, a client. ...Learning becomes more active through...inquiry, as well as through writing, dialogue and questioning.
3. The learner...can *reflectively* turn around on his/her own thoughts and action and analyze how and why their thinking achieved certain ends or failed to achieve others...
4. There is *collaboration* among learners...in ways that scaffold and support each other's learning, and...supplement each other's knowledge...
5. Teachers and students share a *passion* for the material, are emotionally committed to the ideas, processes and activities and see the work as connected to present and future goals.
6. The process of activity, reflection and collaboration are supported, legitimated and nurtured within a community or culture that values

such experiences and creates many opportunities for them to occur...
(emphasis in the original, p. 493-494)

Shulman does not suggest this is an easy undertaking, nor is it a “quick fix” or one-time approach to build community. Rather, it is a way for community members to begin to understand and to “look for the structures, to look for the essential questions, and for the generative topics” with a clear understanding that not “everyone can learn these” at the same depth or within the same time frame. Faculty and teachers who use these principles can build a community that collaboratively begins to address problems that go beyond one’s individual capabilities (p. 495).

To practice education in ways that build community means to create classrooms that engage all members in a partnership to co-create knowledge. It involves the recognition, naming, and confronting of injustice and domination in ways that transform the classroom into a community of learners (Freire, 1998a; hooks, 2003). It requires dialogue taking place “where both sides are willing to change” to believe that if we engage in dialogue with another “we have the possibility of making a change within ourselves” (Thich Nhat Hanh, in hooks, 2003, p. xv-xvi). Freire (1998b) stresses that the search for knowledge and justice is “not an easy task” (p. 4) and that this undertaking involves daring to fight and believe that things could be otherwise. He reminds people this is not a solitary struggle. Educators must work together when going against systems of oppression and injustice, whether it is in the classroom, evaluating curriculum, reflecting on one’s practice, or examining issues on the political landscape.

Cochran-Smith and her colleagues at Boston College (2009) suggest that one way teacher educators can work as a community of learners is to focus on “re-culturing” teacher education by creating systematic and iterative practices to build “a culture of evidence and inquiry” (p. 459). Over the course of five years, they worked toward that end in their teacher preparation program and believe it “has the potential to be transformative and revitalizing, especially if these cultures are guided by shared beliefs about the purposes of schooling in democratic societies and about the roles teachers and teacher educators can play in social change” (p. 459). Their work at creating a new culture to advance these practices is an example of community learners in action.

Rendón (2009) adds to the community of learners’ literature by focusing her research and analysis on the process of building community within higher education classrooms. She focuses on dialogue and reflection through using a sensing approach. Her efforts in understanding these communities of learning aims focuses on the goal of education to create wholeness within students and teachers, in a move toward supporting more socially just and liberating classrooms.

Theoretical Frame

In this section, I describe the theoretical frame for my research in two parts. As mentioned earlier, I use the metaphors macro and micro lenses to describe my viewpoint on the world and my research, just as a photographer uses camera lenses to view a wide-angle or a close angle on an object. First, I describe my over-arching frame of critical pedagogy as a macro-lens. I then explain my

micro-lens of hope. I include myself in these discussions about engaging in critical pedagogy and hope, as a teacher educator and as a researcher, to make clear my biases and assumptions within this research.

Critical Pedagogy as a Macro-lens

I used critical pedagogy as a lens to view hope in my theoretical approach to this study. In this section, I describe how I understand this theory and include a discussion of the role of social reproduction and its role in critical pedagogy.

My study is deeply rooted in my personal beliefs about the importance of preparing teachers as committed intellectuals who are prepared for responsibly just engagement (Snow, Beyer Hansen, Zenkart, & Gregory, 2009). Snow et. al advocate for this kind of teacher preparation through what I recognize as critical pedagogy and pedagogy of hope. Responsibly just engagement of teacher educators utilizes Giroux's (1988) framing of "transformative intellectuals" as the foundation for preparing preservice teachers to participate in dialogues and engage in opportunities for action and subjectivity (Biesta, 2007). This framework, which envisions teachers as committed intellectuals, moves the practice of teaching from a standpoint of using a metaphoric default setting (Cazden, 1986; Florio-Ruane, 2001). This default setting, which educators sometimes take up, is typified in a mindset of reliance on the use of textbooks, relegating teachers to a passive role (Bullough & Gitlin, 1995). In contrast, I advocate for teaching beyond the curriculum to meet the needs of all students within the contexts of their schools and communities (Darling-Hammond &

Bransford, 2005; Delpit, 1995; Miller, 2005; Rose, 1995; 2009; Sapon-Shevin, 2010).

Many teacher educators work to disrupt the hegemony of education. Hegemony can be likened to perpetuating the status quo. Teacher educators engaging in critical pedagogy promote the idea of teachers as committed intellectuals, which I recognize as reflective of pedagogies of hope (Ayers, 2001; 2006; Duncan-Andrade, 2009; Florio-Ruane, 2001; Giroux, 1988; Miller, 2005; Sears & Marshall, 1990). However, critical pedagogy can often be confined to the graduate level or inservice teacher education rather than in preservice or undergraduate teacher education (Florio-Ruane, 2001; Sears & Marshall, 1990; Schubert, 1986). As I was once told by an Associate Professor/Administrator, “that stuff [critical pedagogy] can’t be understood by undergrads, it is over their heads” (personal communication, 2007).

Critical educators who do not believe “that stuff is over undergrads’ heads” use theories that are dialectical in process to understand the interactions between the educator and curriculum (McLaren, 2003; 2009). Likewise, Willis (1977) insists that pedagogic moves be “considered in relation to [their] context...of cultural reproduction and the main world of social class relationships” (p. 178-179). My study makes use of the lens of critical pedagogy as a framework for questioning curricula and pedagogy in way that enables us to understand how “our social constructions...get produced and lived out” (McLaren, 2009, p. 63).

Teaching for change through a critical pedagogy approach emphasizes thinking about the way one sees the world, and requires teachers to understand their own positions and their (in)completeness (Freire, 1998a; 2000; hooks, 1994; Palmer, 1998; 2000). Cherryholmes (1988) further articulates that if teachers do not understand what and where the values of their choices in educational practice come from, they become what Freire (2000) has described as bank tellers dispensing knowledge like currency, hoping that something stays and accrues interest. These authors' thoughts demonstrate how my use of critical pedagogy as the macro-lens of my theoretical frame sets the foundation for understanding hope as vital to thoughtful curricular and pedagogical decisions and practices.

Social reproduction, as tied to schooling, is referred to as the perpetuation or reproduction of social classes and practices in society (Althusser, 1971; Bourdieu, 1984; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; McLaren, 2009; Swartz, 1997). While I do not find social reproduction theory helpful in identifying and explaining the ways teacher educators understand hope, I do find it a necessary consideration to address social reproduction, especially because it was foundational to the development of critical pedagogy.

Traditionally, critical theorists have grounded social reproduction theory within class structures (McLaren, 2009; Swartz, 1997). Class structures are the foundation focus of reproduction theory as developed by Marx (Althusser, 1971). Swartz (1997) discussed Bourdieu's analysis of strategies of reproduction in education in terms of the ways that dominant classes structure education in ways to privilege their class(es) and "protect or advance their positions within the social

hierarchy by preserving, reinforcing or transforming their stock of capital” (p. 210). This privileging can be seen in the ways educational systems have become increasingly controlled by government and private corporations, through the dictation of requirements (e.g. NCLB, HEA, state teaching standards) about what is deemed appropriate for students to know. I discussed these policy implications at the opening of this chapter to contextualize the current climate in which teacher educators find themselves. Others have used social reproduction theory to show how standardization has, under the guise of “helping,” perpetuated social inequalities (Lareau, 2000; Willis, 1977).

For example, Willis (1977) described changes in the English education system, which may have had the intention of “addressing real problems” (p. 179), but only reinforced schools as sites of reproduction of the working class culture. The intention of progressivism in education as a “solution to practical problems without any real shift in basic philosophies of education...” ended up increasing the “cultural reproduction...opposite of its intention” (Willis, 1977, p. 178). Willis’ study illustrates my belief that social reproduction theory cannot fully answer the questions I seek to answer, because it does not uncover the full range of positionalities that critical pedagogy does.

Social reproduction is also used by Althusser (1971) to address the “hero” or the teacher who goes against the “system” (p. 148). Movies such as *Dangerous Minds*, *Dead Poets’ Society*, and *187*, the television show *Glee*, and other mainstream media illustrate that the “hero teacher” is alive and well in the public imagination. These media portray the teacher as the hero who goes against the

system to transform a school, without showing what occurs after the rescue. Heroes are teachers who “attempt to turn the few weapons they can find in the history, and learning ‘they teach’ against the ideology” (Althusser, 1971, p. 148). Related to the hero metaphor are narratives of redemption (Fischman, 2000; 2009; Grumet, 1988). These are characterizations of teachers as those who give their lives to their students as they strive to make the world a better place. These teachers’ lives are tied to the children they teach. In many of these models, the hero is a solo rescuer, the “savior.” On the contrary, Freire (1998b) conceptualizes hope for change as taking place with others. It is not a solitary effort.

Although heroic and redemptive metaphors are popular conceptions for teachers who want to enact hope and change, I reject them as the primary metaphors informing my study because they play on the idea that someone from the outside is required to bring hope and enact change, weakening the idea that it can come from within. These metaphors also rely on a solitary effort to create change rather than the community aspects that are grounded in critical pedagogy, as Freire and others perceive it to be. Duncan-Andrade (2009) calls this the concept “mythic hope,” where the heroic narratives are images of hope “rooted in celebrating individual exceptions” (p. 184). I used critical pedagogy as a lens to try to understand how teacher educators articulate narratives of hope without focusing on the participants as heroes or redeemers (Fischman, 2009). Critical pedagogy, along with a communities of learning perspective (Cochran-Smith et al, 2009; Shulman, 2004) engages the idea that while one person can begin the

effort, it is impossible to change things and sustain that change on one's own; it takes a community (hooks, 2003).

Several studies provide examples of resistance in higher education and how through a reflective lens, educators have come to understand their positionality in their own teaching practices. For example, Allen and Hermann-Wilmarth's (2004) self-study examined the ways they perpetuated the banking model of education. Bullough and Gitlin's (1995) work in reflection in teacher preparation, Ellsworth's (1989) description of resistance in a diversity class, and Fischman's (2009) study describing resistance in a class on Freire are other examples. These studies are reminiscent of the same resistance experienced by the lads in *Learning to Labor* (Willis, 1977). Through these particular studies, researchers demonstrated how even the use of critical pedagogy as an approach to understanding methods of teaching, teacher identity, multi-cultural education, and re-thinking Freire resulted in resistance on the part of the students, rather than moving students to an understanding of critical pedagogy as a pedagogy of hope. Each of these studies demonstrates the inadequacy of social reproduction theory as the sole lens to understand hope in teacher education, because of the multiplicities of identity and power involved. By using critical pedagogy as a framework, I gain a wide-angle perspective on the complexities of hope situated in relations of power, class, gender, age, and sexuality.

Hope as a Micro-lens

I now move to reviewing the literature on hope to articulate how hope served as a micro-lens in my study. Hope has multiple meanings. It is nearly

impossible to narrow hope to a single definition because it is contextually bound for each person. Hope is used both as a verb and a noun and is often described as an abstract concept (Murad, 2010). In Judeo-Christian religions, St. Paul describes that “to hope” (verb) is to believe in what is not seen (Lynch, 1974). Purpel and McLaurin (2004) similarly equate hope with the Judeo-Christian concept regarding hope as a faith or a belief in things not seen. St. Thomas Aquinas wrote that hope (noun) is “a future good” (Aquinas in Shade, 2001, p. 43). In this sense, hope leads to positive change, but requires hard work to accomplish this difficult yet achievable goal (Shade, 2001). Moving from the realm of religion, Zournazi (2002), defines hope as a means to creating just societies and addressing issues of globalized politics.

Hope is considered by others to be a philosophy (Bloch, 1986; Rorty, 1999; Zournazi, 2002). For the purpose of this study, I draw from Freire (1997) and Snyder (2005) who describe hope as an expectation for things to change for the better, with goals specifically developed to enact hope. Freire (1997) describes hope as a need that is the very root of change. By change, he refers to changes in social inequalities. This is what connects hope and critical pedagogy. To better understand hope, I first ground hope through its historical roots and from different perspectives to give context to the multiplicities of hope and then reconnect hope and critical pedagogy.

Historically, hope has been understood as both good and bad. The dark side of hope goes back to the Greek myth of Pandora (Snyder, 2000). In it, Prometheus stole fire from Zeus and the other gods. To punish the mortal for

stealing and to ensure dominance over the rest of the mortals, the gods created a gift (trick) for Prometheus. The gift was the beautiful maiden, Pandora whom Prometheus was to marry. Pandora was given a jar (it has also been described by others as a box) as a dowry and told never to open it. The gods knew she would be unable to “resist the temptation and disobeyed” (p. 3) as soon as she arrived on earth. When Pandora opened the jar, plagues flew out of it to condemn humans forever. The plagues were both for the body and the mind, ills such as disease, envy, and revenge. When she realized too late what had happened, Pandora tried to close the lid and did not notice hope was still inside.

Hope can also be used as a disguise to encourage patriotism and national identity, for constituents to imagine their countries in an idealized memory of the past (Zournazi, 2002). In this sense, hope is a nostalgic return to something, evident in the title of Coontz’s (1992) book *The Way We Never Were*. From these perspectives, “hope” is a notion, an emotion used to encourage a retreat to the “good old days” where no one was marginalized, and everyone had what was needed to survive and thrive, a time and way that in actuality never existed, except within our collective imagination. This nostalgia is an idealized version of the past, where transgressions are forgotten or dismissed from the collective consciousness. It does not serve society well to rely on nostalgic notions that everyone is equal, that everyone has always been equal, and that everyone had equal access to opportunity. It glosses over the real issues, preventing the recognition of problems and subsequently stymieing solutions. This type of hope is not grounded in reflection, therefore is not tied to critical pedagogy.

This nostalgic, or idealized hope also situates national security in fear and induces “a hope that ignores the suffering of others” (Zournazi, 2002, p. 15). The effects of this can be seen for example, in the policies created to protect the borders of both Australia and the U.S. (Zournazi, 2002). In these policies, fear is used to dehumanize those crossing borders, exacerbating fear of the “other.” I describe the other in this regard, as someone from a different cultural background and include those who have a different skin color than the dominant group. This can also be seen in Arizona, in the particularly bitter verbal attacks against immigrants. The rhetoric of shutting others out (i.e., “illegal aliens”) because of the perceived danger they bring and thus preserving the “American way of life” is not the kind of hope to which I refer in my study.

Hope has also been used as a reference a possession, or a last resort (Lynch, 1974). He describes hope’s “bad reputation” (p. 22), in the example of a person who is in a state of depression. This person only has hope left because everything else has been lost. Used in this way, hope induces pity, rather than action.

A shift in the way hope was viewed in the medical field took place in the latter part of the 20th century. Snyder (2000) describes how physicians began to view hope as having a “placebo-like” (p. 4) effect on patients. Psychology took up this idea, resulting in psychologists in the 1970s and 1980s to rethink the possible effects of hope in light of the “involvement of negative thoughts and emotions in poor health” (p. 5). Through his research on goal thinking, Snyder (2000) studied the ways people thought about their goals and the types of

thoughts that came with determining a plan of action to reach their goals. This led Snyder to describe a person's desire to achieve their goals as "agency." A person's thoughts of agency required "directed thinking or hope" (p. 8). Snyder defines hope as "the sum of perceived capabilities to produce routes to desired goals, along with the perceived motivation to use those routes" (p. 8).

Hope as a theory moves a person from understanding the best paths to reach one's goals and then putting the goals into practice (Curry & Snyder, 2000). Snyder (2000) describes hope theory as an "interrelated system of thought" (p. 13). The operationalizing of hope theory requires that an individual's goals are clearly defined and articulated, along with strategies to reach said goals. The individual must also engage in "agency thoughts," (p. 10) which are ideas or motivations people draw upon as a catalyst for change. Lopez, Rose, Robinson, Marques, & Pais-Ribiero, (2009) studied the use of hope theory to promote hope in schoolchildren and teachers. These researchers first measured hope in children and then began working with teachers to help students develop strategies to create and reach goals, and work through possible challenges. Their work effectively ties hope into the possibility for change and actualizing change within education. Change toward creating more equitable educations setting for all students.

Hope has also been used as a method. Miyazaki (2004) describes hope as a method in that it is both bound in the present moment, but also looks to the future. He used this concept of hope as a method for understanding how a displaced group continues to fight for their tribal homeland in Fiji. In his work,

hope was described as a method or a route to knowing a cultural history as a way to reclaim the past and future taken away from the Fijians.

Hope for change. Those who believe that hope is the possibility of change, as I do, must recognize this does not imply any “quick fix.” To be hopeful requires that we work in spite of challenges and oppositional forces, to keep going in spite of obstacles by finding new or different ways around them. Simon (1992) reiterates this further by saying, “hope is a commitment to responsibility” (p. 4). I perceive hope as encompassing a commitment for being engaged in the process for the long haul. West (2008) equates this commitment to being a “long distance runner” (p. 209). While a long distance runner may be on a team and train with others, during the actual distance event, runners are required to draw from their personal endurance in order to travel many miles on their own. Hutschnecker (1981) alludes to this relentless pursuit in his own story of escape from behind enemy lines during World War I:

Even at its darkest moments and at times of utter despair the light of hope have never been fully extinguished. It has kept on flickering in the minds of men and women who psychologically have been structured to approach life with hope and thus have the moral strength to endure catastrophes, resist torment, or be lost in the trivial-even if resistance means personal pain and deprivation. These people have carried the torch of civilization forward because of their strong beliefs and their visions of a happier destiny for mankind. (p. 245)

This type of hope requires what Grey (2001) calls a “hoping beyond hope” (p. 6). It is rooted in the deep belief and need to keep taking the next step in efforts to change societal injustices. For Grey, the absence of hope is the equivalent of being “...trapped. It is to be helpless, to have no sense that it is worth getting out of bed, or taking a decision,” (p. 6). In this sense, I believe hope

is the belief in possibilities for change to occur, the action taken toward creating change, and the resource from which to draw in making those changes.

Difference between hope and optimism/wishes. While reviewing the literature about hope and the connections between hope and education I became aware that it would be important to distinguish hope and optimism because in the public arena, there appears to be very little difference between these words. One only has to see how prevalent the word hope is by watching television for an hour. Commercials abound with the word hope” being used as describing something found in a McDonald’s “Happy Meal” to hope being used in connection to winning a lottery.

In *Teaching Against the Grain*, Simon (1992) discusses the difference between wishes and hope. He describes wishes as doing “nothing” (p. 3) because they are the stuff of daydreams, not rooted in daily lives. Simon’s vision of hope is that it is fundamentally different from wishes because hope is open to “human attachments, expressions, and assertions” (p. 3) and thus acted upon.

Hutschnecker (1981) differentiated hope as being either active or passive. Active hope propels a person into doing. It is what drives a person to “overcome obstacles that block his or her way toward a chosen goal” (p. 16). Passive hope is similar to optimism, in that passive hope only serves as something unreachable and is forged in fantasy. As a psychiatrist, Hutschnecker (1981) believed that the power of hope could literally be a matter of life and death:

Passive hope is the bread and wine of the poor. ...People who live on passive hope dream of riches and miracles and a good fairy to take them by the hand (p. 31). ...If we can learn to hope, we can learn to live. As

Pliny the Elder said almost two thousand years ago, “Hope is the pillar that holds up the world.” (p. 39)

This is similar to Freire’s (1997) discussion of hope as an ontological need. Hope is as necessary as oxygen to living.

Similar to Hutschnecker’s (1981) idea of passive hope, Duncan-Andrade (2009) makes reference to optimism or “false hope” as “hokey-hope,” describing it as the hope that comes from the belief that if we just believe, we can pull ourselves up by our proverbial bootstraps whether or not we have shoes (p. 182). This type of hope is referred to by Murad (2010) as a Western colonial hope, built on a Disney narrative of either wishing upon a star to make your dreams come true or hope for a specific life, e.g. well-paying job, home ownership, happy marriage (to a person of the opposite gender) and children. These notions of hope are based on heteronormative and white colonial privilege.

Freire (1997) further discusses that a belief in hope alone to “transform the world...is an excellent route to hopelessness, pessimism, and fatalism” (p. 8). He writes, “...hope needs practice in order to become historical concreteness. That is why there is no hope in sheer hopefulness. The hoped-for is not attained by dint of raw hoping. Just to hope is to hope in vain” (p. 9).

Each of these authors support the notion that hope needs to be connected outside of an individual person (for example, hope that education can be a site where power relations are analyzed and discussed in a way to disrupt the status quo) and needs to be practiced in order for hope to be realized. A person who has hope does not only wish for transformation to occur, but acts on that hope to

transform (Simon, 1992). This is reflective of my conception of enacting a critical pedagogy.

Between hope and despair. Scholarship on hope also suggests that to understand hope, an individual also must understand despair. It is in the recollection of one's lowest points that an individual can recall the ways they escaped the dark (Awbrey, 1999; Simon, Rosenberg, & Eppert, 2000; West, 2008). Palmer (2000) believes that it is in understanding the contrasts between light and dark that enables people to perceive the power of dark times. He uses these ideas to highlight how to move toward light using the metaphor of light and dark in art. Elias Canetti, as quoted in *Newsweek* (Theroux, 2011) in response to the devastation of the earthquakes and subsequent tsunami in Japan said, "Once (fear) has been overcome, it turns into hope" (p. 3). Further, West (2008) and Simon, Rosenberg, and Eppert (2000) stated that without despair, there is no hope. In other words, it is only possible to understand hope within the misery of things that occur in our own lives or through the lives of others. Hope requires wrestling with the injustices of the world rather than a wistful optimism that things will get better.

Hope can diminish or cease to exist in everyone's life at one point or another. These time periods vary for every person and situation. Cornel West (2008) relates this absence or diminished hope to despair. Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder (2000) describe it as apathy. Snyder explains the process of moving from hope to apathy as paralleling the psychological stages of hope, rage, despair, and apathy that occurs when a plan created to enact change is blocked (Snyder, 1994

in Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000; p. 41). For many, including educators, this move from hope to apathy or despair is often due to burnout (Hutschnecker, 1981; Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000). Burnout can occur when work is always piling up, a job is no longer rewarding, and individuals feel like nothing is changing despite their best efforts (Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000). Taking time to reflect and stepping away can help a person move back toward hope.

Critical Pedagogy as a Pedagogy of Hope

I move now to discussing the relationship between critical pedagogy and pedagogy of hope to illustrate my understanding of critical pedagogy as being a pedagogy of hope. To begin this discussion I drew from Freire's *Pedagogy of Hope* (1997), in it is his call to recreate the world through a progressive approach to educating. He advocates for critical analysis in order to bring hope into view. He calls for teachers to not only understand their own positions but also seek to understand the positionality of their students. Freire (1998a) further calls for educators to reflect critically on their practice and the power dimensions enacted in their classrooms.

Critical pedagogy emerged in the 1980s from a combination of work from the Frankfurt school, Freire, and the work of Gramsci (1971). Issues of social justice have been a major impetus for taking up a critical pedagogy (Lather, 2001). McLaren (2003) writes that while critical pedagogy does not have "set ideals" (p. 186) critical pedagogy is grounded in issues of power and transforming inequalities, and he has written about the diversity of those who engage with it (McLaren, 2009). Wink's (2005) definition of critical pedagogy as "the why that

leads to action” (p. 1) fits my use of critical pedagogy by suggesting that critical pedagogy is the rationale behind teaching. Through critical pedagogy, educators can dig beneath the surface of curriculum, pedagogy, and policy to discover why something has come to be; this discovery becomes an impetus to change.

Drawing from these existing conceptualizations, I define hope as a belief that transformation of the status quo can take place. Additionally, I assert that such a transformation has the potential to move educators toward creating a more just society by exploring, critiquing, and reflecting upon social, class, heteronormative, ethnic, and gender relations. As such, my belief in hope for education is tied to critical pedagogy and its potential to deconstruct issues contributing to injustice and move toward creating change to disrupt those injustices. McLaren (2003) makes the connection of hope in educational contexts in describing critical pedagogy as a way to “provide historical, cultural, political, and ethical direction for those in education who still dare to hope” (p. 186). Critical pedagogy “seeks to take action to improve teaching and learning in schools and in life” (Wink, 2005, p. 23). I assert that before it is possible to take such action, one must have hope that improvements are possible. Critical pedagogues should use a language of possibility for educators to engage in a project of hope to construct “social relations free of injustice” (Giroux, 1997, p. 219). This language of possibility requires teacher educators to engage in activities that interrogate issues of power and possibility (1997). In order for understandings of diversity and inequality to lead to actions that disrupt injustice, they must be grounded in hope that is based in an ethical truth (Freire, 1997;

Oakes & Lipton, 2007). This ethical truth is based in having openness to others' beliefs, as opposed to a position of morality, which is grounded in western colonial thought. Hope anchors critical pedagogy in the possibility that transformation can occur.

Presently, teacher educators who engage in critical pedagogy and want to relay a comprehensive view of the curriculum and methods of teaching within contexts of power differentials, justice, and equity issues may feel pressured to cut their curriculum to meet the standards for teacher education required by the state. Multiple mandates, reforms, and efforts to standardize curricula in P-20 education make it difficult for teacher educators to remain hopeful. Yet, Duncan-Andrade (2009) states that when educators give in and take critical pedagogy out of the curriculum because of externalized standards, hope is effectively deferred.

While many teacher education programs have classes covering politics in education and history and philosophies of education, I assert that teacher educators must engage students in these complicated conversations (Pinar, 2004) throughout their programs of study. Although these conversations can be uncomfortable, we must do so in ways that utilize non-banking forms of education, such as Freire's (2000) advocacy for engaging in dialogue. When educators attempt critical pedagogy through lectures rather than dialogue, students may view this as "brainwashing or left wing indoctrination" (personal communication with faculty member, 2009). Possibly because of this trend, education, particularly teacher education, has become a process of acquisition of

skills and credentials, rather than a participation in these “complicated conversations” (Pinar, 2004).

Using a critical pedagogy with preservice teachers makes space for these kinds of inquiries. Giroux (1988) also has expressed the necessity of teacher education as a site for preservice teachers to learn “to assume the role of transformative intellectuals, treat students as critical agents, question how knowledge is produced and distributed, utilize dialogue, and make knowledge meaningful, critical, and ultimately emancipatory” (p. 175). Critical pedagogy names, reflects critically, and leads to action based on questioning the values and politics that have saturated education with technical “best” education practices. Further, critical pedagogy illuminates the inequities played out in society.

Changes connected to critical pedagogy, which may lead to a greater understanding of power relations between race, class, gender, and sexuality, may be more easily said than done. Sarason (1996) explains that a primary difficulty in enacting change in education is the requirement for educators to confront their own practices, beliefs, and curriculum. This is often painful and emotional work demanding that educators “view ourselves as a tesseract cube,” a 4-D cube that can be understood by pulling it apart. This requires teacher educators to view themselves from multiple perspectives and reflect on where they are complicit in developing our own deficit model of education (McDermott, 2009). Boler (1999) describes this type of pedagogy for teacher and students as being “a pedagogy of discomfort” (p. 175). The discomfort is from the painful recognition and process that occurs when understanding where we are complicit in the oppression of

others. It is the uncomfortable silence in a classroom when issues of power and privilege are discussed and deconstructed (Boler, 2004).

Some educators (Kincheloe, 1993; Pinar, 2004) have critiqued technicist models of teacher education which “promote a passive view of teachers... as rule followers who are rendered more ‘supervisable’ with their standardized lesson plan formats and their adaption to technical evaluation plans” (Kincheloe, 1993, p. 34). I am not denouncing these critiques of education. In fact, I agree that much of what is missing in teacher preparation consists of the contextual pieces highlighting the processes of privileging what and how to teach. In other words, who decides the curriculum, teacher educators, teachers, politicians, or communities? Generally speaking, it is those in positions of power.

Critical pedagogy and progressives will need to do more than “merely embrace a language of critique; they will have to engage in a discourse of hope—a hope that is concrete, rooted in real struggles, and capable of inspiring a new language... and collective vision” (Giroux, 2009, p. 251). Further, critical pedagogy requires us to draw upon our imaginations for hope to endure and be a catalyst for change (Greene, 2009). Cornell West (2008) calls this “hope on a tightrope,” illustrating the challenges involved with hope and the ways this process requires focus and commitment.

Freire emphasized that pedagogy must include a “teachable heart...(and) the teachable mind” (McLaren, 2000, p. 161). This type of pedagogy requires teachers and students to be open to questioning what and how we are learning as well as its historical context. McLaren describes Freire’s emphasis on the

necessity of taking on injustices not with “a naïve utopian faith in the future; rather, (as a) presage form of active, irreverent, and uncompromising hope in the possibilities of the present” (Freire, in McLaren, 2000, p. 165). Teacher educators must then commit to looking inward and to critiquing ourselves—actions which lead to conscientization (Freire, 2000; West, 2008). Further, tying critical pedagogy and hope as a struggle rather than mere optimism, I turn to Cornel West (2008) who writes, “real hope is grounded in a particularly messy struggle and it can be betrayed by naïve projections of a better future that ignores the necessity of doing the real work” (p. 6). Real hope requires us to get our hands dirty rather than watch from the sidelines. It is only in this way that we can move from critique to action (Ball, 2011; Grumet, 2010; West, 2008). Real hope requires a person to “be willing to live the truth” (West, 2008; p. 15).

Summary

Pedagogies of hope require those involved (teachers and students) to work to uncover the contexts of education including its history, to understand the privilege and oppression where the curriculum is rooted (Freire, 1997; 1998a; 1998b; West, 2008). I believe critical pedagogy is grounded in hope. Critical pedagogy requires undertaking an educational practice that digs below the surface of what is in the standards, tests, and texts. From this perspective, teacher educators must engage with the curricula rather than accepting it at face value (West, 2008). It is through this engagement that stems from a hope that education could be otherwise and lead toward change that educators move toward transforming their practices. The frames of critical pedagogy and hope helped me

to reflect how teacher educators understand hope within their own contexts and, through their own words, begin to comprehend what hope means when preparing preservice teachers, while recognizing my own positionality in this process.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS AND ANALYSIS

The overarching purpose of this study was to explore the ways teacher educators understand hope within the field and practice of teacher preparation. This study also emerged from a desire to understand what hope meant for my own practice as a teacher educator. I left my high school teaching position in part because I had begun to lose hope that education could create change. In undertaking the topic of teacher educators' notions of hope, I sought to examine the reflections and perspectives of teacher educators about hope in and for teacher education and I embarked on a multiple method study. Erickson (1986) posits that interpretive research seeks to "discover the specific ways in which local and nonlocal forms of social organization and culture relate to the activities of specific persons in making choices and conducting social action together" (p. 129). Keeping this in mind, I designed an interpretive, multiple method study using an e-survey, interviews, and an e-writing prompt to learn about how non-local (federal) and local (program and institution) organizations may related to teacher educators' notions of hope.

Researchers who embark on multiple methods projects must first recognize the importance of identifying one's own methodological positionality (Greene, 2007; Smith, 1997). My mental model is rooted in the belief that the world is contextually and relationally based and can be understood, in part, by engaging in a qualitative understanding of the world. As such, I was not seeking a universal truth or a definitive understanding of hope. Thus, I did not privilege

quantitative data in my analysis. Rather, I perceived quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses as being complementary to each other and I used both to broaden my general understanding of the phenomenon of hope and teacher educators' notions of it (Smith, 1997). I perceived that each method would bring a different perspective in uncovering teacher educators' notions of hope by helping me understand more about the participants, their ideas about educating teachers, and about the role of hope. In my role as the researcher, I identified with Kvale's (1996) metaphor of the "traveler... [which] refers to a postmodern constructive understanding that involves a conversational approach to research" (p. 4-5). Specifically, I used this metaphor during the interview process to recount what I heard and read by reconstructing participants' narratives in the form of vignettes as I 'traveled' with them through their conversations.

The two phases of data collection were (a) the quantitative method of an electronic survey (e-survey) with open-ended questions and (b) the qualitative method of interviewing and soliciting responses to a writing prompt. The empirical components of my study included 834 total started e-surveys, 628 completed e-surveys, 23 interviews, and 25 writing prompt responses. All participants are, or had been involved in preparing preservice teachers. Participants included tenured/tenure-track faculty, clinical faculty, faculty associates, and graduate assistants at different levels of experience from public and private colleges and universities in the U.S. Additional information about the participants will be described later in this chapter.

As described above, I collected my data by using an e-research approach. Anderson and Kanuka (2003) describe e-research as research that uses the Internet as the primary tool for data collection, analysis, or literature reviews. I used e-research to assist with the literature review, as the primary method of data collection, and to analyze the quantitative data with PASW 18 (formerly SPSS) through my university's software applications. Next, I explain my rationale for using a multiple methods approach to understand teacher educators' notions of hope.

Suitability of a Multiple Methods Approach

I utilized Graue and Walsh's (1998) work on using multiple methods of analysis to allow for deeper and richer levels of understanding, and to look more closely into contexts described by the participants themselves. Smith (1986) discusses using multiple methods to approach a study because, "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" (p. 37). She describes a multiple methodological approach as one using "at least one quantitative and one qualitative method to produce knowledge" (Smith, 2006, p. 458). I used a multiple method approach to "extend categories and propositions" (Morse, 2003, p. 41) of teacher educators' notions of hope through a survey questionnaire, writing prompts, and interviews. Each set of data was collected separately using a two-phased approach (Morse, 2003). The purpose of collecting data in two phases was two-fold. First, I used an on-line survey, referred to as an e-survey, to better understand who teaches preservice teachers (Anderson & Kanuka, 2003) and second, I wanted to be able to develop interview questions from the survey responses.

There were three kinds of data collected within this multiple methods study. I implemented an e-survey, follow-up interviews with survey respondents, and an on-line writing prompt. I sent an e-survey to a purposive sample of faculty at universities and colleges across the U.S. to garner a wide-angle view of the types of individuals engaged in teacher preparation and to understand how faculty in teacher preparation programs understood hope. By purposive, I mean there was a rationale or purpose to the types of individuals selected rather than just randomly selecting participants (Patton, 1990; Trochin, 2006). For example, I wanted the sample to include faculty from all ranks, levels of certification, and subject area. I used interviews and an on-line writing prompt to gather context-specific understandings of how teacher educators thought about hope, their sources of hope or loss of hope related to teacher education, and the ways their understandings influenced their curricular and pedagogical choices. This combination of e-surveys, interviews, and writing prompts allowed me to discover specific ways teacher educators understand hope and the ways those understandings inform the choices they make in their teaching practices. These methods of collecting data are consistent with conducting an interpretive study (Greene, 2007; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999; Smith, 1986; 1997; 2006; Spradley, 1979) and a multi-method study (Greene, 2007; Morse, 2003; Smith, 1986; 1997; 2006).

The e-survey was distributed on-line through the secure website, QuestionPro, to the purposive sample of teacher educators across the U.S. as I collected quantitative data. According to Anderson and Kanuka (2003), there are

three main purposes for using e-surveys: (a) to gather descriptive information on the target population; (b) to determine statistical associations between data items; and (c) to explore questions or issues (p. 147). Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) also suggest the use of e-surveys as a way to access large numbers of participants in a short amount of time. The e-survey platform QuestionPro automatically assigns a numeric identifier for participants, which keeps the names of each participant confidential, an important factor when using e-surveys (Dillman, et al, 2009). QuestionPro also provided a mechanism to categorize participants' descriptive demographic information (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, years as a teacher educator, if and what each taught in P-12 and in higher education) in an efficient manner (see Appendix B for e-survey).

In the second phase of data collection, I gathered qualitative data through in-depth interviews and soliciting responses to an on-line writing prompt. The interviews were an important means for me to better understand why a participant answered a question in a certain way. The interviews also helped me understand the teacher educators' experiences through their own narratives. Through these multiple modes of data collection (e-survey, interviews, and writing prompts), I cast a wide net to ensure I would be able to capture confirming and disconfirming evidence (Smith, personal communication, October 13, 2009). I describe each phase of data collection in greater detail in the following sections.

Participants

I sought a purposive sample of teacher educators from a diverse range with respect to content areas, career path, age, gender, race/ethnicity, and

university type to participate in this study, so that I could represent faculty teaching in preservice education (Kvale, 1996). To do this, it was important for me to first secure a representative sample of higher education institutions and faculty type in order to capture the diversity and breadth of institutional types with programs that prepare teachers (Fraser, 2007; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Ogren, 2005). Therefore, I started by developing a purposive sample of universities and colleges from all 50 states and the District of Columbia (DC) using the following websites: <http://www.univsource.com/al.htm>, <http://www.50states.com/college/>, and literature on normal schools (Fraser, 2007; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Herbst, 1989; Ogren, 2005).

Institution selection. Institutions were selected based on student enrollment, Carnegie classifications, public and private classification, liberal arts colleges, religious institutions and institutions whose roots began as a normal school. I also sought representation from Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU), Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI), Tribal Colleges, and community and junior colleges. The institutions where participants were drawn from varied in size, location, and type, with at least two private and public institutions, one HBCU or HIS, and one institution affiliated with a religion from each state. Of the 235 different institutions represented in the initial e-survey mailing, 160 (68.1%) were public institutions and 75 (31.9%) were private.

Participant selection. My primary criterion for participant selection was to identify individuals who teach preservice teachers. As I did with institution type selection, I developed a list of possible participants by looking at institutional

web pages. Key words such as “teacher education” and “preservice teachers” guided participant selection, because they allowed me to perceive who was involved in preservice teacher preparation through institutional web directory searches and departmental/faculty web pages. I also considered variables such as faculty rank (tenured or tenure-track faculty, clinical faculty, lecturers, adjunct faculty or graduate students who taught methods courses in education with undergraduate prefixes), levels of preparation (early childhood, elementary, middle grades, and high school), and content area (language and literacy, mathematics, sciences, social studies, special education, art, dance, theater and music education). My goal was to create a list that included at least three faculty members from various content areas, faculty ranks, and levels of preparation from each institution.

Invitations were sent via email through QuestionPro to 3,849 prospective participants from 235 different higher education institutions across the U.S., from all 50 states, and DC. In the invitation, I embedded the e-survey link and IRB letter of consent to participate. (See Appendix A for the invitation to participate).

During Phase 1, the e-survey link was active for five months, from August 19, 2010 to December 30, 2010. There was a 16.3% response rate of individuals and a 71.9% completion rate for those who opened the survey. This resulted in 628 completed surveys and 873 incomplete surveys. The average length of time to complete the survey was 22 minutes. In order to protect the identity of participants in all phases of the study, I use pseudonyms for participants and broad descriptors for their home institutions.

While I did not seek the ability to define exactly what hope means for teacher educators, I wanted to ensure 5% statistical precision regarding the participants' responses, which is possible with 384 participants. Nor was I looking to see if participants corroborated my own personal definition of hope. Rather, I sought to understand their positions and perceptions of hope. The total number of completed surveys (638) ensures a 95% confidence rate in predicting that estimated results are accurate to a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$. This confidence rate increases the statistical power of the study and increased my ability to make inferences about the population.

Limitations with participant selection. Limitations of my methods for participant selection were based on inconsistencies of web page management of institutional and departmental web pages. For example, web pages were not always current; many did not list adjunct faculty, lecturers, or graduate teaching assistants on their education directories. A specific example of this occurred when a prospective participant informed me know that her college's web page was outdated. This prospective participant had not been involved in teacher education for several years and did not feel eligible to participate.

A second limitation was revealed when individuals replied to the invitation to participate that they were unable to fill out the survey because they were not, nor had ever been involved in teacher preparation. This was likely due to my misinterpretation of school web pages. Lastly, while there are a growing number of for-profit institutions (e.g., University of Phoenix and Walden University) and alternative routes to obtain teacher certification, I was unable to

include them in the sample because their institutional web pages do not include faculty email addresses.

Survey Development

I developed the survey instrument using steps suggested by Sudman and Bradburn (1982) and Dillman et al. (2007), which include: (a) determining the information needed (e.g. types of demographic information), (b) investigating questions pertaining to the topic, (c) searching for surveys on hope and education, (d) conducting a peer review of the questions, and (e) pilot testing the survey. Through this process, I drafted new questions and revised others (see Guerra, Gilbert, & Woehrstein, 2010; Mattos, 2009; Snyder, 2005). The e-survey was developed and formatted through QuestionPro, an online survey development site that assists in survey development, distribution, and analysis (see <http://www.questionpro.com/>). The e-survey was vetted through three survey research experts at three different universities and was piloted for clarity and length of time to complete. The pilot survey had five participants and included one Associate Professor, three doctoral teaching assistants, and a Clinical Associate Professor. I revised the survey based on feedback from the pilot and finalized it after a concluding evaluation by an outside survey consultant.

Using the e-survey tool (QuestionPro) had several advantages. First, it minimized costs of mailing the survey, (\$130 as compared to an anticipated cost of \$1578). Second, the e-survey saved time by providing immediate feedback from respondents. Third, data collected through the QuestionPro platform could

be downloaded as files compatible with PASW (.sav) and Microsoft excel (.xls) directly to my computer, which facilitated analysis.

Data Collection

In this section, I describe the methods and process of data collection in two parts. In the first, I describe the e-survey data collection. In the second, I describe the process of collecting data through in-depth interviews and the writing prompt.

Phase 1: E-survey. The e-survey follows Erickson's (1986) approach to interpretive research as a way to gain a wide view of the study. The e-survey was used to secure a representative sample from diverse teacher education programs and faculty types. In addition, I was able to gain preliminary insight into participants' perspectives regarding teacher education at their university and in the U.S., their perceived goals of teacher education, and their teaching philosophies. I included open-ended questions in the e-survey to help me begin to understand teacher educators' perspectives about teacher preparation and preservice teachers at their institution and nationally. This allowed me to explore my overarching research question: what are teacher educators' understandings of hope about teacher education, along with two of my subsequent questions: (a) how do teacher educators come to this understanding, and (b) what do teacher educators believe is the role of hope in teacher education?

As Anderson & Kanuka (2003) explain, I was able to answer these larger questions through the use of "open-ended questions and spaces for comments... [which] allow respondents the maximum freedom to reflect their thoughts and

feelings” (p. 147). Of particular use to me was the open-ended question, which inquired into (a) whether or not participants have hope for the field and practice of teacher education, (b) the source of said hope, (c) what that hope means to them personally, and (d) if they had lost hope, how this occurred. This and other open-ended questions enabled me to gain a general overview of the teacher educators’ perspectives of hope.

Phase 2: Interviews and writing prompts. Phase 2 of data collection consisted of e-interviews (20 interviews were conducted virtually thru Skype™, three were conducted in-person) and an online writing prompt. Interviews allowed me to clarify participants’ answers and enabled me to learn more about my research questions. Particularly, interviews helped me understand how and why these teacher educators went into the field, the experiences that shaped their views on hope, the roles of hope in their curricular and pedagogical practices, and how if at all, they maintain hope.

The intent of the writing prompt was two-fold. First, I wanted to learn about teacher educators’ sources of hope/hopelessness. The second intent of the writing prompt was to capitalize on the large number of participants (336) who had expressed interest in being interviewed. The sheer number of participants made it impossible for me to interview more than the purposive sample. Phase 2 took place between November 23, 2010 and January 5, 2011.

Phase 2 participants. In order to determine participants for the second phase, I used PASW 18 to draw a randomized sample from the 336 individuals who had indicated interest to participate in interviews in their e-survey responses.

The PASW 18 program allows the user to request a particular number or percentage of a data set to be randomly selected. I based the randomized sample on the percentages of faculty type who completed the e-survey to try to obtain a representative sample similar to the overall participant data set. The full data set was comprised of Full Professors, which constituted 21% of respondents, 30% Associate Professors, 29% Assistant Professors, and 20% Clinical Faculty, Lecturers, or graduate assistants. Thus, my randomized sample drew six Full Professors, ten Associate Professors, nine Assistant Professors, and five participants drawn from non-tenure-track faculty.

I also selected five other participants from the pool of 336. These were individuals that I purposively wanted to interview because of their responses to the e-survey. An e-invitation was sent through QuestionPro to 35 potential interview participants (see invitation in Appendix D). Both the interview and writing prompt invitations were sent simultaneously. As such, data collection also occurred during the same time frame (November through January).

Writing prompt. The writing prompt asked for a written response to the following prompt: “‘Hope’ is a concept that often appears in discussions about teachers and teacher education. Please provide an example and your understanding of ‘hope’ (or lack of it) in teacher education. Explain with as much detail as possible.” This invitation to participate in the writing prompt was sent to survey participants who were not selected for interviews through the randomized or purposive sample. An e-invitation was sent through QuestionPro to participate in the writing prompt to 301 potential participants, which included a link

embedded in the consent form to the actual writing prompt to be completed through QuestionPro (see invitation in Appendix C). One individual responded to the writing prompt requesting to be interviewed instead of responding to the prompt, a request I chose to honor. Twenty-five participants completed the writing prompt (response rate of 8%).

Interviews. I sent electronic invitations to the randomized and purposive sample of 35 teacher educators who indicated an interest to participate in the interviews with the IRB consent form embedded in the email and the one writing prompt participant who asked to be interviewed instead. Once a participant consented to the interview, I contacted her/him via email to set up a time and to determine their preferred mode of communication (phone, Skype™, or in-person).

Skype™ is a free software download that allows its users to videoconference, instant message, chat, or have phone conversations through an Internet connection. Phone calls can also be made through Skype™ to land and cell phone lines. The interviews were recorded through Skype™ using the Internet application Call Recorder (<http://www.skype.com/getconnected/>; <http://www.ecamm.com/mac/callrecorder/>). The Call Recorder function was used because of its ease in transferring to an mp3 file for transcription purposes.

Twenty-three participants accepted the e-invitation and participated in interviews (64% response rate). I corresponded with each participant via e-mail to determine the date, time, and (when applicable) the place for the interview. In total, three interviews were completed in person and recorded with a digital recorder, and 20 interviews were conducted via Skype™ or using Skype™'s

phone feature. All of the interview times and places were determined by each participant.

I began each interview by asking if the participant had any questions about the IRB form I sent and if she/he was comfortable with me recording the conversation and taking memos during the interview. All interviews were recorded with the participants' permission using a digital recording device or using the recording feature on Skype™ (Call Recorder), and backed up with another recording device when possible. I also took memos throughout the interviews to help keep an accurate record of the conversation. My memos helped me order my questions and assisted in generating follow-up questions to probe for clarity. The average length of time for the interviews was 25 minutes.

To establish rapport with the interviewees, I began the interview informally by thanking them for taking the time to talk with me and for completing the e-survey. I inquired about their teaching that semester. The formal part of the interview started with a question about the participants' journey in becoming a teacher educator, prefacing the question from the e-survey. For example, I might have said, "I noticed you have been a teacher educator for x years and that you taught in P-12 settings for x years." During the interview, I included information provided by participants in their e-survey to preface other questions or to help expand a question's response.

The in-depth nature of these interviews allowed me to explore hope in greater detail. In-depth, open-ended interviews are inherently demanding and require the researcher to be approachable with and to participant's responses. As

such, I tried to be conscious about the possibility of leading the interviewee to an answer based on how I asked a question by consistently referring back to my interview protocol (Schensul et. al, 1999).

Interview questions. I developed interview questions based on the literature on hope in teacher education and from an initial analysis of the open-ended survey questions about hope. Some of the interview questions included:

1. Tell me how and why you became a teacher educator.
2. What type of a word is hope (verb, noun, etc.)? Please explain what you mean.
3. What is an example of “hope” in teacher education?
4. What is an example of a “lack of hope” in teacher education?
5. Is there room or place for hope in your curriculum/pedagogical practices?
6. How do you maintain hope? (See Appendix E for the entire interview transcript.)

As the interviewer, I followed a general sequence of themes as well as specific questions. Semi-structured interviews supported narratives about participants’ views and perspectives of hope, teacher education, and the intersections between hope and teacher education. I used semi-structured interviews because it gave me flexibility to change the sequence of questions and themes. It also allowed for the possibility of going beyond the set questions, based on participants’ survey responses and responses to interview questions (Kvale, 1996; Torres, 1998).

Bullough & Gitlin (1995) remind us that our lives as teachers “are grounded biographically” (p. 11). Further, they suggest “if teacher education is to make a difference, it must start with biography and find ways to identify, clarify, articulate, and critique the assumptions-the personal theories-about teaching, learning, students, and education embedded within it” (p.11). To that end, I drew heavily from narrative inquiry methods’ approaches to conduct the kinds of interviews that elucidate how one’s biography influences how a person thinks and acts (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Connelly & Clandinin, 2006). In using this narrative approach, it was important to engage participants in the interviews by having them reflect on how they came to understand hope in education, how hope is reflected in their current practices, how they maintain hope, and how they envision hope for the future of teacher education.

Once each interview was completed, I converted the saved .wmv files to mp3 files and sent them to a professional transcription service for transcription. I chose to use a transcription service in order to complete interviews and analysis in a timely manner. This also allowed me to continue to analysis the data from the e-survey.

Data Management

Due to the amount of data collected, I found it necessary to manage the quantitative and qualitative data separately. This section discusses the data management systems I used to facilitate analysis.

Quantitative data. To manage the e-survey data, I used a mathematics and statistical software program (PASW 18) to support the quantitative data

analysis. This software also enabled me to select randomized participant samples for the writing prompt and interviews.

Qualitative data. To manage and organize the qualitative data collected all interview transcripts, open-ended hope survey questions, and writing prompts were loaded into HyperRESEARCH. HyperRESEARCH, introduced publicly in 1991, is an established data management system that allowed me to work with transcripts (text and audio) and code the data as assertions (<http://www.researchware.com/products/hyperresearch.html>). Further, I was able to memo within the text and view assertions in context. These features helped me visually represent confirming and disconfirming evidence as my assertions emerged. I also used the software to create a report of the assertions to display the number of times a code was used in the data set.

Data Analysis

I drew my chief methods of analysis from Erickson's (1986) modified analytic induction. Modified analytic induction allowed me to recognize patterns of meaning through a systematic approach of looking at the data. Polkinghorne (1995) suggests that inductive analysis is useful in analyzing data because it finds both confirming and disconfirming evidence. I explain this process in more detail in the qualitative analysis section. This type of analysis informed my study because inductive analysis allowed me to gain a broad understanding of the participants from the survey and subsequently aided in the design and refinement of the interview questions.

Survey/quantitative analysis. The survey data and my analysis of it was my initial window into my findings. QuestionPro allowed me to download the survey data as a Microsoft Excel file, .sav file to be used in SPSS or PASW, and as a PowerPoint. QuestionPro also enabled me to view the data in real time and by individual participant.

Initial analysis of the survey data indicated that 45 participants started and stopped the survey more than once, or had completed the survey more than one time. These patterns were discerned through multiples of the same email address or Internet Protocol (IP) address. To ensure that a participant was not counted more than once, after I downloaded the survey as a Microsoft Excel file, I searched for duplicates using both IP addresses and email addresses collected from the survey. For those participants who initiated the survey more than one time, I retained the most complete survey and deleted the other(s). From this point, descriptive statistics were calculated and analyzed using PASW 18 (formerly known as SPSS) to ensure data was entered correctly, create new codes for variables, and determine the frequencies of variables. Codes were used only to perform the analyses.

As I began analysis of the survey data, I examined demographic data, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, alongside faculty rank, whether or not the participants taught in P-12 settings, and the length of time in the field of teacher education, to develop a mental picture of the individuals who teach preservice teachers. The descriptive analyses of these data are discussed in detail in Chapter 4. Three sets of the data were developed: (a) a data set of participants who

completed the survey; (b) a data set of participants who answered the question about hope (whether or not the survey was completed); and (c) a data set of participants who did not answer the question about hope (whether or not the survey was completed).

In order to meet significance requirements, the logistical regression (conducted with the dependent variable of a participant response of having hope) needed to have a p value equal to or lower than 0.05. This was not met when the analysis was completed with the data, due to the heterogeneity of the independent variables' frequencies. This is called a Type 2 error because there was not a large enough sample size for variables to have enough power to make an inference. The frequency tables for age and ethnicity/race can be found in Chapter 4. The results of the binary logistic regression can be found in later in this chapter for the analysis of ethnicity/race, faculty rank, and age as independent variables.

After the descriptive analysis was conducted, an independent quantitative expert completed logistic regressions. The rationale for conducting a logistic regression rather than a linear regression was that we could not meet the distributional assumptions of regression. That is to say, data were not normally distributed, nor was the outcome measure continuous. The outcome measure was hope or no hope. To use regression in conjunction with a dichotomous outcome measure, we were forced to use logistic regression as it exclusively predicts these kinds of outcome measures. Moreover, multinomial logistic regression was not used because there were only two outcome categories (hope or no hope), rather than continuous outcome measure. Logistic regression is robust with respect to

small sample sizes and violations of equal variance assumptions. For all these reasons, logistic regression was chosen for the analysis.

Particular variables and models of fit were created to test each variable against the dependent variable of hope. This analysis was completed on three different variations of the e-survey data set. The first variation of the logistic regression was performed on the data for all participants who responded to the question asking, “if they had hope for teacher education.” The second variation of the data set was of all participants who did not respond either way to the question on hope. The purpose behind the second variation was to see if there was a variable that increased the probability of a person answering the hope question. The third variation was conducted on the data set for those who completed the e-survey regardless if they answered the question on hope.

The purpose behind these analyses was twofold. First, it enabled me to see if there was a relationship between the specific variables and the dependent variable of hope, and whether that relationship increased the likelihood for a person to have hope (for example, looking at the relationship of age to having hope). In particular, I wanted to see if I was able to reject the null hypotheses, which suggested age, ethnicity, or faculty rank did not affect hope in teacher education. Specifically, in this case, logistic regression enabled me to produce estimates of effects on hope. The independent variables used are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1

Variables Used in the Logistic Regression

Variable Category	Variables
Personal and Demographic	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Currently teaching preservice teachers 2. Retired faculty 3. Faculty rank 4. Years in preservice teacher education 5. Level of preservice teacher preparation 6. Types of courses taught (grouped) 7. Teaching philosophy (grouped) 8. Ethnicity/Race 9. Gender 10. Age
Institution	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Institution type 2. Institution location
P-12	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. P-12 Teaching experience 2. Years teaching P-12 3. P-12 Administration experience 4. Years in P-12 administration 5. Level of P-12 teaching 6. Level of P-12 administration
Teacher Preparation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Type of preparation program 2. Quality of US teacher preparation 3. Quality of institution's teacher preparation 4. Type of job teacher preparation program is doing 5. Relevancy of teacher preparation to P-12 contexts 6. Preparation for how P-12 schools are run 7. Opinion regarding whether changes necessary in preservice education 8. Opinion regarding whether teaching can be a more prestigious career
Preservice Teacher	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Opinion regarding whether competency tests should be required for entry into teacher preparation programs 2. Opinion regarding who should be accountable for a student's failing a credentialing exam 3. Opinion regarding what qualities should be changed in teacher candidates

A binary logistic regression with a repeated categorical follow-up test was conducted so that no specific reference category was necessary, since categories were not dependent on another group. The potential predictors of age, ethnicity, and faculty rank were conducted separately in this analysis. The results of the binary logistic regressions using age, ethnicity/race, and faculty rank are displayed in Tables 2-4.

Table 2

Binary Logistic Regression Output for Ethnicity/Race

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Exp(<i>B</i>)
Ethnicity/Race			2.422	10	.992	
Hispanic/Latina/o alone	19.498	12710.112	.000	1	.999	2.937E8
Hispanic/Latina/o in combination	-18.676	12710.112	.000	1	.999	.000
White alone	-0.640	0.515	1.545	1	.214	.527
White in combination	19.316	11602.880	.000	1	.999	2.448E8
African-American alone	.000	20097.093	.000	1	1.000	1.000
African-American in combination	.000	43412.035	.000	1	1.000	1.000
American Indian/Native American alone	.000	42628.442	.000	1	1.000	1.000
American Indian/Native American in combination	.000	42630.632	.000	1	1.000	1.000
Asian alone	.000	44936.904	.000	1	1.000	1.000
Asian in combination with combination	.000	22468.611	.000	1	1.000	1.000
Constant	-15.977	6100.160	.000	1	.998	.000

Table 3

Binary Logistic Regression Output for Faculty Rank

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Exp(<i>B</i>)
Faculty Rank			5.566	10	.850	
Full Professor	19.498	.445	.000	1	.795	.891
Associate Professor	-18.676	.478	.000	1	.321	1.608
Assistant Professor	-0.640	20097.512	1.545	1	.999	8.904E7
Professor of Practice	19.316	34809.088	.000	1	1.000	1.000
Clinical Professor	.000	40190.442	.000	1	1.000	1.000
Clinical Associate	.000	28418.527	.000	1	.999	.000
Clinical Assistant	.000	1.078	.000	1	.259	3.375
Lecturer	.000	1.263	.000	1	.855	1.259
Adjunct Faculty	.000	1.600	.000	1	.181	.118
Graduate Teaching Assistant	.000	1.425	.000	1	.145	8.000
Constant	-7.432	4085.096	.000	1	.999	.001

Table 4

Binary Logistic Regression Output for Age

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>Df</i>	<i>p</i>	Exp(<i>B</i>)
Age			11.50	9	.243	
30-34	19.006	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	1.795E8
35-39	17.142	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	2.785E7
40-44	18.143	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	7.573E7
45-49	17.109	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	2.692E7
50-54	19.123	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	2.019E8
55-59	18.441	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	1.020E8
60-64	19.222	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	2.228E8
65-69	18.836	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	1.515E8
70-74	20.103	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	5.385E8
Constant	-21.203	40193.106	.000	1	1.000	.000

The results show that there is no statistical significance to suggest that I can accept or reject the null hypothesis. This is due to a lack of power because of the sample sizes for the variables used were too small. A power calculation was also run to determine the minimum number of participants necessary to have enough power to determine statistical significance in order to reject or accept the null hypotheses (Tosteson, Buzas, Demidenko, & Karagas, 2003). This

calculation resulted in 72 as the minimum number of participants per ethnic/racial group to determine if ethnicity was related to responses that participants did have hope (yes or similar positive response). The graphs for these power analyses may be found in Appendix F and G.

Models of fit were built to perform a logistic regression. First, separate models for each predictor were built, which included a single predictor (i.e. age). The list of possible predictors was reduced based on overall model fit indices and significance tests, then, combinations of statistically significant predictors were examined for interaction. The models and results can be found in Appendix H. This analysis was also done to see if there was a predictor that might account for non-response items.

Qualitative analysis. I used modified analytic induction (Erickson, 1986) to analyze the qualitative data. In this section, I describe this process. The first round of qualitative analysis involved multiple readings of the open-ended responses from the e-survey question about hope. Within this process, I revised and added to my interview questions. The next step was to read the entire data corpus (open-ended questions on hope from the e-survey, the writing prompts, and interviews). Before doing so, I converted the e-survey data from a Microsoft Excel file to a Microsoft Word file and added the writing prompt and interview responses into the same document. The purpose of this initial reading was to begin to understand the data as a whole without making notes or highlighting the data. I reread the data corpus a second time to look for broad perspectives of the participants' understandings of hope. While rereading the data corpus, I made

notes of possible assertions and highlighted them. An assertion is a “statement of findings derived from... a systematic search for confirming and disconfirming evidence” (Smith, 1987, p. 177). The third reading of the data corpus was done in HyperRESEARCH, after I converted the Microsoft Word document to a text (.txt) file. During that reading, I developed an initial list of 33 assertions.

This process of rereading the data corpus enabled me to look at the “events within the setting...and begin (through analysis) to look for possible connections of influence between setting and its surrounding environments” (Erickson, 1986, p.143). I continued searching for both confirming and disconfirming evidence and culled a list of 12 assertions. This process involved searching for evidence within the data that corroborated assertions and allowed me to determine if there was enough evidence to warrant an assertion. Sifting through and analyzing the nuances of participants’ experiences and stories enabled me to glean contextual and theoretical understandings of teacher educators’ notions of hope as I created “thick descriptions” (Geertz, 1973). The final reading and analysis resulted in three assertions.

Assertions were developed through multiple readings and an iterative process of finding confirming and disconfirming evidence for the assertions (Erickson, 1986). The description of these assertions enabled me to represent participants’ understandings of hope within the context of their practice. This effort makes it possible to convince the reader that these understandings are trustworthy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tierney, 1998). To display the findings (in Chapter 4), I state the assertion and follow it with descriptions by providing

evidence through direct quotes from the participants' surveys and interviews, along with writing prompts.

Researcher Bias

All research has inherent bias because of the deliberate nature of determining a topic, deciding where to conduct the research, and choosing the participants with whom the researcher engages (Smith, 1986; 1997; 2006). I address bias by making “clear my own assumptions and how they frame my research” through journaling and discussing my assumptions with critical peers who did not participate in the study (Tierney, 1988, p. 54). My bias is first evident in the ways I chose the overall participant sample of teacher educators who met the requirements of the study. The main requirement for any participant was that she/he either be a current preservice teacher educator or have had previously taught preservice teachers. I chose to “study up” by inviting participants who hold symbolic positions of power because of their status as teacher educators (Priyadharshini, 2003). While I knew four of the interview participants personally, I had not been their student, nor had they held any position of authority over me, other than what may be deemed as symbolic power. I was not able to “do away” with the power circumstances in the relationships with the participants; however, as Tierney (1988) suggests, “if we cannot do away with it [power], we can at least try to understand the parameters of power and try to ameliorate these forms” (p. 68). The next section addresses issues of validity, which I discuss through the use of naturalistic inquiry's term of trustworthiness.

Trustworthiness

In naturalistic inquiry such as the study I conducted, validity's criteria are answered by responding to questions of applicability, consistency, and fidelity. Lincoln and Guba's (1985) terms of credibility are used to demonstrate internal validity and transferability to reflect external validity. Specifically, the criteria of credibility or trustworthiness was met through multiple contacts with participants, cross-checking of data through discussion of emerging assertions, and looking for data points that disconfirmed the developing themes with critical colleagues. Transferability of the themes can be seen in the thick descriptions developed using the particular details of events (Geertz, 1973).

Throughout the interview process and analysis, I tried to be cognizant of my own social location and dispositions by keeping a research journal and meeting with critical colleagues to help me manage bias and remain open to disconfirming evidence. These actions constitute my audit trail, and contribute to trustworthiness by ensuring the data collection and the analysis procedures could be followed by others (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Through the use of e-survey, writing prompts, and interviews, this study makes possible a more comprehensive account of the phenomenon of teacher educators' notions of hope. The complementary use of methods and an inductive approach to data analysis enhanced my ability to speak about hope as it pertains to teacher education. In the next chapter, I discuss findings from the data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER 4

HOPE SITUATED: DEFINING SOURCES, DETRACTORS, TYPES AND MAINTAINING HOPE

In this chapter, I discuss findings from this study in four separate sections related to my research questions. In the first section, I discuss the characteristics of the sample of teacher educators. To do this, I display and explain the descriptive information about participants from each of the study's two phases. The second thru fourth sections are an analysis and discussion of my assertions from the data related to hope. These assertions include: (a) "hope" is a construct, a mixture of abstract ideas, emotions, dispositions, and attitudes. Although it is hard to conceptualize or measure, hope nonetheless appears to be a relevant and influential construct for these professional teacher educators; (b) hope takes place on a continuum: from bystander to rescuing to actualizing hope; and (c) teacher educators draw upon their sources of hope in order to maintain hope.

Participant Characteristics

In this first section, I present my analysis of descriptive data about the participants and their institutions from their e-survey responses (N = 628). I also share participant characteristics from the writing prompt (N = 25) and interviews (N = 23), data I drew from these participants' e-survey responses. In the proceeding figures and tables, I share participants' responses regarding their current teaching status, age, gender, faculty rank, if they had taught in a P-12 setting, the length of time spent in P-12 and preservice teacher education, their

location and type of institution, and program type. These data and analysis answer my research question, “Who prepares preservice teachers?”

E-survey Participants

During the data collection period (August 2010 through January 2011), 95% of the participants were serving as faculty in preservice teacher education programs or departments (see Table 5). Eight participants indicated they had retired (their names were still listed on their colleges web-pages). Based on responses from the 25 other participants who were not currently teaching preservice teachers, I inferred several potential scenarios from their other e-survey responses: some had shifted from teaching preservice teachers to teaching at the graduate level, some were teaching in-service teachers, and some had moved into an administrative role (e.g., dean, associate dean, director of student teaching).

Table 5

Percentage of Participants Currently Teaching Preservice Teachers

Currently Teaching Preservice Teachers?	<i>N</i>	%
Yes	595	94.7
No	33	5.3
Total Sample	628	100

Note. Source: E-Survey.

The majority of e-survey respondents were tenured or tenure-track faculty at public institutions and taught in various preservice teacher education programs. Program types ranged from exclusively undergraduate preservice teacher education to programs with more than one type of preservice teacher education (e.g. undergraduate, alternative, or masters with certification). Five hundred and eight or 80.8% of respondents identified themselves as tenured or tenure-track.

Figure 1 provides a visual breakdown of all faculty rank frequencies in response to the question: What role best describes your current position?

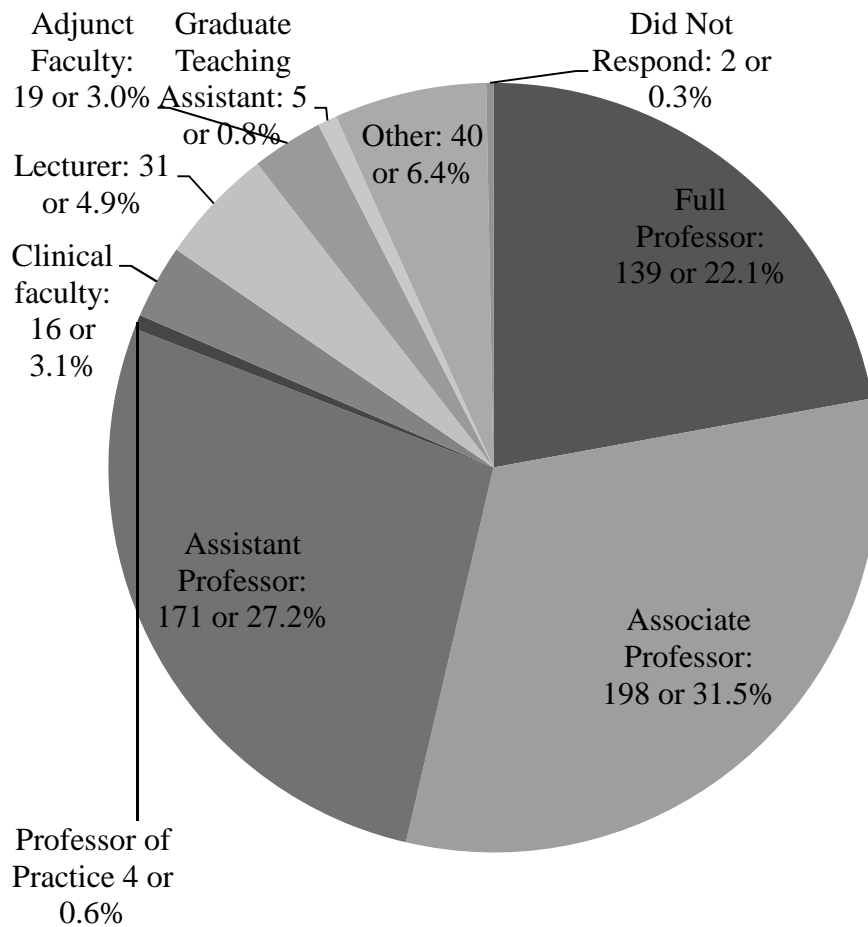


Figure 1. Faculty Rank of Participants. This figure demonstrates the distribution of faculty rank across participants. N = 628. Source: E-Survey.

Institutional locations were distributed among urban (32.8%), suburban (33.6%), and rural (26.3%) settings (6.4% were described as “other” and 0.9% did not respond). The types of institutions represented in this study are displayed in Figure 2.

In addition to variety in institution type, the level at which the respondents provided preservice teacher education also differed. As displayed in Figure 3, 34.2% of the participants taught in a program at the undergraduate level, while 38.4% taught in programs that had a combination of undergraduate, graduate, and post-baccalaureate courses.

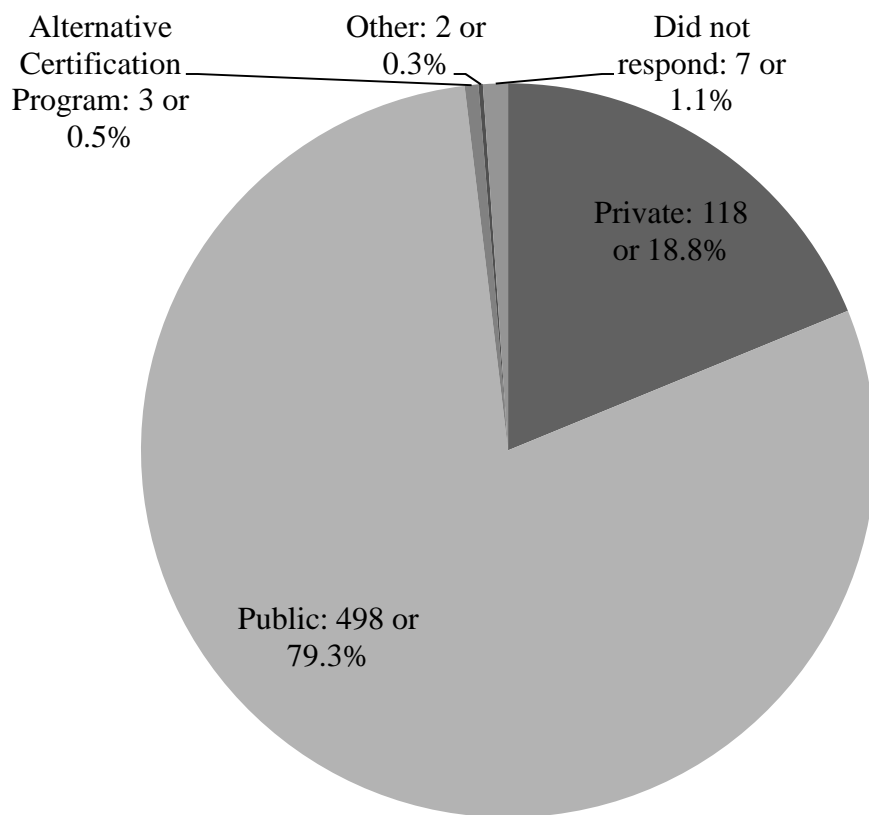


Figure 2. Institution Types where Participants Worked. This figure represents the types of institutions where participants worked. N = 628. Source: E-Survey

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Specifically, participants represented 47 states and the District of Columbia, from 144 public and 56 private institutions. Institution types included three community colleges, one junior college, six HBCU, one HSI, one Tribal College. Other institutions had a religious affiliation (26) and 30 were private

liberal arts institutions. The teacher educators' ages ranged from 30 to 79 years (See Table 6).

Table 6

Age Range of Participants

	Age Range	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	30 to 34	33	5.3	5.4	5.4
	35 to 39	78	12.4	12.7	18.1
	40 to 44	79	12.6	12.9	30.9
	45 to 49	72	11.5	11.7	42.7
	50 to 54	87	13.9	14.2	56.8
	55 to 59	109	17.4	17.8	74.6
	60 to 64	112	17.8	18.2	92.8
	65 to 69	37	5.9	6.0	98.9
	70 to 74	6	1.0	1.0	99.8
	75 to 79	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	614	97.8	100.0	
Missing	0	14	2.2		
Total		628	100.0		

Note. N = 628. Source: E-Survey

The gender of participants was 65.7% female, 34.2% male. There were 14 (2.2%) participants who did not respond to this question. (See Figure 4).

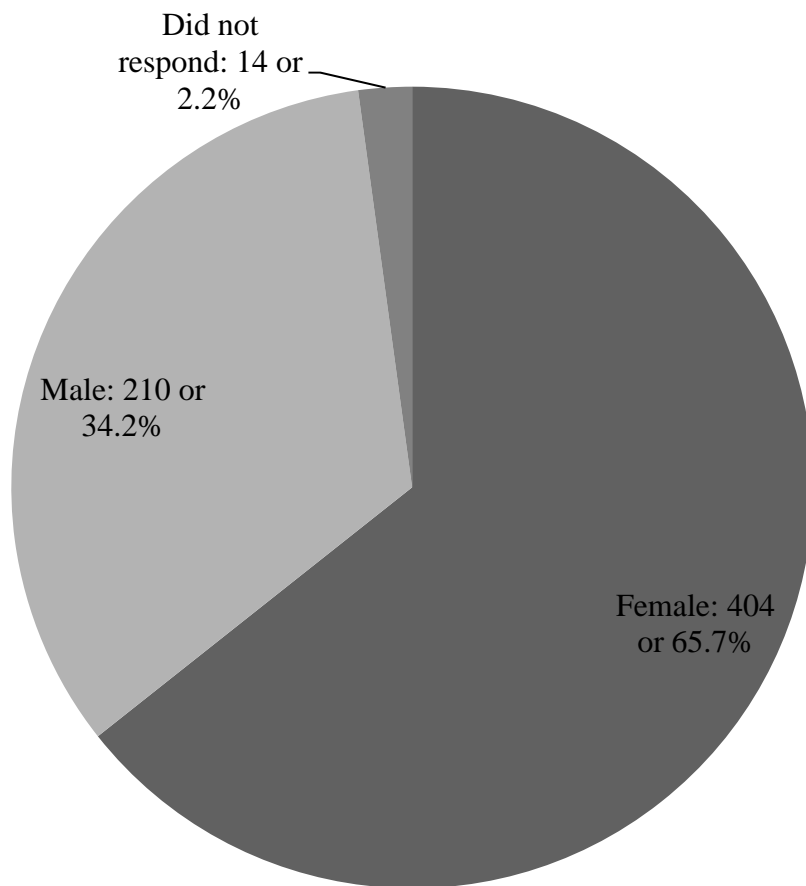


Figure 4. Gender of Participants. This figure visually represents gender distribution numbers across participants. $N = 628$. Source: E-Survey

With regard to the ethnicity/race of the participants, 82.1% self-identified as white alone or in combination with one or more races (see Table 7). While the intent of the survey was to obtain a participant sample that had a breadth of diversity with regard to ethnicity/race, the sample is representative of demographics of other studies on teacher educators and P-12 teachers. For

example, a study conducted by the Thomas Fordham Institute (Farkas & Duffett, 2010) found 82.1% of participants identified themselves as white alone.

Table 7

Ethnicity/Race of Participants

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hispanic/Latino alone	14	2.2	2.3	2.3
Hispanic or Latino in combination with one or more other races	12	1.9	2.0	4.2
White alone	477	76.0	77.8	82.1
White in combination with one or more other races	46	7.3	7.5	89.6
African-American/Black alone	17	2.7	2.8	92.3
African-American/Black in combination with one or more other r	8	1.3	1.3	93.6
American Indian/Native American alone	1	.2	.2	93.8
American Indian/Native American in combination with one or mo	8	1.3	1.3	95.1
Alaska Native alone	1	.2	.2	95.3
Alaska Native in combination with one or more other races	1	.2	.2	95.4
Asian alone	8	1.3	1.3	96.7
Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander in combination with on	1	.2	.2	96.9
Other	19	3.0	3.1	100.0
Total	613	97.6	100.0	
Missing	15	2.4		
Total	628	100.0		

Note. Source: E-Survey.

Since 95% of the participants taking the e-survey were teaching in a preservice teacher education program or department, as indicated in Table 5, my sample was representative of the target population of U.S. preservice teacher educators. Thus, my e-mails were sent to an accurate population with regard to meeting my requirement of participants teaching in preservice teacher education programs. Additionally, the responses to the e-survey are consistent with the demographics (gender, ethnicity/race) of teacher education faculty in the literature. For example, 93.5% of my respondents had previously taught in P-12 settings (see Table 8), which is slightly higher than Levine's (2006) *Educating Teacher's Report* that found 86% of faculty had taught in P-12 settings. Furthermore, this survey elicited responses from 200 different institutions, which is substantially greater than the 26 institutions in Levine's report (2006). My number of institutions is substantially less than the 748 member institutions represented in the AACTE (2009) report, although it is important to note the AACTE report contained responses generated by universities or programs, rather than by individual faculty.

Table 8

P-12 Teaching Experience for Participants

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	587	93.5	100.0	100.0
No	40	6.4		
System	1	.2		
Total	41	6.5		
Total	628	100.0		

Note. Source: E-Survey.

As described in Chapter 3, my goal was to obtain responses from a broad spectrum of faculty and types of teacher education preparation programs. While there was representation from a variety of positions and types of programs, the majority of respondents to the e-survey were primarily tenured or tenure-track faculty at public institutions. Additionally, responses of age, gender, and ethnicity were generally consistent with previous surveys and teacher demographics in general (AACTE, 2009; Farkas & Duffett, 2010; Levine, 2006).

Tables from the scaled response items that display participants' P-12 levels taught, teacher preparation level taught, administrative experience, content area taught within teacher preparation, and teaching philosophy can all be found in the appendices (Appendix I thru X). The large number of response items limited the statistical analyses that could be conducted, as discussed in Chapter 3.

This next section describes participants from the other data collection methods employed. Writing prompt responses were collected from 25 of the e-survey respondents and interviews were conducted with a separate, 23 e-survey respondents to both uncover a better understanding of teacher educators' notions of hope and to confirm initial assertions from the e-survey. Results of these writing prompts and interviews are described below.

Writing Prompt and Interview Participants

The demographics of the participants from the writing prompt and interviews are displayed in Table 9. Also displayed are faculty rank and institution type.

Table 9

Demographic Characteristics of Writing Prompt and Interview Participants

Characteristic	Writing Prompt (<i>N</i> = 25)	Interview (<i>N</i> = 23)
Female	17	16
Male	8	7
Hispanic or Latina/o alone	1	0
White alone	24	20
White in combination with one or more races		3
Full Professor	5	5
Associate Professor	7	7
Assistant Professor	10	5
Clinical, Lecturer, or Adjunct	3	4
Retired	0	2
Institutional Type		
Private	7	3
Public	18	19
Community or Junior College	0	1

To address my research question on whether or not faculty in preservice teacher education had hope, an e-survey question directly asked: “Do you have hope in teacher education and (a) if so, where [does] that hope stem from and (b) if not, what contributed to your lack of hope? When I asked the question: “Do you have hope for the field and practice of teacher education?” a strong majority of 78.8% responded “yes,” as illustrated in Figure 5.

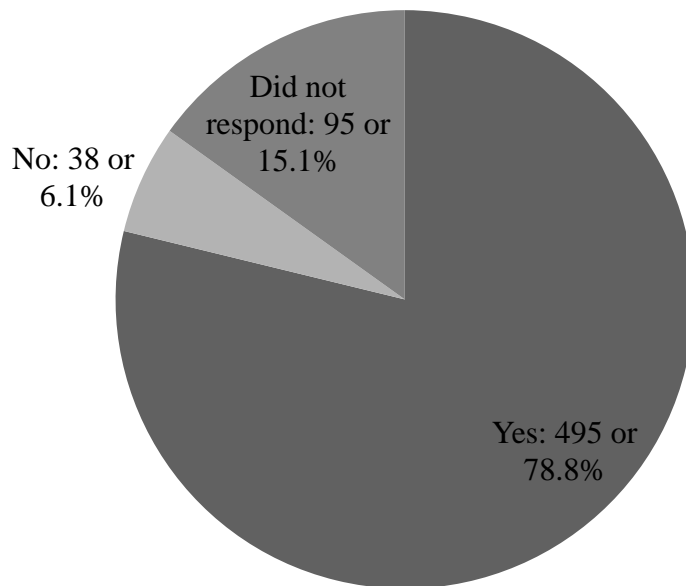


Figure 5. Participants with Hope for the Field. This figure depicts those participants who said that they had hope for the field and practice of teacher education. $N = 628$. Source: E-Survey.

I was also interested in if there was a way to predict if an individual would have hope or not. Specifically, I wanted to know whether or not there were differences in how respondents answered this question based on age, gender, and ethnicity. As discussed in Chapter 3, due to power issues related to my sample size, I was unable to infer with statistical precision if age, ethnicity/race, gender, or faculty rank increased the likelihood of a participant having hope. Through asking the particular question, “Do you have hope?”, I learned that hope is not well understood, despite the use of the word as it pertains to education. This is my first assertion.

Assertion 1: Hope is a construct, a mixture of abstract ideas, emotions, dispositions, attitudes. It is hard to conceptualize or define, but appears to be a relevant and influential construct for teacher educators.

Most of the participants (78.8%) expressed that they had hope in and/or for teacher education. However, as I inductively analyzed the qualitative data, I ascertained that while teacher educators do have hope for the field, hope is an abstract concept that was difficult for participants to define. Furthermore, participants who answered that they have hope demonstrated little variance across demographic and faculty rank characteristics, when running a cross tabulation between response to hope as the dependent variable and the demographic and faculty rank characteristics as described in Chapter 3.

Variance across all self-reported ethnicity/races was 84.6% to 100.0%.

The correspondence between ethnicity/race and hope is indicated in Table 10.

Table 10

Cross tabulation between: “Ethnicity/Race” and “hope for the field and practice of teacher education”

What best describes your Ethnicity/Race?	No	Yes	Total	%
Hispanic/Latino alone	2	11	13	84.6%
Hispanic or Latino in combination with one or more other races	0	10	10	100.0%
White alone	31	388	419	92.6%
White in combination with one or more other races	5	33	38	86.8%
African-American/Black alone	0	12	12	100.0%
African-American/Black in combination with one or more other races	0	6	6	100.0%
American Indian/Native American alone	0	1	1	100.0%
American Indian/Native American in combination with one or more other races	0	8	8	100.0%
Alaska Native in combination with one or more other races	0	1	1	100.0%
Asian alone	0	4	4	100.0%
Other	0	16	16	100.0%
Total	38	490	528	92.8%

Note. Source: E-Survey.

The variance between genders was small at 91.1% to 93.2% (see Table 11).

Table 11

Cross tabulation between: “Gender?” and “hope for the field and practice of teacher education”

What best describes your gender?	No	Yes	Total	%
Female	24	328	352	93.2%
Male	16	163	179	91.1%
Total	40	491	531	92.5%

Note. Source: E-Survey.

Variance between ages was reported as 75.0% to 100.0% (see Table 12).

Table 12

Cross tabulation between: “Age?” and “hope for the field and practice of teacher education”

What best describes your age (age ranges)?	No	Yes	Total	%
30-34	2	18	20	90.0%
35-39	1	58	59	98.3%
40-44	3	64	67	95.5%
45-49	1	60	61	98.3%
50-54	9	72	81	88.8%
55-59	6	95	101	94.1%
60-64	12	87	99	87.8%
65-69	3	32	35	91.4%
70-74	1	3	4	75.0%
75-79	0	1	1	100.0%
Total	38	490	528	92.8%

Note. Source: E-Survey.

The largest range of variance was found in faculty rank, with 66.6% of graduate teaching assistants responding that they had hope, to 100.0% of professors of practice along with full and associate clinical professors reporting that they had hope (see Table 13).

Table 13

Cross tabulation between: “Current position?” and “hope for the field and practice of teacher education”

What role best describes your current position?	No	Yes	Total	%
Full Professor	9	114	123	91.9%
Associate professor	14	158	172	91.8%
Assistant professor	7	127	134	94.7%
Professor of practice	0	4	4	100.0%
Clinical Professor	0	2	2	100.0%
Clinical Associate professor	0	2	2	100.0%
Clinical Assistant Professor	2	8	10	80.0%
Lecturer	2	27	29	93.1%
Adjunct Faculty	1	17	18	94.4%
Graduate Teaching Assistant	1	2	3	66.6%
Other	2	32	34	94.1%
Total	38	493	531	93.4%

Note. Source: E-Survey.

As discussed in Chapter 3, I cannot claim with statistically significant precision the characteristics of teacher educators who have hope in and/or for teacher education. However, from these cross-tabulation reports, it is possible to infer that since my sample of participants is representative of teacher educators, teacher educators do have hope in and for teacher education, regardless of age, ethnicity/race, gender, or rank.

That said hope is a difficult and abstract construct because it is situated in teacher educators’ perceptions of the field in a broad sense. Additionally, teacher educators have a sense of hope about the field as it relates to their local contexts. To illustrate this, I share findings from three additional survey questions: (a) “What is the quality of preservice teacher education in the United States?” (b) “What is the quality of preservice teacher education at your university?” and (c) “Do you think changes are necessary in preservice teacher education?”

Participants' answers to these questions help me to illustrate the complexities of hope in and for education.

In answer to the question, "What is the quality of preservice teacher education in the United States?", I found that many participants (52.1%) felt that preservice teacher education in the U.S. was of good quality and only 1.1% felt that the quality was superior. 37.1% felt that it was of fair quality and 2.7% felt the quality was poor (See Figure 6).

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It was interesting to see, however, that when asked about the quality of preservice teacher education at their own university, respondents shifted significantly, as seen in Figure 7.

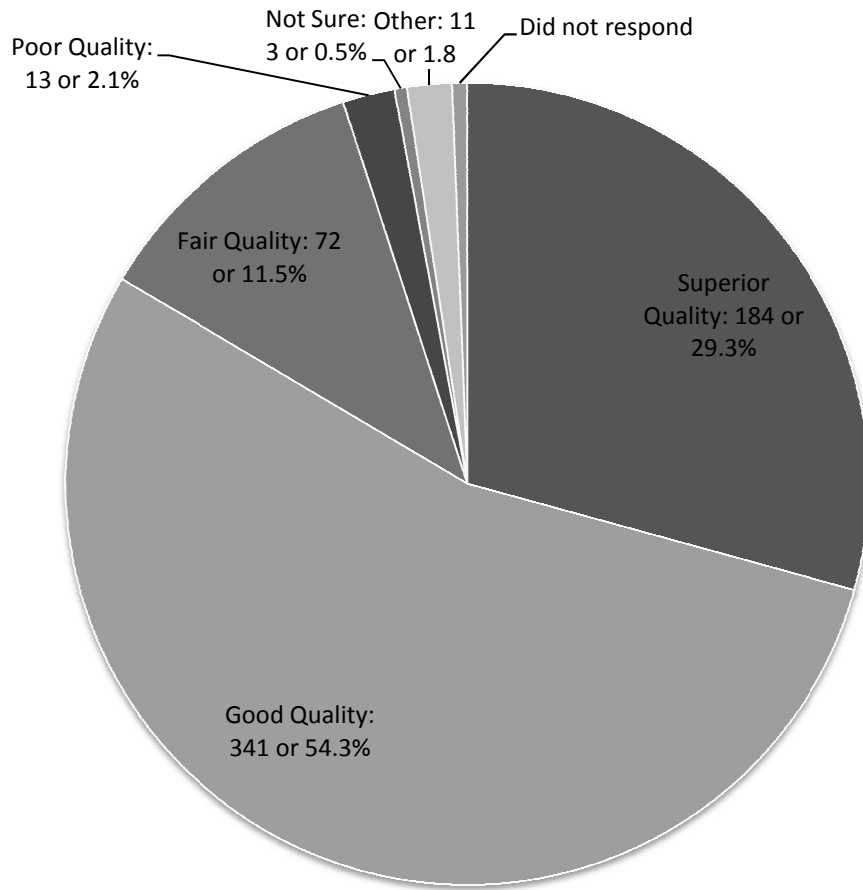


Figure 7. Participants' Perceived Quality of Preservice Teacher Education at their University. Participants felt significantly more positive about the quality of teacher education at their particular university. $N = 628$. Source: E-Survey.

There was a 28.2% shift to superior quality in how participants viewed preservice teacher education in their home institution when compared to how they felt about teacher preparation across the U.S. To further illustrate these discrepancies, Figure 8 shows participants' responses about the need for changes in preservice teacher education. Major changes were considered necessary by 40.1% of participants and 45.2% of participants felt that minor changes were

needed. These viewpoints lie in contrast to participants' views of the quality of education at their institutions, as seen in Figure 8.

on are
changes

These findings illustrate that while most participants are hopeful and believe that the quality of teacher education is generally good, they also believe that changes are necessary in the institutions preparing future educators. These

responses strengthened my belief in the need to approach this project from a multiple methods approach because of the difficulty in exploring how teacher educators understand hope using only survey data. I gained a more in-depth or critical perspective on this issue through the additional data collection methods of interviews and writing prompts.

Understandings of hope are similar to the competing visions of “progress” in education that Meier (2000) discovered when she began pondering what progress meant to and for her as a “progressive educator.” It was not possible for me to discern a common understanding of hope, since both hope and “progress” are rooted in “differing values and images of what the world could and should be like” (p. 212). In the following section, I use data from the e-survey, writing prompts, and interviews to report how participants understood hope. I will also describe the sources and detractors of hope, as perceived by participants.

I begin by describing that while hope appears to be inherent in teacher education as was seen in Figure 5, hope, like learning, is socially and culturally constructed (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and is an elusive concept like “emotion.” Concepts like these remained poorly articulated within participants’ e-survey comments about the sources and detractors of hope. I summarize this assertion by addressing differences between optimism and hope and expand my discussion with examples from the writing prompts and interview responses.

Hope was the reason explicitly stated by 31% of participants as to why they remain in teacher education (sources: e-survey, writing prompt, and interviews). The following responses were typical and reflect hope as the *raison*

d'être: "If I didn't [have hope], why would I bother being a teacher educator?" (Mark², an Associate Professor of Mathematics Education at a private religious institution in the West), or "I have hope for teacher education, otherwise I wouldn't be in this field" (Barry, an Assistant Professor at a public institution in the Midwest).

A similar perspective can be seen when participants responded that if they no longer had hope, "I would quit today," as Susanna, a Clinical Assistant Professor at a research-intensive university in the West wrote in the e-survey. These responses all support the idea that in order to actually be a teacher educator you need to be hopeful; however, while hope is a common thread among participants, the ways that the participants defined hope was difficult to ascertain from the e-survey. As I move now to discussing what participants understood hope to be, I use both writing prompts and interviews to explain these views what participants understood hope to be.

Hope is...

Participants most often defined hope as an expectation or belief that changes will occur in and through education to make the lives of others better (67%; sources: e-survey, writing prompt, and interviews). Even though this theme was clear in the data, I found that it was difficult for participants to articulate whether hope was a noun or a verb. Lillian, an Assistant Professor of Literacy at a public institution in the South responded:

I often use the word hope as a noun. I have hope. It's something that I have, that I possess. In that sense, it's a noun... 'I hope things get better.'

² All names of participants are pseudonyms.

That sort of thing is a verb. It depends on the situation and context.
(Interview)

Patricia, who recently retired as a professor from a public university in the West also struggled with her description:

I guess I think of it as a verb. I think of it as active although I've been using it at a noun...I think of hope as active maybe whether it is a verb or a noun...It does involve doing something whether that something is internal...or external... (Interview)

Abbey, a Clinical Assistant Professor of Reading at a regional university in the South, also had a difficult time pinning down what type of word hope is:

I think it is more of a noun but it's also an attitude. It has to be part of what you do...I guess the way I present, the way I interact with my students. It has to inform what I do and how I do it because if I don't have hope that they are going to become decent teachers...my presentations would be different...I don't know, I've never been asked to define hope.
(Interview)

As a disposition or way of thinking, Amina, an Associate Professor of Special Education at a regional university in the Northeast said, "It is as the understanding of where you are, and that ambition to get to where you want to be, or that you want something better" (Interview).

Hope for...

Contrasting the idea that hope is for something better, Lydia, an Associate Professor of Secondary Education at a regional university in the Northwest, reflected that sometimes in talking about hope, there is an attitude that "you are in a bad space. I even created the between hope and despair tension. I can, a lot of times, just hope things will stay this good." She went on to describe that hope "does not always have to be an antidote to something bad. I like to think about it in terms of maintaining and exceeding kind of what is positive..." (Interview).

Ed, a retired elementary education lecturer at a research-intensive university in the West, shared in his interview that while he found hope to be “such a strange word for me,” his hope was twofold. First, he hoped that what he was teaching “was relevant and meaningful to my students” and second that his classroom, whether it be at the elementary or university level, was a safe place for students and him to be (Interview). Ruth, a Professor of Special Education at a junior college, shared that her hope was that teachers and teacher educators would start to get more politically savvy at promoting the good they are doing, deconstructing the push to measure student success solely by a standardized test (Interview).

Sources of Hope

As I analyzed the data, it became clear that participants’ sources of hope were different. There were two primary categories for sources of hope distinguished by two primary themes: (a) interpersonal relationships and (b) intrapersonal relationships. The percentages of these themes within the data corpus are reflected in Figure 9.

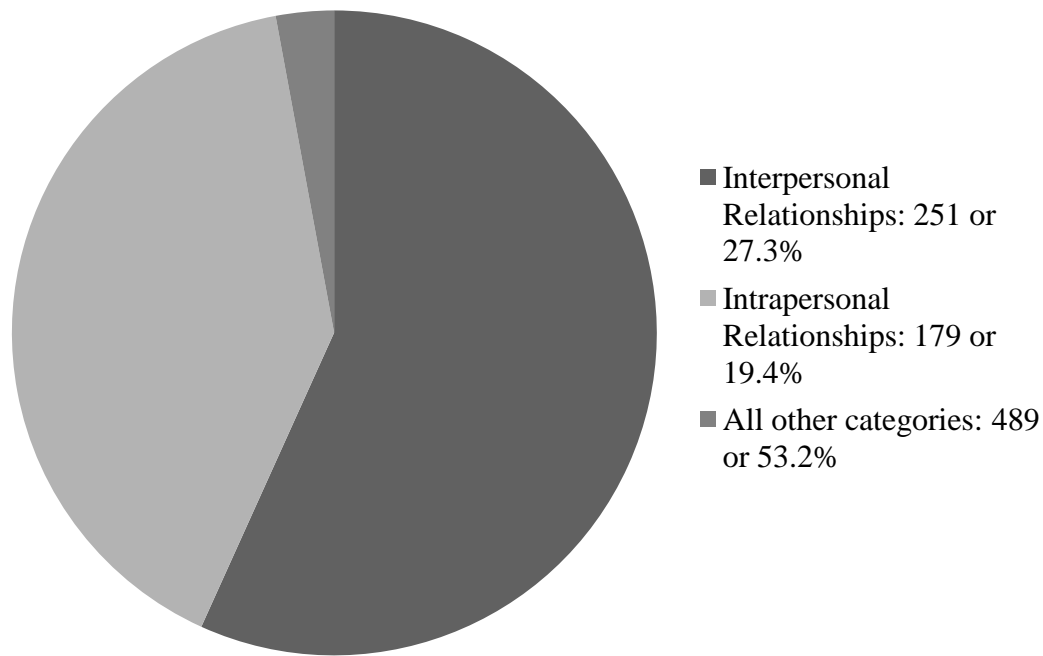


Figure 9. Relation Types Evident in the Data. This figure illustrates that percentages of relationship types within the data corpus. Source: Data corpus (E-survey, Writing Prompt, Interviews)

Interpersonal Relationships

A relationship with others as a source of hope was noted 251 times in the data corpus, constituting 27.3% of the data corpus, and was the largest category in the data. Participants named these relationships as coming from small groups such as classes they taught, a faculty member's graduates, their professional learning communities, and faculty or department colleagues. Participants did not name relationships to larger groups such as their entire college or membership in a large national organization such as AERA or AACTE. In fact, only one participant indicated attending a small conference was a source of hope (E-survey). Interpersonal relationships were manifested in two ways: (a) through teacher educators' students (past and present) and (b) with colleagues.

Students, past and present, are sources of hope. The opportunity to see students putting into action what they learned in a teacher educators' class was a source of hope for many participants. For example Gretchen, an Associate Professor of Secondary Social Studies at a research-intensive public university in the Midwest shared, "I have hope because I watch my former students who are teachers being the leaders in their schools" (E-Survey). Danielle, a lecturer who supervises student teachers at a regional university in the Midwest wrote about the hope in teacher education that stems from seeing student teachers and interns in their public school classrooms. "I see future educators reaching out to their students as people, not as potential test scores...eager to take risks, embrace technology, co-planning a lesson with her sixth grade students..." she wrote (Writing prompt).

Kathleen, an Associate Elementary Education Professor at a regional public university in the East, wrote specifically about the way she believes her students put into action what they learned from the specific curriculum and pedagogical models she uses:

I see my students transformed by learning a rigorous, thinking based, emotionally supportive, way of designing curriculum. They see what it does for their teaching and for their students. The frustration level is high – but preservice teachers can learn complex ways of teaching that allow for students to learn in complex ways. I see it every semester. Seeing every semester in student teaching seminar the difference between the students who have learned in this way and those who have not reinforces the hope. (Writing prompt)

Looking specifically at the relationship between student and teacher educator, Antonia, a bilingual education lecturer at a research-intensive university in the Southwest shared her philosophy that, "Hope is with the students, but

teachers have to see them as equal participants in their own learning” (E-survey). Scott, an Associate Math Education Professor at a religious university in the West shared that his source of “hope and confidence in teacher education” came from “qualitative -- observations of student teachers and teachers that have gone through our program who have become successful, innovative practitioners” (E-survey).

The hopefulness to continue in teacher education can also be seen in a response by Bianca, an Associate Professor and Chair of Teacher Education at a religious-affiliated university in the Northeast:

My students and the interactions of my students with their pupils give me hope. The fact that many of the graduates of our teacher education program are still teaching after ten years and are teaching in high need content areas and in high need schools gives me hope. (E-survey)

Four of the interview participants explicitly described the continued relationships developed with students post-graduation as sources of hope. These relationships ranged from placing student teachers in their graduates’ classrooms to reconnecting once or twice a semester at a local pub to share experiences and to draw from one another’s perspectives. These relationships were a source of pride and hope for the teacher educators and became a litmus test for them to measure if their curricular and pedagogical choices were enabling their former students to be successful in P-12 classrooms.

Colleagues are a source of hope. Colleagues as a source of hope were represented 130 times (14.4%) in the data corpus. The first example is from Kristina whose hope stems from both colleagues and students. Kristina, an

Elementary Education Assistant Professor at a mid-level public university in the South, wrote:

The type of students I see at this university entering the field of education [give me hope]. I also see them a few years later at the graduate level and see the progress they have made. ...Likewise, I see professors in the teacher education field who have a work ethic and concern for students unlike what you find in other colleges. (Writing prompt)

Comments like this suggest that interpersonal relationships in the form of working with others, specifically with colleagues, can act as a source of hope.

These examples describe how working together can act as a bridge between generations of teacher educators and also add to the construct of a community of learners. Jesús, a Professor of Practice at a public university in the Midwest noted:

In our department, we have made some amazing hires of young professors who provide a nice bridge between the older professors and young people in today's schools. They are technology 'natives', come much better prepared for research, and have a strong vision of what 21st century schools should be. (E-survey)

Enrique, a professor at the same university, reflected on the caring qualities of colleagues: “I look at the majority of my colleagues and know that they care deeply about the quality of teachers that our program produces” (E-survey). The knowledge that there are others who also care can provide a buttress of support for faculty. Writing about being a part of developing the mission and goals of his college of education, Ray, an Associate Professor at a religious-affiliated institution in the Northeast shared: “We are working as a collective to implement goals we have set as a community. And I believe those goals are

important: teaching for social justice, affirming diversity, constructivism, collaboration, and inquiry into practice” (E-survey).

A more explicit description of colleagues as a source of hope is represented in the following vignette from Brody, an Assistant Professor at a research-intensive university in the East. He co-leads a group of 16 other teacher educators who are looking at how their program prepares preservice teachers to work with linguistically and culturally diverse populations. Through this experience of building a community of practice and learning, he feels for the first time since joining the faculty ranks that he is learning what others in his department are doing and thinking, and as a group, they are coming up with a common language and knowledge base to enable changes in the way they prepare students. The faculty members involved in this group engage in reflective practice through discussions where they deconstruct lessons and syllabi to understand if and how the faculty model these practices in ways that will prepare their students to enact a critical pedagogy of hope.

By engaging in these reflective processes with colleagues, Brody has found ways to engage in and sustain hope. Hope for teacher education, in his view, was to create change by preparing preservice teachers for the challenges they will encounter in a way that will enable preservice teachers to be “able to teach all students, but ultimately so that more, or all human beings, have the chance to learn” (Interview).

Within interpersonal sources of hope, I found that teacher educators felt their relationships with students and colleagues fueled their hopefulness for the

field. Another source of hope identified by participants is that it comes from within. I describe this as intrapersonal hope.

Intrapersonal hope.

Participants indicated that hope comes from a type of personal learning, personality trait, or a purposeful individual act 179 times (19.4% of the data corpus). As with other aspects of hope, individuals also described this type of “hope from within” differently. For example, the following participant’s continued pursuit of knowledge is her source of hope: “Much of my hope has come from current reading about the place of diversity (including disability) in our schools and the curriculum” (Betty, an Associate Professor of Special Education at a research-intensive university in the West (E-survey)).

Gretchen, an Assistant Professor of Early Childhood and Elementary Education at a mid-level public university in the Midwest, expressed a link between the “promise of public education” linked with a personal quest, when she wrote,

My source of hope is a belief in the power and promise of public education as a means to liberate and transform our world – peacefully and thoughtfully. Perhaps, it is as much a spiritual endeavor for me as it is intellectual – for me, these are inseparable! (E-survey)

Other individuals elaborated on the stance of hope as a familial disposition or personality trait. Michael a Full Professor of Science Education wrote, “Hope is part of one’s make-up” (E-survey). Mark, the Math educator in the West, talked explicitly about learning to be hopeful from his father:

I’m the son of a hopeful guy. He was a pathological optimist. I was just kind of taught to be hopeful, to be optimistic, to think that good things will

happen if we work hard and are thoughtful and prayerful in a religious context. (Interview)

Hope from within was also expressed in terms of change requiring personal action. Elaine, an Associate Professor in Educational technology at a public university in the Midwest wrote, “I have hope because I have the power to change my corner of the field. The impact that I can make will have a ripple effect and can thus influence the future of education. I've already seen this happen” (E-survey). Mary Lee, a middle-grades Associate Professor in the South, described personal action as her source of hope in the following manner:

I have hope because I view education as transformative and integral to our society. As a teacher educator, I try to impress on preservice educators the responsibility of the profession and that is a profession warranting respect and recognition. I try to make changes and have students dig deep to analyze processes and information we study. I emphasize dispositions and that is my major goal – have them develop dispositions that they can and WILL address students' educational concerns. If I give up hope, I need to get out of the field and I am not at that point. And, every year/semester/class there are students who bolster my hope that we can become what I hope and expect from the profession. (E-survey)

Hope from within is situated in specific contexts for individuals. For some, hope is found in continued professional growth, others believe it is intrinsic to their being. Still others see hope from within as an outgrowth of their pedagogic and curricular decisions.

Sources of hope based on a religious faith were also evident, although the thread of religion linked with hope was an outlier category. While there was not enough data to warrant an assertion on its own, it seems important to mention this influence, because at public institutions, faculty and students may feel the need to hide their religious beliefs (Fischman, personal communication, February 24,

2011). Darla, a special education lecturer at a regional college in the Northeast, shared a specific example of this faith-based hope.

ABSOLUTELY! My Christian faith is the source that makes me a hope-filled, positive person about EVERY aspect of life! ...In addition I was always quite heartened and touched by the commitment and empathy that my preservice teachers, and teacher candidates had for the special learners as well as the desire to create encouraging learning environments. ...They often told me that they were inspired to teach special needs learners because of a faith commitment...as well as personal experiences with special needs children. (E-survey)

This next illustration of hope stemming from religious faith is from June, a Professor of Early Childhood Education at a religious institution in the Midwest:

My perception of hope comes...as a redemptive process. Somehow, most of the negative things I have experienced have eventually brought good. Teacher education is no different. As we face children with more and more challenges while teachers are given less flexibility in meeting those challenges, I have to believe, and I teach, that the redemptive nature is there. The positive can happen at least to a degree as we maintain our faith. (Writing Prompt)

These responses were indicative of other responses from faculty teaching in faith-based institutions.

Although most teacher educators have hope for the field, 37.8% of the e-survey participants who had hope for teacher education also recognized that “all is not well” (see Figure 10). This demonstrates that while teacher educators had hope, it is also true that hope is situated in contexts that are not “hopeful.” Many participants indicated this by sharing the realities that detract from their hope.

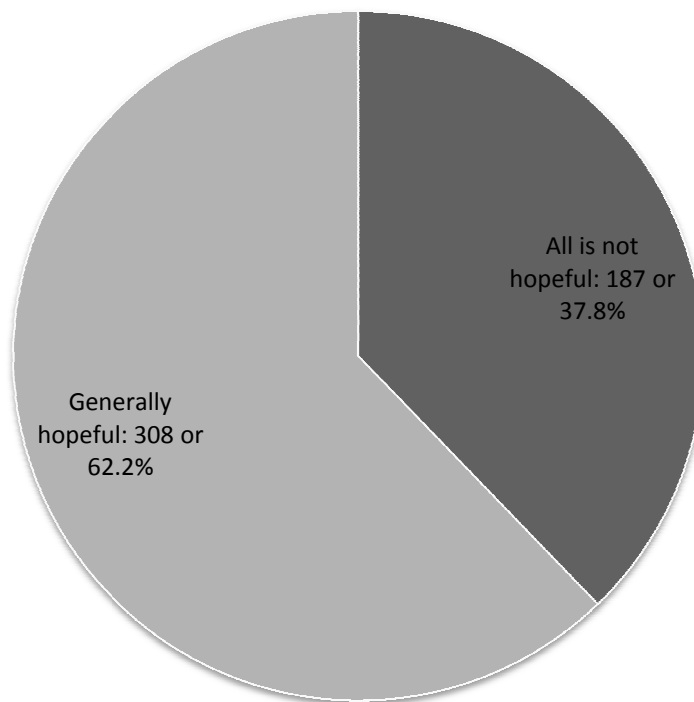


Figure 10. Percentage of Participants’ Responses Who Expressed Having Hope. This figure represents the e-survey participants who expressed that they have hope for the profession of teacher education. $N = 595$.

In the next section, I address detractors of hope. The dominant theme existed in the negative campaigns toward education, in the media and the political arena, and was cited by the participants. This theme was the third largest category found in the data corpus (187 times or 20.3% of the data corpus).

Detractors of Hope Come from External Sources

Participants indicated that detractors of hope come from the “outside.” These detractors are manifested as anti-education rhetoric in the form of media blasts and legislation. As I traced themes in the data, I found that participants

identified these detractors as coming from three specific locations: local, state, and federal levels. The open-ended question about hope in the e-survey asked participants to describe both their sources of hope and conversely, if they had lost hope, what were the reasons for that loss. In addition to the 38 participants who indicated that they had lost hope, hopeful participants (187) included examples of what limited their hope.

Items that contributed to hopelessness or detracted from participants' hope for teacher education were tied to negative rhetoric about education and to participants' frustrations with legislative mandates or bureaucracy at their local level. *Local level*, as I am using the term here, is defined as a participant's department, college, or university, including partnerships between a university and school district, or departmental or school/college levels. Individuals reported that uncaring faculty and the perceived hiring of unprepared or insufficiently credentialed faculty contributed to hopelessness in the field. Another suggested, "There are too many dinosaurs in teacher education" (Dan, an Assistant Special Education Professor at a regional university in the south; E-survey).

In writing about the realities his students encounter in student teaching experiences, another participant expressed his frustration in his e-survey response, "Watching mediocre teachers get regarded and promoted with little or no quality instructional accomplishment; seeing the best teacher education students sanctioned for taking risks to improve practice and confront low expectations for school staffs" (Brad, an Associate Professor at a research-intensive university in the Midwest). Further, Steven, an Associate Professor of Foundations at a

regional university in the Northwest wrote, “too much bureaucratic inertia, as well as mediocre talent among both faculty and students” created a lack of hope that teacher education could improve.

On the state and federal levels, detractors of hope exist in testing mandates and the shift toward a business model in higher education. Further, the lack of follow-through or resources for the regulations enacted, is highlighted in the response below by Sarah, an Associate Professor of Science Education at a HSI in the Southwest:

Sadly, I have little hope in my state as the sound bite [*sic*] [and] restricted philosophies dominate educational regulations. Teachers in our programs (including masters) demonstrate understanding of some basic curriculum reform; however, I observe them in the schools where they do not have the curriculum resources for quality and they are working under the heavy wet blanket of raising test scores. At this point, I have much less hope given the fanaticism about test scores and continued testing of fragmented information with little if any attention to in-depth learning. (E-survey)

Sarah shared further about how this “fanaticism” affects her preservice teachers in her science methods class and how it has affected her. Sarah has a group of 30 or so preservice teachers in her methods course where they practice a culturally responsive curriculum that meets the standards, gets students engaged, and helps them learn how to assess student learning. During the semester, the preservice teachers are required to “teach” four lessons in a school, using the foundations from the class, and analyze the lesson.

It’s just the most beautiful experience, but it’s almost to the point that I’m even going to pull back away from that, because the teachers are saying, ‘I’m sorry, you can’t come practice teach in my classroom, and practice this lesson, because I have a very strict curriculum that I have to follow in order to prepare for the test, and I don’t have time for you to teach four really good inquiry Science lessons to my children. (Interview)

Sarah expressed that she has gotten to a point of extreme frustration with the system in the district where her preservice teachers are not allowed teach outside of the script because of it goes beyond the in-service teachers' mandated scripted lessons to the point that she is considering major changes to her curriculum that would essentially "throw the baby out with the bath water:"

The next thing I have to do is go and talk to the principals where those teachers are, and let the principal understand, look, you said that they could practice their new approaches to teaching in your classrooms, so can you do something different to teachers where they'll feel like they can say yes when my students want to teach there, and convince them that, yeah, your test scores are gonna be better if you do this kind of curriculum, but it's not particularly a test-prep curriculum. ...I'm going to try to come in a little more – at different angles, instead of trying to work with the districts. ...Districts feel like they have such a state mandate to narrow the curriculum to that level, that they aren't really open to working with the university. (Interview)

Although Sarah is getting ready to retire, she is not going to give up on education. Rather she is going to shift her focus from preservice teacher education to working one on one with inservice teachers and administrators outside of the university. She continued our conversation by sharing why she will not give up on public education through her perspective of why we have public education:

It is like Thomas Jefferson wrote, education is intended so that as citizens, we can learn to be critical of society – to look at things that are happening in society, question what is going on and move society forward. It is not like a reproductive model of education – not so that we reproduce society as it is today. So, even that receives an awful lot of criticism – and then it becomes political, the reasons for education. So, if the one political group that believes that education should just be teaching the basics, and keeping society and class structures that are there today – if that political group is in power, then it's even harder for any kind of good inquiry, and critical theory practices to be in place.

To only focus on the basics was contrary to Sarah's beliefs of what education at any level should be about. One of the philosophies of education she aligned with in the e-survey was critical pedagogy. While her frustration with how education at the P-12 and teacher education level was becoming more and more standardized she enacted a critical pedagogy of hope by moving from critique to action, as she continued:

But yeah, I'll defend public education to the death, but I'll also defend my right to critique it, because it needs an awful lot of improvement. I think it's mostly because people think it's too simple. They don't understand it's a more sophisticated degree, I think, than an engineer's degree is, to really learn how to be a teacher. To assume we can even do it in four years with a lot of concentration on it is kind of a false assumption.
(Interview)

Dale, a Professor of Mathematics Education at a public university in the West, described himself as always being hopeful, but that the things which impact his hope affects the way he relates to his preservice teachers:

The recent trends in focusing on test scores, teacher merit pay, mindless standards, and politics in teaching have deflated most of that hope. Sometimes it is a real challenge to try to encourage candidates to enter the profession knowing the situation they face when they get jobs. (E-survey)

To continue this thread of federal mandates as detractors of hope, Richie, an Assistant Professor at a public institution in the Northwest, described the limiting nature of the current political climate and its effects on his teaching and that of his former preservice teachers:

There's not much room for hope in discussions of teaching OR teacher education. In teacher ed[ucation], we still prepare teachers to have it [hope] and work on developing it in their classrooms; they then enter the profession to be told that such abstractions (or concepts like social justice, compassion, etc.) are meaningless alongside such 'meaningful' things as...test scores. When you have a secretary of education of the U.S. who

basically preaches that colleges of education should be abolished, my only hope is for a turnover in that department. Quickly. (E-survey)

The increases in standardization through the passing and implementation of state and federal laws and the perceived “power (and its scope) of ill-conceived mandates are formidable,” explained Margaret, an Assistant Professor of Early Childhood Education at a public university in the Midwest (E-survey).

The constant barrage of mandates and standardization attempts can result in a metaphoric candle in the wind. I use this metaphor to illustrate how trying to maintain hope can be challenging. Once the candle is lit, the flame is threatened by outside sources. Johnny, an Associate Professor of Middle Grades Curriculum and Instruction at a public university in the Midwest shared how his hope is fading:

I see hope in the individual teacher candidates who connect with kids that have been marginalized and help them get excited about learning...[but] Curriculum continues to be reduced to a list of standards and test prep materials, limiting the multiple voices necessary to feed a democracy. (Writing prompt)

Standardization and the push for universities to “produce” more graduates are detractors of hope for David, an Associate Professor at a research-intensive university in the Midwest:

As long as teacher education is done at so many institutions, and provides a cash flow for them, and as long as there continues to be open admissions into teacher education programs, there is little hope that teacher education will develop into a more notable and noble activity in general. The field continues to be populated with too many academically weak students, poorly qualified faculty, and not enough strong clinical faculty who understand teacher learning. Moreover, staff development and instructional leadership in school districts is done poorly and led by un- and under-qualified personnel, i.e., those who know little about teacher learning, rendering even the best preservice teacher education moot. (E-survey)

Amy, an associate professor of reading at a regional university in the East, finds it difficult to get through all of the material mandated by the state without falling back on lecture-based teaching. “There is so much we are expected to cram in, through the course of the semester. Forget about anything but lecture in a condensed course,” she says. She also shared how much she hates feeling like she cannot teach with a more hands-on, experiential approach (Interview).

Laurie, an Assistant Professor of Physical Education at a public university in the East, wrote “hope is tied to politics; (the) current political climate is hopeless” and senses that while “all hope is tied to high standards of ethical educators; most are doing a job for a paycheck. It is difficult to have hope when the politicians who guide allocation of funding are making unwise decisions” (E-survey). Teacher education as a business or factory model like to Taylor’s model of efficiency (i.e., scientific management (Marshall et al, 2007) is expressed in the media as a way for the public monies used for education to get “the most bang for their buck.” This is a theme echoed by Monica, a Lecturer of bilingual education at a research-intensive university in the West, who wrote:

Unfortunately, teacher education has a bad rap (from the media, from NCLB and Reading First proponents, from Fox News, Arne Duncan, etc. – people and entities that don't understand K-12 education or have a business model orientation, etc., i.e., like 'fixing' a product). (E-survey)

Julie, an Assistant Professor of Social Studies at a research-intensive university in the South, shared how the following experience was a detractor of her hope. Julie discussed the great disparity between the “haves and have-nots” in the state where she works, sharing a conversation she had with a student during his exit interview from student teaching. She had seen him teach and he had

excellent reviews from his cooperating teachers. The student shared his belief that all kids could learn and all kids should have the opportunity to learn. Julie told him that she knew of a teaching opening at a Title 1 school 20 minutes away that had a low-performing status but might be a perfect fit for him based on his responses.

But when the student heard where the school was located, he replied that he heard it had a bad reputation, making “disparaging comments about it,” Julie said, “I just looked at him and said, ‘if you really believe everything you had just told me in the last 15 minutes, you go put in your application and you be there and you take that job!’ His response was, ‘I am going to work at X school (in a higher socio-economic status neighborhood and is labeled an excelling school). I really want to coach and there is a volunteer position open.’” Julie added that he is now a volunteer coach at X school and works as a special education aide. She explained, “I was really depressed after that interview.” This example shows the frustration that teacher educators can experience when they teach in a way that requires students to think about diversity and student learning. Boler (2004) had a similar experience in a diversity course she taught where after a full semester’s work, students still could not acknowledge their positions of privilege. Critical pedagogy is painful work because of the sometimes ambiguous nature of the work. Others may perceive this kind of teaching as being confrontational or uncomfortable, since it questions their core beliefs. But these realities are unavoidable within a thoughtfully enacted critical pedagogy.

My assertion that “hope” is a construct, a mixture of abstract ideas, emotions, dispositions, or attitudes that are hard to conceptualize, teach or measure, does not detract from the fact that hope is a relevant and influential construct among participants. This is further illustrated in the following writing prompt from a graduate teaching assistant who shared his understanding of hope and optimism:

I think of 'hope' as a desire for a specific positive outcome. Hope is similar to a 'want', but different in the sense that hope implies a lack of control (i.e., the process needed to fulfill the desired outcome is outside of my control). Such a distinction is not dependent on the reality of obtaining the object or outcome. For example, I see no distinction between the phrases, 'I want to win the lottery' and 'I want to pass a test.' Even though the probabilities between the two cases are very different, in each case, wanting implies some type of controllable action on my part. Similarly, I see no distinction between, 'I hope I win the lottery' and 'I hope I pass the test.' In each case there are aspects of the outcome that are out of my control. As such, I do see a distinction between, 'I want to win the lottery' and 'I hope I win the lottery.' The 'want' implies that I can take action to make the outcome happen and the 'hope' implies that the processes resulting in the outcome are out of my control. (Writing prompt)

This perspective on hope is indicative of some of the differences of how hope was conceptualized by participants. Ed, an elementary education lecturer referred to earlier, described hope in two ways: false and real. In describing false hope, Ed shared that hope can be “very flimsy or Pollyanna.” It is the kind of hope that he can “win the lottery, [but] that’s not going to happen. That’s a false hope you have.” He describes real hope as being “honest and reflective” (interview).

To view hope as a way to actualize agency, I turn to Smith’s (2011) interpretation of Cornel West’s (2008) differences between hope and optimism.

She gives the following example of optimism as a person who looks out the window and, regardless of the weather, says, “It is going to be a beautiful day.” In contrast, someone who has hope, a critical or reflective hope, looks out that same window and weighs the situation, looks head-on at the challenges, and tries to figure out how to create a better situation, and then moves toward action. It is this metaphor of “looking out the window” that drives my perspective of hope as requiring change or action. Both look out the window, but the one who weighs the situation and then acts, undertakes a critical pedagogy of hope, in contrast to the one who looks out and decides it is a beautiful regardless of the situation outside.

The following e-survey response from Angelika, an Associate Professor of Early Childhood Education at a public university in the Southeast, indicates the importance of thinking deeply about hope. She is one of those who considers ways to model and discuss the concept of hope in practice as more than simply a wish for something better:

Teacher educators have a hand in shaping their students’ practice. If we don’t have hope we should leave the field. We need teachers who bring optimism to their work. But they can’t be ‘Pollyanna’ – they need to be prepared to respect all children and bring out their best by building on their strengths. (E-survey)

Mona, an Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology at a regional university in the Midwest, describes hope as “the desire that what we do as teacher educators will impact future and current teachers in a positive way...” She adds that when she is confronted with standards and outcome measures, it is difficult to remain hopeful when teaching “lecture-based” psychology courses.

She goes on to explain “hands-on experience that I guide is very important to me, and that is what I hope makes a difference for teachers’ current and future students” (writing prompt). These examples give credence to the complexity of hope and the challenge to label it as being a definitive “hope.”

Summary of Assertion 1

Up to now, I have discussed what participants said hope “was,” and what hope was “for.” I also discussed how teacher educators named their sources of hope as located within interpersonal relationships with their students and colleagues, along with intrapersonal sources of hope, such as faith or personality. But despite teacher educators’ sense of hope for the field, 38% of those who indicated hopefulness also discussed things that detract from their hope. These themes included negative rhetoric in the ways education is discussed in the media and by politicians and the standardization of curriculum and pedagogy in P-12 and in teacher education. Based on the similarities of participants in relation to demographics of teacher educators across the U.S., I infer from the response that 78% of participants responding yes to the question if they had hope that teacher educators do indeed have hope for the field of teacher education. However, in light of the multiple definitions, sources and detractors of hope, I also show that hope is a complex word and topic for teacher educators to articulate.

Assertion 2: There are three main types of hope: bystander hope, rescuing hope and actualizing hope.

Three main types of hope were apparent in my analysis and I have articulated these through a model of hope as: bystander, rescuer, and actualized

hope. Through the analysis, these three types of hope were confirmed in the data. Bystander hope was found 84 times (9% of data corpus). Rescuer hope was the second largest category in the data corpus (190 or 20.7% of data corpus). Actualizing hope was found 30 times (3.3% of the data corpus). The model of the types of hope, indicate hope is not static (see Figure 11). I believe that the type of hope a teacher educator possesses and manifests is not set in stone, but is fluid. These types of hope arose within the data and provided a way to discuss the differences in the kinds of hope that teacher educators professed to have. However, in order to describe these types of hope I do so separately.

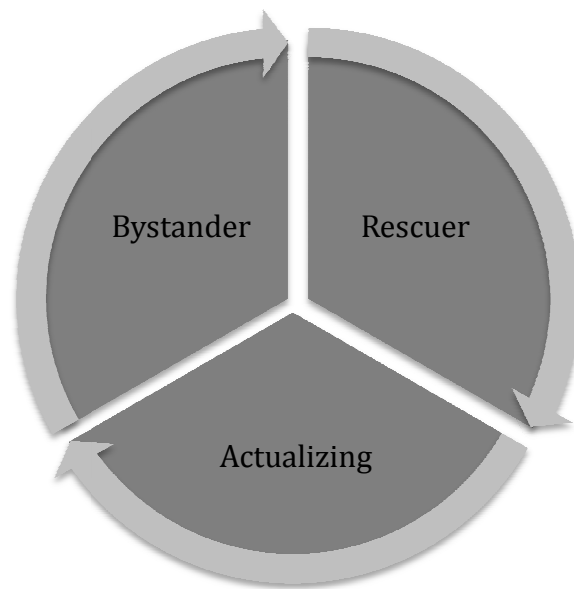


Figure 11. Model of Types of Hope. This figure represents the types and fluidity of hope, as conceptualized in this study.

Bystander Hope

I liken bystander hope to a person who video-records an act of violence and sends it to a news network to show a violent act being committed, but does nothing to assist the person in danger. Bystander hope sees the challenges but

waits for someone else to intervene. I use this example to make my case in arguing for the kind of bystander hope that was evident in my data, and is not meant as a judgment on participants who indicated this kind of hope.

Bystander hope is evident in the following e-survey response: “I hope that teacher education will be studied to determine its effectiveness and how to make it more effective.” This comment by Rick, a Secondary Education Assistant Professor at a regional institution in the Northwest, indicates that hope to create change may come from the efforts of others, rather than his own actions to conduct research or create change. I acknowledge that there may be circumstances I am not aware of that contribute to Rick’s statement, but I view statements like this as a kind of bystander hope, a hope that stands alongside waiting for others to act.

Judy, a special education lecturer at a research-intensive university in the West, wrote about her hope in teaching as a profession and “the importance in children's lives of effective methods that incorporate the individual and whole child process. This country must again embrace the importance and necessity of education and what that means for the future success . . .” (Writing prompt). Judy’s words, while suggestive of a holistic approach, still leave hope outside her purview. She calls for “the country to embrace” education. I am limited in inferring much beyond her words, but this is another example of essential inaction, of waiting for a country to change, instead of taking responsibility to support and maintain hope. Further evidence to support this conception of bystander hope was evident in my interview with Jon, an art professor at a private

university in the South. Jon described his perspective of the importance of teaching technique, stating that it is what is most important for preservice teachers to learn:

Future teachers need to be able to demonstrate, teach technique, and how to critique art. Too many art teachers are trying to change the world through bringing in their own views and it is hurting the field. It is more important for their future students to be able to produce and learn skills that will help them with a career or an avocation, items that can be used to build their program rather than questioning the system. That is not what teachers are paid to do. (Interview)

Bystander hope is similar to Hutschnecker's (1981) passive hope. This hope appears to lack the intention to enact change or address the transformative possibilities of education.

Rescuing Hope

Rescuing hope reflects teacher educators' attempts as individuals to save, rescue, or "make a difference" in other people's lives through act of being a teacher, or in this case, a teacher educator. It is also tied to the ideas of narratives of redemption, which I viewed as the naïve premise that an individual is going to create change in another's life or in larger facets of life. Often this theme of rescuing hope is one of service.

This belief that individuals become teachers to make a difference is evident in the following e-survey response: "I think people who go into education do so because they want to make a difference. If we nurture this inner passion rather than dousing the fire, there is great hope for the future," wrote Sylvia a Full Professor of Special Education at a public university in the West. Continuing on with this theme of saving or rescuing in teacher education, Patrick, a language arts

lecturer at a public university in the Northeast added: “There will always be people who are altruistic and intrinsically motivated to help others.” He further shared his belief in this as an important quality to build on: “They are the ones who will succeed as teachers and educators. If nothing else, we need to nurture that attitude in our preservice teachers” (E-survey).

The commitment to making a difference in the lives of future students is also reiterated in the following response from Scott an Assistant Professor of Elementary Education at a public university in the Midwest:

I have hope for teacher education; otherwise I wouldn't be in this field. My hope is reinforced when I have a student who has a missionary zeal for education, believing that every child can and will succeed in their classroom. (E-survey)

A narrative of redemption (Fischman, 2000; 2009; Fischman & Haas, 2008; Grumet, 1988) is reflected in the form of the ability to start anew or to correct mistakes. This is displayed in Jayne's response. Jayne, a Secondary Education Professor of Practice at a private research-intensive university in the Southeast:

Teaching is a career that requires hope; it's also a career with incredibly redemptive possibilities. Every day is new and you have the opportunity to fix what didn't work previously. You get the opportunity to give both you and your students a clean slate. (E-survey)

Within narrative of redemption responses about hope, there was also the sense of a ripple effect by being in teacher education, that what teacher educators do in preparing teachers will help preservice teachers' students. For some, this belief is tied to family, as seen in the following response from Carol, a faculty member at a private religious institution in the Midwest:

Of course [I have hope] or I wouldn't have stayed in teacher education for 20+ years. I now have a grandson and feel obligated to continue preparing exemplary teachers who may one day be his teacher. Every year we see new teacher education candidates--people continue to want to enter the field of education and that all by itself is inspiring. I hope I am making an impact. (E-survey)

Similarly, Ni, a parent who is also an Assistant Professor at a public university in the Midwest responded:

I'm hopeful because I have to be if I am working with young teachers who will be working with young children. I have a young child so I take my job seriously in preparing preservice teachers who might one day be my child's teacher. (E-survey)

For other participants, hope came from seeing an attitude of service in preservice teachers. For example, Elinor, a Full Professor of Elementary Education at a regional public university in the Northwest noted:

I do have hope. I am seeing more people coming back to enter the field who have worked in other areas and are now wanting to serve. It is this attitude of service (rather than it is a job that is 'easy') that gives me hope for the future. (E-survey)

As discussed in Chapter 2, a narrative of redemption or rescuer hope as I am framing it in education, describes the view individuals have in the emancipatory power of education to save people from their circumstances. These narratives are reflected in the rhetoric of popular culture and research regarding education. Specifically, this narrative refers to the power of education to act as a "savior," enabling people to transcend their circumstances. A dedicated teacher's commitment to the profession and their perceived power to change the lives of students is central in narratives of redemption.

Movies such as *Dangerous Minds* (1995), *Freedom Writers* (2007), *Stand and Deliver* (1988), and *To Sir with Love* (1967) indicate the power of the

narrative of redemption and rescuing hope in the public imaginary. It was also evident on the cover of the *New York Times Magazine*, (March 7, 2010) displaying a teacher in a superhero outfit. Jean, an assistant professor of reading at a research-intensive university in the Midwest, discussed how she felt about the narrative of redemption in movies like the ones mentioned above. She said, “[those] stories are great in some ways. They do tend to kind of paint teaching in a pretty positive light” (Interview). She continued by adding that it concerned her that those examples are:

Too much of what the public sees and what the public kind of expects. (But) teachers are also people with lives. You can have very good teachers that do not follow that model. ...The image of teachers (being) a savior. That is a lot of pressure on the teacher to be that. (Interview)

Jean’s words echo precisely what Fischman (2009) asserted regarding the separation of teachers from having lives outside of education. The image of teacher as savior is a false reality, because teachers do have lives, even if it may appear to be consumed by the act of teaching, grading, and planning. This is not the image of balance or an image that is accessible for a person to reach. Rescuing hope, while prevalent in the data, is a type of hope that requires teacher educators to live only in service of others without being able to have a life of their own. Further, rescuing hope does not take into consideration the lives and contexts of the individuals being rescued.

Actualizing Hope

This third type of hope is connected to my own definition of hope, that it is the belief in the possibility of and action directed at creating change. This type of hope urges a person to move from critique to action as called for by Grumet

(2010). It is to see both the negatives and positives, uncover injustices, deconstruct issues of power in curriculum and pedagogy, and work to find ways to move through, around, over, or under to enact change for the betterment of others. While this may be construed as rescuing hope, it is the reflection and uncovering issues of power and privilege and the consideration of others that separate rescuing hope from actualizing hope. I illustrate this first with general statements before sharing specific examples.

Kara, an Associate Professor of Elementary Education at a public institution in the East said, “We have to have hope – it's the only way to change anything” (e-survey). Margaret, an Associate Professor of Elementary Education at a research-intensive university in the South, shared that actualizing hope goes beyond hope and is a struggle. She wrote: “It takes more than hope and a love of children. This is a misconception that many of our candidates hold. Learning to be an effective teacher takes hard work and time” (Writing prompt).

Courtney, a Professor of Curriculum and Instruction at a public research-intensive university in the Southeast, described her views, which are grounded in the realities of the negativity she sees in education:

I wouldn't be doing this if I'd lost all hope for the field. I am discouraged about the myriad attempts at imposing ridiculous 'reforms' that do little but increase bureaucracy and play well on the political stage (i.e. NCLB), but I think I can make a difference by preparing teachers to think carefully about the purposes that underlie their practices, and the practices that best match those purposes. (E-survey)

To confirm the need for action in actualizing hope, I share the following suggestions from three different teacher educators, which demonstrate how this might take place in practice. The first is from Larry, an Assistant Professor of

Educational Foundations at a public institution in the Midwest, who calls for teacher educators to “get our collective heads out of our nether regions, defend our work, and defend America’s teachers. We must become politically active and organized to stop allowing politicians to use us as talking points on the campaign trail” (Writing prompt).

Estrella, an Associate Professor of Early Childhood Education at a regional university in the East reflected, “that in these times of attacks toward public education (P-12 and college), we must create sites of resistance.” She suggested that at the center of “this resistance needs to be the idea of dialogue, as Freire conceives it.” She described the real-life contexts of P-12 teachers she works with, noting that:

The working conditions for teachers right now are filled with pain and lack of creativity. We need to sit side by side with teachers and help each other find those cracks where richer possibilities might emerge. Together we need to develop a new vision for what it means to educate ALL children in the 21st century...We need commitment to resist detrimental practices, commitment to dialogue, commitment to stay with the struggle to imagine new possibilities. If we give up hope, we give up everything. (E-survey)

These teacher educators’ words indicate that actualizing hope is not a simple undertaking. It involves what Boler (1999) describes as a pedagogy of discomfort for all involved. As Jenna, a professor at a regional university in the Midwest shared, “I am at the fringe of hopelessness to be honest-banging my head against a wall-but that’s what sustainable change is about-it is never easy” (E-survey).

Judy, a Professor of Curriculum and Instruction at a private institution in the East, took her definition of hope from Halpin’s (2003) book, *Hope and*

Education. She defined hope as having “one foot in reality and the other in possibility.” She went on to share how this point of view is “not wishful thinking... and has been echoed in a lot of literature about urban education, the focus of my research and teaching.” She continued by saying that hope means,

...understanding and heeding the harsh realities of urban education while holding out hope for betterment. So, as a teacher educator, my task is to provide my students with opportunities to generate knowledge and engage in experience that brings them face-to-face with the problems and struggles of urban youth and communities, but also gives them opportunities to experience the promises of effective schools and productive community-based organizations. (Writing prompt)

Only three of the 23 individuals I interviewed were able to answer how they operationalize hope in their own practice as teacher educators without my having to probe more deeply. This is not to say teacher educators may not think deeply about what hope means, but the data indicates how difficult it is to measure and articulate hope.

The following are examples from the interview participants of how they actualize hope. Lydia, an Associate Professor of Secondary Education at a regional university in the Northwest, talks about building relationships with students in her classroom management class. The students want to learn how to use the *stoplight* or *star chart*, two management techniques that focus on control. Although she sees the value in helping students understand those methods of behavior management, she also focuses on how building relationships and knowing the students will help her preservice teachers to be “proactive in their instructional design so that the management part is not going to be about the star chart... (rather) what are we doing together to learn as a community.” She

continued by sharing she does this through modeling what community building is with her own students.

Elaine, who draws hope from seeing students have “a-ha” moments, is an Associate Professor of Special Education at a regional university in the Northeast. Elaine shared in her interview that she talks about creating hope in small changes with her students: “when I teach a special education or diversity class, and introduce a new concept like universal design, and tell them ‘this is great, you guys should use this, and all this other little stuff.’” She then talked about realizing that she has to take a step back from her excitement and reflect. She reminds students, “Make the little changes, because if you make changes too quickly and too broadly, they’re not going to be successful.”

William, an Associate Professor of Math at a religious institution in the West shared how he uses the national math principles of equity as a way to create hopeful change with his students. He explained, “equity includes high expectations for all students and support for them to reach those expectations. I think high expectations is nothing more than hope. ... We know from years of research that low expectations in mathematics equals low performance” (Interview). He continued by sharing how he specifically shows student expectation data’s effect on student learning and then provides examples and experiences throughout a semester on how preservice teachers can support high expectations.

Each of these teacher educators’ efforts to actualize hope show how these teachers do not “just embrace the language of critique” as Giroux said (2009; p.

251). They are also involved in creating space to engage in the “dialogue of hope” (p. 251).

The model of hope and its various types represent my belief that hope is not singular or static (see Figure 11). I believe that the kind of hope a teacher educator possesses and manifests is not set in stone, but is fluid. But they are not discrete stages or views. People can change, and so do their views of hope. It is obvious to me that my own experiences demonstrate my position in all three kinds of hope, at various times in my career. It was also evident across the various kinds of hope that all participants wanted to make life better for others, rather than simply hoping for themselves. Some teacher educators were able to concretely describe what that hope is for and how to actualize it, while others just believe there could be something better.

Assertion 3: Teacher educators draw upon their sources of hope in order to maintain hope.

Maintaining hope was a theme that was strongly connected to participants’ stated sources of hope. In what follows, I detail examples of the various ways that interview participants maintained their hope for and within teacher education.

Maintaining Hope

Carly, an Assistant Professor at a public university in the South turned to her faith in the midst of faculty turnover in her department to help her maintain hope. Her faith helped her believe there was a reason for the changes in faculty and recognize the ways it created additional opportunities to share her faith. This helped Carly to keep going when her community of learners changed significantly

(Interview). Maria, an Assistant Professor of Literacy in the Southeast, drew her source of hope from the community of learners she built with colleagues:

I think it's easier here to keep hope...because of the community I'm working with. If one of us tends to get discouraged usually there's two or three of us around to support them. ...We also share triumphs and celebrate what our students have done. ...[It] is a community of like-minded educators who support one another by celebrating the good things that happen with our students. (Interview)

Anne, an Associate Professor of Literacy at a research-intensive university in the Midwest, described her source of hope as making connections with students. She also talked about that connection when asked how she keeps her hope from getting buried: "Connecting with students," Anne reflected on the hope she derives from visiting her preservice teachers in their field placements and how her hopes are boosted when she watches them, or when a child asks her for help. "It is a wonderful way to help me keep that connection to the elementary schools, and then also to just feel so good – so hopeful," she added.

Dealing with Challenges to Hope

Participants also recognized that being hopeful and trying to create sites where critical change can take place is difficult and painful work (Boler, 1999; 2004; Freire, 1998a; 1998b; 2000). Lydia, the Associate Professor of Secondary Education shared her belief that "you can't be hopeful all the time. I mean there is a lot of...crushing blows to education. So I run. When I don't (run) then venting, swearing, and then feeling bad about it" (Interview). Lydia shared the same perspective as Maria, that the scheduled breaks in a semester or a year are the times they recharge their batteries and gain perspective.

Brody shared that his work using a critical pedagogical approach to his research and teaching students about ELLs and diversity is draining. He said that he has realized the need for him to work to find a balance between teaching, research, and his family and admitted that he began to go to counseling to learn ways to maintain hope and learn how to stay balanced in his own personal life.

Greg, an associate professor of music at a regional university in the Southwest talked about reflection as being a vital component to hope. "...If we want to change in our society and change...what's going on in our world" in order to be "relevant, contextually relevant to what's really going on" the poverty, the testing and its impact. He described this as an important aspect of the master's programs in which he teaches, and explained that he is starting to incorporate these concepts in his undergraduate courses (Interview).

Judy's description of Halpin's (2003) definition of hope as being a balance of reality and utopia is reminiscent of the speech by Cervantes in *Man of la Mancha* (Wasserman, Darion, & Leigh, 1963), who described seeing the harsh realities of life "pain, misery, hunger... cruelty beyond compare" as the reason why he plays the role of Don Quixote, believing that "to surrender dreams-this may be madness...And maddest of all, to see life as it is and not as it should be" (p. 60-61). For Judy, the idea that she will not give up on *how life could be*, keeps her going. Freire (1998a) notes the importance of critical hope:

One of the tasks of the progressive educator, through a serious, correct political analysis is to unveil opportunities for hope, no matter what the obstacles may be. After all, without hope there is little we can do. For hope is an ontological need...The attempt to do without hope in the struggle to improve the world, as if that struggle could be reduced to

calculated acts alone, or a purely scientific approach, is a frivolous illusion.” (p. 3)

Through a critical analysis of the realities that confront educators at all levels, I assert the importance of creating opportunities to talk about hope in preservice teacher education. These opportunities are integral to maintaining a presence in the struggle to create opportunities for change.

Ideas for Change in Practice

Several teacher educators shared their thoughts on changes that could be made in the practice of preparing preservice teachers. Greg, the music teacher educator, and Michelle, a professor of special education in the West, both described the need to build coping skills and stress management into preservice teacher education.

Michelle described it as, “our own how-to build yourself up, how to protect yourself, stress management.” She continued, saying that so many teachers “feel beat up, beleaguered, unappreciated, we need to take care of them as people, and teach them how to take care of themselves and each other, to develop support networks” (Interview). She incorporates the work of Parker Palmer and Nel Noddings into her curriculum and discussed the importance of “encouraging literature does not get thrown out of our teacher preparation programs” (Interview). Michelle added that she is now considering adding to the behavior change assignments in her special education courses, to ask students to incorporate reflection into their assignments, stating how they will take care of themselves as teachers. This type of assignment and the incorporation of self-care

are the type of changes Rendón (2009) suggests as being integral to transforming higher education, in ways that actualize hope.

Summary

Within this chapter, I have used numerous examples and figures to show how hope is a difficult concept to narrow to one definition. Overall, teacher educators' primary responses indicated hope as an abstract expectation that education can be an avenue to create change or the possibility of change. Hope is relationally and contextually based, as evidenced in the sources and detractors of hope. Hope takes place on a continuum that is fluid. To teach with a hopeful and critical pedagogical approach is not easy, it is sometimes painful as seen in Julie's narrative. She was a teacher educator who was frustrated after one of her students who claimed that all children could learn actually chose to coach, rather than teach in a low-SES "failing" school. Her experience highlights the difficulty in maintaining hope, and serves as a reminder that it is vital to maintain hope. Interview findings support the ideas that it takes a conscious effort to maintain hope and to draw upon the sources of that hope.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

In concluding this dissertation, I have four goals for this chapter: to summarize my findings, to connect back to the literature and suggest implications for research and practice, and to share thoughts about directions for future research. However, I want to first share two meaningful experiences I had with former students during the writing of this dissertation. Together they illustrate both the challenges and importance of enacting critical pedagogies of hope.

Toward the end of writing my dissertation, I had an experience that made me consider my own privilege as an academic as I wrestled with what that meant for my understandings of hope. At the grocery store one afternoon, one of my former high school students was bagging my groceries. He recognized me, but I needed to look at his nametag to remember him. As we exchanged pleasantries, I asked him, “What are you doing...besides working at Safeway?” He told me he was going to attend a local community college to learn a specific computer programming skill. I wished him the best, and as I walked out of the store, I was hit with the reality of my complicity in perpetuating academic privilege. I asked myself, “When did I become so elitist?” Where was the person who told her students that my wish for them was happiness in what they did and who they were? I was faced with the reality of having to own my privilege, even my unconscious complicity in reinforcing my privileged positioning. In intergroup relations, these concepts are referred to as system or web of oppression and privilege (Ewing & Treviño, 2004)—I saw this web entangle my conversation

with Michael. As I walked to my car, I wondered how I could write a dissertation on hope using critical pedagogy as a frame if I was asking a former student what *else* he was doing besides his job bagging groceries? I had not stopped to consider his reality, to ask if he had lost a job, had more than one job, or if he was happy doing what he was doing. I simply privileged my world against his.

As a teacher educator, and more importantly as a person, I need to be more conscious of my own privilege as a white, middle-class academic. On the date of my 40th birthday, I had the honor of attending a former student's wedding. I watched as she waited for her flower girls to walk down the aisle in front of her. This former student is very special to me. Courtney is now a Special Education aide and has been for eight years. Her flower girls were two of her students, both with multiple differing abilities. Courtney works with these girls every weekend enacting her own pedagogy of hope. She first worked with them as their special education aide, and now that she is at a different school, she continues to maintain a relationship with them to provide opportunities for them to experience as much as a typically developing child. She shared this pedagogy of hope with all who attended her wedding. At the very least, she shared hope with me, and is a source of my hope for the field.

It is in moments like this, in my conversation with Michael and attending Courtney's wedding that I am reminded of my enormous responsibility as an educator. I can either crush or build hope within others and myself. My awareness of my own privilege affects how I view hope. What is my hope for? Is it for my students to win teacher of the year, to get an advanced degree, or make a

lot of money? Is it for their students to become democratic citizens who are involved in their own lifetime of learning and who work to make the world a better place? These are questions I must contemplate daily as I write and plan curriculum and teach future teachers, if I am to enact critical pedagogy and pedagogies of hope. This is painful stuff. The painful stuff is the realization that calls into question how we view the world. This is what Boler (1999) calls a pedagogy of discomfort. But it is in this uncomfortable space where transformation occurs. It is rewarding and sorely needed.

Summary of Findings

In my study, I showcased the voices of teacher educators to share their understandings of hope in and for the field of teacher preparation. Chapter 1 introduced the study, along with the purpose and goals of the project. I reviewed the relevant literature examining the history of teacher education, including critiques of and research about teacher education. I also discussed my macro and micro lenses of critical pedagogy and hope in Chapter 2. I described the methods employed including a rationale for employing a multiple methods approach, the research design, and methods of analysis in Chapter 3.

Chapter 4 was a presentation of the findings from my analysis. I shared the demographic and characteristic information for participants and their institutions. The descriptive data collected showed that the sample of teacher educators who participated in my study was similar to those who participated in other large-scale research studies (AACTE, 2009; Farkas & Duffett, 2010). Additionally, the institution types and locations are reflective of teacher education

programs across the U.S. For example, participants indicated the location of their institution as 32.8% urban, 33.6% suburban, and 26.4% in rural settings. This is similar to the institution settings reported in the Farkas & Duffett (2010) study, which listed the institution settings as 39% urban, 33% suburban, and 25% rural. Gender demographics from my study indicate that 65.7% of participants identified as female, which is comparable to P-12 education numbers that indicate 75.9% are female (NCES, 2009), and slightly higher than the 62% of female teacher educators who participated in the Farkas & Duffett (2010) study.

In my study, 92% of participants identified as white, which is slightly higher than P-12 teachers who identified as 84% white (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2003) and higher than 78% cited in the AACTE study (2009). Further, 93.5% of my respondents had previously taught in P-12 settings, which is slightly higher than the 86% response reported in Levine's (2006) *Educating Teacher's Report*, and slightly higher than the 80% noted in the Farkas & Duffett (2010) study. Since I obtained a representative sample of teacher educators in my data set, I was able to make inferences about teacher educators across the U.S.

The demographic and characteristic questions tell us who teaches preservice teachers. My study shows that 78.8% of teacher educators had hope in/and or the field of teacher education. I was surprised by such an overwhelmingly positive response, given the amplified anti-education rhetoric in the media at the time of my study. Further, in completing a cross-tabulation

analysis, I learned that none of the following criteria: gender, ethnicity/race, faculty type, or age determined whether or not a participant was hopeful.

In analysis of the data to discover how teacher educators understand hope, I uncovered the following three assertions: (1) *hope* is a construct, a mixture of abstract ideas, emotions, dispositions, and attitudes. This makes hope difficult to conceptualize or measure. Nonetheless, hope appears to be a very relevant and influential construct for the professional teacher educators in my study. (2) Three types of hope were uncovered in the data analysis: bystander, rescuing, and actualizing hope. These types of hope were discussed using a model to show the fluidity of these hopes, and (3) teacher educators draw upon their sources of hope in order to maintain hope.

Discussion

In this section, I unpack and address my findings within the literature to elucidate practical implications. Through discussion of the first assertion, I showed how hope was a difficult concept to define. For example, interview participants had difficulty in saying whether hope was a noun or a verb. Many told me, “I have never been asked to define hope.” Sources of hope also differed amongst the study’s participants, from interpersonal to intrapersonal sources of hope. I found parallels between my participants’ struggle to articulate hope and Murad’s (2010) study of anti-oppression facilitators who needed prompting to unpack what hope meant for their practice.

Through the data analysis, I showed that while most participants (78.8%) had hope for the field, 37.8% of those participants indicated there were detractors

to their hope. One such detractor was that preservice teacher education has moved toward a standardized approach to teaching. With new state and federal mandates on how teachers are to be prepared, it can be easy to focus solely on trying to “fit” all the information that students “need to know into an eight or 15 week course that may or may not meet face-to-face. Just as P-12 teachers have discussed the pressure to “teach to the test,” so too are teacher educators under pressure to “cram in all the standards,” as Amy reflected. She shared her frustration in feeling that the only way to cover all the material was through lecture rather than the hands-on experiences she would prefer to use.

I shared Sarah’s frustration that the preservice teachers with whom she works do not have opportunities in field placements to complete their assignments because of standardization in the P-12 schools. While Sarah has chosen to retire, in part due to her frustrations with how standardization in P-12 has impacted teacher education, she has not given up on education. She is going to redirect her critical pedagogical perspective toward working with P-12 faculty and administrators individually.

The push to “produce” as many highly qualified teachers as possible and prepare those preservice teachers to teach in settings where they will then be “graded” on the performance of their P-12 students, as David discussed, is another detractor of hope. David further shared his view that colleges of education are indeed “cash cows” and until enrollment standards increase, the profession will continue to be looked down upon.

The response of 37.8% of hopeful teacher educators who shared they had concerns for the field strengthens the statement that there are specific contextual realities that concern teacher educators for their field are related to legislated compliance with standards and rhetoric that consistently demeans teachers and teacher education.

Teacher educators find their source of hope and also maintain their hope through relationships. In my third assertion, I discussed the importance of having communities of learning that support professional growth. Communities of learning make it possible to create positive changes in how teacher education is conducted. As Brody shared, he draws hope from the community of faculty working to make curricular changes and appreciates the way this group has reconceptualized how work is conducted by emphasizing dialogue. This hope for change through community dialogue is grounded in Freire's (1997; 1998b) discussions of change being situated in social rather than solitary undertakings.

My findings and discussion were influenced by my macro-lens of critical pedagogy and micro-lens of hope. My intention was not to try to find teacher educators who agreed with my definition of critical pedagogy and hope, rather it was to learn what teacher educators' thought about hope. I believe that critical pedagogy stems from the hope that education can be a more equitable space for all constituents and that engaging in critical pedagogy requires undertaking educational practice that digs below the surface of what is in the curriculum to lead toward transforming education and in turn society. My findings led me to the conceptual contribution of my study, situated hope.

Conceptual Contribution

Throughout Chapter 4, I gave examples of how teacher educators' hope was situated in specific contexts. Whether it was in their classrooms or working group meetings, their sources of hope were located in distinct sites. Further, teacher educators' hope was also influenced by the contexts and occurrences in their particular settings and by outside factors such as policy, politics, and negative media portrayals. This insight into how teacher educators understand hope led me to develop the concept of situated hope. I believe situated hope is evident in teacher educators working toward actualized hope. This hope comes from a critical understanding of one's own positionality, and requires that one look beyond what is taught to uncover the messages about why these things are taught and who benefits.

I draw situated hope from Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of situated learning. Situated learning is described as learning or cognition taking place through three elements, the personal, the particular activity, and outside influences. From this perspective, learning is situated in social settings, tied to contexts of power and place, connected to participation, and integrates the activity to the local context (1991). I perceive that situated hope in teacher education is similar: it is located in social contexts, connected to personal beliefs and attitudes, involves the activities of teaching, including curricular and pedagogical decisions, and is influenced by outside contexts including public, policy, departmental and other regulatory factors. I discuss this in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Situated hope is positioned in social contexts in several ways. It is particularly obvious in the sources of hope described by my participants. The first social context for hope was evident in participants' interactions with students, and second, in interactions with colleagues. Situated hope is influenced by social contexts, both positively and negatively. These positive influences exist in relationships with students (past and present) and with colleagues, in communities of learning and practice. Negative influences might also stem from those same relationships, but in my study, participants primarily identified negative influences on hope as the negative rhetoric and standardization of curricula. These policy shifts in education may lead to feelings of loss of agency or the ability to change one's circumstances.

However, these social contexts can also provide opportunities for hope to grow. I perceive this as paralleling Lave and Wenger's (1991) discussion of learning as an activity that takes place through "legitimate peripheral participation" (p. 29). Legitimate peripheral participation is described as the ways and the relationships that assist a newcomer. Within teacher education, it could be a new faculty member and/or a preservice teacher who is supported to become a full member of a community of practice. It is the activities that help to scaffold or support a person's capacity to engage in the community. It requires an active part by all members to work with one another to add to the community. This approach to building a community of learners (Cochran-Smith, et al, 2009; Shulman, 2004) is "legitimate peripheral participation" (1991; p. 29) and constitutes a way for members to construct and support critical or actualized hope.

This requires teacher educators to engage in dialogue with others and with preservice teachers as co-constructors of knowledge, rather than the traditional power relations that often exist in teacher-student relationships. It is a shift in teaching that requires one's presence in a community where the "possibilities for the construction and production of knowledge" (Freire, 1998a, p. 49) can take place.

Practical Implications for Teacher Education

In her Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) presidential address, "When research is not enough: Caring, community and love," Lincoln (2000) talked openly about the concept of caring in higher education. In her speech, she called for higher education to move toward building community. As I discussed the sources of hope and ways participants maintain hope, the positive impact of community was evident. Greg and Michelle's comments about teaching and modeling balance in teacher education programs suggest that teacher education can be a site where communities of learners are built around self-reflection and self-care as Rendón (2009) advocates. These goals require teacher educators to model dialogue and reflective practices for students, in addition to recognizing and naming their own positionality. It means the integration of a critical analysis of what is occurring in current educational contexts with assignments that connect to teacher practices. But all this takes a conscious effort.

With more than 50% of new teachers in P-12 settings leaving after five years, there is more to be taught than standards, skills, assessment, and methods

of instruction. While there are calls for teachers to promote a critical consciousness and realize this potential with P-12 students (Freire, 1998a), I assert that teacher education programs must also engage in this same critical consciousness with their preservice teachers. Faculty must reject the rhetoric that preservice teachers lack strong content knowledge, and cannot be prepared to teach effectively. McClaren (2007) posits that critical pedagogy is a “way to provide teachers and researchers with a better means of understanding the role that schools actually play within a race-, class-, and gender-divided society” (p. 189). Critical pedagogy can be used in teacher education classes to ask why and how particular knowledge(s) are disseminated and whose reality is legitimized in society (McLaren, 2007). In addition, this requires teacher educators to provide opportunities for preservice teachers to step “back from the world as we are accustomed to seeing it” (Kincheloe, 1998; p. 34) to reconstruct how both teacher educators and preservice teachers view their own positions. These teaching efforts can create spaces where students and teachers can enter into dialogical relationships. I view these new dialogical spaces as imbued with hope, that teachers can create a more just society.

The participants in the study who work to actualize hope shared the importance of modeling community building and teaching for change. Many of them recognized the difference between “talking with” rather than “talking to” their preservice teachers, as Freire advocates (1998a). It is important to find ways to show and do, rather than promoting a banking type of education. Lydia reflected this in her practice of taking students to attend legislative sessions at the

state capital near her campus for students to see first-hand how finances are distributed in education. Her students prepare statements to share during those legislative sessions when the public is allowed to speak. In her behavior management class, Lydia models the importance of knowing your students as the first step in teaching, rather than solely relying on behavior management models that control behavior, such as star charts, step programs, or the colors of a traffic signal. She builds community by having preservice teachers engage in community circles to discuss class issues and to get to know one another. These practices are one way she actualizes hope; she provides her preservice teachers opportunities to understand more fully how and what the decisions being made will affect them in their classrooms.

In short, I advocate for a curriculum that draws from critical pedagogy and hope (Freire, 1997; 1998a; 2000), Rendón's (2009) work on integrating the self through reflection and social justice to build community in higher education settings, and Snyder's work on Hope Theory (2000; 2005). It is in spaces like these that educators can work to build inclusive communities of learning that can help teacher educators build pathways to hope in their own practice, their lives, and with their communities (students, staff, and other faculty).

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Limitations to my study pertain primarily to research design. First, limitations in my method of participant selection resulted from inconsistencies in web page management of institutional and departmental web pages, in addition to my own misinterpretations of institutions' web pages. For example, some web

pages were not current; many did not list adjunct, lecturers, or graduate teaching assistants in their education directories. As a result, a larger percentage of adjunct faculty, lecturers, and graduate teaching assistants were not able to be added study, despite my recognition of the increasing prevalence of these faculty classifications in higher education settings (Wilson, 2010). Second, it was difficult to locate faculty emails in teacher education for community colleges, as they often were not listed or the college did not have an education major. I also inadvertently solicited participants who reported that they did not teach preservice teachers. Lastly, while there are a growing number of for-profit institutions (e.g., University of Phoenix and Walden University) and alternative routes to obtain teacher certification, I was not able to include them in the sample because their web pages do not include faculty email addresses. Though every effort was made to obtain a representative sample of teacher educators, in these ways, my method of participant selection serves as a limitation for this study.

I discovered that there were also areas of the e-survey that may have limited the number of respondents. First, I did not have a version of the QuestionPro that would allow participants to save their answers and return to the survey at a later time. I believe this resulted in incomplete surveys and/or a smaller rate of return than might have been possible.

Also, the high number of response items on questions that included “check all that apply,” such as faculty rank, age, and ethnicity/race limited the precision of the statistical analysis. I designed these multiple response items to be inclusive of all groups. However, in doing so, my attempt at inclusion resulted in being

exclusive in the following ways. Within the ethnicity/race category, I had some participants respond that they were Jewish (which was not an item listed) or that they were not a U.S. citizen, and therefore did not know how to respond. This experience has taught me to leave an open space for participants to write responses, instead of having ranges and/or a response of “check all that apply.” This would have been particularly appropriate for the questions asking about ethnicity/race, participant’s age and teaching philosophy. I also would have omitted the question asking participants to check the faculty rank at which they taught preservice education, since these responses were highly varied. Due to the large variance in responses to this question, I eliminated it from the final analysis.

To continue the research I have begun with this dissertation, I will analyze the remaining six open-ended questions. I will also use narrative analysis to create a collective story of teacher educators’ notions of hope from the interview participants’ data. Additionally, I plan to investigate is the role of gender dynamics in the participants’ understanding of hope.

In considering a follow-up study to this dissertation, I would add the following components of data collection: observations with follow-up interviews, and artifact collection such as syllabi and assignments. Those additional pieces would allow me to dig more deeply into how and in what ways teacher educators engage in critical pedagogy and pedagogies of hope.

I plan to design an interdisciplinary study to look more deeply at the connections between hope theory (Snyder, 2000; 2005), resilience, and self-efficacy in preservice teacher education and the roles of teacher educators in

preparing preservice teachers for actualizing hope, a hope that moves from critique to action. This would help me to better understand how to build and maintain situated hope and its possible implications for career persistence.

Hope Lives On

As I close this dissertation, I reflect not only on the responses from my participants, but also more importantly on their openness to share their understandings of hope. The time participants were willing to spend, responding to the survey, writing to prompts, and being interviewed, illustrates the significance of this topic to the lives of teacher educators, but also the importance of talking about hope. Just to be able to think about and articulate perspectives of hope was an empowering experience for participants. Throughout this experience, I personally have come to learn the importance of situated hope in the writing of this dissertation, conducting research, and teaching. I have been privileged to be a participant in a community of scholars who have grown in our own understandings of hope, and are as Greene (2009) describes are “commit[ted] to imagining...commit[ted] to looking beyond the given, beyond what appears to be unchangeable...warding off the apathy and the feelings of futility” (p. 398). In this way, my own community has taken up situated hope to move from doctoral studies to become teacher educators who continue to envision education as a transformative process where both students and teachers are active agents in creating a more just society.

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APPENDIX A
INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN E-SURVEY

Dear Colleague,

I am a doctoral candidate at Arizona State University in Curriculum Studies under the supervision of Dr. Gustavo Fischman. I am conducting a research study seeking to understand the perspective of teacher educators about their role in preparing future teachers, as well as their notions of “educational hope.”

I am inviting your participation, which will involve taking an on-line survey that can be accessed directly through this link: <http://questionpro.com/t/CIIkxZEOvPC> Participation in the survey will serve as your consent. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes. Once you have completed the survey you will be entered into a raffle for one of 15 \$15 electronic gift cards to a prominent online retailer, from which you can buy a wide variety of items including electronics, books, games, music, food, and clothing.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. There is no penalty if you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, all data collected from you will be destroyed through deletion of files. You must be 18 or older to participate in this study.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your participation.

Your responses will be confidential. The results of this study will be used for my dissertation, and may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be known/used. In order to maintain confidentiality of your records, personal identifiers will be removed after coding is completed.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact Melissa Rivers by phone at [REDACTED] or via email at: [REDACTED] or my chair [REDACTED] at [REDACTED]. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at [REDACTED].

Thank you,

Melissa Rivers, M.Ed.
Doctoral Candidate, Curriculum Studies
Arizona State University

APPENDIX B
E-SURVEY

Section 1: Background of teaching

Preservice teacher education experience

Are you currently teaching in a preservice teacher education program or department? Yes No

Have you retired from teaching in a preservice teacher education program or department?

Yes No Other

What best describes the position you hold, or held, while teaching preservice teachers? (Please check all that may apply)

Full Professor Associate professor Assistant professor Professor of practice Clinical Professor
 Clinical Associate professor Clinical Assistant

Professor

Lecturer Adjunct Faculty Graduate Teaching Assistant
 Other

What best describes the type of preservice teacher education program where you teach/have taught? (Please check all that may apply)

Community or Junior College Bachelor degree/Undergraduate 5th year program Post-baccalaureate Masters' with certification
 Alternative Certification Other

What best describes your college, university or program?

Private Public Alternative Certification Program such as Teach for America For-Profit
 On-line Other

What best describes the location of your program?

Urban Suburban Rural
 Other

What role best describes your current position?

Full Professor Associate professor Assistant professor
 Professor of practice Clinical Professor Clinical Associate professor Clinical Assistant Professor Lecturer Adjunct Faculty

- Graduate Teaching Assistant Other
-
-

How many years have you taught in a preservice teacher education program?

- 0-4 5-9 10-14
 15-19 20-24 25-29 30 or more

What level of preservice teacher education have you taught? (Please check all that may apply)

- Early Childhood Elementary Secondary
 Other
-
-

What subjects best describe the types of preservice teacher education courses you teach? (Check all that may apply)

- Curriculum Theory History and Philosophy of Education
 Foundations of Education Science Language Arts Bi-lingual Education
 Sheltered English Immersion English as a Second Language (ESL) Mathematics English Foreign Language Other Than English
Understanding Teacher Educators
 Social Studies History Writing Special Education Art
 Physical Education Health Dance Music
 Reading Psychology Classroom Management Assessment Multicultural Other
-
-

P-12 Experience

Have you ever taught in a P-12 setting?

- Yes No

What level of P-12? (Please check all that may apply)

- Early Childhood Elementary Middle School
 High School Other
-
-

What content area best describes the P-12 classes you taught? (Please check all that may apply)

- Science Language Arts Bi-lingual Education

Sheltered English Immersion English as a Second Language (ESL)
Mathematics English Social Studies Foreign Language Other Than
English History Writing Special Education Art Physical
Education Health Dance Music Reading Other

How many years did you teach in a P-12 setting?

0-4 5-9 10-14
 15-19 20-24 25-29

Have you ever been an administrator at the P-12 level?

Yes No

What best describes your P-12 administrative role? (Please check all that may
apply) Superintendent Principal Assistant Principal

Athletic Director Other

At what level? (Please check all that may apply)

Early Childhood Elementary Middle School
 High School Other

How many years were you involved in P-12 administration?

0-4 5-9 10-14
 15-19 20-24 25-29 30 or more

Section 2: Teacher Education Programs and Teaching Philosophy

Check the answer that best describes your opinion.

What do you believe is the quality of preservice teacher education across the
United States?

Superior quality Good quality Fair quality Poor quality
 Not sure Other

What do you believe is the quality of preservice teacher education at your
university?

Superior quality Good quality Fair quality
 Poor quality Not sure Other

Are preservice teacher education programs in general, doing a good job preparing future teachers?

- Yes, a very good job Yes, a good job
 No, not a good job Other
-
-

Goals of preservice teacher education

In general, what are the 3 most important goals for preservice teacher education, in the United States?

Do you agree with those goals?

- Yes No

Rate how well does your program meet those goals in preparing preservice teachers?

- Poor Below Average Average
 Good Excellent Other
-
-

Please explain

How relevant is preservice teacher education to the current experiences of P-12 teachers?

- Very Relevant Relevant Somewhat Relevant
 Not Relevant Other
-
-

How well does your preservice teacher education program prepare students for how P-12 schools are run (i.e. the organization, administration, and politics of schools)?

- Very well Somewhat well
 Not well This is not addressed Other
-
-

In your opinion, what are three things done well in preservice teacher education?

In your opinion, what are three things that are done poorly in preservice teacher

education?

Do you think changes are necessary in preservice teacher education?

- Fine the way it is Minor changes Major changes
 It should be eliminated No opinion Other
-

Please explain

Is it possible for teaching to become a more prestigious career choice?

- Very possible Possible Somewhat possible
 Not possible Other
-

Teaching Philosophy

Which best describes your philosophical beliefs? (Please check all that may apply)

- Progressivism (such as Dewey, education focuses on the whole child)
Constructivist (learner constructs knowledge through interactions)
Essentialist (back to basics)
 Behaviorism (behavior and learning is shaped by outside forces)
Multicultural (recognition and acceptance of multiple cultures and identities)
Transformative (such as Freire) Perennialism (such as the Great Books approach)
Social Reconstructivism (leading to a more just society) Experiential (based on the needs and wants of the learner)
Socio-Cultural (such as Vygotsky, learning in context) Ethic of care (such as Noddings work) Other
-

Some writers say that a teacher must have hope for the field and practice of teacher education. Do you personally have hope for teacher education? If so, what are the sources of that hope? Explain in as much detail as you can.

If you personally have little or no hope for the field, please explain how this occurred.

Section 3: About teacher education students

Critics of teachers suggest that those studying to become teachers are not as academically strong as other university students. That said, should passing a competency test in literacy or numeracy be a prerequisite for a student to enter a

preservice teacher education program?

- Yes No Other
-

Please explain

Who should be accountable for a preservice teacher failing a teacher certification/licensure exam? (Please check all that may apply)

- Graduating university All post-secondary schools the student attends
 Student her/himself Other
-

Please explain

If a preservice teacher fails a teacher certification or credentialing exam, (professional or subject knowledge) which of the following options should be made available? (Please check all that may apply)

- Retaking the test
 Not being able to retake the test for 1 year Remedial coursework Tutoring Denial of certificate Other
-

Please Explain

What qualities of preservice teacher candidates should be changed? (Please check all that apply)

- There should be an increase in the diversity of teacher candidates
 Candidates should have higher GPAs Candidates are fine as they are
 Other
-

Section 4: Basic Demographics

What best describes your Ethnicity/Race?

- Hispanic/Latino alone Hispanic or Latino in combination with one or more other races White alone White in combination with one or more other races African-American/Black alone African-American/Black in combination with one or more other races American Indian/Native American alone American Indian/Native American in combination with one or more other races Alaska Native alone Alaska Native in combination with one or more other races Asian alone Asian in combination with one or more other races Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander alone Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander in combination with one or more other races

Other

What best describes your age?

- 20-24 25-29 30-34
 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55-59 60-64 65-69 70-74
75-79 80 or older

What best describes your gender?

- Female Male Transgendered
 Other
-
-

Would you be willing to participate in an in-depth interview and one follow-up interview?

- Yes No

Please fill out the following contact information. This will be kept confidential and will only be used to contact you to participate in additional parts of this study.

Name

University

State

Country

Understanding Teacher Educators

Email Address (Required)

Phone number

Skype address

APPENDIX C

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN INTERVIEWS

Phase 2: Understanding teacher educators' notions of hope

This is an invitation and informational letter for your participation in an in-depth interview, which may include a follow-up interview for clarification. The goal of this interview is to obtain narratives about your views and perspectives of hope, teacher education, and the intersections between hope and teacher education. Your participation will last approximately 15 to 30 minutes.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you choose to withdraw from the study, all data and recordings collected from you will be destroyed through shredding, or deletion of files. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your participation. Upon completion of the interview you will be entered into a raffle for one of 10 \$25 electronic gift cards to a prominent online retailer, from which you can buy a wide variety of items including electronics, books, games, music, food, and clothing or an academic book.

Your responses will be confidential. The results of this study will be used for my dissertation, and may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be known/used. In order to maintain confidentiality of your records, personal identifiers will be removed. Identifiers will be removed after the interviews are completed when coding begins.

I would like to audio-record interview. The interview will not be recorded without your permission. Please let me know if you do not want the interview to be recorded; you may change your mind after the interview starts, just let me know. Recordings will be used for data collection and transcription purposes only.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact Melissa Rivers by phone at [REDACTED] or via email at: [REDACTED] or my chair [REDACTED] at [REDACTED]. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at [REDACTED].

Thank you,

Melissa Rivers

APPENDIX D

PHASE 2 INFORMATION LETTER

Thank you for completing the survey *Understanding teacher educators*. Your input and time spent completing the survey is very much appreciated. You indicated your interest in participating in an in-depth interview for Phase 2 of my dissertation research. The response of over 300 teacher educators to participate in interviews requires me to limit the number I will be able to conduct. A randomized sample for interview participants was drawn and although your name was not on that list, I would still be grateful for your thoughts.

This is an invitation and informational letter for your participation in responding to a writing prompt. Participation in the survey will serve as your informed consent. The goal of this prompt is to obtain your views and perspectives of hope, teacher education, and the intersections between hope and teacher education. Your participation will last is dependent on how much time you wish to spend. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you choose to withdraw from the study, all data and recordings collected from you will be destroyed through shredding, or deletion of files. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your participation.

The link for the following writing prompt is:

<http://questionpro.com/t/AEGuSZIg35>

"Hope" is a concept that often appears in discussions about teachers and teacher education. Please provide an example and your understanding of "hope" (or lack of it) in teacher education. Explain with as much detail as possible.

Your responses will be confidential. Please do not identify yourself in the prompt. The results of this study will be used for my dissertation, and may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be known/used. In order to maintain confidentiality of your records, personal identifiers will be removed. Identifiers will be removed when coding begins.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact Melissa Rivers by phone at [REDACTED] or via email at: [REDACTED] or my chair [REDACTED] at [REDACTED]. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at [REDACTED].

Thank you,
Melissa Rivers
Doctoral Candidate, Curriculum Studies
Arizona State University

APPENDIX E
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Thank you for agreeing to talk with me today. Before we get started I wanted to take a moment to see if you have any questions about the IRB form I sent and to remind you that you don't have to respond to a question and we can stop at anytime. I want to confirm that it is ok for me to record this conversation. Do you mind if I take notes to refer to if I need clarification?

1. Tell me about how you became a teacher educator.
2. Tell me more about the ___ you shared in the e-survey.
3. What role does hope have in your pedagogical practices?
4. Is there room or a place for hope in your curriculum/pedagogical practices?
5. How would you define hope in terms of teacher education hope (for/in teacher education)?
6. What type of a word is hope (verb, noun, etc.)?
7. Hope can get buried in the day to day shuffle of teaching, meetings, grading, etc. how do you keep it from getting buried?
8. Hope is a concept that often appears in discussions about teachers and teacher education. What is an example of "hope" in teacher education?
What is an example of a "lack of hope" in teacher education?
9. What is your understanding of "hope" or lack of it in teacher education?
Where does this stem from?
10. How do you maintain hope?
11. Is there anything you may have thought of during this interview that you haven't shared yet?

APPENDIX F

POWER ANALYSIS USING HISPANIC DESCENT AS VARIABLE

Power Calculation for Logistic Regression with Exposure Measurement Error

Correlation between true and observed exposure = 0.5 . Odds ratio for covariate = 1.5
Prevalence with no exposure =0.5. Correlation between exposure and covariate =0
Sample size = 72 . Significance level = 0.05

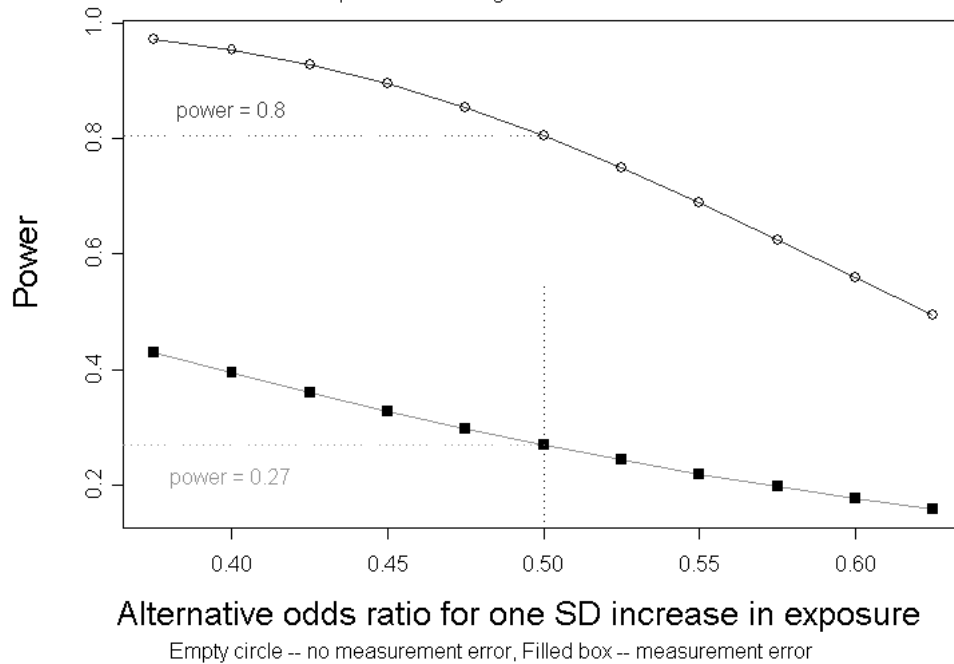


Figure 32. Power Analysis Using Hispanic Descent as Variable. This figure illustrates the projected sample size needed for correlation between perspectives of hope among participants who responded that they were of Hispanic descent.

APPENDIX G
POWER CALCULATION WITH ACTUAL SAMPLE SIZE DISPLAYING
TYPE II ERROR

Power Calculation for Logistic Regression with Exposure Measurement Error

Correlation between true and observed exposure = 0.5 . Odds ratio for covariate = 1.5
Prevalence with no exposure =0.5. Correlation between exposure and covariate =0
Sample size = 27 . Significance level = 0.05

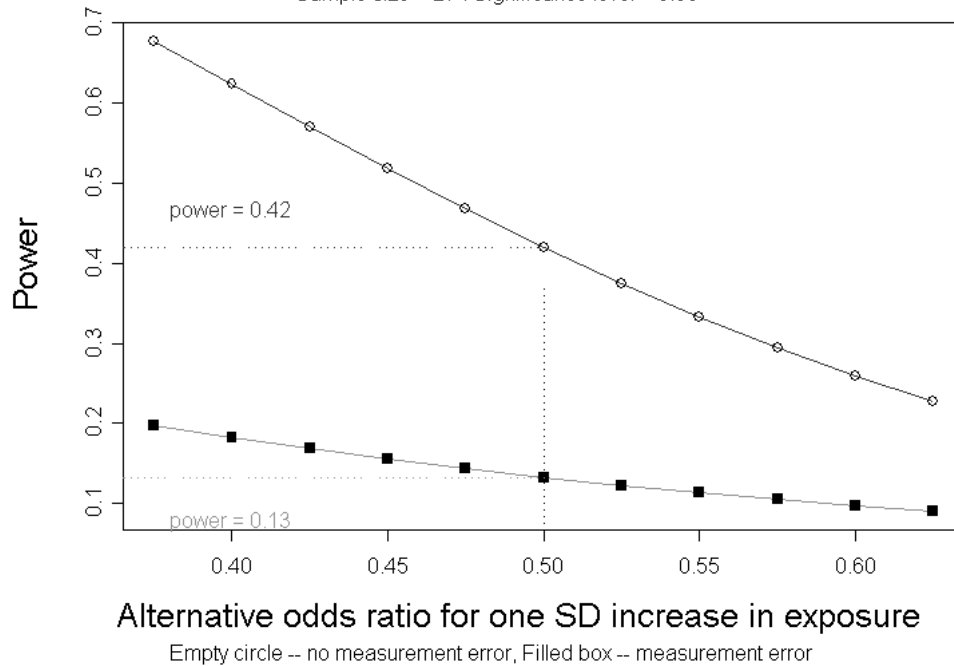


Figure 43. Power Calculation with Actual Sample Size Displaying Type II Error. This figure illustrates the correlation between perspectives of hope among participants who responded that they were of Hispanic descent.

APPENDIX H
MODELS OF FIT

Table 14

Models of Fit

Variable	Model	variable	model fit	df	odds
2 CurrentTPREP	X				
3 RetiredTPrep	no	no			
4TypePSTEP	no	no			
13 DescribeInstitutionType	no	no			
15 InstitutionLocation	no	no			
17 CurrentPosition	no	no			
19 YearsPreService	yes	yes	5.86	1	1.19
20 LevelPTE	no	no			
26 SubjectsGrouped	no	no			
55 P12Experience	X				
56 LevelofP12	no	no			
83 YearsInP12	yes	yes	4.19	1	1.21
84 P12Administrator	X				
97 YearsInP12Admin	no	no			
100 USPSTEQuality	no	no			
102 YourProgramQuality	no	no			
104 PSTEDoingGoodJob	no	no			
112 RelevancyOfPSTE	no	no			
114 ProgramPrepfoHowSchoolsRun	no	no			
118 ChangeNecessaryinPSTE	no	no			
121 TeachingMorePrestigious	yes	yes	4.47	1	1.27
124 Grouped Philosophy	no	no			
141 CompetencyTestPrerequisite	yes	yes	9.95	1	2.19
144 AccountableForFailure	no	no			
151 FailingACredentialingExam	No	no			
160 QualitiesOfCandidatesToChange	No	no			
167 EthnicityRace	Yes	yes	4.13	1	0.92
169 Age	Yes	yes	19.85	1	1.29
170 Gender	No	no			

APPENDIX I

FREQUENCES FOR PARTICIPANTS' P-12 EXPERIENCE

Table 15

*Frequencies for: What level of preservice teacher education have you taught?
Please check all that may apply?*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Early Childhood	17	2.7	2.7	2.7
Elementary	78	12.4	12.6	15.3
Secondary	88	14.0	14.2	29.5
Middle Grades	6	1.0	1.0	30.4
P-12	124	19.7	20.0	50.4
K-12	227	36.1	36.6	87.0
Early and Elementary	55	8.8	8.9	95.8
Elem and Middle	4	.6	.6	96.5
Middle and Secondary	9	1.4	1.4	97.9
Other	10	1.6	1.6	99.5
Early, Elem. and Middle	3	.5	.5	100.0
Total	621	98.9	100.0	
System	7	1.1		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX J

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' YEARS IN P-12 SETTINGS

Table 16

Frequencies for: How many years have you taught in a preservice teacher education program?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-4	95	15.1	15.3	15.3
5-9	170	27.1	27.3	42.6
10-14	129	20.5	20.7	63.3
15-19	92	14.6	14.8	78.1
20-24	71	11.3	11.4	89.5
25-29	35	5.6	5.6	95.2
30 or more	30	4.8	4.8	100.0
Total	622	99.0	100.0	

APPENDIX K

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' PROGRAM LOCATION

Table 17

Frequencies for: What best describes the location of your program?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Urban	206	32.8	33.1	33.1
Suburban	211	33.6	33.9	67.0
Rural	165	26.3	26.5	93.6
Other	40	6.4	6.4	100.0
Total	622	99.0	100.0	
System	6	1.0		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX L
FREQUENCIES FOR P-12 EXPERIENCE

Table 18

Frequencies for: Have you ever taught in a P-12 setting?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	587	93.5	100.0	100.0
No	40	6.4		
System	1	.2		
Total	41	6.5		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX M
FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' YEARS IN PRESERVICE TEACHER
EDUCATION

Table 19

Frequencies for: How many years have you taught in a preservice teacher education program?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
04	95	15.1	15.3	15.3
59	170	27.1	27.3	42.6
1014	129	20.5	20.7	63.3
1519	92	14.6	14.8	78.1
2024	71	11.3	11.4	89.5
2529	35	5.6	5.6	95.2
30 or more	30	4.8	4.8	100.0
Total	622	99.0	100.0	
Missing 0	6	1.0		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX N

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE

Table 20

Frequencies for: Have you ever been an administrator at the P-12 level?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	116	18.5	100.0	100.0
No	508	80.9		
System	4	.6		
Total	512	81.5		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX O
FREQUENCIES FOR SUBJECTS TAUGHT

Table 21

Frequencies for the subjects participants taught at the preservice teacher level

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Theory/Foundations	35	5.6	5.6	5.6
Methods/Content	294	46.8	47.0	52.6
Both Theory and Methods	282	44.9	45.0	97.6
Both Methods and Supervision	5	.8	.8	98.4
Both Theory and Supervision	1	.2	.2	98.6
Combination of all three	9	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	626	99.7	100.0	
System	2	.3		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX P

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' P-12 TEACHING LEVEL

Table 22

Frequencies for Participants' P-12 Teaching Levels

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Early Childhood	14	2.2	2.4	2.4
Elementary	80	12.7	13.7	16.1
Middle School	30	4.8	5.1	21.2
High School	77	12.3	13.2	34.4
K-12	94	15.0	16.1	50.4
P-12	36	5.7	6.2	56.6
7 thru 12	99	15.8	16.9	73.5
P-8	23	3.7	3.9	77.4
K-8	63	10.0	10.8	88.2
Early and Elementary	42	6.7	7.2	95.4
Other	27	4.3	4.6	100.0
Total	585	93.2	100.0	
System	43	6.8		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX Q

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' YEARS IN P-12 SETTINGS

Table 23

Frequencies for Participants' Years in P-12 Settings

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
04	139	22.1	23.7	23.7
59	210	33.4	35.8	59.6
1014	119	18.9	20.3	79.9
1519	67	10.7	11.4	91.3
2024	26	4.1	4.4	95.7
2529	25	4.0	4.3	100.0
Total	586	93.3	100.0	
Missing 0	42	6.7		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX R

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' YEARS IN P-12 ADMINISTRATION

Table 24

Frequencies for How many years were you involved in P12 administration?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
04	139	22.1	23.7	23.7
59	210	33.4	35.8	59.6
1014	119	18.9	20.3	79.9
1519	67	10.7	11.4	91.3
2024	26	4.1	4.4	95.7
2529	25	4.0	4.3	100.0
Total	586	93.3	100.0	
Missing 0	42	6.7		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX S

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' PHILOSOPHICAL BELIEFS

Table 25

Frequencies for: Which best describes your philosophical beliefs? Please check all that may apply.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Social Response (Essntl, Multicltrl, transfrmtv, behavior, perennial, progressive, social reconstructivism, sociocultural)	71	11.3	11.5	11.5
	Focus on learner (Constructivism, experiential, ethic of care)	58	9.2	9.4	20.9
	Combination	476	75.8	77.1	98.1
	Other	12	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	617	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	11	1.8		
Total		628	100.0		

APPENDIX T
FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' PERSPECTIVES ON PRESTIGE OF
THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Table 26

Frequencies for: Is it possible for teaching to become a more prestigious career choice?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Very possible	201	32.0	33.2	33.2
Possible	225	35.8	37.1	70.3
Somewhat possible	114	18.2	18.8	89.1
Not possible	15	2.4	2.5	91.6
Other	51	8.1	8.4	100.0
Total	606	96.5	100.0	
Missing 0	22	3.5		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX U
FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' PERSPECTIVES ON THEIR
PROGRAMS

Table 27

Frequencies for: How well does your preservice teacher education program prepare students for how P-12 schools are run (i.e., the organization)?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Very well	131	20.9	21.2	21.2
Somewhat well	371	59.1	60.1	81.4
Not well	71	11.3	11.5	92.9
This is not addressed	11	1.8	1.8	94.7
Other	33	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	617	98.2	100.0	
Missing 0	11	1.8		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX V

FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' PERSPECTIVES ON THE
RELEVANCE OF THEIR PROGRAM FOR PRESERVICE TEACHERS

Table 28

Frequencies for: How relevant is preservice teacher education to the current experiences of P-12 teachers?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Very Relevant	258	41.1	41.7	41.7
Relevant	233	37.1	37.6	79.3
Somewhat Relevant	79	12.6	12.8	92.1
Not Relevant	7	1.1	1.1	93.2
Other	42	6.7	6.8	100.0
Total	619	98.6	100.0	
Missing 0	9	1.4		
Total	628	100.0		

APPENDIX W
FREQUENCIES FOR PARTICIPANTS' PERSPECTIVES ON
ACCOUNTABILITY

Table 29

Frequencies for: Who should be accountable for a preservice teacher failing a teacher certification/licensure exam? Please check all that may apply

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Graduating University	33	5.3	5.4	5.4
All post-secondary schools the student attends	5	.8	.8	6.3
Student her/himself	187	29.8	30.9	37.1
Other	50	8.0	8.3	45.4
Combination of 1-4	331	52.7	54.6	100.0
Total	606	96.5	100.0	
Missing System	22	3.5		
Total	628	100.0		