Sensemaking and Policy Implementation of edTPA: The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly

By

CRAIG DE VOTO
B.A., Hope College, 2008
M.A.T., The George Washington University, 2010

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Defense Committee:
     Dr. Benjamin M. Superfine, Chair and Advisor
     Dr. David Mayrowetz
     Dr. Jennifer Olson, Curriculum and Instruction
     Dr. Celina Sima
     Dr. Michael Thomas, Educational Psychology

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the edTPA—a new performance-based, subject-specific, assessment and support system—and its associated policies/implementation across states and teacher preparation programs (TPPs). A multiple embedded case study was used to explore how adopted policy designs and micro-organizational factors influenced local edTPA sensemaking and its subsequent implementation. Two states and eight TPPs were selected. Data gathered included interviews ($N = 69$), focus groups ($N = 6$), and supporting documents. Analysis was conducted using grounded theory methods.

Findings showed edTPA sensemaking and implementation varied. These variances were the result of what policy design TPPs operated under, as well as their existing institutional capacities and compatibility. Three responses were found: active use, cosmetic compliance, and active resistance. In the process, edTPA became an inquiry-based or compliance-based policy tool. Recommendations included reconsidering edTPA as a mandate; emphasizing the edTPA Coordinator role; harnessing leadership to support its implementation; and improving faculty and cooperative teacher training.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, state governments have increasingly focused on holding teacher preparation programs (TPPs) and pre-service teachers accountable for their performance on licensure assessments. Just in the past five years alone, TPPs across 41 states are implementing a new performance-based, subject-specific, assessment and support system—the edTPA (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 2019). Developed by Stanford's Center for Assessment, Learning & Equity (SCALE), edTPA is intended to transform and address frequent criticisms of poor teacher preparation nationwide (Whittaker, Pechone, & Stansbury, 2018). While advocates view the assessment as a remedy (e.g. Adkins, 2016; Adkins, Spesia, & Snakenborg, 2015; Barron, 2015; Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013; Peck, Singer-Gabella, Sloan, & Lin, 2014; SCALE, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018; Wei, Pecheone, & Wilczak, 2014), its swift implementation across TPPs is outpacing scholarly understanding (Dover, Schultz, Smith, & Duggan, 2015; Hochstetler, 2014; Ruiz-Funes, 2018). In the process, there's the potential for unforeseen consequences given TPPs operate within distinct, contextual spaces, and maintain varying levels of capacity (Cohen & Mehta, 2017). Toward these ends, utilizing a multiple embedded case study (Yin, 2013), I aimed to examine such consequences across states and TPPs, filling a critical research gap.

Statement of problem/Purpose of study

Indeed, teacher preparation has come under increased scrutiny for its perceived low quality (Baltodano, 2012; Bullough, 2016; Earley, Imig, & Michelli, 2011; Zeichner, 2010). In the process, the profession has been reframed as a policy problem (Cochran-Smith, 2004; D. Imig, S. Imig, Neel, & Holmberg-Masden, 2018). Within this context, edTPA's rapid assimilation across states and TPPs reflect a larger policy narrative—maintaining external

legitimacy of the teacher profession (Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008; Gurl et al., 2016; Hutt, Gottlieb, & Cohen, 2018; Reagan, Schram, McCurdy, Chang, & Evans, 2016; Zeichner & Pena-Sandoval, 2015).

Resting at the intersection of multiple stakeholders, such legitimacy is synonymous with its perceived quality. However, reframing the teaching profession as a policy problem has resulted in multiple, competing pathways. On one hand, states have started privatizing teacher preparation (Bullough, 2016; Zeichner & Peña-Sandoval, 2015, D. Imig et al, 2018), breaking "the university monopoly on teacher education" (Mungal, 2016, p. 8). On the other hand, states have expanded the use of accountability tools for teacher preparation (D. Imig et al., 2018; Mitchell, Robinson, Plake, & Knowles, 2001)— what Zeichner (2006) calls "the professionalization agenda" (p. 327). Together, this has created a "policy paradox" (Stone, 2002) between local and state control, specifically around how and what tools states should use to assess teaching quality and preparation.

On a broad level, these tools have entered the policy landscape in the form of licensure assessments. A candidate's passage signifies a minimum level of competency needed to enter the profession (Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996). Since the 1990s, these assessments across states and TPPs have steadily increased (Arends, 2006; Zeichner, 2005); so much so that by 2010, more than 600 different licensure tests were in use (National Research Council, 2010). However, their overall quality has remained mixed (Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013). Towards these ends, edTPA was created to serve as a policy lever for both externally and internally improving teacher professionalization (Pechone & Whittaker, 2016; Whittaker et al., 2018).

Hailed as "the first subject-specific, standards-based pre-service assessment and support

system to be nationally available in the United States" (SCALE, 2017, p. 4), edTPA measures a "candidate's readiness to successfully begin his or her career as a teacher" (SCALE, 2015, p. 46) via a submitted video-lesson, reflective commentaries, and ePortfolio. Advocates contend its widespread adoption will help legitimize the embattled profession by employing a high quality accountability tool across states and TPPs (Adkins, 2016; Adkins, Spesia, & Snakenborg, 2015; Barron, 2015; Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013; SCALE, 2013, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018; Wei, Pecheone, & Wilczak, 2014; Whittaker et al., 2018). At the same time, such licensure standardization is at odds with the very theory of action behind one-third of all TPPs (U.S. Department of Education, 2015)—i.e. alternative-route certification programs—who subscribe to market-based forces (Tamir, 2008, 2010; Zeichner, 2010; Zeichner & Pena-Smandoval, 2015). This is raising an important policy design conflict for American teacher education; many are being subjected to implementing a standardized assessment system that may go against the very paradigms they support. Therefore, as edTPA becomes further embedded across states and TPPs, there are conceivable problems at various policy levels.

Finally, despite its developers cautioning a variety of factors may influence how a candidate performs—e.g. prior knowledge, initial academic readiness, TPP quality, and/or program support structures (SCALE, 2015)—states are coopting this test in an unintended manner (Nast, 2014). Originally conceived as an embedded professional development tool (Nelson, Waechter-Versaw, Mitchener, & Chou, 2014), much like Charlotte Danielson's *Framework for Teaching*, they are currently adopting edTPA as a summative rather than formative assessment (AACTE, 2019). In the process, over 40% of TPPs and 140,000 pre-service teachers nationwide (U.S. Department of Education, 2015) are now subject to meeting its demands.

Given these circumstances, there are potential policy pitfalls related to edTPA as a measure of teacher professionalization across states and TPPs (Cochran-Smith, Piazza, & Power, 2013). For example, as traditional and alternative TPPs redesign their licensure sequences to meet these state mandates, many have inadequate resources and/or capacities to do so—e.g. limited staff time, money, and supports (De Voto, 2016, 2018; Fayne & Qian, 2015, 2016; Hurtig et al., 2015; Lambert & Girtz, 2016; Lys, L'Esperance, Dobson, & Bullock, 2014; Many et al., 2016; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Meuwissen, Choppin, Shang-Butler, & Cloonan, 2015; Reagan et al., 2016; Schultz & Dover, 2016). Furthermore, its impact on TPPs generally—both as a high-stakes assessment and organizationally speaking—remains unclear (Olson & Rao, 2017), particularly given the speedy transition from hundreds of different licensure tests across states/programs towards implementing one, standardized assessment system (DeMoss, 2016; Sawchuk, 2013; Sato, 2014). Finally, due to added time articulating rubrics (Ressler, King, & Nelson, 2016) or explaining proper video editing (De Voto & Thomas, 2018; Greenblatt, 2015, 2016; Roberts, 2018), many instructors are calling the reform "teaching to the test" and "No Child Left Behind for higher ed." (De Voto, 2016). All the while, research demonstrating that edTPA performance translates into success in the field is lacking (Berlak, 2011; Goldhaber, Cowan, & Theobald, 2017; Hébert, 2017; Lalley, 2016; Lim & Lishka, 2016).

Therefore, in an effort to better understand these policy problems and criticisms, my dissertation examines how state adopted policy designs and micro-organizaitonal factors are affecting TPPs implementing edTPA. Although research has examined individual TPPs and their perceptions of edTPA implementation (e.g. Cohen, Hutt, Berlin, Mathews, McGraw, & Gottlieb, 2018), to-date, research comprehensively examining such perceptions across multiple TPPs remains absent. Further, research examining the extent to which policy design further plays a

role remains absent. Lastly, no known studies have attended to alternative-route TPPs— despite making up over one-third of all programs nationally (National Research Council, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2015), and being fundamentally at odds with the regulatory design such policies promote. To address these gaps, I accordingly asked the following questions:

Q1: What are the different edTPA policy designs adopted by Illinois and Iowa?

Q2: How are TPP implementers (i.e. administrators/faculty/staff) responding to such policy designs?
    Q2A: More specifically, how are they sensemaking (i.e. perceiving) these policy designs?
    Q2B: And what are the major factors (e.g. differences between traditional vs. alternative-certification routes; micro-organizational resources, structures, and cultural practices) influencing their sensemaking?

Q3: How are pre-service teachers responding to such policy designs and TPP sensemaking processes?
    Q3A: What are their corresponding pass rates (i.e. mandated state assessment outcomes)?

Majone and Wildavsky (1984) argue, "the central problem of implementation is not whether implementers conform to prescribed policy [outcomes], but whether the implementation processes result in consensus on goals, individual autonomy, and commitment to the policy on the part of [all] who must carry it out" (p. 167). Stated differently, "fidelity" is ancillary to understanding how contextual factors shape local policy implementation (Spillane et al., 2002). This is important given TPPs are highly autonomous (Altbach, Berdahl, & Gumport, 2005; Labaree, 2008; Miller, Carroll, Jancic, & Markworth, 2015; Siddique, Aslam, Khan, & Fatima, 2011), complex (Zeichner, 2006), and often "loosely-coupled" systems (Fusarelli, 2002; Weick, 1976). At the same time, Honig (2006a) notes, "without detailed information about the conditions [i.e. designs] under which certain interventions work, decision makers will not know if the failure of a particular [policy]… stemmed from their choice of provisions or poor conditions for implementation" (p. 3). Collectively then, my research questions examine edTPA

policy from its formative roots (i.e. state adopted policy designs), its implementation processes (via observed TPP administrator/faculty/staff sensemaking), and its end-line policy users (i.e. teacher candidates) (Ball. 1993). In doing so, a comprehensive understanding of how macro-policy designs, coupled with micro-organizational factors promote and/or impede edTPA policy implementation will be highlighted.

Largely, my pilot research was the driving force behind these research questions (De Voto, 2016). First, despite widespread adoption, it revealed states are adopting two different policy designs— "mandated" vs. "voluntary". One of my cases, Illinois, mandates edTPA for TPPs whereas the other case, Iowa, allows TPPs to voluntarily adopt it. Together, they broadly represent the edTPA policy landscape (*Q1*). Second, it highlighted how states' adopted designs influenced different implementation responses (*Q2*) and subsequent sensemaking (*Q2A*) by TPP administrators, faculty, and staff because of certain contextual factors (*Q2B*). Third, it demonstrated how such sensemaking further influenced respective pre-service teachers' perceptions taking the assessment system (*Q3*), including their pass rates (*Q3A*). My dissertation therefore aimed to elaborate upon these findings, contributing new, important research to the field.

Conceptual framework

In framing my research questions around state adopted policy designs, existing micro-organizational factors, I borrowed concepts from policy formation/implementation and organizational theory. Holzinger and Knill (2005) argue cross-national policies like edTPA swiftly converge when "governments are the agents reacting to problem pressure, experience gained elsewhere, pressure of powerful external actors, economic pressure, [or] legal obligation" (p. 776). Simply put, many factors and/or actors combine to produce a heightened political

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climate, thereby forming the ideal "policy window" (Kingdon, 1984) for rapid adoption (of the edTPA or otherwise). However, large-scale policies further diffuse in distinctive ways (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996, 2000; Hutt et al., 2018), resulting in different adopted policy designs. On one hand, states or other bureaucratic systems adopt cross-national policies in a "coercive," regulatory manner (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996, 2000). To date, one-third of participating states have mandated edTPA as a requirement—i.e. high-stakes—for initial teacher licensure (AACTE, 2019). On the other hand, governmental agents enact policies in a more "voluntary" design (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996, 2000). To-date, two-thirds of participating states have made it a voluntary, summative assessment for teacher licensure.

At the same time, Honig (2006a) argues policies are not self-executing; indeed, they need to be implemented by entities and people. Thus, the intersection between macro-policy design and micro-policy implementation becomes a critical entry point (and focus of my dissertation) for understanding the diffusion and implementation of edTPA generally. Dubois (2009, p.163) refers to such a framework as "policy ethnography," providing a "… nuanced and realistic ground-level view of [a given] policy, too often analyzed abstractly from the top."

To demonstrate theoretically, Spillane, Reiser, & Gomez (2006) point out adopted policy designs signal to local implementers how they should respond (*Q1*). "Coercive" policies force compliance whereas "voluntary" policies form a reciprocal relationship between state and local (Elmore, 1979). That said, a multitude of micro-organizational variables also come into play, further influencing policy in practice (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; McLaughlin, 1987). In particular, an organization's capacities and overall will to meet such policy demands becomes paramount (McLaughlin, 1987; Mohr, 1969; Odden, 1991; Spillane, 1999; Stoll & Bolam, 2005). For example, when an organization is ready (Weiner, 2009), willing (Berman, 1986), and has the

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necessary resources to meet the spirit of a policy (McLaughlin, 1987), they become "active users," complying in a manner far exceeding the minimum (Firestone, 1989). Conversely, when such capacities are absent, actors typically resist compliance— actively (i.e. verbally/physically; Berman, 1986; Mohr. 1969) or "cosmetically" (i.e. pro forma; De Voto & Thomas, 2018). As a result, policy implementation is not a technical, rational, top-down process (Franson & McMahan, 2013). This interplay between various stakeholders and factors at different policy levels (Banner, Donnelly, & Ryder, 2012; Datnow & Park, 2009) influence their implementation (Sabatier & Mazmanian, 1980).

Demonstrating this conceptual framework in practice, research shows TPPs either view policies handed down by the state as a form of program improvement, or as a threat to their overall mission and autonomy (see Kornfeld, Grady, Marker, & Ruddell, 2007; Ledwell & Oyler, 2016; Lit & Lotan, 2013; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Meuwissen et al., 2015; Peck, Gallucci, & Sloan, 2010; Sloan, 2015). As Ratner and Kolman (2016) demonstrate, edTPA implementation can broadly be characterized by those who obey, those who bend, and those who break associated demands. Therefore, such a framework helps me highlight the interaction between policy designs, how local organizations collectively/individually make sense of them, and the responses that follow (*Q2*).

Finally, while examining the interplay between state-adopted policy designs and existing institutional/contextual factors helps me grasp edTPA's implementation processes, this framework cannot empirically observe such phenomena. To unpack this interplay, I therefore used "sensemaking" (Coburn, 2001, 2005; Weick, 1995). Sensemaking framework emphasizes how micro-organizational factors shape actors' perceptions and responses to policy (Spillane et al., 2002), both collectively and individually (Weick, 1995). Policy messages are thereby

reconstructed and reshaped based on actors' "prior knowledge, the social context within which they work, and the nature of their connections to the policy…" (Coburn, 2005, p. 478). Daly (2010, p. 17) also posits "positions in a social structure [also] have consequences for how processes are enacted, how participants make sense of their participation, and how organizations change." Accordingly, by studying these collective/individual TPP sensemaking networks across organizational strata, the processes by which various factors (*Q2B*) combine to produce policy fidelity or failure (*Q3*) for edTPA will be better explained (Majone & Wildavsky, 1984).

In sum, the literature demonstrates differences in policy tractability are the product of demands placed on those carrying out policy (e.g. by states); actors' prior beliefs, knowledge, and other orientations toward policy demands; and the places/contexts surrounding the extent to which people can and will implement such demands (Honig, 2006a). As a result, in borrowing conceptual frameworks from cross-national policy adoption, local policy implementation, and micro-organizational sensemaking, a clearer understanding of edTPA enactment across TPPs is presented.

Design and methods

Given edTPA's national policy implications—currently impacting over three-quarters of states and one-third of all TPPs—I utilized a multiple embedded case study (Yin, 2013). This design allows for rigorous examination across multiple policy levels, while ensuring feasible data collection. To optimize what could be learned about edTPA policy implementation (*Q1*), I first selected two case states (from my pilot)— Illinois and Iowa. These case states represented the two adopted policy designs (i.e. coercive vs. voluntary). Illinois requires *all* pre-service teacher candidates (enrolled in traditional or alternative TPPs) to pass edTPA for licensure, whereas Iowa TPPs can voluntarily adopt it (among other options). Second, since edTPA

implementation is strictly carried out by TPPs, I selected case institutions within both states. In Illinois, Jefferson, Hamilton, Lincoln, and Ford University were selected (all pseudonyms). Conversely, in Iowa, Roosevelt, Adams, Madison, and Johnson University were selected. These TPPs were purposefully embedded to reflect a public, private, urban, rural, homogeneous/heterogeneous population, and alternative case in each state. They also served as a proxy for studying variances in existing resources, programmatic missions, administrative capacities, and/or will (see Rainey & Bozeman, 2000; Tolbert, 1985).

Within these embedded cases, several forms of data were collected. In examining how TPP implementers are sensemaking different edTPA policy designs (*Q2*), one-on-one interviews with administrators, faculty, and staff across all selected cases were conducted (*N* = 69). These interviews lasted approximately 45-90 minutes each and were conducted using a semi-structured question protocol. However, to further triangulate my findings, TPP administrators, faculty, and staff outside of my embedded cases were interviewed (*N* = 6) who occupied similar contexts, as well as staff from SCALE (*N* = 1). Both groups were identified in one of two ways: institutional website biographies or "snowball sampling" (Creswell, 2017). In addition, to better understand how TPP sensemaking correspondingly related to pre-service teachers' responses (*Q3*), focus groups and course observations at each embedded case TPP were completed (*N* = 6). Focus groups lasted approximately 30-60 minutes each and were similarly conducted using a semi-structured question protocol. Documents—e.g. emails; letters; agendas; minutes; progress reports; and internal records—were also gathered, serving as form of comparative analysis (Yin, 2013). Finally, pass rates were collected across my embedded cases (*Q3A*) in effort to compare TPP policy fidelity with associated student outcomes. This was limited in scope, however, as it only provided a summative measure of implementation and its relative relationship to candidate

readiness.

All data were transcribed and uploaded to ATLAS.ti, a computer software package. Data were coded using a grounded theory version advocated by Charmaz (2000, 2006). This version allows for the inclusion of preexisting conceptual frameworks, while still providing some freedom to investigate an issue with limited research available. Accordingly, collected data were analyzed both inductively and deductively; my pilot data and outlined conceptual framework (see Chapter Three) provided a preliminary inductive lens, followed by any relevant themes deductively identified afterwards. I also used the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and the coding suggestions of Saldaña (2016). Approximately 40 codes were identified inductively and deductively.

After coding, all embedded cases were similarly examined using the "instrumental" case approach (Stake, 1995), whereby my cases facilitated the understanding of something greater—i.e. the influence of edTPA policy design on local implementation. So while individual cases were coded, they were then "constantly compared" to the adopted state policy design in which they operated. Grounded theory and case study design therefore complemented one another, serving to capture both the macro- and micro- factors influencing edTPA across multiple case states and TPPs.

Delimitations of study

This study only examines TPP administrators, faculty, staff, and students in case institutions across Illinois and Iowa. While other states have adopted similar policy designs, these two case states were highlighted in an effort to reflect edTPA's bimodal approach.

Also, differences between elementary/secondary TPP programs and differences between undergraduate/graduate TPP programs were not accounted for as part of the study's design. Such

idiosyncrasies would have complicated embedded cases with unnecessary stratification and/or covariance.

On the other hand, because my dissertation is a policy ethnography (Dubois, 2009) and not a critical examination of teacher licensure assessments, the edTPA itself (i.e. its structure, design, etc.) was not explicitly studied and/or measured. Only tangential comments about the assessment made by TPP administrators, faculty, staff, and teacher candidates were analyzed.

Lastly, the bulk of my work is centered on TPP implementers (i.e. administrators, faculty, and staff), not end-line policy users (i.e. pre-service teachers). This decision was made, in part, because a great deal of research already exists regarding the influences of edTPA adoption upon teacher candidate sensemaking. However, a dearth of scholarship still remains concerning how these state policy tools are affecting higher education personnel, especially in light of existing resource disparities.

Limitations of study

While my study aims to deeply examine edTPA's impact on TPPs from a macro/micro policy lens, resources and data collection feasibility limits how many states and TPPs could be studied to saturation. Therefore, only two states were examined—Illinois and Iowa—and four TPPs in both. Equally, because these are geographically close to each other (i.e. convenience sampling; Patton, 2002), there also could be conceivable differences in states on the coasts adopting similar policy designs. That said, Honig (2006a) notes such strategically selected qualitative cases can "provide special opportunities to build knowledge about little understood and often complex phenomena" (p. 22).

Finally, as discussed, most data collection/analyses are centered on the interactions between TPP administrators/faculty/staff and how they support or constrain edTPA policy

implementation (*Q2*). Hence, although pre-service teacher experiences/data are gathered (*Q3*), the extent to which TPP faculty/staff contribute to their observed policy responses can only be loosely claimed.

Positionality

Given my study methods utilize the interpretive perspective (Bredo, 2006), I am not a "passive" researcher. Indeed, I have a specific biography with specific views and assumptions (England, 1994). These idiosyncrasies in turn produce conscious and subconscious decisions that influence my research (Whittemore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001). Therefore, it is important to discuss my personal views of edTPA, and how these might impact this study's overall findings.

Having been a pre-service teacher myself during the No Child Left Behind era, I too had to undergo a battery of high-stakes teacher assessments to receive state certification. Broadly, I found such assessments to be a loathsome process. They offered little development other than to demonstrate I was "highly-qualified" to be a grades 6-12 history/political science teacher. As a result, I tend to disagree with the use of such assessments as means to measure and/or hold accountable the teaching workforce. However, during the course of this study, I have found edTPA to be quite different than the teacher licensure assessments I had to pass. It is arguably the best assessment system currently in existence; my research reveals much promise for this system.. Paradoxically, I find myself somewhat separated from my prior perceptions of licensure testing in teacher education. Therefore, I believe this work to be an objective representation of a policy tool in practice, illustrating the good, the bad, and the ugly for American teacher education.

Trustworthiness

While Ragin (1999) argues interpretive methods tend to face criticism that their results

are not generalizable or transferable, according to Flyvbjerg (2006), formal generalization does not necessarily move paradigmatic thought in a meaningful way. Indeed, such generalization cannot take into account the worlds we study are inherently social, producing intersubjectivity (Habermas, 1970). As a result, embracing this intersubjectivity is what separates interpretive from positivist methods (Burawoy, 1998). One is thus better off strategically selecting cases that represent the world/questions they are trying to examine (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002). Towards these ends, I have utilized a multiple embedded case study design (Yin, 2013), triangulating collected data, and analyzing them via constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2000, 2006).

Significance of study findings

This study fills several important gaps. First, it will inform both policymakers and TPP faculty/staff how this policy is influencing and/or impacting teacher programs generally (for better or worse). Indeed, such a multi-state, comprehensive examination of edTPA implementation across TPPs has precluded scholarly engagement (Dover et al., 2015). Second, it will provide the first collected evidence of edTPA-inspired responses from alternative-route certification programs. Third, it will help these audiences better understand the extent to which and under what circumstances successful edTPA implementation is taking place— i.e. what state-adopted policy designs and existing micro-organizational factors are required for intended fidelity.

Organization of dissertation

This introductory chapter presented the background, problem, purpose, methods, and significance of my study. Chapter Two reviews the literature concerning the 200-year history of federal and state teacher education policy tools, with particular attention paid to edTPA. Chapter

Three discusses a conceptual framework for understanding the historical context of edTPA policy formation and implementation, especially how different state-adopted policy designs and micro-organizational factors influence such ends. Chapter Four outlines the specific methods utilized, including my plans for case selection, data collection, and analysis. Chapter Five reveals my findings, separated by case state and embedded TPPs. Chapter Six discusses these findings within the broader history of teacher education and the policy formation/implementation framework highlighted in Chapters Two and Three. Chapter Seven will briefly conclude my findings, as well as provide thoughts for future research and edTPA policies moving forward. Finally, attached are appendices, which include a glossary, interview protocols and questions, other IRB-related forms, and data table of my embedded case findings.

The formation and subsequent implementation of edTPA rests at the nexus of two converging historical trends in teacher education: 1) utilizing policy tools to drive accountability and market-based designs (Hannaway & Woodroffe, 2003), and 2) a continued shift in governance over the profession, away from TPPs and towards federal and state jurisdiction. More broadly, however, this convergence stems from an external and internal struggle to both legitimize and professionalize teaching.

Although teacher professionalization had humble beginnings—only serving to "safe guard against a waste of public funds" (Frazier, 1933, p. 45)—the need for an educated citizenry spurred great change. Seeking to standardize its formerly ad hoc roots, states, counties, districts, and even teacher programs therefore began implementing a host of policy tools. Such tools mainly consisted of two designs. On one hand, they placed accountability mechanisms on those entering the teacher workforce—e.g. completing competency exams or a recognized training program. On the other, they promoted market-based models—e.g. competition and deregulation. Together, these divergent pathways were thought to improve teacher quality, thereby legitimizing the profession.

At the same time, a continued shift in governance exists. Up until the early 20th century, teacher education was locally controlled. Yet as student achievement continued to fall short of expectations, the federal government and states became increasingly involved. In the process, they emerged as the external gatekeepers of teacher professionalization, limiting the internal influence local TPPs had towards such ends.

Bridging both of these converging historical trends in teacher education, edTPA therefore became the ideal policy tool. It raised the external stakes of teacher credentialing systems while

simultaneously reducing TPPs' control of them. But this transformation was not precipitous; rather, it was the result of stakeholders' struggles to adequately address teacher quality (Labaree, 2004, 2008) and professionalization (Hutt et al., 2018).

Indeed, both federal and state policymakers compellingly argue the perceived failure of schools begins with those who must train prospective educators (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Goe, 2007; Superfine, Gottlieb, & Smylie, 2012; Wayne & Youngs, 2003; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Munday, 2001). This has resulted in three different waves of associated teacher education policies (Lin, 2015). That said, their policy designs do not always align with the current political landscape. So despite widespread agreement by those within and outside education that a teacher's preparation and qualifications are the most predictive indicators of student achievement (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wycoff, 2009; Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000; Wayne & Youngs, 2003; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini- Munday, 2001), this has led to a host of potentially conflicting policy tools aimed at TPPs (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016; Cochran-Smith, Piazza, & Power, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Dillon & Silva, 2011; Emihovich, Dana, Vernetson, & Colon, 2011; Feuer, Floden, Chudowsky, & Ahn, 2013; Henry et al., 2013; Milner, 2013; Hutt et al., 2018). Therefore, to better understand this volatile political landscape within teacher education, I will first trace the convergence of (1) federal/state policy tools and their varying designs throughout its nearly 200-year history, and 2) the shift in governance from local TPPs to federal/state jurisdiction. Then, utilizing the rise of the edTPA and its associated policies as a backdrop, I will empirically show how this convergence plays out across my two selected cases— Illinois and Iowa (see Chapter Four). In doing so, a more situated understanding of how macro-level policy tools and micro-level implementation factors contribute to a policy's fidelity will be highlighted.

This chapter is organized into the following subsections. First, I begin with the early history of American teacher education (1830s-1900). Second, I highlight the advent of state teacher accountability and certification reform (1900-1950s). Third, I illustrate the rise of standardized teacher performance assessments, alternative certification routes, and teacher education accountability tools (1950s-2001). Fourth, I discuss heightened federal governance under the No Child Left Behind era (2001-2009). Fifth, I explain the federal government's subsequent retreat under ESEA flexibility waivers and Race To The Top (2009-2011). Finally, I detail how the preceding 200 years of converging teacher education policies and transference of governance opened a "policy window" for edTPA's widespread adoption (2012-present).

Early history of American teacher education: 1830s to turn of the 19th century

While the current state of American teacher education is highly influenced by federal and state policy tools, the 19th century was different. Governance of teachers was primarily a local matter (Frazier et al., 1933). In fact, the only required criteria were to have completed the grade you sought a position for (Conant, 1963; Labaree, 2008) and be able to maintain student order (Sedlack, 1989). However, as the political and social need for an educated citizenry grew, so did the need for legitimizing and professionalizing its ad hoc roots. I detail this early transformation below.

Transition from provisional vocation to recognized profession. Beginning with the common school movement of the 1830s and 40s (Tyack & Cuban, 1995), education transformed from a provisional vocation to that of a local public trust. This transformation required "systematic training and professional certification" (Labaree, 2008, p. 292). On one hand, former teacher apprenticeships were being replaced with regulated teacher certification exams given by district school boards (Conant, 1963) or county superintendents (Fraser, 2007). While on the

other, "summer teacher institutes" constituted "the first formal effort to provide teachers with professional development opportunities" (Labaree, 2008, p. 291). Together, teaching thus became a much more recognized profession despite remaining a predominantly local affair.

Responding to the market: Normal schools. By the 1850s and 60s, a sharp increase in market demand for competent teachers arose (Labaree, 2008). "Normal schools" served to meet this shortage by providing an inexpensive, alternative training pipeline (Labaree, 2008). These schools were arguably the first market-based policy tool, leveraging competition and demand to foster excellence (Fraser, 2007; Zeichner, 2016). Over the next few decades, they "became the preferred means of preparing teachers," with as many as 120,000 enrollees during their heyday (Fraser, 2007, p. 83).

However, these normal schools evolved to meet different market needs. First, major cities opted to setup their own—known as "normal departments"—within high schools (Fraser, 2007; Frazier et al., 1933; Labaree, 2008). Repsonding to workforce shortages, these departments had minimal admission criteria and varying degrees of curricula/length (Fraser, 2007; Frazier et al., 1933). Second, states established normal schools that were far more structured. Responding to rigor, these schools gave "prospective teachers the grounding in subject matter they had not received in their earlier education" (Labaree, 2008, p. 292). As a result, a tension between both local vs. state governance and quantity vs. quality emerged. Many states thus began regulating credentials for all prospective teachers, requiring some coursework at an approved normal school (Conant, 1963) or a high school diploma (Fraser, 2007). Additionally, they started mandating a battery of teacher competency examinations (Conant, 1963; Frazier, 1938)— e.g. basic skills, US history, geography, spelling, and grammar (Ravitch, 2003). Such measures were thought to strike a balance between meeting workforce demands and the need for standardized professional

training.

Increasing state intervention: Merging with the university. By the late 19th century, it became apparent these external policies were not enough to levy a competent teaching pool. As Tyack (1967) points out, while the number of public normal schools increased drastically, they graduated no more than one-quarter of all teachers. States consequently started integrating many of these sub-standard, market-based alternatives into "teacher's colleges," providing some much needed academic standing. Moreover, they established "regional state universities" (Labaree, 2008) as a way to model teacher education practice for these transitioning normal schools.

At the same time, elite, private teacher's colleges entered the landscape (Labaree, 2008). Unlike normal schools or state universities, these institutions did not have to respond to teacher shortages or competition. Instead, they subscribed to a different set of circumstances the market sorely needed— i.e. highly selective, rigorous training opportunities. In this way, such schools served as another early market-based policy tool, while highlighting the inadequacies of lesser, transitioning normal schools.

On a broad level, by merging with the university, states envisioned teacher education following the path of other, more prestigious professions— e.g. divinity studies, law, and medicine. These occupations all shared common bodies of knowledge across their respective workforce (Ravitch, 2003), enabling a high degree of standardization. However, this transition also risked undermining its professional mission (Labaree, 2008). Suhrie (1923) pointed out, "these institutions…[still] ha[d] no adequate equipment of the right sort, no program of studies and activities, and no professional staff for the training of teachers" (p.77). Equally, the Association of American Universities (1922) found a third of "institutions [were] unorganized in the [education] sequences of courses which they require… and staffed by persons of inadequate

scholarly training" (p. 111). As such, many teachers during this time entered classrooms without the necessary content expertise. And while state officers began requiring a new policy tool—subject "majors" (Conant, 1963)—this only encouraged a growing mistrust between those who prepare them and those who certify them.

Looking back, the 19th century right up to the beginning of the 20th demonstrated great change for teacher education. First, what started out as a hyper-localized, ad hoc occupation evolved into a somewhat standardized professional training process. Second, "normal schools," rooted in utility and market-based pressures had made way for "teacher's colleges". Third, only completing the grade level one wanted a position for had made way for mandated competency exams. Finally, sole discretion of teaching credentials by education faculty had made way for state accountability tools like content majors and bachelor's degrees.

At the same time, these changes fostered several enduring dilemmas— 1) reconciling workforce demands (i.e. relevancy) vs. academic rigor (Labaree, 2008); 2) teacher educator expertise/practice vs. state credentialing/regulation; and 3) market-based forces vs. accountability designs. Indeed, such dilemmas would only grow stronger in the coming decades, making teachers one of the most regulated American professions. In the following sections, I highlight such dilemmas, and how their convergence created an acute "policy window" for edTPA.

The advent of teacher accountability and certification reform: Early to mid-20th century

Although teacher education policy tools had their beginnings in the mid- to late-19th century, it wasn't until the 20th century that accountability designs became significant. Indeed, teacher training impacts every state, every town, and every citizen. Therefore, it was no surprise the early 20th century showed continued state support for dismantling these divergent normal

schools, transitioning them to teacher's colleges, and increasing external legitimacy. To illustrate, between 1911 and 1930, 88 such transitions had taken place (Tyack, 1967), and by the 1950s, they had all but disappeared (Labaree, 2008). In the process, the university emerged as a powerful accountability tool for teacher professionalization, effectively leaving the early 19th century localized apprenticeship model behind (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997).

As discussed, merging the profession into the higher education system had its drawbacks. Universities were still transforming into renowned research establishments. This resulted in uneven rigor and standards (Fraser, 2007). For example, the U.S. Department of Education's *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* (Frazier et al., 1933) found less than half maintained more than a 2-year course curriculum, only 10 granted master's degrees, and admission requirements were wide-ranging. Conversely, the teaching workforce at this time remained localized; college matriculation was uncommon. Thus, teachers only completed 4.7 years training above elementary school (Gaumnitz, 1932). To address these shortcomings, states accordingly began imposing stricter accountability requirements, shifting the locus of control further away from teaching programs. I briefly explain these requirements below.

Increasing state governance and accountability tools. Beginning with the scientific measurement movement of the 1920s, state legislators and "administrative progressives" started scaling-up teacher competency assessments (Callahan, 1962; Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Historians credit the *Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study* (Charters & Waples, 1929) as the first large-scale attempt to systematically examine teacher competencies and overall readiness (Zeichner, 2005). Conducted at The University of Chicago, the three-year study (1925-1928) yielded 1001 characteristics and 83 traits associated with what makes a "good" teacher— e.g. adaptability, alertness, inspiration, leadership, tact, calmness, and magnetism (Zeichner, 2005). Ultimately, it

was meant to encourage TPPs to align their education courses to the competencies outlined.

Although no known research examines how many TPPs changed their programs as a result of this study, its impact from a historical-analysis perspective cannot be ignored. Believing these accountability tools would ostensibly improve student learning and make the US more globally competitive (Ravitch, 2003; Zeichner, 2012; Zeichner & Peña-Sandoval, 2015), states continued enacting them. Accordingly, by 1933, at least half had some certification tool measuring one's competency to teach (Frazier et al., 1933). TPPs were therefore slowly being forced to reform their programs, practices, and/or standards (Conant, 1963), reducing the control they had towards such ends.

This rise in accountability tools for teacher education can best be explained using Gramsci's (1971) "integral state" theory. He argues that political and social spheres remain "co-extensive". Hence, when a political crisis exists (e.g. poor teacher quality), governing agencies' abilities to win social acceptance are diminished. This dilemma causes them to legislate policy tools rooted in accountability designs. As such, teacher education has become a much more top-down, mechanical vocation, sharply contrasting with the localized, context-based approaches many in higher education at the time had championed (Fraser, 2007).

Still, these early accountability tools were a mediocre attempt towards addressing poor teacher quality. Examining the national teacher education landscape, Frazier (1938, p. 73) noted the "best interests of American childhood demand that certification of teachers be based on something more substantial than mere success in passing an examination." Nevertheless, only 17 states had mandated more appropriate certification requirements— e.g. evidence demonstrating the completion of college credit (Frazier, 1938). Meanwhile, tensions between states and TPPs only grew deeper, necessitating an intermediary.

Non-governmental agencies (NGOs). In light of such tensions, NGOs proved to be the ideal proxy between both parties. During the 1920s-30s, these actors spurred policy changes at the programmatic level rather than via certification instruments (which now rested solely with states). They did so by serving as TPP accreditation boards. Among the most prominent were the National Council of Teachers Colleges and Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Teacher preparation pathways were thus being scrutinized on two fronts.

On one hand, states continued concentrating their efforts on external certification tools (e.g. competency examinations or college credit requirements; Frazier, 1938). While on the other, these professional associations focused on teacher professionalization from within, addressing TPPs' uneven rigor. Because TPPs competed for enrollees to maintain operation, these third-party agencies thereby incentivized institutions to voluntarily seek accreditation. So despite the mediocre accountability tools enacted by states, the need for internal legitimacy caused most TPPs to begin making significant changes. These included heightening requirements for staff appointments, outlining mandatory course credits (i.e. sequences), and specifying the amount of student teaching provided (Frazier et al., 1933).

However, it wasn't until the 1950s that NGOs truly made progress towards improving teacher professionalization and licensure. Founded in 1954, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) would ascend as the nation's leading TPP endorsement body. They acquired such recognition largely from past partnerships and "borrowing strength" (Manna, 2006) with the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) and National Commission of Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS) (Conant, 1963). NCATE broadly supported teacher professionalization and licensure in two ways: 1) strengthening subject matter/pedagogical

expertise, and 2) increasing clinical work experiences across TPPs (American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1949). Such recommendations hinged on the fact they found a critical imbalance in the preparation and certification of elementary and secondary teachers (American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1949). Equally, they noted, "standards ranged all the way from 12 hours to 90 [referencing course credit], and only 18 states required [a] bachelor's degree" (American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1949, p. 75). In the process, teacher preparation and certification became linked; TPPs were compelled not only to gain accreditation, but because candidates would have to demonstrate such credentials before entering the classroom.

NCATE's accreditation role also helped standardize the growing landscape of teacher's colleges. This meant further integrating assimilated normal schools by dropping "teacher's" or "normal" from their letterhead and simply referring to them as "university" (Labaree, 2008). Criteria included standards for admitting and retaining students; faculty training; student counseling; physical facilities; practice-teacher arrangements; administrative structure; and consistency across specialized and professional education routes (Conant, 1963). Because states similarly competed with one another, many voluntarily pursued accreditation for their respective TPPs. Program accreditation therefore became a nationwide effort— no longer just a market-based incentive amongst individual TPPs.

As Conant (1963) contends, the politics during this period could only be described as a "power struggle." This period saw the dismantling of normal schools and their conversion to universities, the proliferation of teacher competency examinations, and the arrival of NGOs as alternative accreditation bodies. But more importantly, it was a pivotal turning point for the regulation of American teacher education. With NCATE and states pointing out "those terrible

teacher's colleges" or "those reactionary liberal-arts professors" (Conant, 1963, p. 13), policy tools thus began piling up, sometimes conflicting with localized contexts. As I detail in the next section, this dilemma between teacher educator expertise and external credentialing would only increase in the latter part of the 20th century, in favor of state governance.

The rise of federal and state accountability for teacher education: Mid- to end- of the 20th century

Beginning with the 1960s, there was an uptick in teacher education reform. Two significant transformations that began at the turn of the 19th century had culminated— 1) every state now required a college degree in order to teach (Fraser, 2007) and 2) all degree-granting institutions were situated within the university system (Fraser, 2007). Notwithstanding, these institutions remained deeply divided in terms of rigor (Bestor, 1953; Conant, 1963; Koerner, 1963; Woodring, 1957) while united in their animosity towards increasing state-based accountability tools (Fraser, 2007). Put simply, the status quo was changing; governance of teacher professionalization continued shifting away from TPPs towards external stakeholders. I detail each stakeholder below and the policy tools they implemented.

The federal government gets involved. In 1957, the Soviet Union's successful launching of the first artificial satellite—Sputnik—became a lightning rod for change (Conant, 1963). Suddenly, education was not just a tenet of democracy, but a tool towards developing a competitive international workforce. Therefore, as the US rose to global prominence, the federal government became far more involved in maintaining its power. With each passing decade, such involvement would increase, making them a permanent fixture within the teacher education landscape.

Beginning in 1965, Congress and President Lyndon B. Johnson authorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)— the single largest federal education

mandate since the country's founding. Suddenly, federal involvement in teacher education policy grew significantly. Particularly via Title II, what began as an education supply provision would blossom into a policy tool pushing teacher accountability and market-based designs (Superfine & De Voto, 2016)— e.g. pre-service competency tests, in-service evaluation mechanisms, alternative certification routes, and stricter licensure requirements. Seemingly, teacher educators and candidates were accountable to a host of external stakeholders— i.e. states, NGOs, and now the federal government.

Although the original ESEA mainly addressed financially disadvantaged students, what did transpire for teacher education was somewhat of a "Hawthorne Effect" (Roethlisberger, 1941); that is, sheer attention to the problems surrounding education and their relevancy towards maintaining global superiority spurred widespread professionalization reforms. Thus, a second wave of policy tools emerged— teacher competency exams (Valli & Rennert-Ariev, 2002).

Teacher competency exams. Although states previously implemented such tools (e.g. Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study), they were generally piecemeal and/or formative in nature. But these new competency exams were far more summative, serving as a "primary screen" for teachers entering the profession (Arends, 2006; Goldhaber, 2007). For example, the National Teacher Examination (NTE) measured "on-the-job" competencies and "teacher effectiveness" (ETS, 1964). Similar to its predecessors, however, correlation with "on-the-job" performance was inconclusive, primarily because professional educators could not adequately define and divide these observable teaching competencies into components for reliable measure (Wilson, 1994). As a result, many qualified teachers were being turned away during this time (Goldhaber, 2007).

Nevertheless, by the 1970s, teacher competency assessments were ubiquitous with

teacher professionalization. And just like prior policy tools, states adopted different designs; some states mandated assessments for entry into a teacher program, whereas others did so for exiting a program (Arends, 2006; Zeichner, 2005). Yet broadly, these assessments were "little more than multiple-choice questions testing basic literacy and numeracy, professional knowledge, and, sometimes, subject matter knowledge" (Haertal, 1991, p. 3). Equally, they required little integration and/or transformation of teaching curricula/course sequencing by TPPs. Academics (including NGOs) thus widely criticized such accountability tools for treating pedagogy as generic rather than subject-matter specific (Shulman, 1986a, 1987); exhibiting poor validity (Ayers & Qualls, 1979; Goldhaber et al., 2017; Haney, Madaus, & Kreitzer, 1987; Lalley, 2016; Nelsen, 1985; Quirk, Witten, & Weinberg, 1973); neglecting to measure many observable teaching skills (Darling-Hammond, 1986; Madaus & Pullin, 1987; SCALE, 2015); and marginalizing minority representation (Goertz & Pitcher, 1985; Haney et al., 1987; SCALE, 2015; Smith, 1987; Smith, Miller, & Joy, 1988). Seemingly, what the US Office of Education (1938) had warned three decades earlier—that "subject matter [examinations] cannot be depended upon as a means for predicting teacher success" (p. 44)—did not deter their implementation.

Given these psychometric issues, a scholarly consensus emerged that teacher competency assessments rooted in the prevailing bureaucratic system of education were destined to fail (Haertal, 1991). And if these policies were to ever to be efficacious, they would need to be grounded in rigor, equity, validity, and reliability (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013; Darling-Hammond, Newton, & Wei, 2013; Lit & Lotan, 2013). Specifically, TPPs would need to be restructured, embedding such assessments within their courses.

To this end, the 1980s saw a subtle refinement in such policy tools, spurring a third (and

current) wave of teacher education reforms. Building off some 80-years of education research, these reforms recognized teacher quality as a byproduct of both content knowledge and pedagogical skill (Larsen & Calfee, 2005). In many ways, it merged the early scientific management movement's push for observable professional competencies with the behavioral psychology assessments of the 1960s. Teachers were thought to require a wide knowledgebase, pedagogical skills, and the ability to align curricula taught with students' needs (Lin, 2015). However, contrasting with the prior 150 years of American education where actors collaborated in a modestly altruistic effort, this decade bore witness to a distinct paradigmatic shift in the policy landscape. Federal/state policymakers, professional organizations, and interest groups alike were openly critical of teachers (and each other), setting in motion the modern-day transference of blame from in-service practitioners to TPPs for their role in training them. I demonstrate these circumstances and related policy tools below.

A Nation at Risk, A Nation Prepared, and Tomorrow's Teachers. Largely, several reports are responsible for these changing perceptions. The first and most recognized report was the US National Commission on Excellence in Education's *A Nation at Risk* (1983). Incendiary rhetoric was directed at the profession for not adequately preparing students and fostering a "rising tide of mediocrity" that threatened the "very future as a Nation and a people" (U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 1). Yet two other lesser known reports in 1986—*A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century* and *Tomorrow's Teachers*—were arguably more influential (Fraser, 2007; Labaree, 1992). Both claimed the "quality of public education can only improve if school teaching is transformed into a full-fledged profession" (Labaree, 1992, p. 124). Taken together, they helped map out a three-pronged approach to improve teacher professionalization— 1) nationalizing teacher certification; 2) improving

teacher performance tests; and 3) introducing market-based, alternative-route TPPs. As a result, before the decade came to a close, a majority of states had either changed or examined their certification laws and/or preparation pathways (Fraser, 2007).

Nationalizing teacher certification. First, in an effort to provide a national framework for practicing teachers, the National Board for Professional Teacher Standards (NBPTS) was established (Huston, 2013). Contrasting with prior competency exams implemented by states, teachers seeking to earn National Board Certification submitted a uniform portfolio, videotapes of instruction, reflective analyses regarding student differentiation, information about the classroom and school, as well as other contextual information (Burroughs, 2000). Accordingly, this performance-based exam was far more comprehensive, measuring observable events that states often excluded in an effort to streamline standardized assessment tools. Indeed, Stanford modeled edTPA after NBPTS (Whittaker et al., 2018). And despite researchers finding mixed results concerning the National Board's role in promoting teacher effectiveness (Burroughs, 2000; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2007; Harris & Sass, 2009), the process stimulated a professional discourse amongst states and teachers alike concerning how best to measure such ends.

Improving teacher performance tests. Second, the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC, 1991) was appointed by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) to encourage collaboration amongst states around rethinking their pre-service certification/licensure policies (Arends, 2006). Chaired by Linda Darling-Hammond, 17 states participated. Jointly, they developed the *Model Standards for Beginning Teacher Licensing, Assessment and Development: A Resource for State Dialogue* (InTASC, 1992). Its recommendations for states included increasing portfolio-based assessment (rather than multiple-choice exams) as a method for evaluating incoming teachers (Arends, 2006). In the process, such

recommendations became an "accountability challenge" for TPPs (InTASC, 1992), calling into question the standards by which teachers were considered "ready" to enter the workforce (Frazier, 1999). Five years later, as many as 11 states reported changing their certification/preparation systems (National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, 1996). But more importantly, this report became the earliest precursor of the edTPA policy movement 20 years later. Portfolio-based assessment in pre-service preparation thus emerged as a key policy tool for professionalizing the occupation. Yet it would still take over a decade for this "policy window" to open, as many states continued using less rigorous assessment tools (Frazier, 1999).

In particular, many states adopted the "Praxis Series." Seeking to address its former criticisms, ETS had revised the National Teacher's Examination. Under Praxis, ETS included three separate tests states and TPPs could implement (i.e. purchase): 1) Praxis I, a written test of basic skills; 2) Praxis II, a printed test of content/pedagogical knowledge; and 3) Praxis III, an "on-the-job" professional competency test (Arends, 2006). Of 31 states requiring prospective teachers to pass an assessment for licensure (Flippo, 2002), the majority adopted one or all of these exams (Goldhaber, 2007; Wayne & Youngs, 2003). Accordingly, Praxis became the most widely used licensure tool for decades, while portfolio–based assessments like the NBPTS remained largely for in-service teachers.

Market-based, alternative-route TPPs. Third, in an effort to further "disrupt" teacher professionalization, external stakeholders began looking for a more radical approach (Frazier, 1999; Raths, 1999). Collectively, they converged on alternative-route certification as a counterpoint to the status quo (Wilson, 2014; Zeichner, 2016). Virginia was the first to establish a statewide alternative certification program in 1982, followed by California in 1983, and Texas

in 1984 (Zeichner & Schulte, 2001). Three decades later, all states currently support these programs in some way (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). But in reality, teacher professionalization has just come full circle, as most teachers originally entered teaching through what would be referred to today as alternative routes— i.e. normal schools (Zeichner, 2016). Seemingly, rising teacher workforce shortages (Ingersoll, 2002; Ng & Peter, 2010; U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; Zeichner, 2016) and poor preparation (Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986; The Holmes Group, 1986; U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) once again spurred the demand for market-based reform.

Indeed, such reform aligned with the current political landscape. At the time, the Reagan Administration had promoted a "preference for decentralization over bureaucracy" (Labaree, 1992, p. 130). Under this framework, policymakers wanted to send a clear message to TPPs their "monopoly" on teacher professionalization would no longer be tolerated (Frazier, 1999). State-TPP relations were thus badly damaged, given legislators largely blamed them for the recent shortcomings identified by NGOs (e.g. Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986; The Holmes Group, 1986; U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). More importantly, however, as these heightened accountability and market-based designs converged, a "policy paradox" within teacher professionalization materialized (Stone, 2002)— one that would continue to present day.

According to Tamir (2010), traditional programs "did not possess sufficient economic capital to back their resistance" (p. 481). As a result, many states effortlessly mandated these alternative routes for TPPs and districts. But just like past teacher education policy tools and subsequent waves of reform, these varied considerably in purpose, design, content, and quality

(Darling-Hammond, 1990; Floden & Stoddart, 1995). For instance, New Jersey sought to improve rigor via the Provisional Teacher Program (Tamir, 2010; Zeichner, 2016) whereas Florida sought to encourage midcareer aspirants by providing equivalent alternative options in all school districts (Zeichner, 2016). So despite the transference of governance, federalism continued to play a role in the paradoxical divergence of teacher education policy tools.

Given borrowing strength from NGOs, these alternative programs also began divorcing themselves from traditional certification processes and the university altogether. For example, established in 1990, Teach for America (TfA) intended to recruit highly skilled, transitioning educators, placing them in high-needs districts. Threatened by this deviation, however, scholars like Linda Darling-Hammond criticized such efforts, calling TfA "the trail of failure [for] their young students" (1994, p. 22). Research had shown TfA recruits were "less effective than certified teachers" and "nearly all of them le[ft] within three years" to pursue other career opportunities (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, & Vasquez Heilig, 2005). While recent scholarship disputes these former claims (Edelman, Perera, Schweig, 2018), such changes from within teacher education signaled a major transformation— that of privatization.

Put simply, "two worlds" now existed within teacher education (Haberman, 1986). In one world, traditional TPPs were characterized by increased regulation. While in the other, private training programs acted as deregulated "feeders" for college graduates and high-needs districts. Although both sought to address poor teacher quality, this policy paradox bifurcated the means by which TPPs did so. In the process, the "virtual monopoly of teacher education held by colleges" had transitioned to policymakers and private organizations (Floden & Stoddart, 1995, p. 1).

As it stands, this policy landscape remains today. One-third of all TPPs are now

designated "alternative-route" by the US Department of Education (2015). But similar to what happened with normal schools at their zenith—i.e. only graduating one-quarter of all certified teachers—just 10 percent are enrolled in these programs, and less than one percent are actively practicing in the workforce (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Therefore, assumptions from policymakers that market-based forces were the "silver bullet" for addressing teacher shortages/poor preparation was somewhat inaccurate; the history of teacher education had simply come full circle.

Federal, state, and NGO convergence against teacher education. Bridging this three-pronged approach towards improving teacher professionalization, the 1990s demonstrated a continued push for regulating traditional certification pathways while deregulating alternative routes. First, most states (40) adopted basic skills certification tests for traditional teacher candidates (Frazier, 1999), whereas two-thirds approved requirements for alternative programs (Floden & Stoddart, 1995). Second, the federal government continued inserting itself, shaping these policy tools and designs respective states implemented. Third, NGOs and interest groups gained legislator favor towards certain issues they advocated. Despite their differing agendas, together, these actors all had one thing in common— discontent with the higher education system's teacher preparation efforts. And as their focus intensified, by the turn of the 20th century, it was clear TPPs no longer had a monopoly on teacher education, nor where they gatekeepers of teacher professionalization. I explain this convergence below.

Although the federal government's role in teacher education before the 1990's had been rather small, this decade marked a distinct change. Superfine (2005) contends the Charlottesville Education Summit in 1989—a convening of the nation's governors by President George H. W. Bush—marked the turning point. What come out of it—six goals aimed at improving student

performance—was not necessarily significant. However, such goals would require extensive support from both the federal government and states. Similarly, it would require increased attention towards teacher preparation. The federal government and states therefore began working together towards a common purpose.

In 1994, two key acts were passed/reauthorized by Congress— Goals 2000: Educate America Act and the ESEA under the renamed Improving America's Schools Act (IASA). These acts provided states with a blueprint for the kinds of policy tools and designs the federal government advocated. First, Goals 2000 promoted "the development and adoption of a voluntary national system of skill standards and certifications" (108 Stat. 3518). While bipartisan politics eventually caused Congress not to reauthorize Goals 2000, its legacy "reflected the underlying debates over accountability and flexibility" (Superfine, 2005, p. 16). Indeed, the federal government wanted systemic education reform, but given education had always been a subnational enterprise, legislators were still hesitant in forcing such change upon states. Consequently, the IASA continued this voluntary accountability approach. In particular, it "conditioned the disbursement of funds upon the [voluntary] development of standards, assessments, and accountability systems in each state." But comparable to Goals 2000, the IASA only nudged states to redirect their focus towards priorities like teacher preparation and induction (Shober, 2012). Therefore, it wasn't until 1996 that policymakers began realizing just how central such components were towards improving student achievement (Shober, 2012).

Paralleling work done by the National Board, InTASC, and NCATE, the *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future* report (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996) proved to be a pivotal moment for teacher education policy. Specifically, it reinforced an accepted knowledgebase and skillset teachers needed to demonstrate: 1) knowing

relevant content; 2) understanding their students; 3) participating in an active learning style; 4) utilizing pedagogical content knowledge; and 5) employing reflective practice (Arends, 2006). Yet by loosely defining what teacher quality ought to be, state policymakers were once again given wide latitude in reframing their teacher education policies (Frazier, 1999).

Recognizing this issue, Congress amended Title II of the Higher Education Act (HEA, 1998) (Arends, 2006). The new law provided further federal accountability in the face of such flexibility, requiring them to report yearly on the following: 1) standards for teachers and their alignment with student standards; 2) teacher certification; 3) pass rates on teacher assessments; and 4) ongoing efforts to improve teacher quality (Arends, 2006). Further, it required states to:

> [Have teachers] take examinations or other assessments of their subject matter knowledge in the area or areas in which [they] provide instruction, the standards established for passing any such assessments, and the extent to which teachers or prospective teachers are required to receive a passing score on such assessments in order to teach in specific subject areas or grade levels. (112 Stat. 1634 § 207 (3))

Coupled with the *What Matters Most* report (1996), this push for teacher assessment tools came on the heels of evidence in Texas and Massachusetts that aspiring educators were overwhelmingly failing their basic skills tests, painting a poor picture for the entire American teacher workforce (Arends, 2006). In the process, a wave of accountability- and market-based reforms were set in motion, continuing to present day.

As the 20th century drew to a close, American teacher education had undergone a complete transformation. Credentialing was standardized under the university, then taken over by states, and similarly starting to by the federal government. On the other hand, in an effort to compete with traditional programs, alternative-route programs entered the political landscape, subscribing to market-based designs. Together, these approaches resulted in two diverging pathways to teaching—the regulated and the deregulated—producing a policy paradox. Finally, despite evidence showing portfolio-based performance assessments were more reliable (InTASC,

1992), these tools would not factor into certification designs until the 21st century. Indeed, competency-based rather than pedagogical-based assessments were found in virtually every state. Such efforts, however, would reach critical mass in the following century, leading to significant changes for aspiring and current teachers alike.

Heightened federal accountability: No Child Left Behind era

In the late 1990s and early 2000s, debates concerning teacher accountability policies and their limited efficacy steadily grew (Ballou & Podgursky, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2000). This debate centered on the lack of conclusive evidence showing a "direct connection between teachers' participation in 'traditional' preparation/certification programs and student test scores" (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013, p. 12). In an effort to mobilize these concerns, Fordham Institute established the National Council on Teacher Quality (NCTQ) (Au, 2013). Its purpose was to publish reports indicating teacher education programs were the result of such poor evidence bases (see NCTQ, 2001). Although Fuller (2014) has since criticized NCTQ's methods and motives, teacher professionalization moved "from a set of process standards that strived to standardize the content, teacher education curriculum, and faculty and student qualifications, to a set of standards that required a systematic [certification]/assessment system… [with] results available to a variety of stakeholder groups" (Arends, 2006, p. 14). Towards these ends, the gradual buildup of problems witnessed by states, as identified by professional organizations and researchers, inevitably influenced federal policymakers to take decisive action.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB). In early 2002, the reauthorization of the ESEA under NCLB became the single most influential teacher education law to-date. Title II was revised to expressly target pre-service teachers, being renamed "Preparing, Training, and Recruiting High Quality Teachers and Principals" (Office of the Under Secretary, U.S. Department of Education,

2002). Consequently, accountability rose to a level that had not been witnessed in nearly 200 years. The Bush Administration reasoned such strict accountability measures would mitigate the "soft bigotry of low expectations" for teachers and students alike (The Washington Post, 2000). On the other hand, the critical balance between accountability and flexibility had shifted (Superfine, 2005), pitting the federal government against states and TPPs to spur systemic reforms.

NCLB generally required states to: 1) develop and implement standards and testing systems (for teachers and students); 2) bolster teacher certification/licensure requirements, including offering more alternative-route pathways; 3) hold schools accountable for student performance on standardized tests; and 4) develop professional development activities in a collaborative fashion, seeking input from all school personnel (Office of the Under Secretary, U.S. Department of Education, 2002). In addition, the federal law stated "*all* teachers be 'highly qualified' by the end of the 2005-06 school year, [and have] develop[ed] annual objectives for measuring progress toward this requirement" (Office of the Under Secretary, U.S. Department of Education, 2002, p. 59).

Specifically, a "highly qualified" teacher (HQT) was one who had a bachelor's degree, provisional state certification, and demonstrated knowledge of his or her subject-matter (Superfine & De Voto, 2016). The subject matter requirement was drawn from the NCTAF (1996) report (Shober, 2012) whereas the need for a bachelor's degree and provisional state certification were the result of many school districts hiring teachers without proper education training or completed college coursework. At the time, approximately one in three new teachers had lacked certification (U.S. Department of Education, 1999). Policymakers assumed this strategy would efficiently stabilize teacher professionalization, making American education

comparatively competitive to other industrialized nations.

Unintended consequences. While these mandates streamlined certification routes—providing one standard for all states—they also brought about unintended consequences. Similar to Goals 2000 and the IASA, NCLB gave states wide latitude in revising these processes. In turn, HQT provisions across states became somewhat superficial; most developed low hurdles for prospective teachers (Huang, Yi, & Haycock, 2002)—including low cut-scores on licensure exams and narrow certification requirements—limiting their overall value (Pinkerton, Scott, Buell, & Kober, 2004; Superfine & De Voto, 2016). So while the US Department of Education (2011a) declared over 98% of teachers were "highly qualified" under NCLB—as compared to about half when NCLB was enacted—there was little indication any of these provisions actually increased teacher effectiveness (Superfine & De Voto, 2016).

At the same time, NCLB's teacher certification definitions opened the door for increasing alternative-route TPPs (Office of the Under Secretary, U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Utilizing a report from the US Department of Education (2002), former Secretary Rod Paige publically decried the current state of TPPs as "broken" and "incapable of producing the numbers of highly qualified teachers the nation needs" (Keller & Galley, 2002, par. 2). Further, he said, "States should embrace higher standards and promote alternative routes into teaching, such as Teach For America" (Keller & Galley, 2002, par. 10). Despite 90% of states subscribing to alternative certification routes by this time, many did not allow prospective teachers to skip education courses or student teaching (U.S. Department of Education, 2002)— so-called "burdensome" requirements (Keller & Galley, 2002). Standards were therefore being raised for traditional certification programs and while being relaxed for alternative routes (Roth & Swail, 2002), contributing to this aforementioned policy paradox.

Broadly, the Bush Administration had postulated that alternative-route programs could circumvent the bureaucratic proclivities of traditional certification systems. However, findings would go on to show little difference between teachers who entered the profession via such routes (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005; Goldhaber, Liddle, & Theobald, 2013; Kane, Rockoff, & Staiger, 2007). In fact, two decades of research has revealed uneven results concerning their teaching effectiveness and overall retention rates (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Edelman et al., 2018). Still, because this policy tool became cemented into the fabric of teacher professionalization, almost a third of current teacher preparation programs in the US are now classified as alternative-route (U.S. Department of Education, 2015).

Meanwhile, seeking to avoid NCLB sanctions, traditional TPPs and states continued setting low hurdles. On one hand, they made sure their programs were rated "high-performing" (Huang et al., 2002). Thus, only 1 of the more than 1,300 public programs nationally were labeled "low-performing" and just another 13 "at risk" (Huang et al., 2002). On the other hand, forced to pick a teacher certification assessment, Manna (2011) found nine states set passing scores below the 25th percentile and only three above the 50th percentile. As a result, it was not uncommon for TPPs—and even whole states—to report 100% pass rates on teacher licensure exams during the NCLB-era (Huang et al., 2002). So similar to HQT provisions, the law contributed to this problem by leaving definitions up to states regarding their certification/approval processes.

Taken together, what transpired under NCLB for teacher professionalization can only be described as policy incoherence. Indeed, providing flexibility amid accountability proved difficult. First, states responded to the accountability mechanisms superficially, doing whatever was necessary to stay in compliance. Second, alternative pathways proved to be no better, and

often similar to their highly-regulated, traditional counterparts. Finally, the transition from inputs to outcomes (Cochran-Smith, 2005) beginning in 1980s was now firmly embedded via certification tools (Shober, 2012). But given the continued limitations of incoming teachers, the need for a better teacher performance assessment had reached a crescendo, providing a "policy window" (Kingdon, 1984) for the rise of edTPA. I first discuss its precursor, PACT.

Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT). Responding to NCLB's teacher certification assessment provision (Hébert, 2015), California gave TPPs two options: 1) they could administer the common Praxis II test, or 2) develop their own (Chung, 2008). With a "desire to develop an integrated, authentic, … subject-specific assessment" (Pecheone & Chung, 2006, p. 22), a coalition of 12 California colleges and universities led by Sanford University chose the latter approach. Together, they created the PACT in 2002 (Pechone & Wei, 2007; Pecheone et al., 2013), which would be the precursor to edTPA.

Broadly, the PACT built on the portfolio instruments of the NBPTS and InTASC that used multiple sources of data, such as teacher plans, teacher artifacts, student work samples, video clips of instruction, personal reflections, and commentaries (Pecheone & Chung, 2006; Pechone & Wei, 2007). Stanford and its partnering universities argued the PACT "respond[ed] to the call by the National Research Council to develop broader assessments of teacher candidates, including performance in the classroom, and to validate them in terms of teachers' success in teaching" (Darling-Hammond et. al, 2013, p. 4). So while state mandated certification assessments remained relatively competency-based under NCLB, a coalition of TPPs responded to such shortcomings by implementing their own pedagogically-based tool. Hence, individual programs were also critiquing teacher professionalization, addressing it their own way.

Findings had shown the relationship between PACT scores and student learning were

highly correlated; for each point scored on the PACT, students on average gained 1 percentile point more per year on the California standards tests (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013). While some scholars have since found some inconsistencies with PACT scores (Sandholz & Shea, 2012; Santagata & Sandholtz, 2018; Wilkerson, 2015), the assessment was performance-based, not competency-based, making it distinctly different from the popular Praxis II (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013). Thus, the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) unanimously approved its use as an alternative teacher performance system (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013). Perhaps more importantly, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) took interest in a national version of this assessment, which would later become edTPA (Darling- Hammond & Hyler, 2013; Huston, 2015).

Although PACT answered the call for a performance-based assessment in teacher education (Pecheone & Chung, 2006), much like other large-scale reforms, its implementation was not always smooth. Gainsburg and Ericson (2015) noted several key factors influencing fidelity across participating universities. Chief among them was organizational buy-in (Gainsburg & Ericson, 2015); faculty and staff had to believe the assessment measured the appropriate pedagogical competencies. Similarly, collaboration became important; faculty and staff needed to not only be committed, but work together towards PACT implementation— i.e. cooperating off-campus, attending conferences, scoring seminars, etc. (Gainsburg & Ericson, 2015). Conversely, adequate funding was necessary, as well as someone who could assume the logistical/administrative burden, providing technical support for other faculty and staff (Gainsburg & Ericson, 2015). A decade later, edTPA would illustrate analogous implementation issues when these above elements were absent (see Chapter Three for details).

Despite such issues, PACT showed a different path in linking teacher professionalization

to licensure policies. Using a performance-based model, participating universities found the tool to be very useful for measuring teacher effectiveness (Pecheone & Chung, 2006). In the process, the federal government took notice.

The changing federal role: ESEA waivers and Race To The Top (RTTT)

As NCLB's heightened accountability tools began to wear on states, the newly elected Obama Administration exploited this situation as means to further its own education agenda. Frustrated by the inability to reach bipartisan agreement on a new ESEA reauthorization, though, alterative approaches were required. Towards these ends, in a savvy move, Secretary Arne Duncan resorted to employing "ESEA flexibility waivers" (U.S. Department of Education, 2011b) and the Race To The Top (RTTT, 2009) program. I address these key policies below.

ESEA flexibility waivers. Under these waivers, the administration could circumvent the ESEA altogether, while correspondingly furthering its own policies. States welcomed these with open arms, freeing them from the accountability mechanisms that became so pervasive under NCLB (McMurrer & Yoshioka, 2013). That said, the use of mandates (Hannaway & Woodroffe, 2003) to spur reform still applied. For example, by releasing states from NCLB provisions, the Obama Administration required them to address the following components: 1) establishing college- and career-ready standards for all students; 2) developing annual measurable objectives (AMOs) that could include different targets for different districts, schools, or student groups; and 3) developing and implementing teacher and principal evaluation and support systems (McMurrer & Yoshioka, 2013). In this way, the federal government leveraged points of emphasis across states they could not constitutionally legislate under NCLB. This would become particularly true for teacher professionalization under edTPA.

Race To The Top (RTTT). As part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of

2009 (ARRA), RTTT (2009) provided $4.35 billion in state financial incentives towards education reform. About one-third of the rubric application specified conditions for improving teacher effectiveness, particularly via evaluation systems (Shober, 2012). Despite only 20 states eventually being awarded funding, virtually all states (46) applied (Boser, 2012). So whether they were awarded a grant or not, states made a concerted effort to redesign their P-20 policies, aligning with the Obama Administration's education platform (Anderson, 2010; McGuinn, 2010). To illustrate, from 2009 to 2012, as many as 36 states and Washington D.C. made such changes, while at least 15 states did so for teacher evaluation specifically (NCTQ, 2012). Similarly, 43 states required annual evaluations for new teachers by 2012— over half incorporating value-added models (NCTQ, 2012).

However, it wasn't until the US Department of Education's (2011b) *Our Future, Our Teachers* report that aspiring teachers, too, began feeling the heat. Citing the need for increased "performance-based indicators of quality" (U.S. Department of Education, 2011c) to mitigate the "mediocre job" TPPs were doing preparing teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2009), a new plan for teacher education reform was thus set in motion (Marshall, Beare, & Newell, 2012), culminating with the rise of edTPA.

A "policy window" for edTPA. The push for evaluating in-service teachers and holding them accountable inevitably bled into state laws governing teacher preparation. At the time, over 600 teacher performance tests were in use across TPPs (National Research Council, 2010). Yet many of these were homegrown and did not lend themselves to performance-based indicators cited by the federal government (Henry et al. 2013; Pechenone & Whittaker, 2016). Seeking to address this issue, in January 2012, Secretary Duncan convened a "rule-making committee" to amend the reporting guidelines stipulated under Title II of the HEA (Nelson, 2012). Their

recommendations specifically focused on evaluating TPPs with respect to some measure of their candidates' performance (U.S. Department of Education, 2011c). The assumption was standardizing accountability tools (Berlak, 2011) across TPPs would inform high-quality teaching (Gurl et al. 2016).

On the one hand, its proponents argued for implementing valued-added models (VAMs), similar to those trending for evaluating in-service teachers. While on the other, critics maintained the validity of such measures was not yet conclusive (Briggs & Doningue, 2011; Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Sass, 2008). Despite congressional gridlock stymying these HEA revision efforts, Duncan's use of the bully-pulpit (Superfine, 2011), combined with RTTT's promotion of teacher evaluation had created the perfect storm. Given evidence showing many state-mandated and/or homegrown TPP teacher certification assessments were unable to adequately predict teacher quality (Goldhaber, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2011c), SEAs began taking a look at their teacher education policies. Towards these ends, edTPA became an attractive alternative.

In sum, the federal government became a catalyst for edTPA adoption across states. The Obama Administration's determination to incorporate high-stakes assessment for in-service and pre-service teachers provided the necessary political climate and pressure for such a "policy window" (Kingdon, 1984). So while states had characteristically protected TPPs/teacher candidates under NCLB—e.g. creating low hurdles on cut scores and HEA reporting measures (Sartain, Stoelinga, & Krone, 2010; Whiteman, Shi, & Plucker, 2011)—the waiver/RTTT era therefore marked a distinct change. TPPs were no longer buffered (Wideen, 2013). One by one, states adopted the assessment; so much so, the rhetoric became "everybody is doing it, shouldn't you join in, too?" (Reagan et al., 2016, p. 15).

The edTPA

Almost a decade earlier, Stanford's PACT had shown promise as a portfolio-based, embedded design. Now with the backing of the AACTE, the National Education Association, and a Ford Foundation grant, Stanford produced a revised version—the Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA)—colloquially referred to as edTPA (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; SCALE, 2015). This assessment was Darling-Hammond's "brain child"— the manifestation of decades of research, political debate, and will. Initially, though, it was made to only update the PACT's 30 participating California universities. But the political climate clamored for a "silver bullet" policy tool that could meaningfully improve teacher quality and maintain external legitimacy (Hutt et al., 2018). And unlike prior third-party teacher assessments (e.g. Praxis II), edTPA was made by a TPP, for TPPs. This provided substantial credibility towards its reliability in measuring teacher readiness (Hutt et al., 2018). It was also a performance-based assessment and support system, not competency-based (Whittaker et al., 2018).

edTPA's development began in 2009 (SCALE, 2016). While the idea of a "bar exam" for incoming teachers is not new (Hutt et al., 2018), edTPA caught the attention of state policymakers after decades of failed attempts to improve the profession. Following California, in 2012, Washington conveyed to Stanford its desire to mandate the exam for teacher candidates statewide. Seeing this as an opportunity to promote performance-based assessment, they agreed to partner with the state. In the process, the state got its very own edTPA, which had an additional two rubrics (i.e. 15 compared 13). Stanford also began piloting the performance-based assessment across 27 other states and 430 TPPs (SCALE, 2016). By the 2013-14 academic year, edTPA became operational nationally (SCALE, 2016; Goldhaber et. al., 2017).

Building off research demonstrating the predictability of both PACT (Darling-Hammond et al., 2013; Pecheone & Chung, 2006) and edTPA (SCALE, 2013), other states and TPPs thus

46

began joining the edTPA consortium. However, such circumstances did not transpire in a vacuum (Hutt et al., 2018). NGOs once again resurfaced as a key facilitator of teacher education policy, spurring the edTPA's national assimilation— in particular the AACTE and the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP).

Broadly, these organizations helped galvanize support around performance-based assessment. On one hand, established in 1948, AACTE sought to "encourage and assist the administrators of teacher-education institutions to develop greater competence…[and] establish desirable directions, costs, and standards for [the profession]" (E. Ducharme & M. Ducharme, 1998, p. 13). From this view, they lauded edTPA because it "requires candidates to actually demonstrate the knowledge and skills required to help *all students* learn in real classrooms… complement[ing] existing entry-level assessments that focus on basic skills or subject-matter knowledge" (AACTE, 2013, n.p.). On the other hand, in 2013, edTPA also received serious backing from the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). CAEP had officially replaced NCATE and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) as the "sole accrediting body for educator preparation providers" (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation, 2015). Their accreditation required programs to use a "valid, reliable assessment aligned with instruction during clinical practice experiences" as a "pre-service measure of P-12 student performance" (CAEP, 2015, p. 41). Given competency-based measures could not meet such rigorous standards, they expressly mentioned edTPA by name as one of the two assessments to be used for this purpose. Similar to the 1950s under NCATE, states and TPPs therefore felt compelled to adopt edTPA.

Taken together, edTPA became the ideal policy tool for its performance-based design and support amongst multiple external stakeholders. Five years later, over 850 TPPs across 41 states

are implementing the assessment, making it the most utilized policy tool nationally. So while jurisdiction and control over teacher education has shifted, the need to standardize the profession using quantifiable criteria remains (Cross, Dunn, & Dotson, 2018). The edTPA is simply the current iteration.

The edTPA's design. Broadly, edTPA was designed to "systematically examine an authentic cycle of teaching [towards] subject-specific student learning goals, using evidence derived from candidates' practice in their student teaching or internship placement" (SCALE, 2015, p. 4). This cycle of teaching is captured through three tasks composing an edTPA portfolio: 1) planning; 2) instruction; and 3) assessment of student learning (SCALE, 2015). Authentic evidence used to examine these tasks include: lesson plans; instructional materials; student assignments and assessments; feedback on student work; and unedited video recordings of instruction (SCALE, 2015). Pearson scorers then evaluate these elements using rubrics Stanford developed for each task (Sawchuk, 2013).

In addition, unlike competency-based assessments, edTPA is embedded. That is, TPPs must integrate the assessment within their curriculum. Stanford contends it is the most rigorous teaching assessment to-date (Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013). Within the field, however, such perceptions remain divided. Indeed, there are those who praise edTPA. Equally, there are those who critique edTPA. Despite their similar motives—to improve teacher preparation and quality—the means by which to do so has therefore taken center stage. I explain these differences below.

Perceptions of edTPA. While much research has been published about performance-based assessments (Darling-Hammond, 2014; Kane, Khattri, & Reeve, 1995; Montecinos, Rittershaussen, Solís, Contreras, & Contreras, 2010), experts cannot agree on a single definition

(Arter, 1999). This lack of agreement has less to do about the tool itself and more do with what should be measured. Stated differently, for nearly 200 years, a single definition of what makes good teaching has eluded the profession. In turn, groups of people have championed their version of what makes good teaching and how best to measure it (Jordan & Hawley, 2016). edTPA simply represents the current paradigm and respective policy tool.

Proponents of edTPA maintain it provides a valid (Bastian, Henry, Pan, & Lys, 2016; Pecheone & Whittaker, 2016), common framework to measure whether teacher candidates are prepared to plan, instruct, and assess once in the field (e.g. Adkins, 2016; Adkins et al., 2015; Whittaker et al., 2018). Further, they suggest the assessment has the potential to build capacity and improve TPPs (e.g. Peck et al., 2014; Sloan, 2013, 2015), "offering guidance to school districts about induction of new teachers" (Pecheone & Whittaker, 2016, p. 8). By acting as a gatekeeper to the profession, they also contend it serves as a policy lever for improving teacher quality generally (Cangro, 2014; Goldhaber et al. 2017; Hill, Hansen, & Stumbo, 2011; Ledwell & Oyler, 2016; Price, 2016; Whittaker et al., 2018).

Those opposed to edTPA, however, assert several key problems. First, it reflects the privatization and corporatization of education (Ayers, 2015; Cross & Dunn, 2018; Dover & Schultz, 2016; Greenblatt, 2018; Gurl et al., 2016; Henning, Dover, Dotson, & Agarwal-Rangnath, 2018a; Henning et al., 2018b; Olson & Rao, 2017; Picower & Marshall, 2017; Tuck & Gorlewski, 2018). Teacher candidates' edTPA portfolios are assessed by Pearson, which in their view further devalues localized knowledge and promotes the depersonalization of teacher education (Clayton, 2018; Gurl et al., 2018; Tuck & Gorleski, 2018). Second, they question whether edTPA is a valid measure of effective teaching (Au, 2013; Dover et al., 2015; Goldhaber et al., 2017; Gorlewski & Gorlewski, 2015; Henning et al., 2018; Hochstetler, 2014; Lachuk &

Koellner, 2015; Sato, 2014; Tuck & Gorlewski, 2016) given it supersedes other important measures, such as grades, student teaching performance, and content knowledge (Steinhaus, Asimow, Dauksas, & Sheridan, 2013). Third, they question whether a standardized assessment can adequately address all content areas (An, 2015; Dover, 2018; Gaul & Simon, 2018; Hildebrandt & Swanson, 2014; Hochstetler, 2014, 2018; Lachuk & Koellner, 2015; Luna, 2016; Rosenberg & Walther-Thomas, 2014), contexts (De Voto, 2016; Dover, 2018; Edmundson, 2017; Helig, Khalifa, & Tillman, 2014; Ressler et al., 2016; Williamson, Apedoe, & Thomas, 2016), and races/classes equally (Kulago, 2018; Dover, 2018; Gorlewski & Tuck, 2018; Kleyn, López, & Makar, 2015; Petchauer, Bowe, & Wilson, 2018; Tuck & Gorlewski, 2016). Finally, they argue edTPA is particularly stressful for candidates, as it must be completed during student teaching (De Voto, 2016; Dover, 2018; Greenblatt, 2015; Clayton, 2018). Collectively, critics thus disagree with edTPA as a gatekeeper to the profession and policy lever for improving teacher quality generally.

In sum, the absence of a single definition of good teaching and how best to measure it has produced unintended consequences for edTPA (Goldhaber et al., 2017; Greenblatt, 2015, 2016a, 2016b; Gurl et al., 2016; Lalley, 2017; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Ressler et al., 2016). Still, over three-quarters of states are currently utilizing the assessment. And much like aforementioned teacher education policies, their designs differ. The following chapter will therefore break down these designs and how my research study examines this policy landscape.

Concluding thoughts of chapter

In the nearly 200-year history of American teacher education, we have seen an assortment of policy tools and waves of reform— all geared towards addressing teacher quality. We have also witnessed a complete shift in governance, away from local TPPs towards

federal/state oversight. Finally, we have witnessed the external influence of NGOs like AACTE and CAEP. Together, this convergence has afforded an acute "policy window" (Kingdon, 1984) for edTPA proliferation nationally.

At the same time, such circumstances have highlighted key dilemmas in teacher professionalization. On one hand, a policy paradox exists; accountability and market-based policy tools remain fundamentally at odds with one another. On the other hand, the lack of a common body of knowledge and how best to measure it exists. Stakeholders subsequently disagree on the pathways to professionalization and its governance. Towards these ends, my dissertation will empirically attempt to engage these converging dilemmas, providing a substantive theory regarding macro-policy design and micro-policy implementation.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

To better understand the historical context of edTPA policy formation and implementation, I will further explain the following conceptual framework (see next page for illustrative version). First, I will show how different state-adopted policy designs and converging market-based policies are resulting in variations across subsequent edTPA policy tools. Second, I will detail how micro-organizational factors across TPPs are further influencing their implementation. Third, I will highlight how, together, these policy designs and micro-organizational factors are affecting end-line policy users—i.e. teacher candidates—and ensuing outcomes/fidelity. In doing so, I will then be able to theoretically and practically examine my research questions, filling a critical research gap concerning how a nationally adopted teacher performance assessment is impacting teacher education.

Figure 3.1. Conceptual Framework

Historical context of edTPA policy formation/Implementation

Adopted edTPA policy designs and converging market-based policies (i.e. macro policy formation)

TPP/Staff Implementation (i.e. micro-organizational factors)

End-line policy users (i.e. teacher candidates)

Outcomes and/or fidelity

High-stakes design (i.e. coercive)

Low-stakes design (i.e. voluntary)

Sensegiving and subsequent sensemaking

Cultural structures/practices

Organizational resources

Teaching placements

Pearson assessment scorers

Candidate sensemaking

Candidate expertise

In clarifying why such factors affect edTPA policy outcomes and fidelity, this chapter is organized into the following sections: 1) state level: edTPA policy design divergence and resulting tool variation; 2) local-level: Additional micro-organizational factors influencing TPP implementation; and 3) end-line policy users: TPP candidates. Additionally, illustrative figures and tables are incorporated throughout to further explain these conceptual underpinnings.

State-level: edTPA policy design divergence and resulting tool variation

Although Chapters One and Two introduced theories as to why an acute "policy window" (Kingdon, 1984) opened for edTPA's widespread adoption, they cannot explain why these policies are diverging, resulting in subtle differences across such tools. Thus, my conceptual framework begins here, as this is where differences in subsequent implementation start taking shape. In short, edTPA associated policy tools have varied due to: 1) the convergence of accountability and market-based tools; 2) subsequent differences in accountability designs adopted by states (i.e. coercive vs. voluntary); and 3) responses by TPPs. Each point is discussed in turn below.

Convergence of accountability and market-based tools. Hannaway and Woodroffe (2003) argue education policy tools adopted by states broadly fall into three categories: 1) policy tools laden with accountability— e.g. performance measures, evaluations, and/or sanctions forcing some sort of compliance; 2) policy tools employing market-based principles— e.g. vouchers, tuition tax credits, education saving accounts, and charter schools; and 3) policy tools promoting incentives-based mechanisms— e.g. teacher pay for performance, mandates, and competitive grants. Under this framework, edTPA is an accountability tool. However, Coggshall, Bivona, *&* Reschly (2012) further explain teacher education policy tools enter the landscape as either: 1) licensure/certification requirements, 2) approval requirements/standards, or 3) accreditation via

non-governmental agencies (e.g. NCATE, CAEP). Because states and/or TPPs require passage of edTPA for initial teacher certification and/or graduation, derived policies therefore are also "approval requirements".

At the same time, accountability/approval policies like edTPA are converging with these existing market-based tools. As discussed in Chapter Two, such tools have typically taken the form of alternative-route certification policies. These policies came about in an effort to "disrupt" the monopoly on teacher professionalization exhibited by the academy (Frazier, 1999). Figure 3.2 will help explain:

Figure 3.2. Convergence of Accountability and Market-based Tools
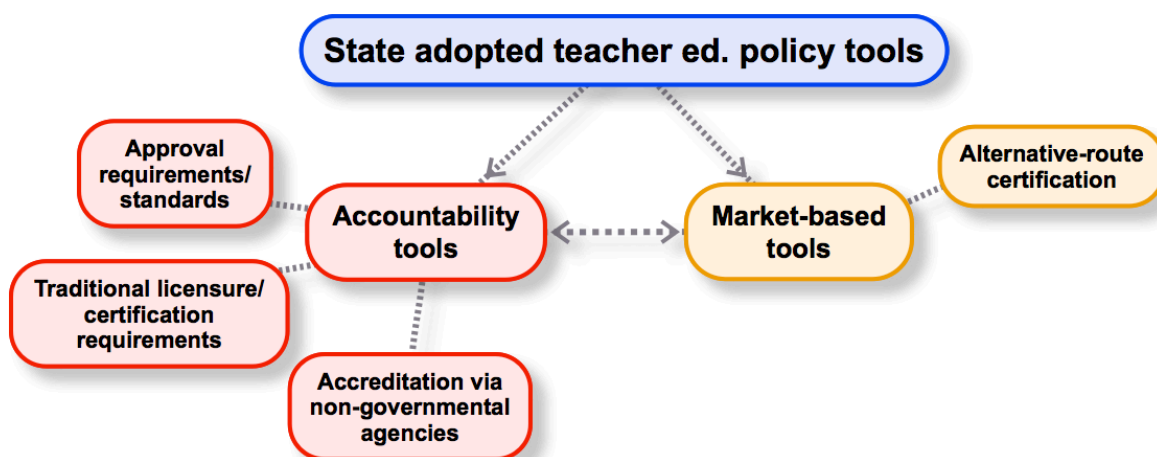
However, this convergence has produced a policy paradox (Stone, 2002); accountability designs—rooted in regulation—must coexist with these deregulated, alternative-route certification policies. Subtle differences in state-adopted edTPA policy tools have thus transpired. I describe these subtle differences below.

Subsequent differences in accountability designs adopted by states. Indeed, these alternative-route certification policies are influencing the design edTPA policy tools subscribe

to— specifically their degree of accountability (i.e. "stakes"). I refer to this phenomenon as "implementer discretion/variation". Figure 3.3 will further break down this concept:

Figure 3.3. Implementer Discretion/Variation across edTPA Policies
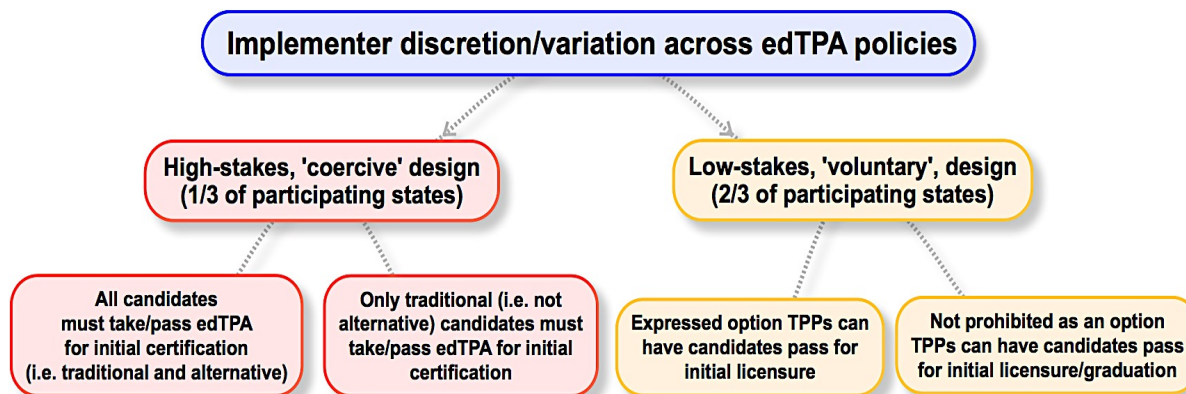
On the one hand, one-third of participating states are implementing a "high-stakes" design (AACTE, 2019). These designs *require* candidates to pass edTPA and subsequently TPPs to implement the tool. On the other hand, two-thirds of participating states are implementing a "low-stakes" design. While still summative, these designs make edTPA an option among other assessments (e.g. Praxis II or PPAT) that TPPs can choose for respective candidates to pass. Together, this policy paradox has contributed to subsequent differences in accountability designs—or "degrees of freedom" (Hutt et al. 2018)—adopted by states.

Dolowitz and Marsh (1996, 2000) refer to such differences in policy designs as "coercive" and "voluntary". When states or other bureaucratic systems adopt policies in a forceful, regulatory manner, they become "coercive", causing local implementers to comply. Conversely, when they adopt policies in a more voluntary capacity, a "negotiated transfer" (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000, p. 15) exists, forming a reciprocal relationship between state and local (Elmore, 1979). High-stakes policy tools therefore typically cause implementers to only satisfy

the letter of the law—not its environed spirit (Berman, 1986)—whereas low-stakes designs often cause implementers to behave in a manner far exceeding the minimum (Firestone, 1989). These theories are reflected within the growing edTPA literature. To-date, states employing coercive designs show some TPPs resisting (Dover et al., 2015; Greenblatt & O'Hara, 2015; Schultz & Dover, 2016) or complying to the extent they must (De Voto & Thomas, 2018), while states employing voluntary designs show TPPs actively supporting its implementation (Bastian & Lys, 2018; De Voto & Thomas, 2018). Please see the respective subsections for more elaboration.

At the same time, because of the convergence between accountability and market-based reforms, these designs across states further vary (Hutt et al., 2018). Referring to Figure 3.3 (above), states implementing high-stakes designs have done so in two ways: 1) *all* candidates (i.e. traditional and alternative) must pass for initial licensure, or 2) *only* traditional candidates (i.e. not alternative) must pass for initial licensure. In contrast, states implementing low-stakes designs have done so in two ways: 1) edTPA is an expressed *option* TPPs can have candidates pass for initial licensure/graduation, or 2) edTPA is *not prohibited* as an option TPPs can have candidates pass for initial licensure/graduation. On a broad level, this variation can be attributed to the converging policy landscapes across states edTPA must enact with. Some states are more friendly to alternative preparation programs, whereas others are more hostile. Meanwhile, some states are more centrally governed, whereas others are more locally managed. Therefore, edTPA policies have exhibited two different policy designs—i.e. coercive and voluntary—with subtle variations in tools across each.

Collectively, these differences in the edTPA policymaking process illustrate how states serve as "sense-givers" (Nakamura & Smallwood, 1980; Spillane, 1999; Spillane et al., 2006). That is, coercive and voluntary designs signal how local implementers (in this case TPPs) can

and/or should respond. However, such designs cannot account for local contextual differences. As Jones and McBeth (2010) point out, fidelity is likely to occur only if a policy design locally results in (a) low levels of conflict; (b) agreements about problems, facts, and theories; and (c) professional forms for discussion. Hence, high-stakes, coercive designs are less likely to locally succeed as they force implementation across contexts and actors. Alternatively, low-stakes, voluntary designs are more likely to locally succeed as they transfer implementation across contexts and actors. I specifically detail these designs and impact on local TPP implementation below.

Local responses by TPPs. Most research has been conducted on TPPs adopting a high-stakes, coercive design. Specifically, three different outcomes have been shown. First, there are TPPs actively supporting edTPA (Adkins et al., 2015). These TPPs typically have low levels of conflict and agree about the problems and theories addressed by edTPA (De Voto, 2016). As a result, they appach edTPA as a form of inquiry, actively using the assessment. Second, there are TPPs merely complying with the mandate— what De Voto and Thomas (2018) refer to as "cosmetic compliance". These institutions tend to have professional forums for discussios, but maintain high levels of conflict and disagreements about the problems and theories addressed by edTPA (Cohen et al., 2018; De Voto, 2018; De Voto & Thomas, 2018). Third, there are TPPs who actively resist edTPA (De Voto, 2018; De Voto & Thomas, 2018). These institutions often have high levels of conflict, disagreements about the problems and theories addressed by edTPA, and lack professional forums for discussions (De Voto, 2016). Taken together, while signaling to local implementers to forcefully comply, such top-down policies have resulted in variations due to contextual differences (De Voto, 2016; Dover, 2018).

Alternatively, though limited research has investigated low-stakes, voluntary designs and

edTPA implementation, what research does exist reflects the aforementioned theoretical assumptions (De Voto & Thomas, 2018; Bastian & Lys, 2018). Perceiving edTPA as meeting their contextual needs, some TPPs have voluntarily adopted the assessment. Conversely, those TPPs perceiving edTPA as not meeting their contextual needs have adopted a different assessment (e.g. Praxis II, PPAT). Hence, this "negotiated transfer" has resulted in what Firestone (1989) calls "active use"— i.e. local actors, interpreting a policy as meeting their needs, voluntarily adopt it (Firestone, 1989).

Given these widespread differences across edTPA policy tools, in order to properly examine my research questions, I must select cases that accurately represent both designs. As discussed in Chapter One, I have therefore selected one high-stakes state—Illinois—and one low-stakes state—Iowa. Illinois requires *all* candidates (i.e. traditional and alternative) to pass the edTPA for initial licensure, whereas Iowa makes it an expressed *option* candidates can choose to pass for initial licensure. I specifically did not choose a high-stakes state that only requires traditional candidates to pass in order to wholly examine both types of programs under coercive conditions. Further, I did not choose a low-stakes state that does *not prohibit* TPPs from "actively using" edTPA because such circumstances are very piecemeal and cannot account for varying contextual differences.

Largely, these decisions were influenced by my pilot study. Upon IRB approval, I piloted two of my case TPPs in Illinois—Jefferson and Hamilton University. I completed 25 interviews, two focus groups, and one course observation. Data revealed implementation challenges related to coercive policy designs when organizational resources were lacking. Bridging these early findings, my dissertation therefore raised the bar, collecting more data across selected states and embedded TPPs (see Chapter Four for details).

In sum, edTPA policy designs have differed across an array of dimensions. These differences can broadly be attributed to the convergence of accountability and market-based reforms, subsequent differences in accountability designs adopted by states (i.e. high- vs. low-stakes), and local responses by TPPs. Consequently, two case states have been selected to empirically represent such "implementer discretion/variation". Various TPPs within each selected state have also been identified, further illustrating these subtle degrees in accountability (Hutt et al., 2018) across existing edTPA policies.

Local-level: Additional micro factors influencing TPP implementation

As Fransson and McMahan (2013) argue, state policies are intended to instill conformity, clarity, and the expectation that people will act in accordance with them. While policymakers believe they can control the organizational, political, and technological processes effecting their implementation (Elmore, 1979), Alison (1971) points out predicting policy fidelity is 90% local actor implementation and only 10% policy design. Thus, the ground level is where the proverbial "rubber meets the road." Policies are further shaped as these local actors and their respective organizations make sense of and operationalize such expectations (Spillane, 1999). Towards these ends, I illustrate three different micro-organizational factors influencing policy implementation: 1) sensegiving and subsequent sensemaking; 2) existing organizational resources; and 3) existing organizational and cultural structures/practices. Each factor is discussed in turn below, along with accompanying figures.

Sensegiving and subsequent sensemaking. Although a policy's design helps "give sense" to local implementers about the intensity of its demands (Nakamura & Smallwood, 1980; Spillane, 1999; Spillane et al., 2006), as discussed in Chapter One, local actors equally become "sensemakers" of such designs (Coburn 2001, 2005). Sensemaking means to literally make sense

of something new (Weick, 1995). This concept is rooted in cognitive psychology. Piaget and Cook (1952) state, when dealing with something new, humans put stimuli into frameworks or "schemata". These schemata help them "to comprehend, understand, explain, attribute, extrapolate, and predict" (Starbuck & Milliken, 1988, p. 51).

Concerning policy implementation, messages from above are therefore reconstructed and reshaped based on actors' "prior knowledge, the social context within which they work, and the nature of their connections to the policy…" (Coburn, 2005, p. 478). This theory builds on Weiss' decision-making framework (1983) where ideology, interest, and information affect an actor's policy position/outcome. Taken together, predicting policy responses is largely a negotiation between a policy's demands (i.e. their design) and how local organizations/actors make sense of them (Sabatier & Mazmanian, 1980). Figure 3.4 will help explain this process:

Figure 3.4. Sensegiving and Subsequent Sensemaking Process
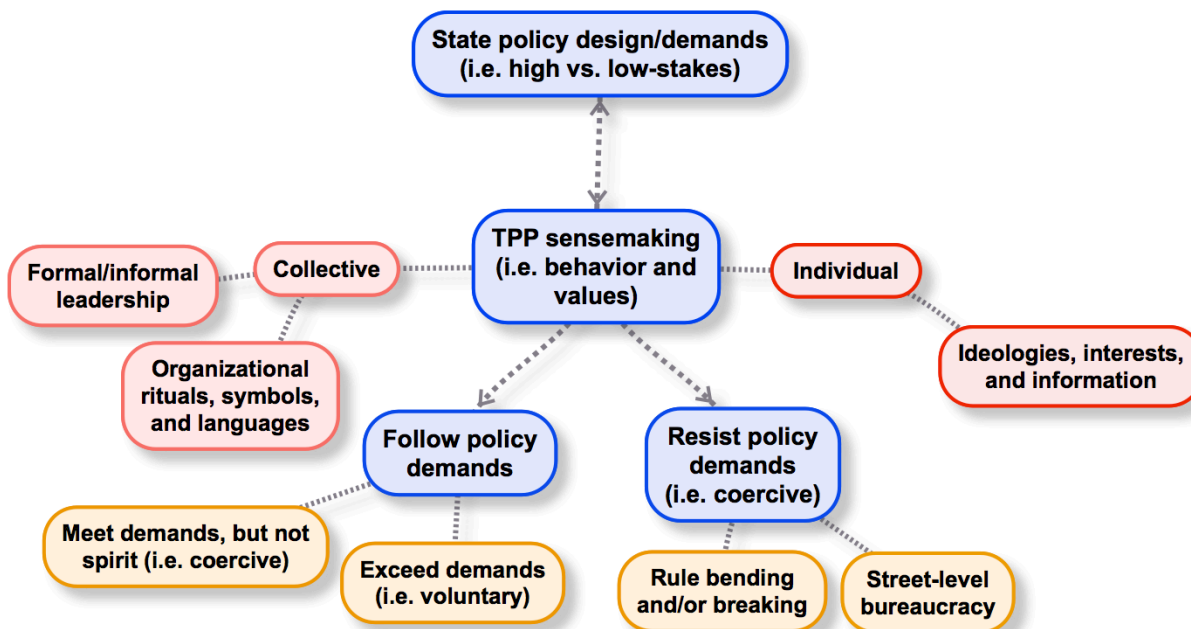
As local-level organizations make sense of a policy's demands, they first do so collectively or individually. On one hand, organizations have their own rituals, symbols, and

languages (Bolman & Deal, 2008). These create an "invisible hand" (Weick, 1995), unconsciously shifting actors' views towards a collective singularity (Coburn, 2005; Janis, 1982; Harris, 1994). On the other hand, local actors each bring to bear prior ideologies, interests, and information (Weiss, 1983). These idiosyncrasies predispose actors to particular patterns of action— that of obedience or resistance (Weiss, 1983). Within TPPs, such collective/individual forces make up their organizational mission— i.e. behavior and values.

In addition, it is important to note leadership and power further influence this exchange. By virtue of their role or function (Firestone, 1996), formal (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991) and informal (Coburn, 2005; Rouleau, 2005) leaders exert great authority. As Sloan (2015) found, when proper leadership or collaborative routines remained absent, disturbances in the edTPA policy implementation process existed. Meanwhile, shifts in power result in different combinations of ideology-interests-information receiving more or less attention in the decision-making process (Weiss, 1983). So whereas individuals interpret policies differently based on prior experiences (Coburn, 2001, 2005), values, and available information (Weiss, 1983), leadership and shifts in power can similarly predict an organization's sensemaking (i.e. collective or individually).

As organizations collectively/individually make sense of a policy's demands (based on behaviors/values), they can exhibit one of two responses (Berman, 1986). First, they can follow its demands. When the design is coercive, these actors typically end up satisfying the letter of the law (Firestone, 1989), or what De Voto and Thomas (2018) call "cosmetic compliance". Yet when the design is voluntary, organizations adopt a policy because it meets their needs, often exceeding its demands (Firestone, 1989). Second, organizations can resist a policy's demands (Berman, 1986). Weatherly and Lipsky (1977) refer to this response as "street-level

bureaucracy". Dealing with multiple, potentially conflicting demands, local actors become "policymakers in their respective work arenas" (p. 172), impeding prescribed policy processes. But these divisive responses are usually not intentional; rather, they serve as coping mechanisms (Lipsky, 1971) to address coercive policy designs or incongruent behavior/value structures. Typical responses include rule bending (Cohen et al., 2018; Ratner et al., 2016)—also known as "creative insubordination" (Crowson, 1989)—or rule breaking (De Voto, 2016; Ratner et al., 2016) .

To help demonstrate how these competing macro/micro forces influence teacher assessment policy tools in practice, I use several additional theories. First, Campbell's Law (1979) states:

> …the more any quantitative social indicator is used for social decision making, the more subject it will be to corruption pressures [from local, implementing actors] and the more apt it will be to distort and corrupt the social processes it is intended to monitor (p. 49).

This law explains how states employing a high-stakes, coercive design can result in local TPPs resisting, distorting, or corrupting edTPA's intended outcomes (Campbell, 1979; Nichols & Berliner, 2007). Similarly, Lyotard's (1984) work shows while high-stakes teacher assessment systems increase the time and energy spent towards their preparation, such efforts reflect the performative functions, not the intended outcomes (i.e. teaching to the test). In contrast, Linn, Baker, and Dunbar (1991) note if an assessment policy requires little change to a given organization or is voluntarily adopted, there is likely to be little distortion/resistance and more valid outcomes. This explains how states employing a voluntary edTPA design limit TPP resistance or distortion (given only those TPPs with similar behaviors/values adopt edTPA). Taken together, edTPA implementation has "… exhibited… two fairly distinct [responses]: those that made decisions to *marginalize* the [policy]... and those that made decisions to *integrate* the

[policy]." (Ledwell & Oyler, 2016, p. 129).

In sum, policy implementation is not a rational, top-down process (Franson & McMahan, 2013), but an interplay between various stakeholders and factors at different levels (Banner, 2012; Datnow & Park, 2009). As organizations collectively and individually make sense (or not) of a policy's design and demands, these understandings influence their overall capacity and will to implement them (McLaughlin, 1987; Odden, 1991; Spillane, 1999). "Capacity" can be defined as the ability to comply with policy (Spillane, 1999; Stoll & Bolam, 2005) whereas "will" measures the inclination to do so. Such terms parallel business management literature—i.e. agency and motivation—where agency and will reflect "the capacity of actors to critically shape their own responsiveness to problematic situations" (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998, p. 971) based on structural conditions, local circumstances, and personal resources (Mele, 2003). In this way, there will always be those who follow and those who resist a given policy (Kagan, 1986). Hence, examining this intersection between local context (Honig, 2006a; McLaughlin, 1987) and policy design (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996) when predicting policy fidelity (Spillane, 1999) is paramount.

Existing organizational resources. Although sensegiving and subsequent sensemaking processes shape an organization's choices during implementation (Spillane et al., 2006), research shows these choices are further predicated on their existing resources (McLaughlin, 1987; Berman & McLaughline, 1978). Such resources can be defined as knowledge, relationships, mission, reputation, managerial talent, and physical assets (Kraatz & Zajac, 2001). Together, they help influence the capacity and will to meet a policy's demands (McLaughlin, 1987; Mohr, 1969; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1984). To this end, I discuss three kinds of resources influencing organizational capacity and will: 1) fiscal, 2) human, and 3) time. See Figure 3.5 below for illustrative framework:

Figure 3.5. Existing Organizational Resources
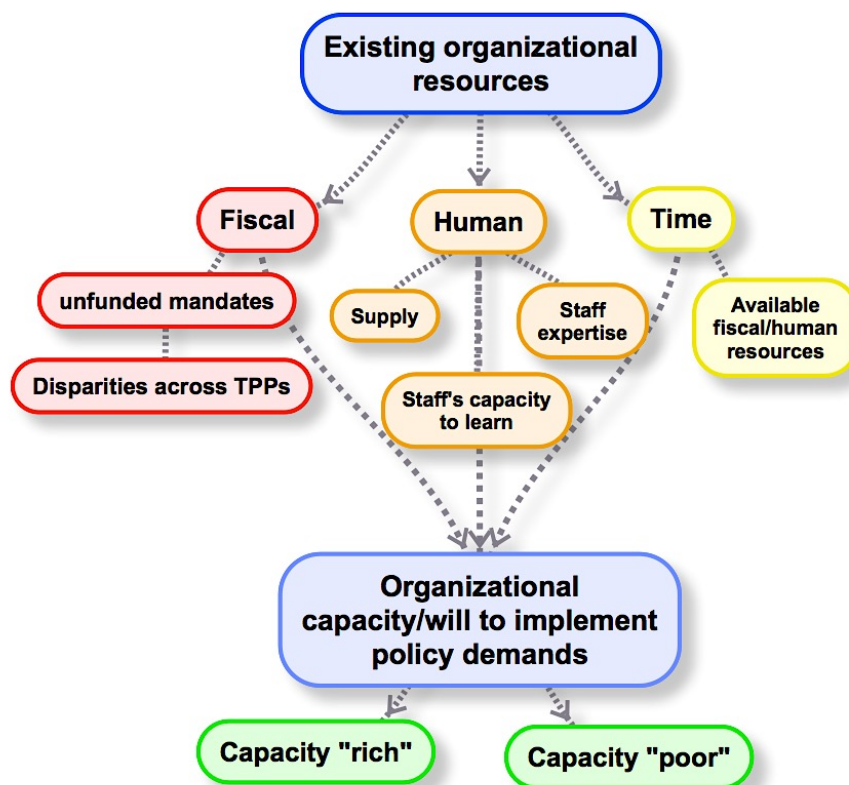
Fiscal resources. Typically, when policies require significant behavioral change on the organization's part, funding is required (Sabatier & Mazmanian, 1980). Yet Earley (2000) points out, teacher education policies often enter the landscape as unfunded mandates. These conditions can diminish a policy's potential to invoke change (Bales, 2006), as they constrain the supports respective organizations can provide. For instance, many states legislating edTPA—coercively or voluntarily—have done so without allocating funds to individual TPPs for its implementation (i.e. unless they had SCALE, RTTT, or other grant funding). Consequently, existing fiscal disparities across TPPs have exacerbated their efforts to meet these new demands, especially in states subscribing to coercive designs (Gurl et al., 2016).

Human resources. While fiscal resources remain a key predictor of organizational

capacity and will, Honig (2006a) details the extent to which human capital also plays a role. Specifically, she explains existing organizational expertise becomes paramount. That is, what people—particularly leaders—already know and can do helps predict policy fidelity. To illustrate, Coburn (2005) investigated how principals in two California elementary schools influenced enactment of a new reading policy. In both organizations, leaders' prior knowledge shaped their decisions for staff. If they had limited prior knowledge of reading content, their ability to make sense of the policy across staff suffered (Coburn, 2005). So when prior knowledge is incompatible or lacking, actors' capacities to learn how to cope with a policy's demands becomes intensified (Honig, 2006a). Bridging this negotiation, therefore, equally predicts policy fidelity (Cohen & Hill, 2000; McLaughlin, 2006; Spillane & Thompson, 1997).

On the other hand, research also shows human resources can be attributed to the supply of people an organization has at their disposal (Spillane & Thompson, 1997; Spillane, Gomez, & Mesler, 2009). Indeed, because these vary, their ability to make sense and thus respond to policy demands also varies (Smylie, 2009; Spillane, 2004). For example, when supply is low, organizations must successfully tap into other existing resources, particularly social capital via formal and informal networks (Spillane & Zeuli, 1999; this will be elaborated upon in the following section). But if social capital also remains limited, the likelihood a policy succeeds diminishes (Spillane et al., 2009). As such, human and social resources operate together; the extent to which these exist and interact across a given organization directly influences an organization's capacity and will to implement policy demands (Spillane et al., 2009).

Time as a resource. Although the aforementioned tangible resources remain important, one cannot ignore the importance of intangible resources as drivers of policy implementation. In particular, time becomes a necessary intangible resource. In many ways, though, time is directly

related to the amount of existing fiscal and human resources an organization has (Spillane & Thompson, 1997). That is, when fiscal and human resources are limited, an organization has less time to implement policy (Spillane & Thompson, 1997). For example, my pilot research showed how TPPs lacking both fiscal and human resources had significantly less time to implement edTPA (De Voto, 2016). Further, research from New York State showed their rapid rollout limited some TPPs' abilities to address edTPA demands (Gurl et al., 2016), particularly when funding and/or staff were lacking (Grenblatt & O'Hara, 2015). Accordingly, disparities in intangible resources at the local level similarly influence policy implementation.

In sum, examining an organization's existing resources helps reveal their capacity and will to implement a policy in practice (Elmore, 1979). Because the types and amount vary widely (Smylie, 2009), policies enter the education landscape amidst "capacity-rich" and "capacity-poor" organizations (Spillane & Thompson, 1997). In turn, these circumstances set up key inequalities across local implementers despite attending to the same policy design.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices. Notwithstanding sensegiving/sensemaking and organizational resources, policy implementation research also highlights the importance of existing structures and cultural practices. Four different elements are illustrated in this section: 1) leadership; 2) organizational coupling; 3) organizational routines; and 4) social networks/capital. Together, they help determine an organization's compatibility with a given policy. See Figure 3.6 illustrating these structural and cultural elements:

Figure 3.6. Existing Organizational Structures and Cultural Practices

However, before elaborating upon these elements, it is important to more broadly discuss the organizational settings responding to edTPA— i.e. TPPs:

Teacher preparation programs. As discussed in Chapter Two, TPPs are generally situated within institutions of higher education. These institutions subscribe to their own organizational norms— particularly academic freedom and autonomy (Altbach et al., 2005). Nevertheless, accountability policies like edTPA conflict with such norms (Picower & Marshall, 2016), raising the defensive hackles of faculty preserving the status quo (Tagg, 2012). Hence, Many and colleagues (2016) have found teacher educators either view edTPA as "opportunities for inquiry, moving toward curriculum adaptation and program improvement, or as threats to their autonomy and program mission, leading only to compliance or resistance" (p. 4). While such divergence can be better explained by the above organizational elements, it can also be

attributed to their programmatic differences. That is, because of the convergence of accountability and market-based policy tools, TPPs now subscribe to different organizational structures and cultural practices. See Figure 1.7 explaining these differences:

Figure 3.7. Programmatic Differences across TPPs
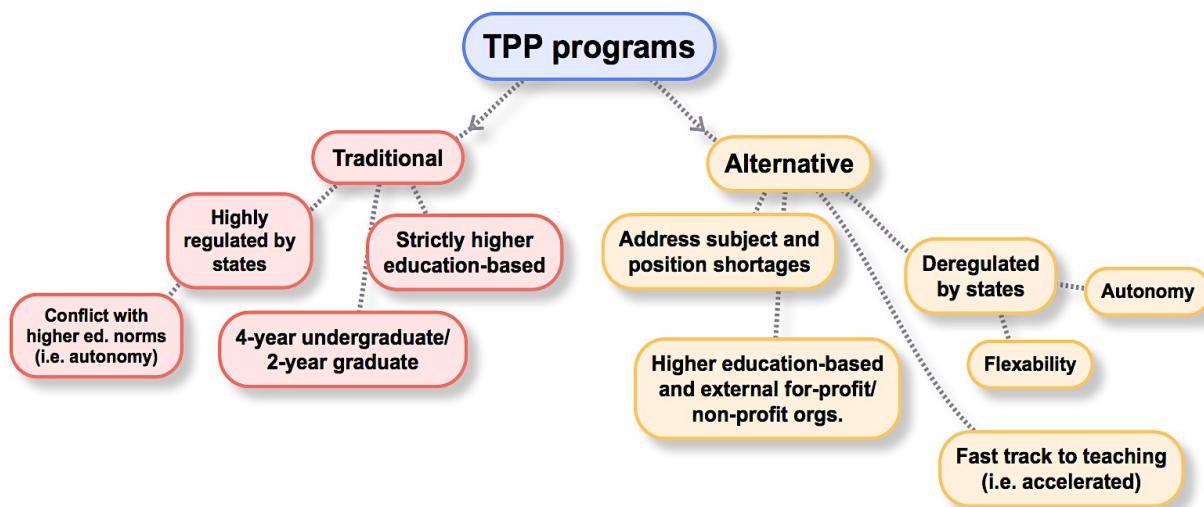
On the one hand, traditional TPPs are 4-year undergraduate (or 2-year graduate) programs (Cohen-Vogel & Smith, 2007) that evolved out of the merger with higher education at the beginning of the 20th century (Feiman-Nemser, 1989). Consequently, these programs still embody cultural norms of the academy (Siddique et al., 2011). This has caused states to more strictly regulate them via accountability policies. On the other hand, alternative-route certification programs are a byproduct of the latters' inabilities to adequately address teacher quality and legitimacy (Labaree, 1992). As a result, these programs are quite different, both in theory and practice.

Although there has not been an agreed upon definition for what constitutes alternative-route certification (Humphrey & Wechsler 2007), these programs broadly encompass certification outside the traditional, four or five-year undergraduate program (Whitford, Zhang,

& Katsiyannis, 2017). They aim to address teacher shortages in high-needs subjects and schools, serving as deregulated, "fast tracks to teaching" (Burstein, O'Connel, & Tozer, 2012; Cohen-Vogel & Smith, 2007; Ng & Peter, 2010). To do so, they provide full access to teaching students, with minimal supervision (Whitford et al. 2017). They also cater to individuals switching careers (Boyd, Goldhaber, Lankford, & Wyckoff, 2007; Shuls & Trivitt, 2015). In the process, research shows disadvantaged students—e.g. special education, minorities, those in rural areas, and poor school districts—are more likely to have teachers prepared via such programs (Mason-Williams, 2015).

At the same time, their market-based roots have resulted in one-third operating externally (i.e. outside of higher ed.) by for-profit and non-profit organizations (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Accordingly, almost half of states further deregulate these external programs (U.S. Government Office of Accountability, 2015). Yet Shuls and Trivitt (2015) find there is little difference in quality between traditionally and alternatively certified teachers.

Taken together, such programmatic differences have conceivably resulted in variances in policy implementation, particularly when both programs have to comply (i.e. via high-stakes, coercive designs). But to-date, no known empirical research highlighting alternative program policy implementation exists. While much research has highlighted their efficacy (e.g. Glazerman, Mayer, & Decker, 2006; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000; Goldhaber et al., 2012), the extent to which policy implementation plays a role remains absent. Research does, however, show alternative programs exhibit variances in existing capacities to prepare teacher candidates (Humphrey, Wechsler, & Hough, 2008). Employing grounded theory will therefore aim to elaborate upon these variances and their potential influences on edTPA policy implementation. Towards these ends, I now explain how existing organizational structures and cultural practices

contribute.

Leadership. According to Elmore (2005), accountability policies facilitate three different functions exhibited by strong leaders. First, they create coherence and alignment among individuals' conceptions of what they are responsible for and how (i.e. setting directions). When leaders do not craft such coherence and alignment, however, responses amongst local actors become variable and based largely on their own prior understandings (Coburn, 2001, 2005). Second, leaders focus on the technical and social/emotions dimensions of improvement. That is, they redesign their organizational structures and processes to nurture practices that improve performance (e.g. behaviors/values). Third, they distribute leadership as a means develop successful people throughout the organization. By distributing leadership, numerous people actively engage in meeting policy demands, helping to form a collective vision. Together, these three functions help to influence collective sensemaking. As formal authorities, their position entitles them to signal whether and how much an organization will adhere to a given policy.

Loose vs. tight organizational coupling. Despite TPPs having their own programmatic structures, research shows organizations generally operate in one of two ways: 1) loosely-coupled or 2) tightly-coupled. Coupling refers to the degree of relatedness across systems and/or actors within a given organization (Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976). On one hand, an organization can be loosely-coupled. Analogous to the "garbage can model" (Lutz, 1982; March & Oslen, 1976), loosely-coupled organizations remain flexible, overlapping systems able to adapt to changes more discretely (Weick, 1976). This flexibility gives them "cultural insurance" to draw upon in times of radical change. A breakdown in one part will thus not impede the work of the organization as a whole (Firestone, 2015). However, such flexibility can also result in uneven policy implementation (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, 1983). Because participation and

involvement from organizational members is fluid (Fusarelli, 2002), they may not have the will or capacities (McLaughlin, 1987) to meet a policy's demands. Education organizations— including universities—are generally associated with this structure. Consequently, policymakers see these conditions as a problem (Firestone, 2015). One solution has been the use of accountability tools like edTPA (Firestone, 2015; Fusarelli, 2002).

On the other hand, an organization can be tightly-coupled. These systems function much the opposite of loosely-coupled organizations. Indeed, they are rigid, unwavering structures. But research shows they also promote cultural homogeneity (Firestone, 2015), allowing for collective sensemaking to transpire. Additionally, they foster distributed leadership, which edTPA scholars show is a key element to the policy's successful implementation (De Voto, 2017; Sloan, 2013; Whittaker et al., 2018). Therefore, the federal government and states are pressuring education organizations to further couple (Fusarelli, 2002).

Despite universities traditionally maintaining their cultural norms of academic freedom and autonomy, many are now loosely- and tightly-coupled in response to such external pressures (Lutz, 1982). This union has helped them preserve their status quo (Lutz, 1982). Universities tightly-couple when an issue supports their status quo, whereas they uncouple when an issue challenges their status quo. In this way, the extent to which faculty/staff members internalize such external pressures determines their institution's relative tightness (Sauder & Espeland, 2009).

Collectively then, these differences in coupling across universities have influenced how TPPs respond to accountability policies like edTPA (De Voto, 2017). The tighter their coupling, the more likely they are to view the policy as "opportunities for inquiry" (Many et al., 2016, p. 4). Conversely, the looser their coupling, the more likely they are to view it as "threats to their

autonomy" (Many et al., 2016, p. 4). Organizational coupling therefore translates into a TPP's overall will and capacities to meet edTPA's demands, producing variance in implementation (De Voto, 2017).

Existing organizational routines. While coupling helps clarify how TPPs respond to edTPA, these structural elements are further observed via existing organizational routines. Feldman and Pentland (2003) define organizational routines as "a repetitive, recognizable pattern of interdependent actions, involving multiple actors" (p. 95). Such actions can be thought of "as agreements about how to do organizational work" (Spillane et al., 2009, p. 950). Concerning policy implementation, these routines help an organization make sense of them (Spillane et al., 2009). As such, the extent to which proper routines exist similarly influences how an organization responds to a policy's demands

However, routines are not independent of organizational structures. Indeed, coupling helps cultivate proper routines across education organizations (Spillane & Burch, 2005). For example, Spillane, Parise, and Sherer (2011) examined how school leaders in Chicago used organizational routines to couple government regulation with administrative practice and classroom instruction. They found leaders leveraged routines as a means to more tightly-couple their schools in the face of new accountability policies (Spillane et al., 2011). In this way, coupling and organizational routines are interdependent elements in predicting policy fidelity.

At the same time, policy demands further influence the kinds of routines an organization employs (Spillane et al., 2011). Spillane and colleagues (2011) found virtually all observed routines school leaders enacted were tethered to the new accountability policy. With respect to edTPA, my pilot research also demonstrated such conditions. When TPPs were loosely-coupled, faculty and staff drastically changed their standardized organizational routines to implement

edTPA effectively (De Voto, 2016). This resulted in challenges to their status quo (Lutz, 1982). Hence, policy demands can also force organizations to implement new routines, which may or may not be congruent with their status quo.

Existing social networks. Generally speaking, coupling and organizational routines are related to social networks (Spillane et al., 2009). Daly and Finnegan (2012) refer to social networks as "relations among individuals" (p. 497). However, depending on their makeup, they can play a role in supporting *or* constraining organizational change (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2005; Bartol & Zhang, 2007; Coburn, Mata, & Choi, 2013; Daly, 2010) by shaping the frequency, nature, and quality of learning interactions and resources made available (Coburn & Russell, 2008; Lin, 2001; Moolenar, 2012). Implementing policy therefore depends upon the ability of social networks "to shape individual and collective action to bring about desired goals" (Coburn, 2016, p. 465). Towards these ends, four different elements of social networks are highlighted: 1) proximity; 2) trust; 3) coalitions; and 4) brokering. Together, these produce "open" or "closed" social networks. I explain each of these elements below.

Although social networks can happen organically, they can also exist by design (Coburn et al., 2013). In other words, the coupling and subsequent routines an organization exemplifies produces their relative proximity (and thus networking) between individuals. Tight, formal structures create a space for such interactions to take place. Conversely, loose structures require an additional element to be present— i.e. trust.

As Daly and Finnegan note, trust supports the "transfer of tacit, non-routine, and complex knowledge, allowing for joint problem solving and system-wide solutions" (Daly & Finnegan, 2012, p. 497). Bridging organizational coupling, trust and social networking accordingly remain interdependent elements (Reagans & McEvily, 2003). For instance, existing social networks

depend upon continued trust to function effectively. Meanwhile, positive experiences from prior social interactions may contribute to future engagement with another party (Albrecht & Bach, 1997; Daly & Finnegan, 2012; Uzzi, 1997). Taken together, organizations exhibiting such collaborative practices across members are more capable of enacting valuable routines (Honig & Ikemoto, 2008; Lave, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991) towards to a given policy (Spillane et al., 2012).

That said, trust also leads to two other social practices supporting or constraining organizational change: 1) coalitions and 2) brokers. Coalitions are groups of people with particular values, beliefs, information, interests, and perceptions of reality (Bolman & Deal, 2008). As discussed, these values/beliefs are fostered collectively or individually via sensemaking (Weick, 1995). When these groups have many members, they can become an organization's "dominant coalition" (Cyert & March, 1963). Such coalitions have a great deal of bargaining power as to how an organization responds to change (Matland, 1995). Alternatively, when a few members have a strong voice, a "subcoalition" can form. Subcoalitions tend to exist in tandem with the dominant coalition, producing internal conflict. This conflict can lead to an organization resisting policy enactment (i.e. actively resisting), complying only to the minimum extent possible (i.e. cosmetically complying), or members of one coalition being pushed out altogether.

While groups of people can band together to leverage a certain organizational outcome, brokers can also play a role. Daly and colleagues define brokers as "those individuals who connect otherwise disconnected individuals or groups in the movement of a relational resource" (Daly, Finnegan, Moolenaar, & Che, 2014, p. 14). Typically, brokers occupy informal or mid-level management positions, enhancing opportunities to draw in various actors across

hierarchical structures (Burt, 2000, 2005; Rouleau, 2005). Similar to coalitions, though, this can either support or constrain policy implementation. For example, research shows these brokers may abuse their positions of trust by filtering, distorting, or hoarding resources as a means of control, inhibiting individual and organizational performance in the process (Baker & Iyer, 1992; Daly et al., 2014). Oppositely, they can serve a key boundary spanning role, helping to properly sensemake policy demands across actors (Finnegan & Daly, 2012; Honig, 2006b, 2008, 2012).

To-date, only three studies highlight brokering as an important element of edTPA policy implementation (De Voto, 2016, 2017; De Voto & Mayrowetz, 2018). But De Voto (2017) argues distributive leadership must exist for brokering to be harnessed effectively, given it is conducive to producing communities of practice across TPPs (also see Many, Favors-Welch, Kurtz, Ogletree, & Thomas, 2018; Roberts, 2018; Sloan, 2013; Whittaker et al., 2018). Broadly, distributed leadership accentuates "the collective dynamics of leadership rather than focusing on the actions and beliefs of appointed leaders" (Vuori, 2017, p. 1). In doing so, this framework helps examine the organizational gap between formal leadership roles and informal functions across agents (Vuori, 2017). As Mayrowetz (2008) points out, the "conception of leadership as person- or role-based is poorly aligned to the realities of work in organizations" (p. 427). Therefore, examining the collective, context-specific processes and practices across organizational actors whose roles may be fuzzy, fluid, and constantly changing is important (Gronn, 2000; Vuori, 2017).

In sum, drawing from Glaser and Strauss (1967), these elements produce "open" and "closed" social networks. When organizations are open, they are better able to address policy demands. This is because sensemaking becomes a collective rather than an individual process. Conversely, when organizations are closed, they are less able to address policy demands. This is

because sensemaking becomes individualized rather than collective. Together, such differences influence an organization's compatibility. Compatibility can be thought of as the extent to which a policy is congruent or incongruent with their behaviors/values. Congruence supports policy implementation whereas incongruence constrains policy implementation.

Overall, this section highlighted micro-organizational factors influencing edTPA policy implementation. First, sensegiving by states and subsequent sensemaking by TPPs demonstrated how these local organizations internalize policies, coming to different understandings and thus ways of approaching their demands (i.e. behaviors/values). Second, differences in existing fiscal and human resources further complicated TPPs' responses due to their institutional capacities present. Third, differences in programmatic structures (i.e. traditional vs. alternative), coupling, routines, and social networks further led to variances in TPP implementation by supporting or constraining their efforts. But ultimately, such differences are broadly related to: 1) the policy's design and subsequent demands, and 2) TPPs' overall will and capacities to meet them.

End-line policy users: Teacher candidates

While states and TPPs are largely responsible for variances in edTPA policy implementation, teacher candidates are also a key actor in this process. Indeed, these individuals are edTPA's "end-line policy users" (Honig, 2006a). Prepared by and influenced by TPPs, they officially take the assessment. Towards these ends, research shows 1) collective candidate sensemaking; 2) individual candidate expertise; 3) teaching placements; and 4) Pearson assessment scorers influence their outcomes. I will briefly discuss each element in turn. See Figure 3.8 for the illustrative version.

Figure 3.8. Factors Influencing End-line Policy Users
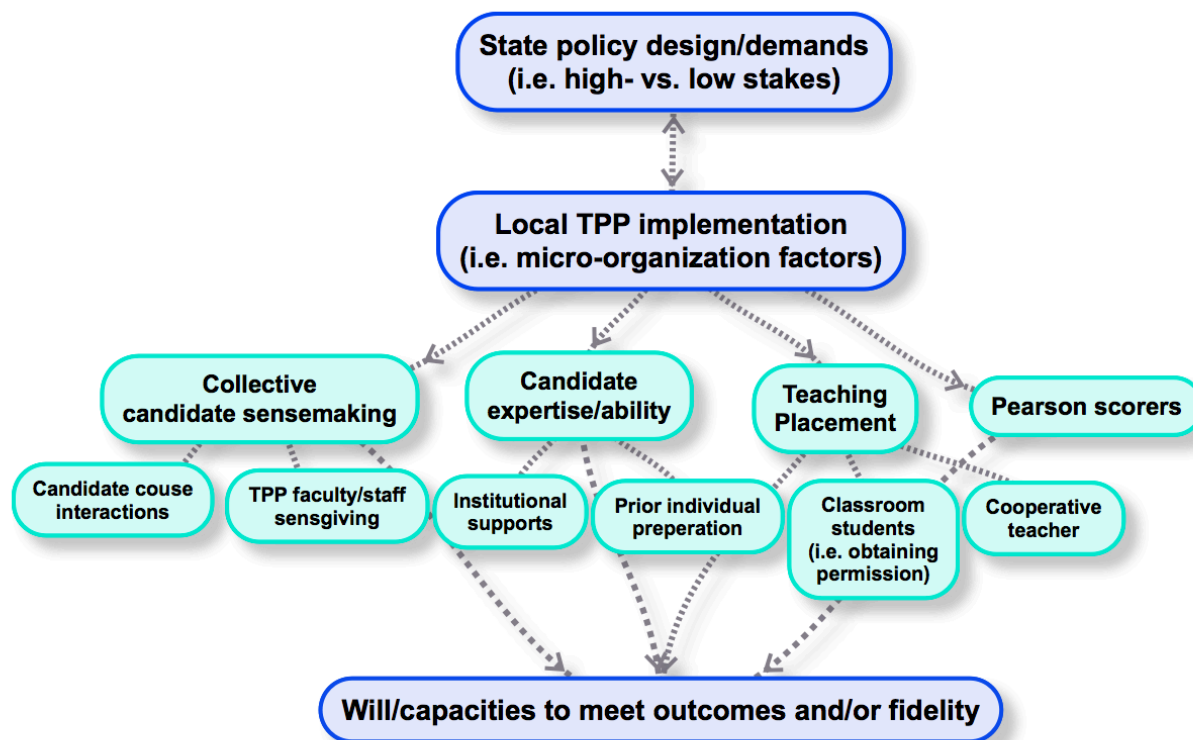
Collective candidate sensemaking. As an accountability tool, passing scores by individual

teacher candidates reflect policy fidelity. However, much like the aforementioned negotiation

between edTPA policy demands and local TPP sensemaking, this too can be a collective effort.

On one hand, pilot research showed because teacher candidates tend to take the same preparation

courses, there are multiple opportunities for social interaction. Over time, teacher candidates thus

exhibited analogous perceptions regarding edTPA, supporting or resisting its implementation

(De Voto, 2016). On the other hand, given candidates are the last entry point in the edTPA policy

process, sensegiving from states and TPP faculty/staff result in multiple policy messages from

above (see preceding illustrative framework). Accordingly, how these end-line policy users make

sense of the policy tool is similarly influenced (Cohen et al., 2018; De Voto, 2016; Chandler-

Olcott & Flemming, 2017)— either negatively (Burns et al., 2015; Butler, 2015; McKenna &

Box, 2014; Meuwissen et al., 2015; Okhremtchouk et al., 2009; Wittenbrink, 2013) or positively (Butler, 2015; Okhremtchouk et al., 2009; Wittenbrink, 2013). While candidate perceptions tend to be more negative across policy designs, research shows this is especially true when high-stakes (Dover, 2018; Greenblatt 2015, 2016a, 2016b; Madeloni, & Gorlewski, 2013; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Ressler et al., 2016), as such designs force compliance by TPP faculty/staff rather than foster it voluntarily (De Voto, 2016). Taken together, this convergence is best highlighted by Daly (2010) who posits, "positions in a social structure have consequences for how processes are enacted, how participants make sense of their participation, and how organizations change."

Individual candidate expertise. Similar to prior knowledge influencing TPP faculty/staff sensegiving, existing candidate expertise further influences their will/capacities to respond. Broadly, such will/capacity is dependent upon a candidate's institutional supports and individual preparation. Research shows this intersection is especially observable concerning technological expertise (e.g. De Voto & Thomas, 2018; Greenblatt 2015, 2016a; Madeloni, & Gorlewski, 2013; Ressler et al., 2016; Xiao, 2015). That is, because edTPA is an ePortfolio design—requiring candidates to video-record, edit, and reflect on 3 to 5 consecutive lessons—technological pedagogical content knowledge (or TPACK) becomes imperative. But TPACK is often tethered to a TPPs' existing human and fiscal resources (De Voto & Thomas, 2018). Consequently, these resource disparities across TPPs have further contributed to inequities in candidates' observed TPACK (De Voto & Thomas, 2018).

Individual preparation also remains important. Candidates must learn how to take pedagogical content knowledge learned in class and apply it to written commentaries submitted as part of their overall ePortfolio. Hence, their will/capacities to pass this test are also contingent

upon their innate teaching and writing skills. And because TPPs have student bodies with varying degrees of such skills, edTPA implementation is further bifurcated.

Teaching placements. As is typical across teacher certification programs, candidates must complete a clinical teaching placement. Given edTPA must be completed during this placement, however, they have become a critical implementation variable. First, where candidates conduct their placement matters; research shows urban contexts tend to be more difficult because of discipline problems and a lack of parental engagement (Greenblatt & O' Hara, 2015; Gurl et al., 2016). Second, cooperating teachers become important (Kissau, Hart & Algozzine, 2017). Traditionally, these teachers agree to coach a candidate for a specified length of time. The objective is to provide guidance when teaching in a real classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Yet research shows they can further support or constrain a candidate's efforts to complete edTPA (Kissau et al., 2017), as many have noted edTPA's "... lack of relevance to their experiences as professionals in the field" (Ressler et al., 2016, pg. 128). Accordingly, this disconnection has often led to a lack of understanding (Gurl et al., 2016), limiting opportunities for candidates to capitalize on such coaching relationships. So despite SCALE (2014) envisioning cooperating teachers taking on an advisory role for edTPA preparation, this has not uniformly transpired in practice.

Meanwhile, video permission requirements continue to be a barrier for edTPA implementation (Cronenberg et al., 2016; Greenblatt & O'hara, 2015; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Meuwissen et al., 2015; Ledwell & Oyler, 2016; Ressler et al., 2016). Candidates must obtain written permission from students' parents to include their children in the submitted video lesson. But "in classrooms where only a few students return those forms, a candidate may only be able to include those few students in the edTPA video submission, a handicap for the

candidate" (Gurl et al., p. 109). Furthermore, pilot research showed some candidates are outright manipulating the video lesson, videotaping children without authorization, and publishing their video on websites like YouTube (De Voto, 2016). Therefore, such circumstances highlight the social distortions Campbell (1979) theorized regarding high-stakes assessment.

Pearson assessment scorers. Although data will not be collected on this element because it's outside my study's scope (see delimitations section), Pearson assessment scorers play an integral role in teacher candidate outcomes. In response to edTPA's nationwide adoption, SCALE outsourced its administrative functions (including grading) to Pearson (Whittaker et al., 2018). To carry out such functions, Pearson uses external assessment scorers—typically veteran teachers—to evaluate submitted edTPAs.

According to SCALE (2016), 25% are university faculty, 75% are K-12 teachers, and of those, 18% hold National Board Certification. These scorers go through a battery of training modules lasting approximately 19-24 hours, and must score a minimum of 8 submitted portfolios per month (Pearson Education, 2014). However, this external process has led many scholars to question whether scorers have the contextual or content-based knowledge necessary to accurately assess a candidate's ePortfolio (Lanham, 2012). As Lanham (2012) notes:

> Assessing a candidate's true ability as a teacher would depend upon long-term exposure to the candidate's school environment, classroom demeanor, presentation of material, and ability to inspire interest in the students; a calibrated scorer [thus] lacks the resources to obtain any of this information. (p. 113)

Teacher candidates have expressed similar fears with this process, particularly as it relates to the lack of any feedback provided upon receipt (De Voto, 2016; Hobbs, 2015; Lin, 2015). As Ledwell & Oyler (2016) note: "[students] get a bunch of... rubric scores, ... but they don't really know what any of that means... there's no formative feedback" (p. 125).

In sum, teacher candidates and the interconnected web of actors become an additional element toward edTPA implementation. As end-line policy users, they interpret messages from above (i.e. via states and TPPs). This can be done collectively or individually. As such, differences in resources influence their will/capacity to demonstrate the necessary teaching, technological, and writing expertise edTPA requires (De Voto & Thomas, 2018). Meanwhile, cooperative teachers and video permission requirements pose additional barriers to the policy tool's fidelity (Cronenberg et al., 2016; Fabrikant, Bolton, York, & Hodge, 2018; Greenblatt & O'hara, 2015; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Meuwissen et al., 2015; Meuwissen, Choppin, Cloonan, & Shang-Butler, 2016; Ledwell & Oyler, 2016; Ressler et al., 2016). Finally, Pearson's external process displays how contextual factors contribute to a candidate's submitted ePortfolio (Gurl et al., 2016; Lanham, 2012; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Parkes & Powell, 2015; Picower & Marshall, 2016; Russell & Davidson, 2016).

Concluding thoughts of chapter

This chapter revealed a multitude of macro- and micro-contextual variables influencing edTPA sensemaking (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; McLaughlin, 1987): 1) policy design/subsequent demands; 2) existing organizational resources, structures, and cultural practices; and 3) candidate expertise, teaching placements, and Pearson assessment scorers. Yet such circumstances reflect policy implementation more generally. As policies, people, and places interact, implementation is not successful everywhere all the time (Honig, 2006b; Kagan, 1986). Therefore, using grounded theory, my dissertation will examine this conceptual framework across state adopted policies and responding TPPs.

Before doing so empirically, however, it is important to briefly illustrate how implementation responses conceivably differ theoretically. As discussed, the convergence of

accountability and market-based designs has resulted in differences across existing edTPA policy tools— specifically their degree of accountability. In turn, the demands placed on traditional and alternative TPPs have also varied. This has led to four different theoretical scenarios: 1) traditional TPP/high-stakes; 2) alternative-route TPP/high-stakes; 3) traditional TPP/low-stakes; and 4) alternative-route TPP/low-stakes. See Figure 3.9 further breaking down these circumstances and conceivable responses:

Figure 3.9. Scenarios of edTPA Policy Formation/Implementation, and Conceivable Theoretical Responses

	High-stakes policy design	Low-stakes policy design
Traditional TPP	*Coercive;* may lead to resistance when organizational capacities/will are limited	*Voluntary*; active use or not using at all
Alternative-route TPP	*Coercive;* may lead to resistance due to increased regulation	*Voluntary;* active use or not using at all

The four quadrants in Figure 3.9 illustrate the potential paired responses state adopted policy designs and TPP programmatic differences might contribute. Each pair is briefly discussed below in turn.

Traditional TPP/high-stakes. As Dolowitz and Marsh (1996, 2000) point out, when states or other bureaucratic systems adopt policies in a forceful, regulatory manner, they become "coercive", causing local implementers to comply. At the same time, traditional TPPs generally subscribe to the cultural norms of the academy— i.e. academic freedom and autonomy (Altbach et al., 2005). Consequently, because edTPA aims to reduce such norms, traditional TPPs may only satisfy the letter of the law (i.e. cosmetically comply) to avoid punishment, or resist altogether (i.e. actively resist) (Berman, 1986). This is particularly true when organizational capacities and/or will are limited (McLaughlin, 1987; Mohr, 1969).

Alternative-route TPP/high-stakes. Because alternative-route programs are deregulated by design, coercive accountability tools like edTPA produce a policy paradox. Indeed, what edTPA requires may not reflect their organizational behavior/values (i.e. organizational mission). In this case, they may actively resist. Conversely, should they have the necessary capacities, their will to actively resist may be counterbalanced.

Traditional TPP/low-stakes. While high-stakes policy designs highlight the importance of implementer resources, states adopting low-stakes policies function much the opposite. These designs often form a reciprocal relationship between state and local (Elmore, 1979), whereby policies are adopted voluntarily. Dolowitz and Marsh (1996, 2000) refer to such circumstances as "negotiated transfer." Accordingly, traditional TPPs may interpret edTPA as meeting their local interests, becoming active users (Firestone, 1989). Instead of only satisfying the letter of the law (Berman, 1986), they may behave in a manner far exceeding the minimum (Firestone, 1989).

Alternative-route TPP/low-stakes. Similar to traditional TPPs responding to low-stakes policy designs, alternative-route programs do so voluntarily. However, because policies like

edTPA heighten regulations placed on TPPs and their respective teacher candidates, they may not adopt them. Indeed, such accountability mechanisms fly in the face of their deregulated, market-based design.

Given there are many conceivable responses as state adopted policy designs converge with TPP programmatic differences, I have employed a multiple embedded case study (Yin, 2013). On one hand, two states, representing the two edTPA policy designs—i.e. coercive vs. voluntary—are to be studied. On the other hand, several TPPs in each selected state, representing the two programmatic differences—i.e. traditional vs. alternative-route—are to be studied. In doing so, all four quadrants and subsequent pairs are examined. Please see Chapter Four for a full explanation of selected cases and methods utilized.

In an effort to address how macro-level policy tools and micro-level implementation factors contribute to a policy's fidelity, my dissertation examines edTPA. Towards these ends, this chapter will highlight the empirical tools I utilize. First, I will start with the study's rationale and research approach. Second, I will review the research questions discussed in Chapter One. Third, I will further explain the research design, case selection, and data collection methods/procedures. Fourth, I will outline the analytical methods. Finally, I will end with the delimitations and limitations.

Rationale of study and research approach

Currently, 41 states are coercively or voluntarily holding over 850 TPPs (AACTE, 2019) and 165,000 pre-service teachers nationwide (U.S. Department of Education, 2015) accountable to edTPA. However, as discussed, such accountability tools are at odds with one-third of all TPPs (U.S. Department of Education, 2015)—i.e. alternative-route certification programs—who subscribe to market-based forces (Tamir, 2008, 2010; Zeichner, 2010; Zeichner & Pena-Sandoval, 2015). Equally, many TPPs lack the necessary resources to adequately implement the assessment system— e.g. limited staff time, money, and support (De Voto, 2016; Fayne & Qian, 2015, 2016; Hurtig et al., 2015; Lambert & Girtz, 2016; Lys et al., 2014; Many et al., 2016; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015; Meuwissen et al., 2015; Reagan et al., 2016; Schultz & Dover, 2016). In the process, pre-service teachers are adequately prepared to varying degrees (De Voto & Thomas, 2018). Notwithstanding, empirical research examining such implementation issues at-large remains limited.

To-date, only a few credible studies have been conducted (e.g. Bastian & Lys, 2018; Cohen et al., 2018; Ledwell & Oyler, 2016; Lys et al., 2014, 2016; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015;

Ratner & Kolman, 2016). Still, they were narrow in methodological scope. For example, they only highlighted a single case (Cohen et al., 2018; Lys et al., 2014, 2016). Conversely, if they did examine multiple institutions (Bastian & Lys, 2018; Meuwissen & Choppin, 2015), they only studied one state or had small samples at each case institution. Meanwhile, no known research exists regarding alternative-route TPPs. Therefore, my dissertation addresses these methodological gaps, employing a multiple embedded case study (Yin, 2013) across two different states and various traditional/alternative TPPs. In doing so, a comprehensive examination of edTPA enactment and its impact on TPPs was garnered.

Research questions

My research questions are as follows:

Q1: What are the different edTPA policy designs adopted by Illinois and Iowa?

Q2: How are TPP implementers (i.e. administrators/faculty/staff) responding to such policy designs?
    Q2A: More specifically, how are they sensemaking (i.e. perceiving) these policy designs?
    Q2B: And what are the major factors (e.g. differences between traditional vs. alternative-certification routes; micro-organizational resources, structures, and cultural practices) influencing their sensemaking?

Q3: How are pre-service teachers responding to such policy designs and TPP sensemaking processes?
    Q3A: What are their corresponding pass rates (i.e. mandated state assessment outcomes)?

As discussed in Chapters One and Three, these questions and related theories were influenced by my pilot study (De Voto, 2016). I found adopted policy design, existing organizational resources, structures, and cultural practices, and end-line policy users work together to influence edTPA implementation (De Voto, 2016). Hence, examining this intersection between policy design (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996) and local context (Honig, 2006a; McLaughlin, 1987) became paramount. To do so, I next explain my research design and sample.

Research design and sample

Given education policy cuts across difficult interdisciplinary paradigms, special problems arise regarding standards of research (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990). Thus, to address these methodological challenges, I employed a multiple embedded case study (Yin, 2013). A rationale is presented below:

First, Eisenhardt (1989) contends building theory from case methods is most applicable in the early stages of a topic. Currently, the edTPA field is only about five years old, and most studies have examined teacher candidates rather than TPP administrators, faculty, and staff. Second, my decision to implement a case study approach rested on the need to provide the greatest possible amount of information (Dumez, 2015; Flyvbjerg, 2006). Although such methods tend to face criticism that their results are not generalizable or transferable (Ragin, 1999), Flyvbjerg (2006) argues formal generalization does not necessarily move paradigmatic thought in a meaningful way. Equally, since researchers cannot be systematically removed from those they research, Burawoy (1998) reasons embracing such "intersubjectivity" is what separates case methods from other, more positivist forms of data collection. One is thus better off strategically using a "few cases chosen for their validity" (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 229). Third, Glaser (2014) argues "...the logic of discovery [should] justif[y] procedures that maximize the production of new ideas" (p. 112). That is, one should utilize whatever methods yield data most central to producing substantive theory. Given my dissertation topic rests at the intersection of macro-policy formation and micro-policy implementation, a multiple embedded case study therefore provided the holistic yet context-specific approach required. Fourth, Schensul (1999) points out case methods are particularly useful for investigating matters of public policy. Taken together, my application of carefully selected cases provided the best method towards examining

this bounded intersection. I further explain the defined units of analyses, selection criteria, and subsequent cases below.

Definition of units of analyses utilized to examine stated research questions. Due to these methodological issues surrounding reliability of case study research, defending their use becomes essential. Towards these ends, Yin (2013) asserts sufficiently defining one's cases/units of analyses mitigates such problems. The following definitions are outlined below.

Given edTPA policy tools have mainly rested at the state-level, the overarching case was defined as states. One-third of states have mandated edTPA for teacher licensure (i.e. high-stakes) whereas two-thirds make it a voluntary option (i.e. low-stakes). Hence, one state subscribing to each policy design was selected (*Q1*). On the other hand, since TPPs specifically implement edTPA, I embedded these units across selected case states. Various demographics were defined— e.g. public/private, traditional/alternative, heterogeneous/homogenous, urban/rural, etc. These variables served as a proxy for studying the implementation factors outlined in my conceptual framework— i.e. local TPP resources, administrative capacities, and/or will (see Rainey & Bozeman, 2000; Tolbert, 1985).

Together, my defined units of analyses offered a representative view of edTPA policy adoption and subsequent implementation. Patton (2002) contends such methods help to look at a problem holistically– something policy analysis experts concur (Ball, 1993; Datnow & Park, 2009; Majone & Wildavsky, 1984; Ripley, 2010; Sabatier, 2010). Also, when comparing groups of people across different programs, different units of analysis help aggregate data into meaningful theory (Patton, 2002). As a result, examining states and TPPs have been strategically leveraged in answering my research questions.

Selection criteria and identified cases utilized to examine stated research questions.

While defining the parameters of one's cases is vital to appropriately examining the research problem (Patton, 2002), these choices produce conceptual constraints— specifically which groups can be studied (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). Therefore, I selected information-rich and critical cases (Glaser, 1978; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Patton, 2002). Such criteria best contribute to the research problems at hand, and secondarily about representativeness (Glaser, 2014). I detail my selected cases below.

Selected states. As mentioned, because states adopt edTPA either coercively or voluntarily, both designs must be incorporated. Accordingly, Illinois and Iowa were selected (*Q1*). Illinois requires *all* teacher candidates (enrolled in traditional or alternative TPPs) to pass edTPA for licensure (i.e. coercively), whereas Iowa makes it one of three available options (edTPA, PPAT, or Praxis II), leaving individual programs to decide whether to employ it (i.e. voluntarily). In this way, they offered a holistic view of edTPA policy adoption amongst states, allowing for adequate sampling of my research questions (Patton, 2002). I describe each case state below.

Illinois. Similar to 14 other states, Illinois has adopted a high-stakes design. However, prior to its official launch in fall 2015, the assessment was piloted by many Illinois universities, including some of my embedded cases. SCALE provided funding to TPPs for this purpose. During this time, edTPA was not consequential for teacher licensure (Praxis II met this requirement). However, given Praxis II was not performance-based, the state considered replacing it with edTPA. In a letter to Dean's of Public Colleges of Education, State Superintendent Christopher Koch said Illinois must "ensure that individuals we licensure have the skills and knowledge to positively impact student learning" (Illinois State Board of Education, 2013, par. 2). Less than a year later, the Board of Education recommended edTPA,

which state policymakers ultimately approved. Subsection 25.720 of the Illinois Administrative Code stated: "beginning September 1, 2015, each [teacher] candidate completing an educator preparation program in a teaching field shall be required to pass the edTPA" (Illinois Admin. Code tit. 23 § 25.720 (e)). Accordingly, both traditional and alternative TPPs had to comply with the policy. Note: the passing score was initially set at 35. This gave TPPs time to properly embed the assessment system. But now the cut score is 39, and will soon rise to 41 in fall 2019.

As discussed in Chapter Three, I specifically chose a state mandating a coercive design across traditional and alternative-route TPPs in order to study both implementation responses under such conditions (review Figure 3.9). These circumstances make Illinois an *extreme or deviant case* (Patton, 2002). By holding traditional and alternative TPPs to the same standard, they become one of only a few states mandating the policy in such a high-stakes manner. Equally, the Board of Education maintains a tenuous relationship with TPPs due to its top-down approach to teacher licensure. Hence, Illinois provides an excellent atypical case state to investigate the intersection between coercive policy designs and local implementation. As Patton (2002, p. 234) contends, such sampling methods "illuminate both the usual and the typical" due to their information-rich conditions.

Iowa. In 2012, SCALE partnered with Iowa through a federal Teaching Quality Project (TQP) grant. Under TQP, funding and support were provided to TPPs who voluntarily adopted edTPA (including several of my embedded cases). Since Praxis II was required for teacher licensure during this time, TPPs who voluntarily adopted edTPA had to pay students to take both. Through this grant, however, Iowa began to reconsider its licensure requirements more broadly. Similar to Illinois, they wanted to evaluate candidates using a performance-based assessment. Yet because Iowa is rooted in local control, they mandated assessment for program

completion, not licensure. Specifically, Iowa's Administrative Code states: "the unit's [i.e. TPP's] assessment system shall appropriately monitor individual candidate performance and use that data in concert with other information to evaluate and improve the unit and its programs" (Iowa Admin. Code tit. 282 §79.13). Since 2015, both Praxis II and edTPA have thus been authorized for this requirement. Note: unlike Illinois, programs that choose edTPA must employ a cut score of 41, but may use Praxis II as a "backup" assessment.

As discussed in Chapter Three, I specifically choose a state adopting a low-stakes, voluntary design so as to examine how "active use" by TPPs use might influence local implementation. Given two-thirds of states have adopted edTPA in this way (AACTE, 2019), Patton (2002) refers to these circumstances as a *typical case.* Accordingly, my two selected case states illustrate edTPA policy's divergence in adopted designs (i.e. high- vs. low-stakes). Second, they offer a *typical* and *extreme* case, thereby ensuring "maximum variation" (Patton, 2002) across the edTPA policy landscape. Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2013) posit examining such opposing cross cases makes for good conceptual and empirical sense. Lastly, by selecting similar embedded TPPs in each state, I can then better assess how these opposing policy designs influence TPP implementation. Please see my selected TPPs below:

Selected TPPs. Indeed, TPPs exhibit many different characteristics. They can be big or small; public or private; diverse or homogenous; (sub)urban or rural; research- or teaching-based; and traditional or alternative-route. Therefore, these characteristics must be carefully controlled, so as to form a representative sample (Creswell, 2012). In Illinois, Jefferson, Hamilton, Lincoln, and Ford University were selected (all pseudonyms). Conversely, in Iowa, Roosevelt, Adams, Madison, and Johnson University were chosen. In this way, such characteristics were identified across both states. Please see Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1.

Selected TPPs and their Demographics

Embedded TPP	Type	Size	Geography Classification	Public/ Private	Research Classification	Demographics
Illinois						
Jefferson	Traditional	Large	Urban	Public	Intensive	Diverse
Hamilton	Traditional	Mid-size	Urban	Private	Aspiring	Homogenous
Lincoln	Traditional	Mid-size	Rural	Public	Aspiring	Homogenous
Ford	Alternative	Small	Suburban	Private	Teaching	Diverse
Iowa						
Roosevelt	Traditional	Large	Urban	Public	Intensive	Homogenous
Adams	Traditional	Small	Rural	Public	Teaching	Homogenous
Madison	Traditional	Small	Urban	Private	Teaching	Homogenous
Johnson	Alternative	Large	Suburban	Public	Teaching	Homogenous

First, selected TPPs in Illinois are discussed, followed by those in Iowa. Note: in order to protect each TPPs' identity (per IRB), this information is rather general. I do, however, include their organizational mission, as this is important to capture as part of my conceptual framework regarding behaviors/values.

Illinois: Jefferson University. Jefferson is a traditional, large (approximately 30,000), urban, public, research-intensive university. Their elementary teaching program is embedded within the School of Education while secondary programs are embedded across their respective content area. Both utilize a traditional 4-year model. They have a racially diverse student body; one-third identify as white, one-third Latino, one-quarter Asian, and the rest Black or "other." In terms of gender, men and women are evenly represented. They are an urban focused, social justice oriented program.

Illinois: Hamilton University. Hamilton is a traditional, mid-sized (approximately 20,000), urban, private, research-aspiring university. Their teacher preparation program is embedded within the school of education and utilizes a traditional 4-year model. Concerning

their student body, two-thirds identify as white, two-thirds are women, and a majority are middle- to upper-class. They are a site-based program with an emphasis on urban high-need and high-performing schools.

Illinois: Lincoln University. Lincoln is a traditional, mid-sized (approximately 20,000), rural, public, research-aspiring university. While the teacher preparation program is embedded within the School of Education and utilizes a traditional 4-year model, four other colleges support the program. Regarding their student body, three-quarters identify as white, and degree-seeking men and women are evenly represented. They are a broad-based program, offering opportunities and preparation in various settings (rural and urban).

Illinois: Ford University. Ford is a small (less then 5,000), suburban, private, teaching university. While Ford has a traditional 4-year education program, they also have an alternative-route program (the case I examine). It is organized into three phases: an intensive year-long academic study, a summer teaching practicum, and an academic year of clinical practice and continuous, comprehensive assessment of teaching performance. They have a diverse student body; half identify as Latino, one-third identify as white, and two-thirds are women. Their mission is service-based and promotes a multi-cultural philosophy.

Iowa: Roosevelt University. Roosevelt is a large (over 30,000), urban, public, research-intensive university. Unlike other case TPPs, Roosevelt embeds its education program within the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences; however, it is still a traditional 4-year program. As for their student body, two-thirds identify as white, and degree-seeking men and women are evenly represented. Their mission is to prepare tomorrow's teachers, promoting research-based practices. They voluntarily implement edTPA.

Iowa: Adams University. Adams is a traditional, small (approximately 10,000), rural,

public, research-aspiring university. Adams embeds its teaching programs across four different colleges: Business Administration; Education; Humanities, Arts and Sciences; and Social and Behavioral Sciences. They offer a traditional 4-year model. Concerning their student body, four-fifths identify as white, and two-thirds are women. They are a site-based program, offering students diverse opportunities in both rural and urban schools. Note: they voluntarily implemented edTPA until 2016, at which time they transitioned back to Praxis II. Adam thus provides the opportunity to study how voluntary policy designs afford their withdrawal over time (i.e. when local behaviors/values no longer align).

Iowa: Madison University. Madison is a traditional, small (under 5,000), urban, private, teaching university. Like Adams, Madison embeds its teaching programs across several related colleges: Arts and Sciences; Business and Public Administration; and Education. As for their student body, fourth-fifths identify as white, and degree-seeking men and women are evenly represented. They promote collaborative learning and meeting needs for all students. They voluntarily adopt edTPA; however, students can opt to take Praxis II instead. This policy changes as of fall 2019, whereby all students must take edTPA.

Iowa: Johnson University. Johnson is large (over 30,000), suburban, public, research-intensive university. While Ford has a traditional 4-year education program, they also have an alternative-route program (the case I examine). Over the course of one year, candidates intern while taking coursework. Regarding student body, three-quarters identify as white, and degree-seeking men and women are evenly represented. Their mission is to attract talented, mid-career professionals for transition to the classroom. Note: like all alternative-route programs in Iowa, they have chosen not to adopt edTPA. However, this provided the opportunity to study why edTPA does not meet their particular interests in Iowa.

In sum, by selecting a diverse sample of TPPs, I could empirically examine my stated research questions across a host of contexts. However, to further triangulate my selected cases, TPPs outside them were compared who occupied similar contexts (three in each state, $N = 6$). The following section highlights the data collection methods I used to empirically study *all* TPPs.

Data collection methods and procedures

Although a multiple embedded case design provides the necessary conditions towards examining how adopted policy design, existing resources, and end-line policy users work together to influence local edTPA implementation, gathering relevant data is essential. Hence, within these embedded cases, several forms of data were collected: 1) semi-structured interviews, 2) focus groups/ course observations, and 3) documents. Each method is discussed in turn below:

Semi-structured interviews. In order to examine how TPPs are responding (i.e. sense-making) to adopted policy designs (*Q2*), semi-structured, one-on-one interviews with administrators, faculty, and staff made up the majority of data collected ($N = 69$). In this way, TPP actors across all organizational strata and content areas were interviewed, helping me assess collective vs. individual sensemaking (*Q2A*) and what major contextual factors (*Q2B*) play a role. As Mintzberg (1980) argues, organizations maintain a core of operators—i.e. those who do the basic work of producing (e.g. teaching instructors)—an administrative component made up of managers—the "strategic apex"—and analysts—the "technosphere"—who oversee its processes. Higher education organizations are no different (Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, & Rose, 1983).

These interviews lasted approximately 45-90 minutes each and were conducted using a

semi-structured question protocol (see Appendix B for protocol). The protocol broadly asked administrators, faculty, and staff to share their perceptions and experiences concerning the state policy they operated under, as well as their program's subsequent implementation. A minimum of 5 interviews and a maximum of 14 were completed at each case TPP (and at least one from each core operator group). Additionally, 6 administrators, faculty, and staff outside my selected cases were interviewed ($N = 6$), as well as staff from SCALE ($N = 1$), providing an additional layer of comparison. Rubin and Rubin (2005) contend, when done well, interviews offer revealing, rich data, making their incorporation the best method (Glaser, 2014). Further, Chandler-Olcott and Flemming (2017) found interviewing edTPA actors one-on-one provided the "richest data about their perspectives" (p. 35).

Focus groups/course observations. In order to examine how teacher candidates are responding to these adopted policy designs and subsequent TPP sensemaking processes (*Q3*), focus groups and course observations were conducted. These lasted approximately 30-60 minutes each and were similarly conducted using a semi-structured question protocol (see Appendix C for protocol). The protocol asked candidates to share their perceptions and experiences after taking edTPA, and what direct institutional supports or challenges existed prior. At least one (sometimes two) focus group/observation was conducted at each case TPP. However, two of my cases in Iowa do not use edTPA and therefore could not be done.

Several methodologists support focus groups and observations as sound empirical approaches. For example, Morgan (1996) argues focus groups are an excellent supplementary data gathering method in combination with other qualitative approaches like interviewing. On the other hand, Peck and Theodore (2012) point out:

> Judicious combinations of ethnographic observation and interviewing are essential to any adequate understanding of the… social nature of those continuous processes of

translation, intermediation, and contextualization/ decontextualization/ recontextualization, through which various forms of policy are realized. (p. 24).

Therefore, by combining semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations, rich, qualitative data across my embedded cases were collected.

Documents. Serving as another form of comparative analysis (Yin, 2013), emails; letters; agendas; minutes; progress reports; and internal records were gathered at each TPP. These documents were either provided by interviewees or found via institutional websites, helping to assess policy tools, fiscal resources, faculty/staff support, and candidate expertise. Further, in an effort to compare TPP fidelity with student outcomes (*Q3A*), pass rates were specifically collected across my embedded cases. This was limited in scope, however.

In short, data were acquired that speak to my research questions: i.e. what adopted policy designs exist in Illinois and Iowa (*Q1*), how TPP implementers are responding to them (*Q2*), and how end-line policy users are thereby being influenced (*Q3*). To provide an illustrative portrait of these data sources across my units of analyses, please see Table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2.

Matrix of Data Collection Methods Aligned to Units of Analyses and Research Questions

Unit of analysis	One-on-one interviews	Focus groups/Course Observations	Documents
States (Illinois, Iowa)	X		X
TPPs (Faculty, Staff)	X	X	X
Teacher candidates		X	

Note. The 'X' parallel to a given unit of analysis indicates that this particular data collection method will be utilized.

Additionally, to empirically demonstrate how these data sources aligned to my theoretical concepts discussed in Chapter Three, please see Table 4.3 outlining related protocol questions:

Table 4.3.

Matrix of Theoretical Concepts Examined via Data Collection Methods/Protocols

Theoretical Concept Examined	One-on-one Interviews	Focus Groups	Course Observations	Documents
Adopted edTPA policy tools	X; Q 1, 2, 14, 17	X; Q 1		X
TPP Sensemaking/giving	X; Q 4-10	X; Q 2, 3	X	
Existing fiscal resources	X; Q 19	X; Q 11		X
Existing human resources	X; Q 13, 19			
Existing time	X; Q 20	X; Q 13		
Organizational coupling	X; Q 21			
Organizational routines	X; Q 12	X; Q 10	X	
Existing social networks/capital	X; Q 21, 22	X; Q 14		
Candidate sense-making	X; Q 23	X; Q 1-4	X	
Candidate expertise	X; Q 12, 23	X; Q 5	X	X
edTPA scores	X; Q 23			X

Note. See Appendix B and C for a full accounting of protocol questions. The above matrix merely demonstrates methods utilized and interview and/or focus group questions associated with each theoretical concept.

Finally, to preview the procedures for identifying and collecting data sources across my cases, please see the next two sections.

Procedures for identifying/selecting data sources. Indeed, such qualitative approaches will yield little evidence towards my research questions if appropriate sources are not also identified. To this end, I employed two different strategies: 1) perusing organizational websites, and 2) "snowball sampling" (Creswell, 2012). Each strategy is briefly discussed below.

Organizational websites. Because a large portion of my data were gathered via semi-structured interviews, finding TPP administrators, faculty, and staff who have been integral to edTPA implementation was imperative. To this end, organizational websites were a useful strategy. These websites display a host of information—e.g. staff names, phone numbers, email addresses, bios, etc.—which allowed me to selectively identify individuals. I was therefore able

to create a relevant list of key subjects to recruit at each case TPP, allowing for data saturation (Glaser, 1978).

Snowball sampling. Enrolled subjects sometimes offered contact information about other subjects I should recruit. These identified subjects were mainly from an interviewee's respective TPP. However, in some instances, they were from another one of my case TPPs. Further, some were outside my case TPPs altogether, leading me to interview administrators, faculty, and staff who operated in similar contexts ($N = 6$). Taken together, this method was particularly helpful in identifying future interviewees (especially in Iowa), as I did not have intimate knowledge/information across selected cases, and those outside them.

Procedures for collecting evidence from data sources identified. Once research subjects were identified, recruitment commenced in the following fashion for each method:

Semi-structured interviews. First, identified subjects' email addresses—i.e. TPP administrators, faculty, and staff—were collected. These emails were uploaded to a password protected recruitment tracker document. This document included additional information like name, rank, and affiliated TPP. Potential subjects were then emailed, asking them whether they were willing to be interviewed for my study. Subjects had the option to be interviewed in person, by phone, or video conference. This email also included details about my study and its goals (see Appendix D for information sheet). If they declined, no further correspondence was sent. If no answer, after a few weeks, a follow-up email was sent. The dates of these emails were carefully tracked in the aforementioned document. After two emails, no more correspondence was initiated, unless the subject responded. If they accepted, another email was sent requesting their preferred dates, times, and preferred interview method. Once a confirmed date/time/method was chosen, I sent the subject a Google invite, as well as an electronic consent form (via Adobe Sign,

an electronica signature software package) to be completed prior (see Appendix E for electronic consent form). This helped to establish a formal process, particularly when interviews were scheduled several months out.

At the scheduled interview time, only upon receipt of the signed electronic consent form did interviews take place. Further, because these conversations were digitally recorded, I received both verbal and written consent from each subject. See Appendix B protocol for details. Upon completion, a thank you follow-up email was sent, showing appreciation for their voluntary participation in my study. These emails were customized to the subject and thus no template was created. Overall, acceptance rates (either after first or second email) were quite high at about 85%. Potential subjects who declined did so for various reasons— e.g. too busy, not involved with edTPA, incommunicado, etc.

Focus groups/course observations. Because my study sought to understand administrator, faculty, and staff sensegiving on candidate sensemaking (*Q3*), I recruited prior individuals who specifically taught student teaching seminars. In this way, I was able loosely observe how this direct negotiation influenced teacher candidates. Course observations similarly followed the recruitment procedures for interviews. First, an initial email asked whether I could come to their seminar class and observe candidates working on edTPA. If they declined, no more correspondence was initiated. If they accepted, I asked when might be a good date/time to do so. Once a date/time was selected, I sent a Google invite.

Because of my pilot study, I eventually integrated focus groups with course observations. That is, I asked those course instructors I had already planned to observe if it were possible to also conduct a focus group with candidates before or after their scheduled class. If they declined, only the course observation was conducted. If they accepted, paper consent forms were brought

to the class for candidates to sign. These were the same consent forms used for the semi-structured interviews. Because it was before or after the class, those candidates who were not willing to participate did not have to do so. They were similarly digitally recorded and followed a semi-structured protocol (see Appendix C for details). However, these conversations were meant to be largely student-led. As such, I only loosely facilitated discussions, just to make sure they stayed relevant.

Upon completion, a thank you follow-up email was sent to the instructor, showing appreciation for their voluntary participation in my study. These emails were customized to the subject and thus no template was created. Overall, all recruited course instructors allowed me to conduct focus groups before or after their class. Acceptance rates were about 80%.

Documents. As discussed, documents served as a form of comparative analysis for the other two data collection approaches. These documents were gathered from organizational websites and research participants. They provided information such as TPP pass rates, course sequences, and edTPA implementation reports. In TPPs where research participants provided such documents, analysis proved more thorough. However, this information (per IRB) was not solicited. Rather, participants voluntarily provided them to me during conducted interviews and/or course observations.

Taken together, these data collection methods and protocols for identifying data sources yielded rich data; TPP administrators, faculty, staff, and students across organizational strata and content areas were found. Such procedures were refined and tested during my pilot study and determined to be efficacious.

Analytical methods

All data were transcribed and uploaded to ATLAS.ti, a computer software package**.** To

cut across selected cases and examine latent patterns, data were analyzed using grounded theory methods (Charmaz, 2000, 2006). Bernard and Ryan (2010) describe grounded theory as consisting of four distinct stages: 1) coding; 2) conceptualizing; 3) categorizing; and 4) theorizing. First, codes are ascribed to gathered data. Second, similar codes are grouped together to conceptualize their meaning. Third, broad categories are formed. Fourth, these categories help generate a substantive theory— in this case how macro-level policy tools and micro-level implementation factors contribute edTPA's fidelity.

I specifically used a version of grounded theory advocated by Charmaz (2000, 2006). Charmaz's version of grounded theory allows for the inclusion of preexisting theoretical frameworks, while providing freedom to investigate a topic with limited research available. My data were thus analyzed both inductively and deductively. On one hand, pilot data and my outlined conceptual framework (see Chapter Three) provided a preliminary inductive lens. On the other hand, any relevant themes were deductively identified not present in my framework. I also used the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and the coding suggestions of Saldaña (2016).

In total, 31 codes (23 inductive/8 deductive) were used. See Table 4.4 showing my inductive and deductive codes:

4.4. *Table of Inductive and Deductive Codes*

Inductive	Deductive
Actively Resist	Bad
Actively Use	Coordinators
Capacity Poor	Deprofessionalization
Capacity Rich	Future of edTPA
Behavior Changes	Good
Social Networks	Other
Collective Sensemaking	Professionalization

Compatibility	Ugly
Cosmetic Compliance	
Coupling	
End-line Policy Users	
Fiscal	
Human	
Illinois	
Individual Sensemaking	
Iowa	
Key Quotes	
Leadership	
Routines/Supports	
State Design	
Student Challenges	
Student Sensemaking	
Time	

Coding commenced in four phases. The first phase involved making a codebook, initially defining each inductive code (based on conceptual framework). Using these definitions, I then read all transcripts/data and coded inductively via ATLAS.ti. Multiple codes were attached to transcripts/data, creating some overlap. Concurrently, I began a memo, tracking emerging findings using particular quotes. The second phase involved adding my aforementioned deductive codes (also taken from memo). These were added to the codebook and ATLAS.ti. I then reread all transcripts/data and coded deductively, while also making sure I properly coded inductively (i.e. adding "missed" quotes across such codes). True to the constant comparative method, the third phase involved rereading all transcripts/data, making sure my codebook reflected both inductive and deductive frameworks. Some additional coding in ATLAS.ti. took place. Finally, the fourth phase involved exporting all coded data, making excel spreadsheets of each code and respective quotes. I then read through each code/respective quotes and assembled a word document. I also made sure to track who and where (state/TPP) quotes came from. This

helped organize information across codes, states, and TPPs in an effort to answer my research questions.

While the co-creator of grounded theory Glaser (2002) would call Charmaz's indicative/deductive framework a contradiction, it offers the "methodological eclecticism" (Charmaz, 2006) I needed to explore my research questions. Put simply, it provided an "open-ended approach to studying the empirical world, yet add[s] rigor to ethnographic research by building systematic checks into both data collection and analysis" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 42). Therefore, I used grounded theory with a *postmodern turn* (also see De Voto & Thomas, 2018). Codes were based on my conceptual framework, but allowed for other themes to emerge organically.

At the same time, because I used a case design, grounded theory conceptualizing and categorizing followed the "instrumental" approach (Stake, 1995). That is, my codes ascribed across individual case TPPs facilitated the understanding of something greater—i.e. the influence of edTPA policy design on local implementation generally. So while individual cases were coded, they were then constantly compared to the adopted state policy design in which they operated. Grounded theory and case study design therefore complemented one another, serving to capture both the macro- and micro- factors influencing edTPA across multiple case states and TPPs. Please see study delimitations and limitations below.

Methodological delimitations of study

First, because this study only examined TPPs, state officials, Pearson (as third-party test operator), and individuals outside of higher education were deliberately not studied.

Second, while all content areas were examined, differences between elementary/secondary and undergraduate/graduate programs were not disaggregated. Such

idiosyncrasies would have further complicated selected cases with unnecessary stratification and/or covariance.

Third, because this dissertation is a policy ethnography (Dubois, 2009) and not a critical examination of teacher licensure assessments generally, the edTPA itself (i.e. its structure, design, etc.) was not explicitly studied and/or measured. Only tangential comments about the assessment system made by TPP administrators, faculty, staff, and teacher candidates were analyzed as part of observed implementation responses (i.e. sensemaking) surrounding the policy tool.

Fourth, the bulk of this work is centered on TPP implementers (i.e. administrators, faculty, and staff), not end-line policy users (i.e. teacher candidates). This decision was made in part because a lack of empirical knowledge exists concerning how these state policy tools are affecting TPPs more broadly.

Methodological limitations of study

First, resources and data collection feasibility limited how many states/TPPs could be studied to saturation. Therefore, only two states were examined—Illinois and Iowa—and several embedded TPPs in both. These states represent the two different adopted designs (high- vs. low-stakes) while these TPPs represent characteristics of higher education institutions generally (e.g. public/private, traditional/alternative, heterogeneous/homogenous, urban/rural, research/teaching, etc.). However, because they are geographically close to one another, it is possible that states on the coasts adopting similar designs may be different— particularly in terms of their influence on TPPs. Equally, these selected states have different cut scores for candidates. Illinois requires a 39 whereas Iowa requires a 41. This may make *Q3A* difficult to answer with confidence. Finally, only 5 Iowa TPPs have adopted edTPA—many of which were

selected for this study. Despite such local control, the extent to which the state's voluntarily policy design plays a role could be conceivably different in other states where more TPPs adopt edTPA.

Second, because recruiting TPPs was rather difficult, several other design compromises were made. For example, a focus of my study was examining the policy paradox between accountability and market-based designs under edTPA. Yet I was only able to recruit two alternative-route cases. In Illinois, I received a great deal of resistance and/or reluctance from these programs. In Iowa, no alternative-route institutions implement edTPA, including my selected case (Johnson); though, it did illustrate why Iowa alternative-route TPPs chose not to adopt edTPA (see Chapter Four for details). Lastly, notwithstanding a representative composite of TPPs across both case states, these demographics are dispersed. That is, the smaller TPP in Illinois may be diverse, whereas the smaller TPP in Iowa may be homogenous. Consequently, categorically tracing the extent to which these variables directly impact edTPA implementation may be difficult. However, as Yin (2013) points out, such design issues are common when selecting multiple cases and/or variables.

Third, while pre-service teacher data are gathered (via focus groups and course observations), the extent to which TPP faculty/staff contribute to their observed policy sense-making (*Q3*) can only be loosely claimed. This is because only one or two of each were conducted at embedded TPPs.

Concluding thoughts of chapter

If teacher preparation is ever to stop being the "scapegoat" (Emihovich et al., 2011), research must play its part to inform policymakers of the appropriate courses of action. Although edTPA is being hailed as a remedy to this enduring dilemma, limited empirical research detailing

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how this policy is influencing TPPs operating in different designs and contexts exists. Therefore, my dissertation addresses this need. Using a multiple embedded case study (Yin, 2013), conducting 69 semi-structured interviews ($N = 69$) and 6 ($N = 6$) focus groups/course observations, I empirically show how adopted policy design; existing organizational resources, structures, and cultural practices; and end-line policy users work together to influence local edTPA sensemaking and subsequent implementation. As Mosse (2004) argues, "its not whether but how [policy] projects work; not whether a project succeeds, but how success is produced." Towards these ends, my study illuminates such circumstances, contributing a new theory to an otherwise under-developed field. Please see the following chapter for details.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS

In this chapter, I will detail the findings of my study. First, I will briefly reintroduce my conceptual framework. Second, I will discuss how my findings map onto this framework, organized by state and respective embedded TPPs. Emerging and/or idiosyncratic themes deductively found in each state will also be included. Finally, I will end with a brief summary of key findings highlighting how the intersection of policy design and local context has influenced edTPA sensemaking and subsequent implementation.

As discussed, policy fidelity rests at the nexus of policy design and local conditions. First, policy designs signal to local implementers how they should respond (i.e. sensegiving). These designs typically take two different forms— coercive and voluntary (Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996, 2000). Coercive policies force compliance but often cause local implementers to not meet the spirit of the law (i.e. cosmetic compliance). Conversely, voluntary policies form a reciprocal relationship between state and local (Elmore, 1979), causing local implementers to behave in a manner far exceeding the minimum (i.e. "active use"; see Firestone, 1989). Second, local conditions further inform how policies are enacted in practice. Specifically, several different micro-organizational factors contribute: 1) sensemaking, 2) existing organizational resources, and 3) existing organizational structures and cultural practices. These factors create variances in capacities and/or will to implement policy across contexts (McLaughlin, 1987).

Throughout this chapter, I will trace this nexus across my case states—Illinois and Iowa—as means to answer my three research questions. Using an instrumental approach (Stake, 1995), findings will be broken down by: 1) policy design, 2) micro-organizational factors, and 3) end-line policy users (please see Appendix F for a full explanation of findings in each embedded TPP). Bridging the policy paradox discussed in Chapter Two, I will also unpack any applicable

differences between traditional and alternative TPPs in each state. Equally, those idiosyncratic/deductive findings that do not match my aforementioned conceptual framework will be discussed in their respective section. Thematic quotes from interviews and focus groups (found via inductive/deductive coding) will be provided where appropriate as empirical evidence. Overall, my findings match much of the aforementioned inductive framework. A few idiosyncratic findings were uncovered, but edTPA policy implementation largely aligns with the extant research. I will discuss Illinois first, followed by Iowa.

Illinois

How interviewees made sense of their state adopted policy design

Understanding how state adopted policy designs influence TPP sensemaking was an important research question of my dissertation (*Q1*). Because Illinois mandated edTPA for teacher licensure (i.e. coercive), both traditional and alternative programs were forced to comply. According to interviewees, these coercive conditions were reflective of the state's desire to be a "champion of teacher accountability." Blaming TPPs for the perceived poor quality of teachers, the edTPA mandate created a sense of urgency across my cases ("we know it's coming and we need to figure that out"). However, they initially made sense of such urgency differently. On one hand, some of my case TPPs—i.e. Jefferson, Hamilton, and Lincoln—were proactive, piloting the assessment system. In discussing such proactivity, these TPPs wanted to ensure their "students were well prepared for this once it became implemented." On the other hand, my alternative case—Ford—as well as many TPPs interviewed outside of my study, were not proactive. Preferring to wait for edTPA to become consequential in fall 2015, one Illinois administrator said:

> A lot of other programs weren't proactive... [because] they thought, "well, it's three years away, we don't have to worry about that now," and then two years go by and all of a

sudden somebody realizes, "geez, we're just a year away from having to implement this thing and we don't know anything about it and…" then that cause for concern gets raised.

Broadly, these differences illustrate what Berman (1986) called compliance vs. spirit. That is, a mandate may force compliance across local contexts, but may not garner their support in the process. As another Illinois administrator shared, "You don't get compliance without resistance… when you take away choice... people get mad." This leads street-level bureaucrats to make sense of policy tools in potentially negative ways (i.e. actively resisting or cosmetically complying), particularly when they do not believe in them (i.e. exhibit different behaviors/values). In the next section, I will trace the extent to which edTPA maps on to these concepts in practice.

Approach and subsequent responses

Although my case TPPs initially approached edTPA by being proactive or not, once the assessment system became consequential in fall 2015, such coercive conditions resulted in two other collective approaches: 1) compliance-based and 2) inquiry-based. These approaches were similar to those found by Many and colleagues (2016), who demonstrated actors approaching edTPA as "threats to their autonomy" or "opportunities for inquiry" (p. 4). However, I also found such collective approaches resulted in three unique responses: 1) active resistance, 2) cosmetic compliance, and 3) active use. Together, this became the intersection of Illinois sensegiving and subsequent sensemaking. I discuss each approach in turn, followed by subsequent responses.

Compliance-based. This approach was related more to the edTPA policy mandate and not the tool itself (e.g. "It's not the thing... it's how it's being used"); local actors complied because they had to, not because they wanted to. Towards these ends, Jefferson best illustrated compliance. Despite piloting edTPA early on, Jefferson administrators, faculty, and staff collectively felt the coercive policy diminished their social justice mission (i.e. differing values;

"half the people saw it as an assault on the social justice mission."). And like Many and colleagues (2016), I found such sensemaking was broadly related to their perceived loss of academic freedom and trust as teaching professionals. Accordingly, they purposefully resisted edTPA. One administrator's accounting best reflects this finding:

> We've had a hell of a time getting folks on board with edTPA… this notion of academic freedom makes folks crazy. I can't imagine anyone in content courses looking at anything they perceive as extraneous or outside their field of understanding as impacting them… it's a battle to get them to think about getting these young people to pass or they can't complete the program or get licensed.

However, some faculty, particularly those teaching senior seminars, took a more neutral approach. Because they were clinical instructors during student teaching (i.e. when edTPA must be completed/passed), they felt compelled to both understand and actively implement the policy for their students. As one instructor said:

> I took it upon myself to learn about it and get trained and attend all the info sessions… because it obviously affected my students more so than anyone else's… those of us who are teaching in the senior year maybe have similar mindsets and think, okay, we have to support them, so let's find authentic ways to support them and maybe those who are teaching other classes aren't.

So despite the TPP collectively approaching edTPA as a form of compliance, some neutrally responded as an ethical obligation.

Inquiry-based. Much the opposite, an inquiry-based approach was related more to the tool and not the policy itself. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton exhibited this approach. Looking past Illinois' coercive policy design, they were able to see edTPA's value. In other words, edTPA aligned to their values of what good teaching is and how it should be measured. I will provide several quotes across my case institutions below.

At Lincoln, the collective ethos was to "to keep the focus off the 'have to' and the 'high stakesness[sic]' [in order to]… focus more on the true meaning and the areas behind [edTPA]."

Leadership and a sense of collaboration amongst individuals afforded this approach. In the process, individual programs "really moved from this kind of compliance [approach] to kind of this atmosphere of inquiry [approach]". Ford and Hamilton echoed this approach. Although alternative, the majority of individuals at Ford believed the value of edTPA outweighed its high-stakes policy design. I attributed this to their collaborative nature and willingness to approach the policy from a proactive lens. Meanwhile, Hamilton similarly saw the policy as means to improve. They felt their program was already in good standing, allowing them to "inquire into continuous areas of improvement."

In sum, what separated the inquiry-based from the compliance-based approach across my TPPs was the extent to which policy design played a role in their sensemaking. On one hand, those complying found edTPA profoundly troubling due to its associated mandate. On the other hand, those inquiring looked beyond the mandate to see what value edTPA might bring to the teacher profession.

Together, though, these two approaches resulted in three unique responses: 1) active resistance, 2) cosmetic compliance, and 3) active use. These responses could be a collective or individual effort across TPPs. Each response will be discussed in turn below, and how compliance- vs. inquiry-based approaches relate.

Active resistance. For this study, I defined active resistance as those who made sense of edTPA policy in negative ways and acted (i.e. verbally or physically) upon those feelings. Across my cases, active resistance was generally found to be an individualized response, not collective. The bulk of these individuals, however, were from Jefferson. I will first explain why Jefferson actively resisted, followed by why my other case TPPs largely did not.

In part, Jefferson's active resistance was due to their compliance-based approach; Illinois' associated mandate that all student teachers must pass largely influenced their sensemaking. One faculty member's response is illustrative:

> … I mean to be a professor with all these stupid multiple responsibilities, now you're going to dump this [mandate] on us and you're going to come in and rearrange my course… you have no idea what I'm doing, but I have to respond to this inanimate object [i.e. edTPA] coming in and telling me how to treat my students, arrange a course and do all this stuff. So I think everybody, you know, felt that rudeness at some level.

This "rudeness" caused many individuals to verbally and/or physically respond. As another faculty member shared: "If you don't like something, you're not allowed to just bitch. You have to decide to do something… we're resisting… ." Individuals did so by protesting, writing letters to the Illinois State board of Education, and, before becoming consequential, refusing to do edTPA.

Alternatively, active resistance at my other cases was the exception, not the rule. This was likely because these institutions approached edTPA as a form of inquiry. Much like those at Jefferson, these individuals actively questioned the policy implications, less so the assessment system itself. One Lincoln faculty member's response is particularly illustrative:

> … I'm pretty vocal with my students... talking about how [the edTPA policy] marginalizes certain groups when I think the financial implications of this assessment for students… I'm not afraid to kind of stand up and say... oh, there are these pieces here that are causing me some concern.

In short, active resistance was tethered to a compliance-based approach, either institutionally or individually. As they made sense of edTPA, their response manifested itself both verbally and physically. I now discuss cosmetic compliance.

Cosmetic compliance. For this study, I defined cosmetic compliance as those who made sense of edTPA policy negatively, but did not actively demonstrate such feelings (i.e. either verbally or physically). In other words, they internalized rather than actualized resistance.

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Similar to active resistance, however, this response was often the product of a compliance-based approach. As a result, individuals from Jefferson largely exhibited cosmetic compliance. I explain these cross-cutting responses below.

While most individuals I interviewed at Jefferson disagreed with the edTPA mandate, they felt compelled to implement it for the benefit of their students. As one faculty member shared:

> [Because of this mandate] we are teaching to the test. We have to. I have an absolute obligation... moral... ethical... professional obligation to make sure I teach [my students] how to be successful in this do or die situation… and I know my colleagues share this because they've done the very same thing. Because we care too deeply about our students.

Several others at Ford and Lincoln similarly described this ethical dilemma. One Ford faculty member's accounting is revealing: "We see that Illinois does 'X' so… end of story. Despite the reluctance, despite all of those negative feelings about it, we have to do it." Consequently, cosmetic compliance was a neutral response to a coercive policy. Disagreeing with the mandate but recognizing it could not be avoided to the detriment of their students, individuals therefore complied.

Active use. For this study, I defined active use as those who made sense of edTPA policy positively and acted (i.e. verbally or physically) upon those feelings. In many ways, such sensemaking became the antithesis of active resistance. Hence, this response was tethered to case TPPs who exhibited an inquiry-based approach (i.e. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton). Seeing the merits of the assessment, many individuals across these TPPs became active users, verbally and physically supporting its coercive implementation. I explain these responses across my associated cases below.

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Following an inquiry-based approach, active users separated edTPA from its associated mandate. This was made possible because their prior behavior/values reflected many of the edTPA's core principals. As one Lincoln administrator discussed:

> I would put a list of the 15 things that edTPA looks at and I would say [to faculty/staff] tell me which of these 15 things you think we shouldn't be comparing or preparing candidates to do, and they couldn't identify any of them. And I said so we need to get it out of our head that this is a state mandate because every time we hear state mandate the barriers go up right?... I said you need to put that aside and we need to look at exactly what this assessment is. Do we agree or disagree with the assessment? Not the mandate, the assessment. And once we got to those conversations... we saw the momentum gather here at Lincoln.

By separating edTPA from its associated mandate, Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton saw the merits of the assessment— so much so one Ford faculty member said "If you told me today that it's not consequential and we don't have to do it, I would still use a great deal of the processes... probably all of it... ." Accordingly, these individuals met what Berman (1986) called the "spirit" of a policy. Believing the positives outweighed the negatives, they verbally and physically supported its implementation. This was in stark contrast to active resistance or cosmetic compliance, where the mandate largely influenced sensemaking.

In sum, Illinois' coercive policy did influence how TPPs made sense of edTPA. While individuals exhibited each of the aforementioned responses, I found institutions collectively exhibited one response more so than others; Jefferson became cosmetic compliers, whereas the rest became active users. Meanwhile, no TPP collectively became active resistors. In part, these responses were also reflective of existing micro-organizational factors. I now discuss how these factors played a role.

Micro-organizational factors

Following my conceptual framework, there are two categories of micro-organizational factors influencing TPP sensemaking: 1) existing resources and 2) structural and cultural

practices. On one hand, resources like a) fiscal, b), human, and c) time were important. These factors helped influence their capacities to meet Illinois' edTPA mandate. On the other hand, structural and cultural practices like a) leadership, b) coupling, c) organizational routines, and d) social networks were important. These factors helped assess their compatibility (i.e. behaviors/values) with the mandate. Below, I discuss each category in turn and how they helped predict TPP sensemaking and subsequent responses in Illinois.

Existing organizational resources: Fiscal

As one administrator shared, "there's a cost associated with doing [edTPA]; it's not just the cost of the test, there's a cost to the program." Variances in fiscal resources were thus found across my cases. These variances influenced how they approached edTPA. For example, at Lincoln, the TPP dedicated extensive funding to support faculty, staff, and students. According to one administrator, "the provost funded tens of thousands of dollars to provide professional development [i.e. travel and workshops]to faculty/staff and vouchers to students." Conversely, at Jefferson, funding was rather limited. They initially had a grant from the federal government (which provided similar supports), but it ran out once edTPA became consequential fall 2015. In turn, Jefferson had to come up with creative ways to meet the mandate, including volunteering and donations. As one faculty member said:

> We got no extra money, really, to prepare ourselves how to teach this... to get any extra faculty to run workshops for students prior to student teaching. So we made it happen without resources because we care deeply about our students.

Taken together, money mattered; whereas Jefferson exhibited a compliance-based approach, my other TPPs exhibited an inquiry-based approach.

Existing organizational resources: Human

Like fiscal resources, my case TPPs navigated this factor to varying degrees. In particular, I found having a dedicated edTPA Coordinator was a critical human resource. This was an idiosyncratic finding, as not much research discusses their role in edTPA policy implementation. I explain below.

While the state requires each TPP have a Coordinator, their role and related functions are not clearly defined. Generally, they are to collect and record edTPA pass rates for the TPP. However, I found Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton each had a dedicated (part-time/full-time) Coordinator who harnessed this role in more meaningful ways. These individuals performed two key functions towards edTPA implementation and sensemaking: 1) conducting professional development and 2) creating tools. I will explain each of these in turn.

First, Coordinators helped conduct professional development for faculty and staff. Two unique kinds of development were identified. On one hand, they carried out workshops, as one Hamilton faculty member described:

> During workshops [Coordinator] walked us through particular elements of the assessment. Then… we could talk through as faculty any questions we might have... It's been great… [Coordinator's] preparation for getting us ready... I now have a better sense of what these [edTPA] assessments are asking for...

On the other hand, they unpacked data, as one Lincoln faculty member said:

> Our Coordinator has just been a creative thinker on how to you know get people on board and to understand the data that's getting spit back to them. Not everybody in teacher education is a data head so it was helpful to have that development.

Second, Coordinators created tools. Specifically, they created rubrics and lesson plans for faculty and staff to see where specific elements should be introduced within the teaching program. The accounting from Hamilton's Coordinator is illustrative:

> I've developed a lot of tools. I've mapped all the rubrics [for faculty] to where they should be introduced, developing and mastering through the sequences. The faculty has gone over that… we conduct statistical analysis and look at where in those rubrics our

scores could be better and then we've gone to the modules to see how we can improve instruction so we're giving feedback to the program. I've written a lesson plan template that will cover everything that is needed for edTPA. Prior to this, there were probably 20 different lesson plan templates being used in all the classes… so it is filtering down to a template that is used in all of them… So I think we are very ready for mandated implementation in the fall [2015], but we'll see.

Collectively, faculty and staff found these functions harnessed by Coordinators to be a critical resource, influencing subsequent sensemaking. As one faculty member shared:

[Hamilton's] coordinator has been fantastic as a resource for all of us faculty… just making sure we understand what the assessment involves, how it maps on to all the different courses in the preparation program for all the different areas… so that's been really helpful because I can have a better sense of what these assessments are asking for… So we've been really lucky to have somebody like [Coordinator] who can kind of coach faculty through it. It's been great.

Jefferson, however, was the only case TPP to not have such a person. In the process, faculty and staff found edTPA implementation more difficult. This faculty member's accounting is revealing:

I want more workshops, I don't want to run them. I should not have to plan them and facilitate them and not get paid for that. So you need people to provide this. We need an edTPA Coordinator. We don't really have that.

So while the state required all TPPs have a Coordinator, three of my cases had an individual who harnessed this role in more meaningful ways, including conducting professional development and creating tools. This likely helped these programs adopt an inquiry-based approach.

Existing organizational resources: Time

In the literature, time is viewed as a byproduct of fiscal and human resources. Yet I found sensemaking of edTPA also contributed. That is, how people felt about the assessment and its associated policy influenced their perception of time as a resource (or detriment). This became another idiosyncratic finding. I explain their connection below.

As discussed, Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton demonstrated essential fiscal and human resources needed to implement edTPA effectively. In the process, the issue of time was not raised during my interviews (i.e. they had enough money). However, time became a major issue for Jefferson. Here, administrators, faculty, and staff felt they: 1) did not have enough time to meet the policy's demands, and 2) was time that could have been best used elsewhere. This was particularly evident with edTPA's video component. Because of a lack of fiscal and human resources institutionally, individuals at Jefferson largely had to figure out the video component on their own, creating implementation challenges. Thus, how they made sense of edTPA often became negative (i.e. active resistance or cosmetic compliance), seeing its implementation and ultimate value as what one faculty member called "a huge fucking waste of time." This finding was corroborated by my other cases, as demonstrated by one Ford faculty member:

> When it gets to the high-stakes of edTPA, the video [component] is critical... having the infrastructure (i.e. the fiscal/human resources] has been very important. So it does take time, but it is… I wouldn't say it's an issue because I think it's time well spent. But I can see if you thought this whole thing was a bunch of shit then any extra time it feels like wasted time that you should be spending on something else.

Differences in fiscal and human resources accordingly contributed to a TPP's views on the mandate as "time well spent" or "a fucking waste of time."

Existing organizational resources: Capacity "rich" and capacity "poor"

Together, these three organizational resources helped produce capacity "rich" and capacity "poor" TPPs towards the edTPA mandate. On one hand, data showed Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton had the necessary resources to meet its demands. Sensemaking thus became more positive, contributing to their active use. On the other hand, Jefferson became the outlier. Lacking such resources, their capacities were reduced, thereby contributing to active resistance

and cosmetic compliance. I found implementing the video component was particularly illustrative, as one faculty member discussed:

> Jefferson is just very under resourced [i.e. capacity poor]. So students at a [capacity rich] institution, where they may have inordinate resources in terms of the tech lab and everything, can buy a lovely video reflection tool called ADINA, right? And they can invest in it even though the student population is much wealthier than ours and everyone's in a really good place to just perform really well on the edTPA. Where us making a commitment to spending $200 a year per student to have that lovely tool is tough... .

Notwithstanding, existing organizational resources are not the only contributing element; indeed, existing structures and cultural practices matter. I next discuss these below, and how they influenced sensemaking across my TPPs.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices

How organizations are structured and what cultural practices they imbue help assess their compatibility with a given policy. Such compatibility subsequently influences local sensemaking— i.e. their existing behaviors/values. In this section, I will trace how organizational: a) leadership; b) coupling; c) routines; and d) social networks influenced my case TPPs responding to edTPA.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Leadership

As SCALE pointed out in an interview, proper edTPA implementation is "really about leadership." With respect to my cases in Illinois, I found this to be very true; leaders (i.e. administrators) helped foster what approach the TPP generally took (i.e. compliance-based vs. inquiry-based) and how they would ultimately respond (i.e. actively resisting, cosmetically complying, or actively using). To help unpack, I will briefly show how Lincoln's leadership influenced both their approach and response. Next, I will show how Jefferson's leadership functioned much the opposite, and what approach and responses transpired.

At Lincoln, administrators became a catalyst for how they approached the coercive policy and what steps they would take towards its implementation. Arguably, they were the archetype of how leadership can steer edTPA, particularly via organizational mission. It started with the provost, who acknowledged both the assessment's value and its impact on student enrollment:

> The provost understood that [edTPA] was something that we really needed to get on board with… and that support of teacher education from the highest academic officer on campus… did something for the attitude toward edTPA. We didn't feel quite so blindfolded going in to implementation when it started in fall of 2015.

Because of top-level buy-in, Lincoln collectively moved towards an inquiry-based approach, proactively addressing the mandate. One staff member's reflection is illustrative:

> So in fall 2013, we laid out everything that edTPA could impact in teacher education, including what if kids don't pass what do we do, right? And we laid that all out and then after we started breathing again, we started to systematically work our way through protocol development... to the point where we could then tell the programs, here's what we're doing, here are your options, let us know what you decide... so by the time we got to where it was mandatory, we had that entire infrastructure built with support, everybody understood what was going on. But it had movement because it wasn't just me saying we need this. I was working with [top-level] leadership, all of whom were influential in teacher-ed and in the university to help make things happen.

That said, Lincoln did experience some initial active resistance. Towards these ends, Lincoln's leadership was also an important factor, helping the TPP maintain its inquiry-based approach and mission. As an associate dean said:

> The colleagues who wanted to settle on the fact that this was a gatekeeper... I got very tired of working with that chorus. It wasn't serving our candidates well. They couldn't keep it to themselves. I remember having a conversation and I said I don't care if you like it or not... that's not the point here. As you're advising students... you are... the attitudes you express affect the experience they have. They have to spend 300 dollars for this thing... I want you to keep your opinions to yourself.

Put simply, Lincoln's leadership made sense of edTPA for the entire organization. Active resistance was thus largely suppressed because it did not align with the formalized mission. In discussing these circumstances, one of the resistant faculty members shared:

At the beginning, there was a lot of resistance across the board except for a couple key people in positions of power in the College of Ed. who were very much for it and… were becoming really frustrated with the resistance. I remember the "let's not throw the baby out with the bathwater" being a phrase that was used a lot in those early days, and I think as time has passed and I don't know if it's just people kind of shrugging their shoulders saying like well here's this thing... it's just here... we're not... it's not productive to push back or to resist or to question because at every turn, I think people were feeling like they we're kind of shutting... it was being shut down purposefully. It's kind of like we can continue to have conversations about it... but it's here and so you know... like shrug emoji. And so I think there isn't… as much resistance as there once was.

At the same time, Jefferson functioned much the opposite. Here, leadership was minimized. Just when edTPA became consequential, a new dean had taken over the College of Education. Unlike their predecessor, they did not have a teacher education background. Therefore, edTPA implementation was not prioritized as a mission like Lincoln. This placed increased stresses on faculty and staff, who then responded rather negatively.

In short, I found leaders were a key element of edTPA implementation. On one hand, these individuals helped influence the TPP's approach and their allocation of resources. On the other hand, they helped influence how other individuals collectively made sense of the policy tool. Acknowledging this relationship, one Lincoln administrator said:

> Leadership is going to communicate an ethos of either expanded degrees of freedom and we are confident in your expertise and you can make this thing your own and do it and do it well. Or, leadership can diminish one's sense of confidence and degrees of freedom and make you feel like you know you're always trying to hold forces at the margins as opposed to, all right, here's the structure I'm now working within and let me go ahead and tackle it.

I now discuss how organizational coupling played a role.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Coupling

Coupling refers to the degree of relatedness within an organization (Orton & Weick, 1990). Education organizations generally operate in one of two ways: 1) loosely-coupled and 2) tightly-coupled. With respect to policy, loosely-coupled systems often produce uneven

implementation (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, 1983). Across my cases, I found their degree of coupling was related to three other factors: size, social networks, and research intensity. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton were tightly-coupled, whereas Jefferson was loosely-coupled. I first explain how these factors are related, followed by how this helped influence a TPP's approach and subsequent sensemaking.

Broadly, I found a small TPP was more likely to tightly-couple given their proximal social networks; both Ford and Hamilton were small. As one Hamilton faculty member shared: "We are fortunate that we are not very large so we have an opportunity to talk to each other." Conversely, I found a large TPP required their top- and mid-level leadership make an effort to connect isolated social networks. As discussed, Lincoln's leadership made such efforts, proactively addressing planning and resistance as part of their organizational mission. Yet when a large TPP was also "research intensive" like Jefferson, these competing priorities caused them to loosely-couple ("We didn't have any of that kind of infrastructure, so people were barking and biting at everybody else to do things.").

Coupling helped facilitate what approach/subsequent responses TPPs took. For example, as tightly-coupled organizations, Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton exhibited an inquiry-based approach. Their social networks were closely related, enabling active use. However, Jefferson remained rather loosely-coupled. Here, "there are a bunch of little islands. And every program is doing its own thing… it's a mess." Individuals thus responded in very uncoordinated ways (i.e. cosmetic compliance and active resistance), but often from a compliance-based approach.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Routines

Routines help an organization make sense of policy (Spillane et al., 2009). Across my cases, I found several routines were harnessed that helped local actors respond to edTPA: 1)

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distributing understandings of assessment elements and 2) goal setting/planning. Similar to coupling, these two routines and how they manifested were reflective of what approach a TPP took (i.e. compliance-based vs. inquiry-based). I will explain these findings below.

Given edTPA became high-stakes in Illinois, making sense of the assessment's elements was required. However, TPPs chose to do this in various ways; those I identified as compliance-based tended to harness different routines than inquiry-based TPPs. On one hand, compliance-based TPPs (i.e. Jefferson) only conducted workshops for faculty/staff to initially understand aspects of edTPA. These workshops were piecemeal and voluntary, limiting their overall success in a purposefully resistant culture. On the other hand, workshops became a routine harnessed across my inquiry-based TPPs (i.e. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton), actively using them as a continuous improvement process. As one Hamilton faculty member said regarding understanding edTPA's academic language component:

> I think at first as a faculty, I don't think we even understood what was meant by the term "academic language." And I think initially as a faculty, we focused on academic vocabulary and how do student teachers introduce the necessary vocabulary, but I think it has turned into an opportunity to kind of have good discussions about what those interactions between students and teachers should look like and how we kind of push students to kind of either justify or defend their thoughts and their process and how we kind of support that. So I do think that that discussion about academic language had led to a lot of other discussions about student engagement, about prior knowledge, prior experiences, about teacher modeling, about being explicit about expectations…

In this way, inquiry-based TPPs did not enact routines because edTPA was mandated. Rather, they did so in an effort to reflect on their professional selves, just as the assessment system's developers intended.

Besides distributing understandings of the assessment's elements, I found goal setting and planning to be a critical organizational routine. Much like above, though, I only found inquiry-based TPPs harnessed this routine. This routine required much reflection and active

participation, something compliance-based institutions like Jefferson did not demonstrate.

Specifically, two sub-routines were found. First, these TPPs unpacked student scores using "data

summits", so as to inform program goals and planning. Lincoln's data routine was illustrative:

> In a few weeks we're going to have our edTPA data summits. We have them in May every year and we're going to look at our data, look at what our goals were and whether or not we've achieved them, what changes have been made etcetera and, you know, I sent out a poll just with some possible dates and times and within 24 hours, 90 percent of my folks responded as to when they're available, which is amazing and they really enjoy getting together like that. They really enjoy looking at if they're making these goals or not… .

Second, these TPPs engaged in curriculum mapping, prior to and during implementation. Ford's

curriculum mapping routine was illustrative:

> So with faculty we spent our time taking each of the tasks and the corresponding rubrics and mapping that to both the content and the assessment and the methodology of the courses they were teaching. So every faculty member said, well what am I teaching and where does rubric 5, for example, come into play in the work I do? So our faculty responded by either redesigning not only the content of their courses but… in some cases some particular assessments in their own courses that were meant to model that same kind of thinking."

Together, these routines not only helped TPPs proactively address edTPA implementation, they

fostered active use over time across stakeholders.

In sum, an inquiry-based approach afforded several important routines. These routines

went beyond meeting the high-stakes mandate (i.e. its spirit), thereby creating active and

reflective participation amongst administrators, faculty, and staff. I now discuss the extent to

which social networks played a role.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Social networks

I found organizational coupling and routines were related to the social networks TPPs

operated within. However, these networks were further related a TPP's overall approach;

compliance-based TPPs like Jefferson tended to have "closed" social networks whereas inquiry-

based TPPs like Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton were more "open". Closed and open refer to the degree of collaboration and investment amongst local actors. Two factors became paramount: 1) the dominant coalitions, and 2) whether brokers existed. I first discuss the relation between organizational coupling, routines, and approach, followed by dominant coalitions and brokers.

As discussed in Chapter Three, social networks can happen by design, or they can happen organically (Coburn et al., 2013). I found TPPs who were tightly-coupled (i.e. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton) created designed spaces for interactions to take place. These interactions helped foster the aforementioned routines. Accordingly, tighter-coupled TPPs maintained more open and collaborative social networks towards edTPA implementation. This was indicative of an inquiry-based approach.

At the same time, I found TPPs who were loosely-coupled, like Jefferson, limited proximities for organic social networking to occur. Because their teaching programs largely functioned independently, faculty and staff tended to only communicate about edTPA programmatically, not institutionally. Sensemaking thus became rather closed, reducing the institutional routines I observed. This was indicative of a compliance-based approach.

Together, these divergent findings were reflective of dominant coalitions and brokers, helping foster collective behaviors/values. First, dominant coalitions helped guide what information and beliefs were transferred across TPPs. For inquiry-based TPPs, the dominant coalitions made sense of edTPA in proactive ways, including fostering related routines. While sub-coalitions did exist, they were suppressed, as one Lincoln staff member pointed out: "our detractors decide to just isolate themselves from the conversation… taking their voices out of the mix." For compliance-based TPPs, however, the dominant coalition made sense of edTPA in reactive ways. Such reactivity was reflective of Illinois' coercive policy design, spurring

cosmetic compliance and, sometimes, active resistance. From this perspective, the dominant coalition influenced how social networks across TPPs made sense of and approached edTPA implementation.

Notwithstanding, brokers arguably became a more important factor for social networking. According to Daly and colleagues (2014), brokers connect otherwise disconnected individuals or groups. In the process, they become "boundary spanners," helping to properly sensemake understandings and alignments across policy demands (Finnegan & Daly, 2012). Towards these ends, I found edTPA Coordinators existed in such capacities. These mid-leaders leaders harnessed their role in unique ways, becoming policy brokers. This was another idiosyncratic finding, as literature remains limited (but see Honig, 2006b, 2012; Rosser, 2004; Spillane et al., 2002). I briefly detail how below.

Indeed, edTPA Coordinators exhibited four key functions towards the coercive policy: 1) conducting professional development; 2) creating tools; 3) fostering new, collaborative relationships; and 4) bridging policy misconceptions and resistance. Two of these functions were already discussed (i.e. conducting professional development and creating tools). The other two functions, though, were afforded by their mid-level role. Because these Coordinators were generally long time faculty or staff members, they became boundary spanners across social networks. On one hand, they helped connect individuals with proper information about edTPA, particularly in large schools like Lincoln. As one faculty member said:

> I think having someone in that position was... absolutely critical to getting the rest of us across campus. Cause I'm in a different college. I'm not even in the College of Education. There's a lot of us programs who are K through 12 or secondary programs that are dispersed across campus and she gave us a face to associate our edTPA questions with. So we knew exactly who to go to.

On the other hand, they bridged policy misconceptions and resistance. As a result, they helped produce an open social network and instill an inquiry-based approach.

In sum, I found social networks across TPPs to be open or closed. When open, TPPs appeared to make sense of edTPA proactively and take a more inquiry-based approach. When closed, TPPs appeared to make sense of edTPA reactively and take a more compliance-based approach. I next discuss institutional compatibility.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Institutional compatibility

Reflecting my conceptual framework, I found organizational coupling, routines, and social networks helped predict how Illinois TPPs make sense of and approach edTPA. Equally, they also shaped the extent to which edTPA implementation was compatible, either organizationally or culturally. I first explain organizationally followed by culturally.

Organizationally, structures and routines helped predict institutional compatibility with edTPA. For example, Ford's alternative program was indicated to be highly compatible due to its prior structures. According to one faculty member:

> It's a little bit easier to design and implement [edTPA] in the alternative program because our candidates were teachers of record with students to work with right from the outset. Whereas in your traditional program what happens is that your candidates don't become teachers of any kind until their very last semester.

Equally, many of Hamilton's routines mimicked those of edTPA, providing a seamless transition. As one faculty member shared:

> We've always had a classroom assessment course. We've always had an integration of literacy. We do it. It's not like this is something new. We don't have to add in reflection— we've always had it. We've always had assessment— pre and post and formative and summative. They've always heard that— it's not something new. Just now it manifests itself in edTPA…

Therefore, approaching the mandated policy as a form of inquiry proved less difficult for these TPPs, allowing for active use to transpire.

I also found cultural elements predicted a TPP's compatibility, in particular their organizational mission. These missions were both reflective of a TPP's dominant coalition and institutional identity. For instance, Hamilton appeared to have a culture of obedience, forming a mission of duty. As one faculty member said: "We don't get those Pollyanna type. People say, okay, this is what is coming down the pike and what we have to prepare our candidates for, and we do." Meanwhile, Jefferson appeared to have a culture of resistance, especially due to their social justice-ased mission, as another faculty member explained:

> We take our social justice mission seriously… I think because of [edTPA's] lack of attention to issues of social justice or lack of attention to cultural context… and the fact that [Jefferson] places in schools where some of these things are challenged... I think it does present somewhat a mismatch [for Jefferson].

As a result, edTPA implementation was supported *or* constrained depending on the cultural values and organizational mission of the TPP. Together, they helped predict how TPPs made sense of and approached edTPA— either as a form of inquiry or compliance.

End-line policy users

As indicated above, numerous organizational and political factors impacted how TPP administrators, faculty, and staff made sense of edTPA. In this section, I now trace how such sensemaking influenced students taking edTPA, and what were the related factors. I first discuss how my cases broadly prepared students, what challenges existed, and whether an inquiry-based or compliance-based approach mattered. Second, I discuss how students made sense of edTPA, and whether policy design and faculty/staff sensegiving played a role. Third, I discuss student outcomes, and whether the overall approach mattered. Overall, I found faculty/staff sensemaking did influence subsequent student sensemaking, but only to a degree. Pass rates are essentially the same despite opposing approaches. I will explain all these findings below.

End-line policy users: TPP preparation

I found how TPPs made sense of and approached edTPA influenced their preparation for students. Those TPPs exhibiting an inquiry-based approach proactively embedded edTPA instruction across their curriculum. Students thus felt very prepared for the rigors of edTPA. One Hamilton student's experience is particularly illustrative:

> I feel like [edTPA has] always been in the back of our heads since freshman year. So [Hamilton] has these professional learning communities that we do three weeks before the semester ends. So it's like every Monday and then our professor… would talk about it... but he wouldn't go in depth because he's like... oh, you guys are just freshman. But, like, I think over the course... every year... you explore more and more things about it. So I think that we... like we're anticipating it even before senior year. So I think our program does a really good job of taking each course each semester... and going into depth of what you need to do for edTPA.

On the other hand, compliance-based TPPs like Jefferson often waited until late-junior and senior year to prepare students for edTPA. Thus, the burden often fell on senior seminar teachers, as one faculty member discussed:

> Those of us who are teaching in the senior year maybe have similar mindsets and think okay, we have to support them, so let's find authentic ways to support them… [but] induction has been our Achilles heal of the program and continues to be. How do we ensure that what have we taught them and helped them to be ready [for edTPA] throughout?

Consequently, students felt less prepared for the rigors of edTPA than those from inquiry-based TPPs. One student's response was revealing:

> If [Jefferson] would have told me ahead of time [about edTPA], we could have used some of those things and planned for it properly. Now, it's just like, okay, just do it now and you have to fit into the short time frame of student teaching.

End-line policy users: Student challenges

Unlike preparation, I found student challenges were irrespective of approach. That is, whether a TPP was identified as inquiry-based or compliance-based did not reduce the kinds of challenges students cited. However, it may have reduced the severity students mentioned.

Students cited three types of issues: 1) video/technology; 2) mentor teachers; and 3) anxiety/stress. First, students struggled with the video component. This included editing, compressing, and uploading the video to the Pearson website for external scoring. Second, students had issues with mentor teachers. Such issues were largely because these individuals had not completed edTPA, as one Jefferson student pointed out:

> Like we have these mentor teachers who that have never done the edTPA, but yet we're there implementing everything and trying to do our edTPA and these classes and these mentor teachers have no idea what it is, so it's kind of hard for them to mentor us or help us with it because they can't.

Third, students cited increased anxiety and stress when completing edTPA. As one Jefferson student shared: "I have to take a sleep aid because of this test. Seriously. Ziquil." While my data cannot confirm whether a TPP's approach played a role in severity, there does appear to be a connection.

End-line policy users: Student sensemaking

I found student sensemaking was related to policy design and faculty/staff sensemaking. That is, how students felt about edTPA was related to the coercive policy landscape they operated within, and how their instructors made sense of it for them. I discuss these findings below.

Indeed, students overwhelmingly disliked the edTPA being high-stakes. However, I found students at inquiry-based TPPs (i.e. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton) were more receptive of the positive aspects edTPA afforded (e.g. reflectivity, detailed lesson planning, etc.), focusing less so on the negative aspects that often accompany mandates. This was because these TPPs understood their sensemaking would inevitably transfer to their students. As one Lincoln administrator said:

We have found that our candidate's attitudes about it and especially their anxiety about it... is really less than what I hear described from many places... because they feel prepared because faculty are not coming out and just saying negative things about it... oh my gosh... this is terrible... you have to do... you know... so I think that is really important.

Students thus felt more prepared and less stressed about edTPA.

Conversely, compliance-based TPPs like Jefferson took a more reactive stance to edTPA. As discussed, this stance was reflective of their limited capacities, loose coupling, dominant coalition, and social justice mission. Yet many faculty/staff subsequently focused on the political implications rather than the professional implications (i.e. mandate vs. assessment), which bled into their sensemaking for students. One faculty member's accounting is illustrative:

The ones who were adamantly against it in any way shape or form, their students didn't have a very good attitude towards edTPA. However, the faculty who had… a thoroughly positive view of the edTPA, the student's perceptions were fairly good. So because that attitude translated to... students pick up on that. For instance, [faculty name]'s elementary program, they had a fairly positive attitude about the edTPA and their students… did well on it. And the history education program, whose faculty had a very negative view of the edTPA, they resisted... the students did not do as well."

Focus groups I conducted with students from both programs demonstrated these attitudinal differences in practice. For example, those in the history education program were quite negative and struggled with edTPA's video components:

It sucks. I hate this thing. The challenges outweigh the benefits. I think it's bad. Me trying to edit a video is like a four-hour process. I will probably spend 30 hours uploading documents because I am so technologically inept.

Meanwhile, those in the elementary program recognized some of edTPA's challenges, but also felt reasonably prepared to meet them:

We do a lot of reflection and thinking about how we're teaching and what we're teaching about. I don't think everybody has that [at Jefferson] and for those who don't have it, like [edTPA's] very tough… I really think that everyone in our class is fully capable of passing.

Overall, similar to Cohen and colleagues (2018), how faculty/staff initially made sense of edTPA influenced their students' perceptions of the assessment. On one hand, inquiry-based TPPs made an effort to minimize the high-stakes nature, focusing on the learning opportunities edTPA provides. In turn, students were less anxious and saw value in completing edTPA. On the other hand, compliance-based TPPs made sense of edTPA as a mandate, often reacting negativity. In turn, students generally felt more anxious about the assessment, saw it as a "hurdle", and considered it a "waste of time."

End-line policy users: Student outcomes

While a sensemaking framework emphasizes how contextual factors shape local actors' perceptions and responses to policy, because edTPA is an assessment tool, its success or failure across TPPs is ultimately associated with student pass rates. Therefore, my final question (*Q3A*) sought to examine whether attitudinal differences in faculty/stuff sensemaking corresponded to differences in edTPA's passage. To answer this question, I collected pass rate data from each case TPP and compared it to their overall sensemaking and approach. Overall, I found both inquiry-based and compliance-based TPPs essentially had the same passage rates—approximately 98-100%. However, from a sensemaking framework, implementation became much smoother for inquiry-based TPPs. Thus edTPA pass rates were not an accurate measure of a TPP's fidelity. I explain these contradictory findings below.

Although inquiry- and compliance-based TPPs had similar pass rates, how they reached those results became quite the opposite. Inquiry-based TPPs approached edTPA implementation as a collaborative, programmatic improvement process. In contrast, compliance-based TPPs approached edTPA implementation as just another mandate to overcome, seeing its high-stakes

nature as detrimental to the teaching profession. I argue these contradictory findings are the result of a coercive policy design.

Like it or hate it, TPPs knew they needed to have students pass edTPA. Most did so in a more cooperative matter. Others like Jefferson, however, do so in the face of purposeful resistance. But as Illinois ramps up its pass rate to 41 in fall 2019, how TPPs approach edTPA may influence subsequent outcomes. Therefore, this will be important to follow as a future research question.

Illinois summary

Echoing my conceptual framework, Illinois' policy design forced TPPs to comply. I found these coercive conditions resulted in two different approaches to implementing edTPA—inquiry-based and compliance-based. These approaches were generally related to the organizational capacities and dominant coalition's preconceptions of the assessment (i.e. will). Together, they influenced how local administrators, faculty, and staff responded to edTPA, either actively resisting, cosmetically complying, or actively using. While these responses mirrored how students made sense of edTPA, outcomes as defined by pass rates remained nearly identical across Illinois TPPs.

Indeed, Lincoln became the archetype for edTPA implementation under coercive conditions. Despite their size, their inquiry-based approach fostered both the resources and will to meet edTPA in a proactive manner. Most of my case TPPs similarly approached edTPA this way. Conversely, Jefferson became the outlier. Their loosely-coupled structure, combined with their lack of resources and social justice mission, produced a reactive response. So while the edTPA did not seem to cause widespread resistance across Illinois, those TPPs in urban areas serving minority populations were the exception. These findings were backed up by other

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faculty/staff I interviewed at similar TPPs outside my selected cases. To help illustrate such

dichotomy, this quote best exemplified how people made sense of edTPA in Illinois:

> I remember saying to some of the legislators... you're probably asking yourselves how
> some of us are sitting in front of you and telling you [edTPA] is the most devastating
> practice ever to hit our candidates in teacher education and then there are others like
> myself saying... this is really a promise of moving us forward... you must really be
> scratching your head about that and they agreed.

If the stakes were to change, however, this dilemma would likely disappear. As one faculty

member shared:

> I really think that people would view [edTPA] a little bit differently if it was not high-
> stakes. I really do. I strongly believe that because I feel like people would be able to
> actually look a little bit more closely at what the assessment asks for, what are the
> experiences that we can provide in our classrooms to prepare them and how will this help
> them in their future teaching career. I just think that because it's come down from the
> state as this high-stakes assessment, the end all be all of attainment of teaching licensure,
> that it is just hard to separate from that. I really believe that.

Towards these ends, I will now examine Iowa, who purports a voluntary policy design for

edTPA.

Iowa

How interviewees made sense of their state adopted policy design?

Unlike Illinois, Iowa has adopted a more measured policy design. The state requires all

TPPs adopt a "nationally normed assessment" for students to pass in order to be recommended

for licensure; edTPA is therefore an option among several other assessments (i.e. PPAT, Praxis

II). According to multiple interviewees, these voluntary conditions were reflective of Iowa's

longstanding history of local control:

> Iowa has a strong tradition… of local control… there is kind of a sense and expectation
> that there is some level of local control that will be maintained. Whether that is a small
> district or whether that is a college institution… So regardless of what the assessment was
> if there became a single mandate of "You must do" and it did not involve some group of
> stakeholders, that decision would get huge pushback because of our history and the way
> we have functioned.

Under a voluntary design, local stakeholders adopt a policy because it meets their interests (Berman, 1986). However, only a few TPPs have adopted edTPA (5 of 32), including no alternative programs. So while local control has been maintained, Iowa TPPs have largely chosen other nationally normed assessments. These circumstances are largely pragmatic, as one faculty member described: "Iowa TPPs adopted the [assessment] they think is most pragmatic for their situation." In this way, the dilemma between compliance vs. spirit that existed in Illinois was not present; TPPs either actively adopted edTPA or chose an alternative option. The data I show in this section are of two TPPs who have chosen to adopt edTPA (i.e. Roosevelt and Madison), as well as one TPP who withdrew (i.e. Adams) and one alternative TPP who never did (i.e. Johnson). Using my four cases, I next explain their subsequent sensemaking, and how these influenced their approach and responses.

Approach and subsequent responses

Because Iowa was not an authoritative sensegiver of edTPA, sensemaking became localized. I found two different approaches: 1) increased local control, and 2) inquiry-based. On one hand, TPPs who did not wish to adopt edTPA asserted their local control, implementing other nationally normed assessments (i.e. PPAT or Praxis II). Two of my cases exhibited this approach (i.e. Adams and Johnson). On the other hand, those who did adopt edTPA did so as a form of inquiry. Two of my cases illustrated this approach (i.e. Roosevelt and Madison). Similar to Illinois, these approaches collectively and individually resulted in three subsequent responses: 1) active resistance; 2) cosmetic compliance; and 3) active use. Using my four above cases, I first explain increased local control vs. inquiry-based approach, followed by the three subsequent responses.

Increased local control vs. inquiry-based. Iowa TPPs approached edTPA either as a form of local control or inquiry. These approaches were specifically afforded by the state's voluntary design and generally pragmatic. I explain increased local control, followed by inquiry-based.

First, TPPs exercised increased local control when they found edTPA to be incongruent with their context (i.e. existing behaviors/values). This approach was found either initially or over time. For example, Johnson initially adopted PPAT. Like all alternative TPPs in Iowa, they found edTPA did not meet their interests. According to one staff member, this choice was made for several reasons:

> The PPAT was a context embedded assessment… That was very appealing to both our governing body and the faculty that they represented. The other piece that I think probably swayed the vote a little bit was the fact for PPAT you can access and use the prompts and the rubrics... And so they appreciated the fact that we… could use components of the rubrics that they would be seeing within our coursework and field experiences so that by the time they hit the student teaching semester, it wasn't that the rubric or tasks were new. In addition, there was already a lot of similarity going on to some of the things that we were already doing [i.e. existing behaviors]. So those were, I think, some of the major deciding factors in kind of moving towards PPAT over edTPA.

Conversely, Adams initially adopted edTPA but later withdrew as faculty/staff support waned. One faculty member's accounting is illustrative: "We've got some people that are really thinking this is awesome and we have people that think this thing stinks, and basically we're no longer involved with it… ." In both cases, sensemaking became localized, afforded by Iowa's voluntary policy design.

Second, TPPs exercised an inquiry-based approach when they found edTPA to be congruent with their context (i.e. existing behaviors/values). Roosevelt and Madison cited their student populations as a contributing factor given many came from Illinois. Therefore, Illinois' coercive policy design influenced some Iowa TPPs to "voluntarily" adopt edTPA. However, I

found such initial pragmatism blossomed into an inquiry-based approach over time; both TPPs harnessed edTPA as a continuous improvement process.

On a broad level, what separated those Iowa TPPs exercising local control from those exercising an inquiry-based approach was whether edTPA met their unique behaviors/values. For many across the state, edTPA was incongruent. Increased local control has subsequently resulted in TPPs adopting other nationally normed assessments (either initially or over time). Meanwhile, those who have chosen and continue adopting edTPA have taken an inquiry-based approach.

Together, such sensemaking has translated into three subsequent responses: 1) active resistance; 2) cosmetic compliance; and 3) active use. Each response will be discussed in turn below.

Active resistance. While active resistance under coercive conditions could be quite forceful—like class boycotts and political advocacy—this was not the case across my Iowa TPPs. In fact, most active resistance was found at Adams, who later exercised their local control and withdrew from edTPA. However, my inquiry-based TPPs (i.e. Madison and Roosevelt) also demonstrated some small group/individual resistance, just not enough to alter their decision and subsequent approach. I explain these two findings using Adams and Roosevelt.

At Adams, a collective group of faculty and staff began actively resisting its implementation. According to one administrator, their issues with edTPA were two fold. First, they disliked that Pearson was involved:

> The ugliest pushbacks were just that Pearson was running teacher ed. by far, you know? And boy, once they pit-bulled that, they had earplugs… they closed every door they could. They didn't want to hear edTPA.

Second, they found its demands during student teaching were excessive:

> One of the reasons why they didn't support it was they thought that it consumed too much of the student teacher's time energy and focus while the people were student teaching that

it all became you know about getting this thing done and not really you know truly embracing being a student teacher.

In turn, Adams reconsidered their adoption of edTPA and ultimately withdrew; put simply, they did not have what one faculty member called a "critical mass." Resistance coupled with an increased local control approach thus afforded this response to take shape.

Alternatively, Roosevelt's supervisors became particularly resistant. As one faculty member said: "Our biggest problem is our supervisors. They are very threatened by edTPA and I know when they all get together for meetings... they mumble and grumble about edTPA all the time... ." A lot of these supervisors are retired teachers who know little about edTPA, but have to give direct feedback to teacher candidates. Consequently, they perceive the assessment as taking away from their professional voice. Towards these ends, the edTPA Coordinator has said: "We need to hire people who are going to be willing to learn this because we believe in edTPA." Attrition has given them this opportunity, while preserving their inquiry-based approach.

In short, active resistance across my cases has largely been minimized by Iowa's voluntary design. Only a few isolated instances were found and, in one case (i.e. Adams), led to their voluntary withdraw from edTPA. Asking one faculty member why active resistance in Iowa is so limited, they said: "I think part of why [edTPA] has been received positively [in Iowa] is because it's been a choice and we've had time to explore it and make that decision on our own to use it as a program completion assessment." So whereas TPPs in Illinois institutionally resisted (e.g. Jefferson), such circumstances were not present in Iowa because programs exercised some modicum of increased local control.

Cosmetic compliance. Cosmetic compliance became an individualized response and only across my inquiry-based TPPs. While these institutions may have collectively supported (and

thus adopted) edTPA, some individuals had reservations about implementing the assessment. One Madison faculty member's dialogue is illustrative:

> For the most part, people are either supportive or they will, you know, be neutral in that they're not against it. They may not necessarily like it but they won't fight against it. The sociologist in me is thinking of symbolic interactionism and how these kinds of things matter. You know, the man in the lab coat says do it... so you do it, right? We all say we wouldn't and then we get in the situation and we frickin do it… because they're wearing a lab coat, right? Like that stuff matters… whether we recognize it or not.

Although individuals at Madison may not have agreed with central components of edTPA, they were neutral in their response (i.e. verbally an physically). Such neutrality was largely discussed by interviewees as: 1) part of an ethical commitment to students, and 2) being used to policy reform in teacher education.

Active use. According to my conceptual framework, a voluntary policy design cultivates active use (Firestone, 1989). Broadly, I found this to be true of Iowa TPPs adopting edTPA. Seeing the merits of the assessment, most individuals collectively supported the assessment. However, as previously discussed, such support was a pragmatic byproduct of their student populations. Therefore, active use in Iowa became a value- and tuition-based decision. To help illustrate, I use the following quotes. Appreciating the performance-based nature of edTPA for the profession, one Roosevelt administrator said:

> We felt it was very rigorous and very high bar, which we liked. We said, boy, this even sets a higher bar for the teaching profession. We like it. It's performance based. We liked the fact that it was aligned to National Board... that it had connections to the National Board teaching standards.

Equally, discussing the importance of tuition, one Madison faculty member shared:

> Especially at a small, private school, where we are tuition driven. I mean, let's not kid ourselves. If we cannot help candidates complete this assessment and get their teacher licenses, they're probably going to choose another program where that is more successful. So we felt it was a commitment we have to our students. We have a large number of students from out of state and we felt we would be doing them a disservice if we did not utilize [edTPA]... I mean, we think it's a good tool.

Together, such sensemaking was enabled by Iowa's voluntary policy approach. TPPs didn't quite feel the pressure those in Illinois professed during interviews. So whether they supported or rejected edTPA became a local matter, not a state matter. I now discuss how other micro-organizational factors played a role, specifically: 1) existing resources, followed by 2) structural and cultural practices.

Micro-organizational factors

As organizations collectively and individually make sense (or not) of a policy's design and demands, these understandings influence their overall capacity and will to implement them (McLaughlin, 1987; Odden, 1991; Spillane, 1999). In Iowa, I found those who continued to voluntarily adopt edTPA (i.e. Roosevelt and Madison) provided the necessary resources— fiscal, human, and time. Conversely, those who either withdrew or never adopted edTPA did not. Therefore, I will trace these three resources across my cases and how they influenced their overall approach and subsequent sensemaking.

Existing organizational resources: Fiscal

Like Illinois, Iowa TPPs were largely responsible for their own fiscal resources toward edTPA. In turn, similar variances in funding were found. On one hand, those who voluntarily continued to adopt edTPA put substantial fiscal resources. One Roosevelt faculty member's accounting is illustrative:

> We've literally invested tens of thousands of dollars in bringing people in to train faculty on what edTPA is and give recommendations to the types of changes you can make with various assignments, how it's scored so on and so forth.

On the other hand, those who either withdrew or never adopted edTPA cited funding disparities. For example, at Adams, Iowa initially provided a $9 million TQP grant. This provided for all

professional development needs. However, once the grant ran out, trepidation took shape, as one faculty member discussed:

> When you understand that the [TQP] grant money is going to go away and now it's going to have to be supported by the institution, it gets to be a little scary. I think that that was part of some of the doubt and the shaky what are we going to do when we don't have this and who's going to shoulder that. And I did not get the sense that that was being answered… let's be frank here, budget plays a huge part in what happens at an institution, right?

While I cannot definitively confirm the extent to which fiscal resources played a role in how Iowa TPPs approached edTPA (i.e. increased local control vs. inquiry-based), Roosevelt and Adams provide clues. Whereas Roosevelt had the budget to invest thousands of dollars towards edTPA implementation, Adams was largely grant dependent. Once funding ran out, a decision was made to go to back to Praxis II— a nationally normed assessment that required no fiscal support.

Existing organizational resources: Human

Analogous to Illinois, I found edTPA Coordinators became a critical human resource. These individuals provided necessary organizational expertise. In the process, they became key sensemakers and policy brokers of edTPA across Iowa TPPs. However, how a TPP approached edTPA implementation became predicative of such human expertise. For inquiry-based TPPs, I found they opted to designate a particular individual (or two), understanding the role's value. As one Madison administrator pointed out: "[The Coordinator] has been pivotal in maintaining whatever enthusiasm we've been able to maintain. So the importance of the Coordinator cannot be underestimated." But for TPPs who exercised local control like Adams, there was not an official Coordinator ("We really didn't have somebody with that label."). According to one faculty member, this was an important misstep:

Maybe not having a real solid core group of people that were directly involved with [edTPA]... I think that was part of [Adams'] misstep, too. There wasn't just a core group of trainers that were dedicated to "this is what we're going to do".

Put simply, these Coordinators provided a core person to help make sense of edTPA across

TPPs. In describing their purpose, one of the Roosevelt's Coordinators said:

[Roosevelt] needs some point people who can really just keep everybody on their toes about things like the timeline... things like you interpreting and looking at the data. So we're sort of playing this key role in supporting just like the management of edTPA. So I think we've sort of fulfilled this critical role at least in just like really scaling and getting the program up and running.

Without such human expertise, I found edTPA implementation appeared to suffer at Adams. The

human element therefore played a role in how Iowa TPPs made sense of and ultimately

approached edTPA.

Existing organizational resources: Time

Indeed, time becomes an important intangible resource with respect to policy

implementation (Honig, 2006a). And like Illinois, I found how Iowa TPPs felt about the

assessment and its associated policy influenced their perception of time as a resource (or

detriment), and whether they continued to adopt edTPA. First, those who continued to adopt

edTPA (i.e. Roosevelt and Madison) felt they had adequate time to implement edTPA and did

not view such time as "wasteful". They attributed such findings to the manner in which Iowa

adopted edTPA ("So I think having that time to explore… having the collaboration among

universities in our state… has really helped make [edTPA] more positive."). This was also

because these TPPs either provided course releases or stipends to faculty and staff.

Second, those who withdrew from edTPA, including Adams (and two other TPPs I

interviewed outside my cases) felt timing was an issue. On one hand, faculty/staff did not receive

release time for edTPA, causing extra stress to their already busy schedules. One faculty

member's accounting is illustrative:

> [Release time I] think is critically important. In fact, were we to continue with edTPA, we actually decided just a month ago, we're not going to continue with the edTPA, but were we to continue I have already been in conversation with our administration to say we need extra load credit. I've been trying to work this into my margins and kind of support it to get it started but for it to really flourish, were we to continue, it needs load credit.

Equally, they felt such time spent could be better used:

> The amount of time required to really turn out a top notch edTPA… we had full day seminars all throughout student teaching... every other Friday we gave them a day off of student teaching to work on their edTPA's. We were there as faculty to help support them. So then the main question was for that amount of extra time we put in… which was way more than they have ever before… and they actually focused on student learning and student teaching day to day... rather than just in that small learning segment? That tripped it for everyone. They said, it's not that we don't see value in the assessment but when better scores aren't coming back in, we can't justify the time put in.

Indeed, such timing issues eventually caused all three TPPs to withdraw.

Taken together, where timing did not become an issue, TPPs continued to implement the assessment system.

Existing organizational resources: Capacity "rich" and capacity "poor"

Unlike Illinois, my case TPPs in Iowa did not discuss their capacities to implement edTPA. I contend such findings are reflective of Iowa's voluntary policy design. Whereas Illinois required all TPPs adopt edTPA (regardless of their capacities), Iowa TPPs had a choice. Those who choose to adopt edTPA became active users, putting the necessary resources towards its implementation (i.e. capacity rich). Meanwhile, those who did not either actively resisted and withdrew, or never adopted edTPA in the first place (i.e. capacity poor). How Iowa TPPs made sense of edTPA was therefore largely pragmatic. I now discuss organizational structures and cultural practices.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices

Although physical resources generally predict an organization's overall capacities to meet policy, they cannot examine their "will" to do so. In this section, I will trace how organizational: a) leadership; b) coupling; c) routines; and d) social networks influenced Iowa TPPs' approach, either adopting, withdrawing, or rejecting the assessment system.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Leadership

In many ways, leadership becomes the lynchpin of policy implementation. Concerning edTPA in Iowa, I found top-level leadership was particularly influential as to whether a TPP adopted, withdrew, or rejected edTPA. I will explain each response in turn below.

First, I found those TPPs adopting edTPA had associate deans who supported the assessment's assimilation as part of their organizational mission. At both Roosevelt and Jefferson, these administrators became catalysts for how their respective TPPs approached edTPA (i.e. inquiry-based). For example, Roosevelt's associate dean knew substantial resources would need to be provided:

> I knew we needed this professional development and also that we'd needed to allocate budget for that and I also knew that we needed to have faculty members who really were responsible preparing candidates during the edTPA process. But that's a commitment [i.e. organizational mission] to resourcing for it.

They also saw value in the performance-based component:

> We were interested in a performance-based assessment and really I would say that was driving this for our program.... the reality that [edTPA's] nationally normed and it's externally scored. So it's not just that someone at the university thinks they're amazing or someone is out to get them, it's going to be externally scored and I think it really has helped us and we're still learning… It's hitting the ground running but it's hitting the ground running thinking about planning, instruction, and assessment. And if that's what our candidates are going out there hyper-focused on... that's not really a bad thing. They're giving thought to planning for instruction. They're giving thought to their instruction and to assessment.

In the process, I found other faculty and staff made sense of edTPA positively, illustrating an inquiry-based lens.

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Second, I found those TPPs withdrawing from edTPA lacked commitment from top-level administrators. Accordingly, these TPPs did not have the necessary support such an embedded assessment system required. This was particularly present at Adams, where administrative attrition and buy-in were challenging. One Adams faculty members' accounting is demonstrative:

> When you have leadership that's kind of shifting and then coming back in and then the next year you've got a different leader, that makes an impact… I don't ever really remember a dean standing at like a big faculty meeting saying rah-rah edTPA or boo... edTPA. And I think ultimately it still goes back to that lack of [organizational mission] and the leadership to start it, you know? Having that solid core group that could shepherd it through, that was dedicated to doing that. I think that that might have been one of the ultimate's, too, that did away with it.

Whereas inquiry-based TPPs had administrators shepherding edTPA implementation, Adams only had a few individuals from outside teacher education promoting edTPA. In promoting its overall value, this became problematic, as another faculty member discussed:

> The people running it... [person] and [person] were not connected to all parts of teacher education… That wasn't really their thing… and I think they sort of felt like if we tell people we're doing it then it's going to happen and it didn't. We have 180 people in teacher education and you have to reach out to all of them... show them why it's useful... help them see how to put it into their levels and I don't think they invested enough in that.

Sensemaking thus became uncoordinated, reducing their institutional support over time.

Third, I found those TPPs who initially rejected edTPA had administrators who did not support edTPA. These TPPs accordingly exercised their local control to adopt a different nationally normed test, as Johnson demonstrated.

In sum, leadership helped influence whether a TPP adopted, withdrew, or rejected edTPA and what approach they used. Those Iowa TPPs who adopted edTPA tended to have the support of administrators. These administrators were, in part, responsible for their inquiry-based approach. Conversely, those who withdrew or rejected edTPA tended to have no support from

administrators. Either these individuals did not see the value (e.g. Adams), or made a pragmatic decision (e,g. Johnson) to adopt a different nationally normed assessment (i.e. exercise local control).

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Coupling

As discussed, education organizations generally operate in one of two ways: 1) loosely-coupled, and 2) tightly-coupled. Across my Iowa cases, their degree of coupling was related to two factors: a) size and b) social networks. Both of these factors helped predict a TPP's approach and subsequent responses to edTPA. First, tightly-coupled TPPs adopted edTPA and approached the assessment as a form of inquiry. Second, loosely-coupled TPPs either withdrew or rejected edTPA, approaching the assessment via increased local control. However, this relationship cannot be validated absolutely. Therefore, I will illustrate the extent to which size and social networks may have influenced their adoption and approach.

Comparable to Illinois, I found a small TPP was more likely to tightly-couple given their proximal social networks. For example, Madison was a small, private TPP. This naturally afforded open social networks essential for edTPA sensemaking and implementation. One faculty member's accounting is illustrative:

> We have a lot of discussions as a [TPP] about how we function and that we function as a group… You know even if we aren't all involved in [edTPA]... we help each other know what it is that's going on… We're a small enough [TPP]… and so we just take that collaboration and the cohesiveness very seriously because we want our program to be successful and because… we've got masters level programs for people who are already licensed and come back… we've got our initial licensure for undergrads… we've got counseling… we've got ed. leadership. Some of those are beyond my own department but all within our School of Ed. And so it just... I think part of it is the individuals... but part of it is the group dynamic and the way we've tried to make [edTPA implementation] work.

In contrast, a large TPP could tightly-couple if top-level and mid-level leadership helped connect isolated networks. For instance, Roosevelt had an associate dean who marshaled both the fiscal

and human resources needed to successfully implement edTPA (i.e. organizational mission). In the process, despite being a large, public university, they approached edTPA as a form of inquiry.

When a large TPP did not tightly-couple, however, they were more likely to withdraw from edTPA, as evidenced by Adams. Adams is one of the largest TPPs in the state; they have over 300 faculty/staff and graduate almost 500 new teachers each year. But without "a core group to shepherd [edTPA] through," sensemaking across the TPP was uneven, ultimately contributing to its withdrawal.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Organizational routines

Because Iowa adopted a voluntary policy design, individual TPPs not only had choice of what nationally normed assessment they wanted students to take, but also how and when they would do so. Accordingly, if a TPP adopted edTPA, initial rollout became critical. I found Roosevelt and Adams best exemplified this organizational routine. I discuss each case in turn.

For Roosevelt, the decision to a adopt edTPA was both collective and pragmatic. While the associate dean wanted a performance-based assessment, "the faculty decided that edTPA was the best route to go." From there, the TPP aggressively moved forward, initially piloting and ramping up implementation across each individual program. This quick rollout was due their student population needs, as one faculty member said:

> We just moved forward with it much more quickly then all the other teacher prep programs who are using edTPA or shifting towards edTPA… because of our student population. We just had to. We knew we weren't going to continue to get those students if we didn't make an immediate change.

In order to address this quick rollout, sustained professional development and management were provided by the two edTPA Coordinators. As a result, Roosevelt has not only continued to adopt edTPA but has responded with an inquiry-based approach.

On the other hand, Adams' initial rollout transpired much the opposite. For example, the decision to adopt edTPA was not collective. According to one faculty member:

> The way the edTPA came to us was not because we went out looking for it. Basically the state had a Title II Teacher Quality Grant [TQP] and [faculty member] said, "Hey, how about the edTPA?" So that's actually where it came from. So then [faculty member] and [faculty member] came back to push the edTPA on us and I use that word, you know? I use that word meaningfully. I mean, yes, they kept using the language of "we'll pilot it and see if we want to do it," but what they really meant was after we get used to it, then we'll do the edTPA because, of course, it's our thing... so we want it to happen and we think it's really good... even though we have no objective reason for thinking so.

Much like the coercive conditions under which Jefferson adopted edTPA, Adams did not include stakeholders in their decision to adopt the assessment system. Additionally, during the pilot phase, there was "not a cohesive integrated plan within the program so that when they hit edTPA... they knew what they had to do... they understood." Taken together, after several years of piloting edTPA, the senate committee ultimately voted to withdraw from edTPA.

In sum, how my Iowa TPPs organizationally dealt with initial rollout was a key predictor of their approach and subsequent response. Those TPPs who collectively involved faculty/staff from the start as part of their organizational mission tended to produce a more cohesive plan for embedding the assessment across programs. Conversely, those TPPs who favored a top-down approach did not instill proper sensemaking towards its implementation. Collectively defining "how" and "when" thus became essential.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Social networks

Like Illinois, I found organizational coupling and routines were related to the social networks my Iowa TPPs operated within. Under a voluntary policy design, however, these networks were further related to a TPP's overall decision to continue adopting edTPA. Inquiry-based TPPs like Roosevelt and Madison had open social networks, helping them actively use edTPA. Meanwhile, TPPs exercising local control like Adams had closed social networks,

causing them to actively resist and withdraw. Towards these ends, two factors became paramount: 1) the dominant coalitions, and 2) whether brokers existed. I first discuss the relation between organizational coupling/routines, followed by dominant coalitions and brokers.

While tighter-coupling had a mixed relationship concerning whether a TPP continued adopting edTPA, organizational routines were predictive. Routines like initial rollout, by design, helped Roosevelt and Madison foster more open and collaborative social networks. In turn, such collaboration was indicative of open social networks. For example, at Madison:

> A lot of us have participated in those various initiatives where we're talking about the rubrics... we're talking about the tasks... we're trying to kind of unpack... you know, what's expected of teachers and think about... okay, wait a second... if they have to do this during student teaching... what do we need to be asking them to do prior to student teaching... how do we need to build this into our assignments in our classes?

At the same time, I found TPPs who were loosely-coupled and lacked initial rollout routines withdrew from edTPA (e.g. Adams). According to one Adams faculty member: "We still have silos and we have people that say to you... "well, my stuff is more important than yours," you know?" Because their teaching programs largely functioned independently and there was no edTPA Coordinator to bridge across these social networks, edTPA sensemaking thus became closed. Such division invariably caused their withdrawal.

Jointly, these responses to edTPA were reflective of coalitions and brokers. First, coalitions helped guide what information and beliefs (i.e. values) were transferred within TPPs. For those TPPs who adopted, the dominant coalition exhibited an inquiry-based approach. Most individuals I spoke with saw value in continuing to adopt edTPA, as evidenced by this Madison faculty member:

> For the most part it has been positively received by the teaching and learning department, and I work most closely with mathematic science and music-ed... English language arts at the secondary level. Less so with foreign language, and social studies probably are the ones that I don't work quite as closely with... but they aren't opposed to it.

For those TPPs who withdrew, however, numerous sub-coalitions actively resisted. Such resistance was particularly related to privatization (i.e. Pearson) and social justice, as illustrated by one Adams faculty member:

> edTPA was too divisive for the faculty and it's hard work for people who bring an edTPA advocacy position when others in their institution are creating another argument that they just can't fight [i.e. privatization]... especially if they're tying it to social justice and equity. So you had people that really wanted it. Some people that really didn't want it, and then a lot of resistant people.

In contrast, brokers became another important factor. Across my two case TPPs that continued to implement edTPA, edTPA Coordinators served a critical brokering role for administrators, faculty, staff, and students. Discussing these circumstances, one Madison administrator said:

> [Coordinator] has definitely played a critical role... if an institution doesn't have somebody like [them], it's just not going to happen. Like it really takes dedicated leadership and somebody to serve as a mentor to faculty... who can then mentor students through the [implementation] process.

Similar to Illinois, these individuals exhibited four performative functions: 1) conducting professional development; 2) creating tools; 3) fostering new, collaborative relationships; and 4) bridging policy misconceptions and resistance. In the process, their role has helped make sense of edTPA across Iowa TPPs, as Madison's Coordinator pointed out:

> So specifically my work at [Madison] has been to help our administration understand it... my colleagues in the teaching and learning department understand it... colleagues in arts and sciences that work with our secondary educators understand it… and then, of course, to help the students understand it...

When this role was not defined, TPPs struggled to implement edTPA across multiple social networks. Equally, those who never adopted edTPA lacked this role and its associated brokering functions.

In sum, my case TPPs showed the extent to which social networks appeared to be open was an indicator of their willingness to continue adopting edTPA; they approached the assessment as a form of inquiry, not compliance. Yet when social networks remained closed, as evidenced by Adams, sensemaking across networks became uncoordinated. This was due to sub-coalitions forming and professing opposite views (i.e. behaviors/values), as well as the lack of a defined edTPA Coordinator to broker such resistance.

Existing organizational structures and cultural practices: Institutional compatibility

I found organizational coupling, routines, and social networks helped predict how Iowa TPPs make sense of and approach edTPA. However, these factors were part of a larger concept mentioned in my framework— institutional compatibility. Found indicatively, I defined institutional compatibility as the extent to which edTPA aligned to their organizational and cultural make up. Together, these factors helped predict whether a TPP would continue adopting, withdraw, or reject edTPA. I explain this relationship below using some of my cases.

As discussed, Iowa TPPs made a choice; they committed to edTPA or opted to go a different direction. Yet these decisions were further related to their organizational make up. In particular, their prior structures and program design were important. For example, Roosevelt had what one faculty member called a "boutique style" program. Despite being a large, public university, they only graduate about 125 teachers each semester. In turn, they had a tightly-coupled organization; social networking across administrators, faculty, and staff were quite open. Further, they already had a program curriculum reasonably aligned to edTPA, except for academic language. Adopting and implementing edTPA consequently did not require an extensive shift in design/behavior:

> Right now, it's kind of worked for us. I think [edTPA's] pretty compatible. I think for the most part we were doing all of this already. I think the one thing that was a big jump for

everybody is the different language that's used. So the way that we talked about lesson planning here in the various program areas is now different... now that everybody is using and doing the edTPA. So finding that common language and talking about academic language and the other elements from the other rubrics, etcetera…

In contrast, my alternative case cited curriculum design as a key reason for not adopting edTPA and going with PPAT. As one staff member said:

From a strict assessment perspective... looking at the [edTPA]... I thought, okay, it's fine... there's nothing sending up red flags here for me at a certain level but then when I thought about compatibility with our program... that's when I started to see advantages and disadvantages. So context of implementation makes a difference. It really... it made... it drove that decision.

For Johnson, PPAT was a more appropriate choice because it was "so much more adaptable to a diverse range of settings and diverse range of teaching domains."

Equally, the decision whether or not to adopt edTPA was indicative of their cultural make up. This became more of a pragmatic decision, though, on two fronts: 1) the number of Illinois students, and 2) completion rate. First, as mentioned, Roosevelt and Madison both had many students coming from Illinois who went back to teach there. So while their programs may have been organizationally compatible, their student enrollment also provided a pragmatic rationale. As one Roosevelt faculty member said:

We have, at times, almost a third of our students coming from Illinois and indicate to us that they want to go back to Illinois to teach. So when thinking about that and thinking about what those students need… and that's a lot of money for us because think about it... those are out of state students. Those students are paying out-of-state tuition. When thinking about that and developing our teacher education program and what a large group with our Illinois students... what they need in order to go back and teach in the state of Illinois and a lot of them do go back and teach in Illinois. Then we have to be very careful about how we craft our program and when Illinois passed this mandatory edTPA re-licensure requirement... that meant we had to do some major hustle on our part.

Second, given the choice, completion rate played a role as to whether a TPP would continue adopting edTPA. As one Adams faculty member said:

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When it came to the fact that this was the score on this assessment would be used to determine recommendation... determine if somebody is a program completer.... which means that you can or cannot recommend them for licensure, that's when they decided that the match might not be strong enough for them to move forward with it being that level of high-stakes.

Indeed, completion rates reflect a TPP's external legitimacy. Recognizing this, Adams felt the Praxis II produced higher passage rates and subsequently withdrew from edTPA.

Overall, organizational and cultural make up helped assess a TPP's compatibility with edTPA. Those exhibiting the proper coupling, design, and student body were more likely to adopt edTPA. Alternatively, those exhibiting improper coupling, design, and competition rate were more likely to withdraw or reject edTPA. In both cases, compatibility was a byproduct of sensemaking.

End-line policy users

In answering my second research question, Iowa TPPs showed both policy design and micro-organizational factors influenced their sensemaking. In this section, I now trace how such sensemaking influenced students taking edTPA, and what were the related factors. Towards these ends, I will only be highlighting research from my cases that either continued adopting (i.e. Roosevelt and Madison) or withdrew from edTPA (i.e. Adams). I first will discuss how my cases broadly prepared students, what challenges existed, and whether an inquiry-based approach or exercising local control was reflective of their responses. Second, I will discuss how students made sense of edTPA, and whether faculty/staff sensegiving played a role in their responses. Third, I discuss student outcomes, and whether the overall approach a TPP exhibited influenced their pass rates.

End-line policy users: TPP preparation

Unlike Illinois, Iowa TPPs who voluntarily adopted edTPA prepared students in very similar ways. Across all my cases, TPPs appeared very proactive, embedding the assessment within their respective programs. This was irrespective of whether a TPP continued to adopt or withdrew from edTPA. Two different preparation elements were found. On one hand, Iowa TPPs conducted edTPA-related workshops and course-embedded projects prior to their student teacher semester. These preparation activities were best reflected by Madison; one staff member shared:

> So we've built in some workshops… and our goal with that is to completely make them feel comfortable and familiar with the constructs, the architecture, the language and the expectations of the edTPA. So when their student teaching semester comes the next semester they know what it is.

On the other hand, Iowa TPPs included preparation activities during student teaching. Because students complete edTPA about half way through their student teaching, I found early lessons largely focused on completing certain assessment tasks. One Roosevelt administrator's accounting is revealing: "We have incorporated into our student teaching seminar... elements of this first 8 week calendar of what's due when and assignments that help student prepare to write certain tasks." Indeed, such activities reflected a compliance-based approach found in Illinois; preparation became very prescriptive on how to pass edTPA rather than the developmental affordances of edTPA. So while some TPP faculty/staff actively used edTPA, this did not necessarily translate into more rigorous student preparation activities across Iowa. I next discuss student challenges.

End-line policy users: Student challenges

Because Iowa TPPs approached student preparation in similar ways, I found student challenges were similar as well. This was once again irrespective of whether a TPP continued to adopt or withdrew from edTPA. Further, these challenges were reflective of some of those

students cited in Illinois: 1) video/technology, and 2) anxiety/stress. Roosevelt's students best demonstrate both challenges. Discussing video/technology challenges, one student shared:

> [edTPA] sucks. The process of completing it is fine. We have to do lesson plans all the time, not a big deal. But… like in order to submit it you have to go through one party and then that's not it because you still have to go through another party, but then you have to check to make sure that everything is submitted in a certain way and in a certain order and everything is a certain amount of things and certain amount of pages and at a certain point you just... even if you have everything perfectly done like completely and everything ordered, at a certain point you're like, if I miss one of these steps, I could fail. And even if you have everything planned out perfectly and everything's done in the right order, it seems like there's very little that it will take [Pearson] to take off points.

Discussing anxiety/stress challenges, another student said:

> I think it's nice to have a performance-based test... but it's just kind of overwhelming and… I just feel very anxious because I feel like I'm doing well teaching in the classroom and I know that these three lessons are all they'll see and if they don't think that I'm meeting their rubrics to where they need to be... that just stresses me out... honestly and I don't want to have to redo this because then I'm thinking... I'm going to have more responsibilities in the classroom at this point and I'm going to have to retype 10 pages or 30 pages total.

It is important to note that while challenges were similar across all my Iowa cases using edTPA, their severity appears to be stronger for those who did ultimately withdraw (e.g. Adams). Such differences in severity were also found between Illinois TPPs who demonstrated compliance- vs. inquiry-based approaches. Toward these ends, Adams' aforementioned limited capacities and will may have played a role.

End-line policy users: Student sensemaking

Whereas preparation and challenges across Iowa TPPs using edTPA were quite similar, student sensemaking was somewhat diverse. According to interviews and focus groups, student sensemaking was related to: 1) faculty/staff sensemaking; 2) their TPP's subsequent approach; and 3) whether they continued to adopt edTPA. At institutions like Roosevelt and Madison where faculty/staff largely made sense of edTPA via an inquiry-based approach, I found students

saw both positives and negatives in taking edTPA. However, at institutions like Adams (and other external cases) where faculty/staff made sense of edTPA as problematic, I found students largely focused on the negatives in taking edTPA; these TPPs ultimately withdrew over time. I discuss such differences in student sensemaking below.

Roosevelt and Madison both adopted edTPA and actively used it as a form of inquiry. Interviews showed TPP faculty and staff proactively took steps to prepare students. In the process, students saw the positives of taking edTPA. As one Roosevelt student shared: "I think it's nice to have an application based test... I mean, it's rigorous… it's time consuming... but not nearly as bad as I thought it would be... just because [Roosevelt] figured out how to prepare us and do it step-by-step." On the other hand, they also saw some negatives in taking edTPA. In particular, its time consuming nature during student teaching became the key issue discussed, as another student pointed out:

> The edTPA, I think, you know, having a practice based assessment is a good idea... but I don't think it's done very well to work with a student teaching schedule and the demands of doing the student teaching... that's already required by the university and required by the state. So mostly... my comments are negative about edTPA... cause I just don't think it's done very well with student teaching.

Although students from TPPs who approached the assessment as a form of inquiry pointed out issues during student teaching, overall, they still saw some value in taking edTPA. Accordingly, this reinforced both TPPs' decision to continue adopting edTPA, as one faculty member discussed:

> I think it changes student teaching. I don't necessarily think it takes away from it. I think it changes it. It makes it something that... it makes it harder... it forces students to do a much better job with time management, but I also think it's more realistic in terms of really what... how demanding you know this practice is. You don't just go home and put your feet up at night and sleep all night. Like you actually have to go home and work. And you're going to have to go home and work on this assessment in the evening, too. And so I think it's... it's just more realistic… So this is a game changer and this could actually make us a lot better.

In contrast, Adams (including several other external cases) withdrew from edTPA after initial adoption (i.e. exercising a local control approach). Their withdrawal was related to resistant sensemaking exhibited by faculty/staff. Equally, I also found such sensemaking was reflective of students. While I cannot validate whether faculty, staff, and student sensemaking are empirically connected, I can infer that their decision to withdraw was, in part, due to the negative student reactions when taking edTPA. For instance, one of my external cases best captured this finding; in discussing how students felt taking edTPA, one faculty member said they were:

> Very negative. I would say 85 percent is probably a fair estimate... 85 percent of the graduates negative. Too much time... too limiting... I really couldn't focus on... I felt like I couldn't focus on so much of my student teaching because I felt like it was edTPA-edTPA-edTPA... that's all I could focus on. Now we had a few students... probably 1 or 2 each year who wrote in their course evaluation... edTPA was fantastic for me... don't ever get rid of it... but definitely the minority. The overwhelming number, very negative.

Indeed, these responses were echoed by students at Adams, as one faculty member shared: "I kept hearing again and again from our students that [edTPA] was such an intensive activity in student teaching... that it really reduced what they could actually do on student teaching. That seemed to me... highly problematic."

In both cases, the institutions decided withdraw from edTPA and use Praxis II. This decision was pragmatic rather than inquiry-based, as another Adams faculty member said:

> You know, we've gone with the Praxis and we continue to have really good numbers with it and what's interesting is [Adams] doesn't have a whole lot of faith in the Praxis. We don't think that it's a great assessment but we can focus more on evaluating the student teaching in house. So it's not like we picked the Praxis because it's a better product... you know what I mean? Like, make no mistake, we don't love the Praxis around here, but it's functional.

Notwithstanding, I found it important to note that no students discussed the state's edTPA policy itself. Across all my cases, their sensemaking was strictly about its local implementation. This is in stark in contrast to Illinois, where students overwhelmingly disliked its coercive nature—

whether their institution exhibited an inquiry- or compliance-based approach. Likely, this finding is reflective of Iowa's voluntarily policy design. Sensemaking thus became more contextualized. Those TPPs who actively used edTPA took steps to proactively prepare students. As a result, most felt reasonably prepared to complete the assessment despite some challenges with technology and student teaching. Conversely, those TPPs who withdrew could not overcome active resistance by faculty/staff and the subsequent negative responses students illustrated.

End-line policy users: Student outcomes

Similar to Illinois, student pass rates across my cases using edTPA were marginally different. However, there was a difference between those continuing to adopt and those who withdrew. Further, when comparing edTPA pass rates to those of Illinois, they are markedly less. Using my cases, I describe these two findings and briefly why they might be the case.

First, I found those who actively used edTPA showed slightly better pass rates than those who withdrew. Both Madison and Roosevelt had pass rates around 90% – above the state average of 85%. Yet Adams' pass rates were around 80%. Given their Praxis II scores were 98% prior to adopting edTPA, the decision to exercise local control made sense.

Though I cannot empirically explain these findings, how Roosevelt and Madison approached edTPA perhaps provides some clues. Indeed, these institutions took an inquiry-based approach. They wanted to implement a performance-based assessment like edTPA as part of their organizational mission. In turn, they became active users, likely contributing to the boost in student pass rates. Conversely, Adams adopted edTPA because a sub-coalition supported its use. Many thus felt edTPA was "pushed on them." creating divisive sensemaking. So while Adams did voluntarily implement edTPA, preparing students towards such ends, fidelity never took shape. Students subsequently passed at slightly lower rates than Roosevelt and Madison.

Second, whereas some differences were found in pass rates across my Iowa TPPs, these were markedly less than Illinois TPPs (approximately 8-10%). I contend these divergent findings are related to the policy designs both states adopted. Because edTPA became high-stakes for all students in Illinois, programs willingly or unwillingly invested time and money to meet its demands. Alternatively, because edTPA became voluntary in Iowa, only TPPs who wanted to actively use edTPA did so. In this case, edTPA became a graduation requirement for students, not a licensure requirement. Therefore, I found Iowa TPPs to be somewhat less engaged with edTPA than Illinois TPPs, which could account for the 10% difference.

Alternatively, other reasons include the fact that Iowa TPPs have not been implementing edTPA as long Illinois TPPs, nor was there a "ramp up" period. The passing score has always been 41, whereas in Illinois it started at 35, now is 37, and will be 41 in fall 2019. As a result, these conclusions cannot be made until the 2019-2020 academic year, when both Iowa and Illinois TPPs have the same passing score.

Iowa summary

In sum, all the factors discussed in my framework did influence local TPP sensemaking in Iowa. At the same time, I found they were not necessarily a symptom of a given approach and subsequent response. Stated differently, Iowa TPPs appeared to choose the most pragmatic assessment and adjust their capacities and will accordingly. In this way, Iowa's policy design functions much differently than Illinois'. Those that want to actively use edTPA have continued using the assessment. Conversely, those who have actively resisted have either withdrawn from or never adopted edTPA. These decisions are based on their unique context, thereby keeping local resistance to a minimum.

Concluding thoughts of chapter

Overall, my case states and embedded TPPs helped answer all three of my research questions. I explain them below in turn.

First, states have adopted two different policy designs. On one hand, Illinois has adopted a coercive policy, mandating edTPA implementation across TPPs. I found this has spurred two different approaches— inquiry-based and compliance-based. On the other hand, Iowa has adopted a voluntary policy, giving TPPs the option to choose which nationally normed assessment they implement. I found this has similarly spurred two different approaches— inquiry-based and local control.

Second, I found many micro-organizational factors related to faculty/staff sensemaking of edTPA. These included fiscal; human; time; leadership; coupling; routines; social networks; and institutional compatibility. However, I also found several idiosyncratic factors, including mid-level leaders (i.e. edTPA Coordinators) and institutional identity (e.g. their overall mission). Together, these factors influenced how administrators, faculty, and staff across my cases responded to edTPA. Three responses were found: active resistance, cosmetic compliance, and active use.

Third, I found policy design and faculty/staff sensemaking played a role in how their students made sense of edTPA. Equally, I found a loose connection to corresponding pass rates. Those students taking edTPA under a coercive policy design at an inquiry-based TPP performed best (though, not significantly better). Meanwhile, students taking edTPA under a voluntary policy at a TPP who withdrew performed the worst. The margin of difference was about 20%. This could be due to Iowa setting the cut score at 41 (not 39 like Illinois), however. In the next section, I will discuss which elements influenced edTPA sensemaking and implementation the most.

In this chapter, I will discuss how my findings reflect both the history of teacher education and my conceptual framework. First, I will demonstrate how policy designs and micro-organizational factors influenced the sensemaking and subsequent implementation of edTPA across my case states and embedded TPPs. Second, I will explain how edTPA reflects policy implementation generally, and what matters most towards fidelity. Third, I will detail how my findings provided a unique window into six different dilemmas in policy implementation and teacher education we knew less about: 1) the influence of coercive policy designs on voluntary policy designs; 2) the policy paradox between alternative/traditional TPP pathways; 3) the importance of mid-level leadership; 4) the existing schisms within teacher professionalization; 5) the relationship between policy fidelity and policy outcomes; and 6) the relationship between policy sensegiving and subsequent policy sensemaking. Fourth, I will trace the extent to which edTPA reflects the current policy landscape of American teacher education. Finally, I will offer several concluding thoughts about edTPA implementation, as well as some broad policy recommendations.

How policy design and micro-organizational factors influenced edTPA

Utilizing a multiple embedded case study, I aimed to examine how policy designs and micro-organizational factors influenced TPP sensemaking and subsequent implementation of edTPA. Mirroring my conceptual framework, my findings show both elements were influential. However, I found micro-organizational variables played the largest role, particularly institutional capacities and compatibility. Using my case states and embedded TPPs, I will therefore trace this complicated nexus. I will first discuss how policy design influenced this process, followed by micro-organizational factors.

Policy design. As discussed, states have adopted edTPA using one of two policy designs— coercive or voluntary. One of my case states, Illinois, has adopted a coercive design whereas the other, Iowa, has adopted a voluntary design. These differences are afforded by a federalist education system and how states have sought to legislate accountably policies associated with edTPA. That said, I find both policy designs produce promises and pitfalls towards edTPA, which is somewhat contradictory of the literature used in my conceptual framework (e.g. Berman, 1986, Elmore, 1979, Firestone, 1989). I will first explain Illinois' coercive policy, followed Iowa's voluntary policy.

Illinois. Because coercive policies force compliance, local actors must implement them. However, I find this has resulted in diverse sensemaking and policy implementation across Illinois TPPs. On one hand, many (i.e. Lincoln, Ford, and Hamilton) actively use edTPA. Perceiving its benefits to the profession, they have made sense of the policy tool as a form of inquiry and provided extensive resources towards its implementation. This was surprising given Firestone (1989) would argue mandating a policy limits such use. On the other hand, one of my TPPs (i.e. Jefferson) made sense of edTPA as a compliance-based policy tool. This was more reflective of my conceptual framework, leading to cosmetic compliance and active resistance. Accordingly, coercive policy designs may force compliance, but similarly risk their intent being subverted when the policy is not supported locally. I explain this dilemma in practice below.

As Berman (1986) states, coercive policy designs create a local tension between compliance and spirit. When mandating implementation, street-level bureaucrats make sense of policies and their associated tools differently (Lipsky, 1980). Some will see the benefit, actively engaging in its implementation. Others, however, will not, resisting its implementation and distorting its intent. Concerning the edTPA, I found these differences were tied to the local

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contexts within which they operated— particularly their institutional capacities and compatibility (see next section for more details).

Notwithstanding, mandating edTPA's implementation has its promise. According to interviewees, two important benefits arose. First, several said a "common bar" was set. By holding TPPs to the same standard, this provided external legitimacy— something the field has long struggled to attain (Hutt et al., 2018). Second, many said important changes took place, including program reflectivity, collaborative inquiry, and continuous improvement. So while pitfalls exist, coercive policies and their associated tools do provide some promise.

Iowa. Research would suggest a voluntary policy design is better than a coercive policy design (Berman, 1986). Broadly, I find this to be the case for edTPA in Iowa. Whereas the assessment's adoption became a state matter in Illinois, here it became an institutional matter; those TPPs who wanted to adopt edTPA did so, becoming active users. Meanwhile, those TPPs who did not want to—either initially or later on—simply adopted a different assessment (i.e. PPAT or Praxis II). In doing so, active resistance was limited across the state while similarly supporting active use.

However, much like coercive policies, voluntary policies are not without their pitfalls. I found two different pitfalls concerning edTPA. First, because Iowa allowed TPPs to adopt one of three nationally normed assessments (i.e. edTPA, Praxis II, or PPAT), programs had what one Iowa faculty member called different "yardsticks." As a result, comparing TPP quality across the state has become difficult to ascertain. Second, whereas Illinois' mandate provided some standardization (i.e. forcing common bar), Iowa's policy is doing much the opposite. Currently, only five TPPs have initially adopted and continue to implement edTPA. In this way, the associated policy has reduced the extent to which edTPA has been chosen statewide. According

to several interviewees, this is likely because PPAT and Praxis II are more institutionally compatible. Promoting local adoption under such designs, therefore, can be difficult when more pragmatic alternatives exist.

Taken together, both policy designs have their advantages and their disadvantages. Coercive policy designs provide a sense of standardization across local contexts but similarly can foster resistant sensemaking (as Jefferson demonstrated). Conversely, voluntary policy designs limit such resistance by providing some local support, but can also reduce how many actively adopt. A state's decision to use a coercive or voluntary policy design thus becomes a reflection of their intent. For Illinois, the state saw edTPA as a means to hold TPPs accountable via a standardized policy tool. For Iowa, though, the state simply wanted TPPs to adopt a nationally normed assessment. These differences point to the paradox between local and state control discussed in Chapter Two, specifically around how and what tools should be used to assess teaching quality and preparation. Please see the history section for more detail later in this chapter.

Micro-organizational factors. Although policy designs signal to TPPs how they should respond, the local-level is where the "rubber meets the road." Across case TPPs, I found micro-organizational factors to be a key determinant of their sensemaking and subsequent implementation. In particular, two different concepts contributed: 1) institutional capacity, and 2) institutional compatibility. While institutional capacity became more important for Illinois TPPs, institutional compatibility became more important for Iowa TPPs. Reflecting my conceptual framework, though, both influenced local buy-in or what McLaughlin (1987) calls "will." I explain these findings below in turn.

Institutional capacity. Echoing my conceptual framework, I discussed capacity "rich" and capacity "poor" organizations. Organizations with access to "rich" resources have a decided advantage when implementing policy, especially when that design is coercive. Of these resources, however, I found formal and informal leadership influenced edTPA sensemaking and implementation most. Echoing Spillane, Reiser, and Reimer (2002), leadership helped illustrate "whether, and in what ways, implementing agents came to understand their practice, potentially changing their beliefs and attitudes in the process" (p. 387). To help unpack, I first discuss formal leadership followed by informal leadership.

Across my embedded cases, formal leaders set the collective tone for edTPA adoption and implementation. This was particularly true under Illinois' coercive design. Because such designs force compliance, active resistance often exists locally (Berman, 1986). However, three of my TPPs (Lincoln, Hamilton, and Ford) had key administrators who helped mitigate such resistance, helping them collectively make sense of edTPA as a form of inquiry. Consequently, these formal leaders influenced how other implementing agents came to understand the policy tool, changing their behaviors/values in the process. Equally, they decided how much and what resources were available towards its implementation.

At the same time, I found informal leaders were an important element. Typically, these informal leaders existed as edTPA Coordinators. Under this role, many harnessed four different routines that influenced collectively sensemaking: 1) conducting professional development; 2) creating tools; 3) fostering new, collaborative relationships; and 4) bridging policy misconceptions and resistance. Unlike formal leaders who influenced sensemaking vertically, though, these Coordinators did so horizontally. This was because veteran faculty or staff

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generally occupied the role. In this way, local actors received policy messages from above and across the organization, shaping whether, and in what ways, they engaged with edTPA,

   Institutional compatibility. As discussed in Chapter Five, institutional compatibility was reflective of structural and cultural capital. While both were found to be important, cultural practices proved critical. Indeed, each case TPP had a certain culture. These cultures were an extension of their program's mission and values on teacher professionalization. When they aligned with the core tenets of edTPA, local actors largely exhibited active use. Conversely, when they did not, local actors largely exhibited active resistance or cosmetic compliance. This was particularly true under a voluntary policy design like Iowa. I explain these findings below.

   Because Iowa gave some latitude concerning which teaching assessment respective TPPs choose, each had a decision to make. They could either adopt edTPA, PPAT, Praxis II, or create their own. Across my case TPPs, however, I found the decision to adopt (and continue adopting) edTPA was both practical and philosophical. That is, their existing cultural behaviors/values were congruent with edTPA more than the alternatives. Meanwhile, those TPPs who withdrew or initially rejected edTPA had incongruent cultures. I use Adams and Johnson to briefly demonstrate below.

   Despite Adams being programmatically compatible with the assessment, many members did not philosophically agree with its use. Some said that Pearson's involvement exemplified the further privatization of American education. Others felt it consumed too much of their students' time, creating significant stress. Taken together, many faculty and staff actively resisted its implementation, ultimately leading to its withdrawal. On the other hand, Johnson's culture never aligned with edTPA, leading them to initially reject the assessment in favor of PPAT. Their decision was not for philosophical but practical reasons. As an alternative-route certification

program, Johnson had a unique student teaching curriculum. According to one faculty member, edTPA "forced almost all the tasks to be completed during the first session placement, [which] felt very rushed and very condensed" whereas PPAT "allowed for that flexibility of pacing," making it an pragmatic option for their existing behaviors.

In sum, a TPP's will to implement edTPA was a reflection of their institutional capacities and policy-program compatibility. Together, they influenced how actors individually and collectively (over time) made sense of, approached, and responded to edTPA. Those exhibiting the necessary capacities and cultural congruence actively used edTPA while those who did not actively resisted or cosmetically complied. As such, TPP sensemaking was not just a result of the policy design they operated under but also a confluence of existing micro-organizational factors.

How edTPA reflects policy implementation generally and what matters most

Channeling my constructivist grounded theory approach, I sought to not only understand edTPA's sensemaking and subsequent implementation, but also what broader lessons could be learned about policy implementation generally. Towards these ends, four such lessons were found: 1) nothing mattered more than local buy-in when predicting fidelity; 2) local buy-in is a reflection of a confluence of institutional and cultural variables; 3) an organization likely cannot exhibit high buy-in with low-capacities, or vise versa; and 4) an organization likely cannot exhibit high buy-in without a compatible culture, or visa versa. I briefly explain each of these lessons below in turn.

Local buy-in is essential. Certainly, policy design matters. As discussed in the previous section, however, policy design only helps signal how local actors should initially respond. Concerning the literature, this is somewhat contradictory. Research shows coercive policy designs encourage active resistance whereas voluntary policies encourage active use (Firestone,

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1989). But, my data show most case TPPs across Illinois and Iowa became active users, making sense of edTPA as a form of inquiry. Accordingly, I argue what happens on the ground is paramount to understanding policy in practice. In particular, I find institutional and cultural variances will determine an organization's overall buy-in as they make sense of policy, and therefore whether it can be implemented with fidelity. I illustrate this assertion below.

Local buy-in is a reflection of institutional and cultural variables. While it is impossible to delineate exactly the right formula of institutional and cultural variables needed to produce local buy-in, I can speak to a few that carry increased significance. In terms of institutional variables, resources like leadership and funding were key drivers of edTPA sensemaking. Those who had an abundance were afforded "rich" capacities and tended to collectively believe in edTPA's "goodness" for the profession. However, such resources are not by themselves sufficient for policy fidelity; cultural perceptions that aligned with edTPA (i.e. similar mission) also need to exist. Otherwise, they tended to collectively perceive its "badness" for the profession. Towards these ends, the more a policy requires a given culture to change its behavior/values, the more likely active resistance and cosmetic compliance will transpire (and thus implemented with less fidelity). These become coping mechanisms for street-level bureaucrats. Alternatively, the less a given policy requires a culture to change its behavior/values, the more likely active use will transpire (and thus implemented with more fidelity). Together, this helps explain why policy design could not outright predict local edTPA sensemaking, and why local buy-in reflects a confluence of institutional and cultural variables. I now discuss the link between buy-in and capacity, followed by buy-in and culture.

Link between buy-in and capacity. In looking at my eight embedded cases, I argue the link between buy-in and capacity is reflexive. That is, an organization will likely not have high

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buy-in for a policy if they have low-capacities towards such ends. Equally, they will likely not have low buy-in for a policy and high-capacities. This is not say buy-in is a result of organizational capacity; rather, if an organization believes in a policy, they will work to garner extensive resources toward it, thereby increasing their capacity (and thus fidelity). Conversely, if an organization does not believe in a policy, they will put significantly fewer resources toward it, thereby limiting their capacity (and thus fidelity).

Link between buy-in and culture. I similarly argue the link between buy-in and culture is reflexive. That is, an organization will likely not have high buy-in for a policy if they do not have cultural behaviors/values that are compatible. Equally, they will likely not have low buy-in for a policy and cultural behaviors/values that are incompatible. In this way, how a policy is perceived in part is due to whether local cultures identify with it or not. Those that do will foster an organizational mission toward its implementation whereas those that do not will resist (thereby promoting or constraining fidelity).

In sum, I find institutional and cultural variables help predict local buy-in. From there, buy-in helps to predict whether a policy will be met with fidelity. Those who believe in the policy likely have a compatible culture and will similarly put the necessary resources toward its implementation. Meanwhile, those who do not believe in the policy likely have an incompatible culture and will not provide sufficient resources towards its implementation.

Dilemmas in policy implementation and teacher education

Although most of my findings align with the extant literature on policy implementation, my dissertation has provided a unique window into several dilemmas we know less about: 1) the influence of coercive policy designs on voluntary policy designs; 2) the policy paradox between alternative/traditional TPP pathways; 3) the importance of mid-level leadership; 4) the existing

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schisms within teacher professionalization; 5) the relationship between policy fidelity and policy outcomes; and 6) the relationship between policy sensegiving and subsequent policy sensemaking. Using my findings, I will discuss each of these in turn.

Influence of coercive policy designs on voluntary policy designs. Because I selected states that were geographically proximal, the opportunity to see how both designs influence each other was afforded. In some embedded cases, data showed Illinois' coercive design superseded Iowa's voluntary design. Both Roosevelt and Madison attested to this dilemma because their student populations were partially comprised of students from Illinois (many of which returned there to teach). Accordingly, despite both TPPs having the institutional capacities and compatibility to properly implement edTPA, this decision was not entirely local; macro pressures and the need for tuition dollars played a further role.

Currently, 15 states mandate edTPA for licensure across the US— many of which border other states implementing a low-stakes design (AACTE, 2019). In this way, it is conceivable other TPPs are mandating by proxy. This will be important to watch as more states subscribe to coercive edTPA policy designs. For example, Texas is considering such a design.

The policy paradox between alternative/traditional TPP pathways. In Chapter Two, I highlighted a policy paradox between alternative and traditional TPP pathways. On one hand, alternative programs operate under a theory of deregulation. The assumption is such programs will be free to innovate. On the other hand, traditional programs operate under a theory of increased regulation. The assumption is such programs will be forced to improve. Despite this theoretical dilemma, under edTPA, it is hard to say whether such a policy paradox exists. According to my alternative cases (i.e. Ford and Johnson), these pathways can promote or constrain edTPA implementation/fidelity. I discuss these divergent findings below.

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In Illinois, Ford argued the alternative program's curriculum was actually better aligned than their equivalent traditional program. However, in Iowa, Johnson never adopted edTPA. Despite a similar teaching schedule, they felt their placements would be compromised. Consequently, alternative programs did not see eye-to-eye across states. As one Johnson faculty member attests, this may be a function of policy design. Unlike Iowa, Illinois has taken more steps to deregulate its alternative TPP pathways. Therefore, edTPA may have simply brought them closer to their traditional counterparts.

Taken together, while this is the first known study to examine alternative TPPs implementing edTPA, my findings cannot confirm or deny such a policy paradox exists. Indeed, more alterative cases will need to be studied.

The importance of mid-level leadership. Although we know much about how top-level administrators and street-level teachers respond to policies (e.g. Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Honig, 2006a; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1984; Sabatier, 1986; Spillane, 2000; Weatherly & Lipsky, 1977) and assessment reforms in particular (e.g. Au, 2007; Coburn & Stein, 2006; Finnigan, 2010; Firestone, Mayrowetz, & Fairman, 1998; Smith & Fey, 2000), a description of how mid-level leaders participate in that process generally precludes scholarly engagement (but see Honig, 2006b, 2012; Rosser, 2004; Spillane et al., 2002). My findings specifically addressed this gap. As discussed, edTPA Coordinators at each TPP functioned as mid-level leaders. Specifically, they became informal "boundary spanners," brokering policy sensemaking across organizational strata (Finnegan & Daly, 2012). This was done through four different routines. First, they coordinated professional development opportunities for faculty and staff— the goal being to make them feel comfortable and familiar with the constructs, the architecture, the language, and the expectations of edTPA. Second, they created tools— e.g. lesson plans, rubrics,

and other support materials. Third, they fostered new and collaborative relationships across programs. And fourth, they helped bridge policy misconceptions. In the process, these informal leaders and their performative functions became indispensible, illustrating their power in practice.

Broadly, these findings reflect the dilemma between leadership as a role and leadership as a set of functions (see Firestone, 1996). By decentering formal leaders, my dissertation provides a nuanced understanding of how leadership can be distributed amongst others as a means to implement policy.

The existing schisms within teacher professionalization. Indeed, individuals across my case TPPs actively resisted, cosmetically complied, or actively used edTPA (thereby promoting or constraining its fidelity). However, such divisive sensemaking is reflective of a much larger dilemma in teacher education— how best to prepare them. Since the turn of the nineteenth century, this has been a central topic of conversation. And over the decades, different policy solutions have been utilized. Hence, edTPA simply brings such enduring tensions to the contemporary landscape. On one hand, some teacher educators believe edTPA reflects good teaching. On the other hand, some believe edTPA reflects a version of teaching that is not congruent to their own beliefs. Concurrently, the assessment system has become both a professionalization and deprofessionalization tool. I explain below.

At its core, these divisions are at the heart of how best to measure "good" preparation. If one looks at the literature describing perspectives on edTPA, this schism is evident. Numerous scholars have criticized (e.g. Clayton, 2018; Dover et al., 2015; Gorlewski & Tuck, 2018; Greenblatt, 2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2019; Gurl et al., 2016; Henning et al., 2018a, 2018b) and praised edTPA (e.g. Adkins, 2016; Adkins et al., 2015; Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013;

Pecheone & Whittaker, 2016; Whittaker et al., 2018) for its use as a standard for entering the profession. So while edTPA may be better than previous multiple-choice measures (see Haertal 1991), its attachment to policy by many states and one-third of TPPs reflects a deeper paradox rooted in historical debate.

The relationship between policy fidelity and policy outcomes. Within the field of policy implementation, there is a long held assumption that fidelity is a determinant of outcomes (O'Donnell, 2008). That is, implementing a policy with fidelity will result in its intended outcomes. Yet my study provides a more nuanced picture as it relates to policy design. In Illinois, all four of my cases had near perfect pass rates (98-100%), whereas in Iowa, pass rates across cases were far lower (approx. 85%). From these data, mandated policies may determine outcomes more than fidelity itself. I explain below.

As discussed in the previous chapter, Lincoln became the archetype for how best to implement edTPA. Fostering an organizational mission, they had both the capacities and will to meet the mandate. Jefferson, however, did not. Still, they are within one percentage point of Lincoln's pass rate. Conversely, TPPs in Iowa are not performing as well. The highest pass rates were by Roosevelt (93%), who represented similar fidelity to Lincoln. In this way, as it relates to outcomes, policy design arguably trumps institutional fidelity. While local resistance may form, mandated designs may support intended outcomes better because organizations will somehow find a way. Note: as discussed in the prior chapter, this finding could be because Iowa maintains as 41 passing score whereas Illinois (until fall 2019) maintains a 39 passing score. Thus, once both states have the same passing score, I can corroborate or reject this claim.

Notwithstanding, it is important to question what defines intended outcomes. Concerning edTPA, state-level outcomes have been associated with student pass rates. However, its

developers envisioned edTPA as a continuous improvement tool for TPPs themselves. Subsequently, fidelity may better explain such processes, as local buy-in became more important. Taken together, more research is required to explain this dilemma in practice.

Policy sensegiving and subsequent policy sensemaking. While my study was more interested in how TPP administrators, faculty, and staff made sense of and implemented edTPA, focus groups did illustrate a connection between such processes and their influence on students. When TPP administrators, faculty, or staff actively resisted, students generally discussed a negative experience when completing edTPA. Conversely, when they actively used, students generally discussed a positive experience when completing edTPA. Accordingly, implementer sensegiving and subsequent sensemaking by end-line policy users is an important element when discussing fidelity of a given policy. Much like the prior dilemma, though, more research is needed to support such findings with confidence.

Extent to which edTPA reflects the current policy landscape of American teacher education and beyond

Throughout Chapter Two, I discussed two converging historical trends in teacher education: 1) utilizing policy tools to drive accountability and market-based designs (Hannaway & Woodroffe, 2003), and 2) a continued shift in governance over the profession, away from TPPs and towards federal and state jurisdiction. Regarding edTPA, I find these trends map on nicely. In the process, the policy tool amplifies an external and internal movement to both legitimize and professionalize teaching. Using my embedded cases, I briefly explain how these movements have played out under edTPA, followed by a forecast of the policy tool's future.

As discussed, edTPA's developers—SCALE—wanted to improve teaching quality by helping TPPs redesign their practices. Yet many states have since adopted the assessment (coercively and voluntarily) as an external policy tool. In turn, these pressures have changed the

discourse amongst TPPs as to how teachers ought to be prepared and by whom. On one hand, TPPs like Lincoln, Ford, Hamilton, Roosevelt, and Madison believe the assessment should be the standard by which teacher quality is judged. So whether the state had a coercive or voluntary policy is of no consequence. On the other hand, Jefferson, Adams, and Johnson do not support this standard. And while Adams and Johnson were able to choose another nationally normed assessment, Jefferson has had to continue implementing edTPA via mandate. In this way, I find the edTPA amplifies an external and internal struggle to both legitimize and professionalize teaching. For many TPPs, these struggles have been mitigated by their overwhelming support for the tool or a policy design that affords alternatives. In fact, Jefferson was the only case to not support edTPA but be required to do so. Towards these ends, I argue edTPA has more staying power than prior large-scale reforms aimed at legitimizing and professionalizing teaching. I explain below.

Currently, there are over 850 TPPs across 41 states supporting its implementation (either via mandate or voluntarily). From a historical perspective, edTPA should see a decline soon. Yet my embedded cases show that edTPA and its associated policies can coexist with multiple reforms, including alterative-route certification. Therefore, I argue edTPA has some staying power. I offer four possible reasons: First, unlike prior teaching assessment tools (from private companies like ETS), edTPA was created by a prestigious TPP— Stanford. Thus, its internal roots mitigate some of the privatization backlash many prior assessment tools have received. Second, edTPA was the brainchild of Linda Darling-Hammond, Ray Pecheone, and other notable Stanford education scholars. As such, the assessment has some external legitimacy. Third, edTPA is similar to National Board Certification. This is attractive for states and TPPs seeking to promote a more established discourse. Fourth, teacher candidates are passing this

assesment system at a much lower rate than other standardized tests like Praxis II (about 72%), providing the accountability policymakers have sought to instill.

Although only time will tell whether the policy tool sticks around, its meteoric rise over the past five years cannot be questioned. What started out as one state (i.e. Washington) requesting to use edTPA has blossomed into 18 states (AACTE, 2019) and one-third of all TPPs. And each year, this number has grown (AACTE, 2019). I find what makes edTPA different is its external and internal legitimacy; states like the Stanford name and its collective borrowing strength. Meanwhile, TPPs generally support many of the tasks edTPA requires. So while it has become an external accountability tool, many TPPs believe it represents and measures quality teaching, thereby minimizing the internal struggle and increasing its staying power.

Concluding thoughts of chapter and broad policy recommendations

In sum, there has arguably never been a single policy tool that has had more influence on teacher education than edTPA; over 165,000 students have taken the assessment as part of their graduation/licensure requirements. However, as one interviewee said, there are three dimensions to its success: "one's design, one's implementation, and one's the stakeholders and what they do with it." Across my cases, I find this to be true. First, policy design helped signal how TPPs should respond— either as a mandate or voluntary option. Second, TPP capacities and compatibility further helped explain how they approached edTPA, either as a form of inquiry or compliance. Third, how implementers each made sense of edTPA resulted in three different responses: active resistance, cosmetic compliance, and active use. This became the nexus of edTPA implementation and fidelity across states and TPPs.

As these findings relate to policy implementation generally, however, I have several brief recommendations:

No ideal policy design. Indeed, I find there is no ideal policy design, only those that create less resistance. When implementing a high-stakes policy design, some resistance is inevitable, particularly when institutional capacities and compatibility are incongruent (as Jefferson illustrated). Yet when implementing a low-stakes policy design, resistance is kept to a minimum at the expense of reducing local adoption. In this way, the extent to which the policy requires extensive behavior/value changes at the local-level should be the deciding factor between choosing a top-down or bottom-up approach.

Assess local behavior change/values. Although local organizations often have no control over what policy design they operate under, policymakers nevertheless need to assess the extent to which a given policy changes their behavior/values. If such behavior change is extensive, particularly concerning their cultural values, resistance is likely to take shape unless other capacities exist (e.g. leadership) or the policy design affords alternatives (i.e. withdrawing).

Resources matter. When policies like edTPA require funding to support their implementation/fidelity, local variation is inevitable. In other words, funding is akin to an institution's overall capacities to meet such policies. Policymakers, therefore, need to recognize these variations will impact both implementers and end-line policy users.

Infuse a mechanism for feedback during the implementation phase. One of the main reasons for active resistance is when implementers lack voice in the policies they are subject to. Accordingly, policymakers should allow for local feedback during the implementation phase. This will mitigate some of the resistance, while also promoting the policy's overall fidelity

Modeling matters. Concerning end-line policy users, local implementers must understand that their sensemaking and subsequent responses will influence those ultimately affected. In other words, how they model the policy has a profound impact on their user's experience.

Together, these recommendations reflect a need to consider policy at all levels of implementation, as issues can arise at any stage. Equally, they also reflect the complexities in making policy work across a myriad of conditions. Please see the last chapter discussing final remarks, future research, and the edTPA policy moving forward.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND NEXT STEPS

Using a multiple embedded case study, I aimed to examine how macro-policy designs coupled with micro-organizational factors influenced edTPA's implementation. Towards these ends, I will first summarize my findings. Second, I will offer some recommendations for implementing edTPA with fidelity. Third, I will discuss how the field perceives the future of edTPA and its associated policies. Fourth, I will offer some further areas of research for the scholarly community to consider.

Summary of findings

In tracing edTPA from its formative roots (i.e. state adopted policy designs), its processes (via observed TPP administrator/faculty/staff sensemaking), and its end-line policy users (i.e. teacher candidates), I presented a complex depiction of its implementation. These factors combined in various ways, altering the policy tool's fidelity/sensemaking across contexts— what I term "the good, the bad, and the ugly." Using my case states and TPPs, I will first explain how these variables altered edTPA's fidelity, followed by their perceived outcomes via sensemaking.

edTPA implementation and fidelity. As illustrated in my discussion chapter, edTPA sensemaking was influenced by adopted policy designs and micro-organizational variables. In the process, variances in policy implementation and fidelity were found across my cases. To help unpack this nexus, I will first demonstrate how they combined to produce "success," followed by "failure."

According to my embedded cases, successful edTPA implementation existed under either a coercive or voluntary state policy design. Under a coercive design like Illinois, most of my TPPs nevertheless became active users. While being contradictory to my conceptual framework (e.g. Berman, 1986), this was afforded by existing micro-organizational variables like

institutional capacities and compatibility. First, leadership and fiscal support provided the necessary capacities to meet the mandate. Second, their organizational missions and values reflected many of the tenets edTPA exemplified, reinforcing its compatibility.

Conversely, under a voluntary design like Iowa, several of my TPPs also became active users. This was reflective of my conceptual framework (Elmore, 1979). Those who similarly had the necessary institutional capacities and compatibility continued to adopt edTPA whereas those that did not either withdrew or never adopted. In this way, success was largely dependent upon existing micro-organizational variables; policy design simply signaled how TPPs should initially respond. Therefore, I argue my "successful" cases would likely have been successful regardless of the adopted policy design they operated under. I explain below.

When examining my cases that failed to implement edTPA with fidelity, a pattern presents itself. In Illinois, Jefferson cosmetically complied and actively resisted. Such responses were the result of limited capacities (i.e. leadership and fiscal) and compatibility (i.e. dissimilar programmatic mission and value structure). Had Jefferson been in Iowa, however, they likely would have adopted a different assessment (i.e. PPAT or Praxis II), mitigating this purposeful resistance. Additionally, in Iowa, Adams withdrew from edTPA after similar circumstances arose. Yet had Adams been in Illinois, such animosity would have likely continued to grow in response to a coercive design.

Taken together, like many large-scale policies, there will be local actors who successfully implement and those that do not (Berman, 1986). Such differences in fidelity are broadly related to how they collectively/individually make sense of the policy (Coburn, 2001, 2005; Spillane et al., 2002). Concerning edTPA, I found TPP administrators, faculty, and staff across the field have made sense of its implementation as the good, the bad, and the ugly. I briefly explain these

terms below.

The good. Unlike other pre-service teaching assessments, many TPPs find edTPA has facilitated cross-collaboration. In an effort to share knowledge and best practices, programs and whole institutions are now working together in ways that previously did not exist. The assessment and associated policies have also spurred continuous reflection and improvement. Programs are now using candidate score data to support decision-making, redesign, and accreditation— the very processes its developers intended. Equally, edTPA has further provided a systematic foundation and focus. TPPs now have a common language to use when discussing teaching pedagogy and preparation. Finally, many believe the policy tool has offered the external legitimacy the profession has historically lacked because it defines what good teaching should be.

The bad. Despite its goodness, implementation challenges and philosophical challenges have led to some local resistance. Implementation challenges include: 1) narrowing the curriculum and 2) creating friction between university-district partnerships. Conversely, philosophical challenges include: 1) a loss of internal control over candidate recommendation for licensure; 2) increased external accountability; and a 3) lack of attention to social justice/culturally responsive pedagogy. As a result, for some, edTPA has resulted in an incongruent understanding of what good teaching should be.

The ugly. Together, these divergent beliefs reflect the primary dilemma the profession and policymakers have struggled to solve— how best to prepare teachers and how best to measure them. On one hand, there are those who believe edTPA is professionalizing teaching. They argue its focus on technical planning, instruction, and assessment provides a much needed common language. On the other hand, there are those who believe edTPA is deprofessionalizing

teaching. By making teaching a technocratic process, they argue local context is largely removed in favor of accountability. From this view, edTPA implementation harkens back to Charles Dickens' Tale of Two Cities— "It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness…"; both exist in tandem, making it difficult to assess its overall value. I now unpack how edTPA reflects this historical tension, and why it nevertheless has more staying power.

   Why edTPA reflects how best to prepare teachers and how best to measure them. For nearly 200 years, the profession has been unable to uniformly address this dilemma. While numerous policy tools have been used, two stand out over time: 1) certification requirements and 2) teaching assessments. Because edTPA has essentially become a certification assessment, it reflects both trends in teacher education. I therefore argue edTPA has more staying power. Tracing several past policy tools, I explain below.

   As discussed in Chapter Two, historians credit the *Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study* (Charters & Waples, 1929) as the first large-scale attempt to systematically assess teacher competencies and overall readiness (Zeichner, 2005). The study yielded 1001 characteristics and 83 traits associated with what makes a "good" teacher. Although no one knows how many TPPs adopted the framework, policymakers had mainly relied on bachelor's degrees as a certification tool (Conant, 1963). It wasn't until the 1990s that measuring good teaching strongly aligned with both trends.

   Since then, ETS' Praxis II has become the preferred certification assessment (Wayne & Youngs, 2003). However, this assessment neglects to measure many observable teaching skills (Darling-Hammond, 1986; Madaus & Pullin, 1987; SCALE, 2015) the 1929 study did. Further, it requires little integration and/or transformation of teaching curricula/course sequencing by TPPs.

Towards such ends, edTPA becomes the ideal certification assessment. On one hand, it forces TPPs to continuously reflect and improve. On the other hand, it is performance-based, using video and written commentaries of one's teaching. Policymakers thus find it attractive; not only does it hold incoming teachers accountable, it also holds TPPs accountable. And as edTPA continues to thrive, Praxis II continues to decline, becoming the preferred policy tool.

At the same time, I offer several other reasons why edTPA has more staying power. First, unlike prior certification assessments, edTPA was created by a prestigious TPP— Stanford. This has helped to silence neoliberal discontent, enhance perceived validity, and reaffirm the role teacher educators play in establishing what good teaching is and how to measure it. Second, not only is edTPA performance-based, it is also a truncated version of National Board certification (Darling-Hammond & Hyler, 2013). Given states are trying to increase external legitimacy for the profession (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013), this alignment is similarly appealing. Third, edTPA uses a video and ePortfolio system (SCALE, 2015). Indeed, for decades we have known video-taping (Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; McLeod, Kim, & Resua, 2018; Rosaen, Lundeberg, Cooper, Fritzen, & Terpstra, 2008; Santagata, Zannoni, & Stigler, 2007; Suzuka, Frank, Crawford, & Yakel, 2018) and ePortfolios (Lyons, 1998; McKinney, 1998; Milman, 2005; Sherman, 2006) improve reflective teaching. Fourth, research is starting to show some correlation with teacher readiness and student outcomes (Goldhaber et al., 2017), something Praxis II has failed to do. Fifth, candidates are not passing edTPA at the rate they do for Praxis II (72% vs. 90%), further reinforcing the accountability mechanism policymakers seek. For these reasons, I believe the assessment system has more staying power. I now provide some policy recommendations, followed by how the field perceives its future.

Recommendations for edTPA

Reconsider coercive policy design use. While my data show successful fidelity by some TPPs under a coercive policy design, I found much of their success was related to existing micro-organizational variables (i.e. institutional capacities and compatibility). When these variables did not exist, edTPA implementation proved difficult. The story of Jefferson proves as a cautionary tale. Therefore, as coercive states like Illinois ramp up passing scores (41 by fall 2019), such difficulties could result in inequities— e.g. as the development of a diverse teacher pool.

Equally, my study showed how coercive policy designs can supersede voluntary policy designs when geographically proximal. Given such designs exist across the nation (AACTE, 2019), many of the states adopting voluntary designs may be similarly impacted. One solution could be to require edTPA completion for licensure, but not a passing score. This would appease states mandating edTPA while mitigating some accountability concerns. Another solution would be to provide additional funding sources and technical support for TPPs who lack the necessary institutional capacities.

Further emphasize and define the edTPA Coordinator role. As discussed, my data show edTPA Coordinators served as mid-level leaders for edTPA implementation. Essentially, they became key policy sensemakers and brokers for their respective TPPs. Towards these ends, both states and TPPs supporting edTPA should further emphasize and define this role, as those who did tended to be more successful garnering collective sensemaking than those who did not. While four brokering functions of this role were highlighted in the findings chapter, their emphasis is largely institution specific, currently limiting their presence at-scale.

Institutional leadership must support implementation. Leadership arguably became the most important micro-organizational variable influencing edTPA implementation. Without

administrative approval, TPPs struggled to engage in collective sensemaking and fostering an organizational mission. Consequently, for edTPA to be successful, administrators need to directly support its use— both fiscally and philosophically.

Improve faculty training. Across many of my cases, clinical faculty who taught the seminar/practicum course were tasked with preparing teacher candidates for edTPA. However, the most successful TPPs trained other faculty/staff throughout the programmatic sequence (e.g. Lincoln and Roosevelt). Such training was generally completed by the edTPA Coordinator. Because the guidelines tend to change every year, it is thus important all faculty/staff have a strong, collective understanding.

However, it is also important to discuss how such trainings are deployed. Because higher education already has an overwhelming number of training expectations, edTPA training could just become another compliance-based activity. Hence, their rollout becomes critical. Data show when these trainings were voluntary and/or coupled with professional development, TPP faculty and staff were less likely to make sense of these trainings as compliance-based.

Improve cooperating teacher training. One issue uniformly discussed by TPPs was with cooperating teachers and their lack of knowledge regarding edTPA procedures and purpose. This caused friction for teacher candidates. As a result, programs need to make a concerted effort to engage cooperating teachers in the process, having them understand what is required and why.

Much like faculty/staff training, though, how such efforts are deployed is important to consider. For example, one TPP outside my cases had an excellent solution. As part of taking on student teachers, they sent a flyer discussing what the edTPA was and what assistance could be helpful during this process. According to one interviewee, issues involving cooperating teachers and student teachers were thereby minimized (if not eliminated).

On a broad level, these recommendations seek to improve collective sensemaking across local actors. Indeed, those TPPs who exhibited such sensemaking largely perceived edTPA's goodness, whereas as those who exhibited more individualized sensemaking perceived edTPA's badness.

Future of edTPA according to the field

As part of my interview protocol, I asked TPP administrators, faculty, and staff what they thought the future for edTPA and its associated policies looked like. Two common opinions were shared. I describe them below.

First, like myself, many think edTPA has a great deal of staying power. Seeing a continued trend in external accountability tools for the profession, edTPA should stand the test of time. On the one hand, states have had to invest little in order to create extensive change across TPPs. On the other hand, it is hard to argue against many of the pedagogical practices edTPA stands for as good teaching, particularly given the Stanford name carries weight. As such, TPPs may internally resist due to incompatible behaviors/values, but are not likely to challenge its continued national assimilation.

Second, others feel edTPA will come and go in the next 5-10 years. Similar to Common Core, its fabric will stay but its accountability will diminish. This was the minority perspective, though, and will likely only happen if another, better external accountability tool takes its place.

Future research

Despite its comprehensiveness, my study yields several important areas for future research. First, due to data collection feasibility, I was only able to examine two states. Thus, it will important to conduct similar analyses in other states that operate coercive and/or voluntary policy designs. Second, more alternative case TPPs need to be studied. My research was unable

to argue with confidence whether a policy paradox existed for alternative TPPs operating under heightened accountability. Third, more research is needed in order to explain how faculty/staff sensegiving influences candidate sensemaking. Because my study mainly examined policy implementers, I was only able to loosely make this claim. Fourth, more data is needed in order to assess the relationship between edTPA fidelity and candidate scoring (i.e. outcomes). While adopted policy design did appear to influence candidate scoring, institutional fidelity was less conclusive (as evidenced by Jefferson). Fifth, although not part of my study, more research is needed as to whether doing well on edTPA actually translates into better teaching and student outcomes. To date, a longitudinal study of this magnitude does not exist.

Concluding thoughts of chapter

Depending on what adopted policy design and micro-organization variables existed, edTPA sensemaking and subsequent implementation took on different forms. Some became active users whereas other became active resistors and cosmetic compliers. Therefore, as more states and TPPs adopt this policy tool, it will be important to consider whether these differences continue to reflect the good, the bad, and the ugly.

APPENDIX A: DEFINITIONS

This study included a number of frequently used terms. These are discussed below:

edTPA: according to its developers—Stanford's Center for Assessment, Learning and Equity

(SCALE)—the Teacher Preparation Assessment, colloquially referred to as the "edTPA," is a:

> … subject-specific performance assessment that evaluates a common set of teaching principles and teaching behaviors as well as pedagogical strategies that are focused on specific content learning outcomes for P-12 students… The assessment systematically examines an authentic cycle of teaching aimed at subject-specific student learning goals, using evidence derived from candidates' practice in their student teaching or internship placement. A cycle of teaching, captured by the three tasks that compose an edTPA portfolio, includes: 1) planning, 2) instruction, and 3) assessment of student learning (SCALE, 2015, p. 4).

TPP: according to the US Government Accountability Office (2015), teacher preparation

programs, or TPPs:

> … prepare teaching candidates to employ effective teaching techniques and gain real-world experience in the classroom. TPPs take many forms and may be operated by a variety of organizations. For example, the structure of TPPs can vary widely, from "traditional" TPPs such as four-year undergraduate programs with student teaching requirements, to "alternative-route" TPPs such as those wherein candidates serve as a classroom teacher while concurrently completing their coursework (p. 4).

Institution of higher education: according to Higher Education Opportunity Act (2008), an

institution of higher education, or IHE, is an institution in any state that:

> (1) admits as regular students only persons having a certificate of graduation from a school providing secondary education, or the recognized equivalent of such a certificate, or persons who meet the requirements of section 1091(d) of this title; (2) is legally authorized within such State to provide a program of education beyond secondary education; (3) provides an educational program for which the institution awards a bachelor's degree or provides not less than a 2-year program that is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree, or awards a degree that is acceptable for admission to a graduate or professional degree program, subject to review and approval by the Secretary; (4) is a public or other nonprofit institution; and (5) is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association, or if not so accredited, is an institution that has been granted preaccreditation status by such an agency or association that has been recognized by the Secretary for the granting of preaccreditation status, and

the Secretary has determined that there is satisfactory assurance that the institution will meet the accreditation standards of such an agency or association within a reasonable time (§ 1001(a)).

Alternative-route program: while differing slightly depending on state, according to the US Department of Education (2015), alternative-route programs are:

> … teacher preparation programs that provide alternative pathways to teacher certification and are intended to expand the pool of potential teachers and enable a more diverse array of people to enter the teaching profession. Alternative-route programs typically allow candidates to serve as teachers of record in a classroom while they complete their coursework for full state certification or licensure. Such programs are frequently designed to recruit potential teachers to fill critical shortage areas in hard-to-staff schools and subjects as well as to recruit and train mid-career professionals who are interested in transitioning to the teaching profession (p. 1).

Pre-service teacher/candidate: students completing an initial teacher licensure program that have not yet graduated.

In-service teacher: a teacher who has already graduated from an initial teacher licensure program (i.e. a TPP) and currently practices teaching.

Cooperating teacher: an in-service teacher that hosts and mentors a pre-service teacher during his/her methods and/or student teaching placement.

Policy adoption designs: the manner in which a state mandates edTPA implementation for TPPs. Two different pathways exist: 1) high-stakes, where all pre-service teachers must pass; and 2) low-stakes, where states make the assessment an option, leaving TPPs to decide its adoption.

Policy implementation: DeLeon and DeLeon (2002) define policy implementation as "the carrying out of a basic policy decision, usually incorporated in a [law], but which can also take the form of important executive orders" (p. 473).

Organizational resources/capacities: all assets an organization has available in meeting prescribed policy outcomes. With respect to policy implementation, McLaughlin (1987) posits two forms: 1) fiscal resources and 2) human resources.

Elementary of Secondary Education Act: Federal education law dedicated to supporting states, school districts, and schools in an effort to improve equality and accountability. Since 1965, this law has been the main mechanism through which the federal government influences education.

Introduction (~5 min)

1. Tell me a little about yourself. How long have you been here and what do you do/teach within your teacher preparation program?

2. What is your role in edTPA implementation here at **(INSTITUTION)?**

3. How would you characterize the students in your teacher preparation program?

As you know, I'm studying how teacher preparation programs make sense of and implement edTPA, so I'm going to cut to the chase …

Beliefs of edTPA (~20 min)

4. What, if anything, do you think are the positive aspects of edTPA with relation to preparing effective teachers?

5. What concerns, if any, do you have about edTPA being used as an assessment of teacher candidates?

6. If you can, what do your other colleagues believe?

7. How does the fact that the edTPA is **mandatory (ILLINOIS)/optional (IOWA)** for your students/institution play into your feelings about the effectivenes of this test?

8. To what extent, if at all, have your beliefs correspondingly influenced preparing students for edTPA?

9. How have your students responded to edTPA being integrated into coursework?

10. To what extent do you think the edTPA is compatible with your program structure, student body, curricula, and mission?

Implementation of edTPA (~20 min)

So we have been talking about your feelings, now I want to discuss what you are actually doing with edTPA …

11. How has edTPA implementation impacted your teaching practice and/or your teacher education program?

12. How does your program and/or university support students in edTPA success?

        b. What else do you think they could/should do to support students in edTPA success?

13. How does your program and/or university support faculty in implementing edTPA?

14. **(ONLY FOR IOWA)** Because Iowa makes the edTPA optional, why did your institution specifically choose to implement it?

        b. Do you agree with this decision? Why or why not?

15. **(ONLY FOR ILLINOIS)** To what extent, if at all, do you think the requirement that students must pass edTPA is responsible for these changes?

16. What has been your program's experience implementing the technology aspects utilized by edTPA, such as the video-taping, editing, and electronic portfolio system? Can you give some examples across faculty, staff, and students?

17. How has your program/institution utilized fiscal and human resources like faculty and staff to address the fact that your students take edTPA?

18. Has amount of time needed to implement edTPA been an issue for you or other staff? Why or why not?

PROBE FOR PLANNING <u>AND</u> INSTRUCTION—BOTH MATTER!

19. How would you describe relationships across faculty/staff in your teacher preparation program? That is, are they collaborative, more autonomous, somewhere in-between?

> **PROBE: I AM TRYING TO UNDERSTAND THE SHAPE OF THE ORGANIZATION**
>
> b. To what extent have these relationships across faculty/staff changed since edTPA?

20. Is their a "point-person" or "coordinator" for edTPA at your institution? If so, how would you characterize their role or function during edTPA implementation? That is, what do they do?

> b. Does this person lead all edTPA implementation, or is it a more shared, collaborative process, or perhaps both?
>
> c. If more of a shared process, who are they doing what exactly? That is, are they facilitating this shared process, or did it exist already?

Other questions (~10 min)

We are on the home stretch …

21. How have your teacher candidates performed on edTPA? To what extent is this reflective of what the program did or didn't do?

22. Do you think edTPA is here to stay, or are you hoping it will go away like other teacher assessments?

> b. How do these opinions, if at all, impact what your institution is doing to implement edTPA?

23. What didn't I ask you but should have so I can really understand what the edTPA means around here?

24. I really want to talk to people who have all sorts of views on edTPA? Can you perhaps point me in the direction of people who have various views here?

NOTE: this protocol is intended to be rather basic. Indeed, most of the questions asked will be dictated by the responses, flow, and context of the focus groups taking place. Therefore, please note that the protocol enclosed is not elaborate, but speaks to some of the major questions/themes being studied.

SCRIPT: the purpose of this focus group is to learn about your experiences with edTPA, your feelings towards it, or other issues you believe pertinent to disclose.

This interview will last no longer than one hour, so as to not take up too much of your time.

PROBE: ALL OF YOUR OPINIONS ARE VALID HERE... IN FACT, DIFFERENT OPINIONS ARE WELCOMED!

1. Tell me about your experience with edTPA within your teacher preparation program?

2. What, if anything, do you think are the positive aspects of edTPA in preparing you to be a teacher? What about negative aspects?

3. If you can, what do your instructors believe or say about edTPA? To what extent have these beliefs impacted your views of edTPA?

4. What challenges, if any, have you faced during the edTPA process?

5. What about the technology aspects—e.g. video, editing, and electronic portfolio? What have been your experience with these?

University of Illinois at Chicago
Research Information and Consent for Participation in Social Behavioral Research
The edTPA: Implementation by Institutions of Higher Education

You are being asked to participate in a research study. Researchers are required to provide a consent form such as this one to tell you about the research, to explain that taking part is voluntary, to describe the risks and benefits of participation, and to help you to make an informed decision. You should feel free to ask the researchers any questions you may have.

Principal Investigator Name and Title: Craig De Voto, Doctoral Candidate

Department and Institution: College of Education, Department of Policy Studies, University of Illinois at Chicago

Address and Contact Information: 908 W. Wolfram, Apt. 3, Chicago, IL 60657; Phone: (630)-308-0666

Sponsor: Dr. Benjamin Superfine, College of Education, Department of Policy Studies, University of Illinois at Chicago

Why am I being asked?

You are being asked to be a subject in a research study about how teacher preparation programs have responded to the recent implementation of edTPA (Teacher Performance Assessment). While studies show edTPA appears to provide effective teaching strategies for new pre-service teachers, limited research has been done regarding its implications to teacher preparation programs more specifically. As such, this study seeks to explore this topic area more in-depth by researching particular institutions' responses to the assessment.

You have been asked to participate in this research because of your potential involvement/experience with edTPA at your institution.

Your participation in this research is **voluntary.** Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future dealings with the University of Illinois at Chicago. **If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without affecting that relationship.**

Approximately 100 subjects may be involved in this research at 3-4 sites in Illinois and Iowa.

What is the purpose of this research?

Researchers are trying to learn more about how teacher preparation programs and institutions of higher education have had to respond to the recent mandates by states involving edTPA.

Towards these ends, the research question is: what impact has edTPA had on teacher education programs—both institutions more broadly, and those they serve (e.g. pre-service teachers)?

Such a problem warrants researching because, while studies show edTPA appears to provide effective teaching strategies for pre-service teachers, limited research has been done regarding its implications to teacher preparation programs.

What procedures are involved?

This research will be conducted at institutions of higher education or teacher preparation programs. Data collection will involve interviews, observations, and documents.

Your voluntary participation will take place at a setting and time of your choosing, or the designated classroom described in the initial request.

The study procedures are as follows:

Data Collection:
- Data will be gathered through three strategies: semi-structured interviews, observations, and document collection. Please see below for details of each method:
- Initially, upon acceptance, subject participation will take place in a setting of their choosing (or over the phone, if that is their preference), and will not last beyond the agreed upon date and time, unless extreme circumstances arise, at which time they will be informed.
  - First, semi-structured interviews will be conducted with subjects based on their knowledge/involvement with edTPA implementation at their institution, as well as questions related to their opinions of the assessment, and how it has impacted their teacher prep program. Additionally, if consent is provided by subject, digital recording on a recorder will also be administered at the agreed upon date and time of data collection.
  - Second, observations will be conducted at specific undergrad/grad courses (with instructors and students) that deal with the edTPA at a given institution. These observations will be digitally recorded on a recorder (only if consent is given), as well as field notes taken by the investigator. A recruitment/consent document will be presented around the room to explain how subjects provide/deny consent for this recording. Additionally, the researcher will use a protocol script to properly inform all subjects.
  - Third, documents will be collected from potential selected case sites (institutions) that deal with edTPA implementation, such as email correspondences, syllabi, and course redesigns applications.
- **Please note:** subjects will ***not*** participate in each procedure (interviews, observations, document collection). Depending on the subject's experience/involvement with edTPA, the investigator will clarify what he wishes to conduct.

Also, any data collected from participants will be de-identified and replaced with pseudonyms after data analysis, so as to preserve confidentiality.

What are the risks and/or benefits to participation?

The only risk is the potential for collected data to be stolen from the researcher's computer, thereby comprising confidentiality. However, it is not anticipated this will happen in any way. And, should it occur, the data is passcode protected.

As for benefits, this is the first comprehensive research looking at implementation of edTPA from the perspective of higher education. As a result, your participation will help provide a foundation for future research towards improving edTPA for all parties involved.

What are the costs for participating in this research?

There are NO costs to you for participating in this research.

Will I be reimbursed for any of my expenses or paid for my participation in this research?

You will not be offered payment for being in this study. As such, your involvement is completely voluntary.

Can I withdraw or be removed from the study?

If you decide to participate, **you are free to withdraw your consent** and discontinue participation at any time. Simply notify the researcher to cancel your involvement.

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Who should I contact if I have questions?

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What are my rights as a research subject?

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or if you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, including questions, concerns, complaints, or to offer input, you may call the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS) at (312) 996-1711 or (866) 789-6215 (toll-free), or e-mail OPRS at uicirb@uic.edu.

What if I am a UIC student?
You may choose not to participate or to stop your participation in this research at any time. This will not affect your class standing or grades at UIC. The investigator may also end your participation in the research. If this happens, your class standing or grades will not be affected. You will not be offered or receive any special consideration if you participate in this research.

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Remember:

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Also, any data collected from participants will be de-identified and replaced with pseudonyms so as to preserve confidentiality.
Electronic Signature of Subject:

I have read (or someone has read to me) the above information. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research.

This is an <u>electronically signed</u> document.

Simply click the signature and use your keyboard to electronically 'sign' the document. Feel free to download a copy of this consent form, if desired.
However, if you wish to have a hard copy sent to you instead, please notify the researcher and one will be provided.

PLEASE SIGN HERE:

_____   _____
Subject's Signature   Date

_____
Subject's Name

_____
Investigator's Signature

APPENDIX F: TABLE OF CASES

Illinois TPPs	Fiscal resources	Human resources	Time	Leadership	Coupling	Routines	Social networks	Inst. compatibility	Sensemaking	Student outcomes (pass rates)
Jefferson	Limited; perceived as unfunded mandate	Limited; lacked official edTPA Coordinator	Limited; created video implementation problems	Limited; new dean did not support edTPA	Very-loose; individual sensemaking	Piecemeal and voluntary	Closed; limited routines and collective sensemaking	Limited; edTPA did not align with social justice mission	Compliance-based approach; active resistance and cosmetic compliance response	98%
Lincoln	Extensive; provost supported edTPA	Extensive; had a full-time edTPA Coordinator	Extensive; time was not discussed as an issue	Extensive; provost and assoc. dean supported edTPA	Very-tight; collective sensemaking	Sustained as part of continuous improvement	Open; encouraged collective sensemaking despite size	Extensive; edTPA aligned with mission and values of program, particularly leadership	Inquiry-based approach; active use and minimal resistance	99%
Hamilton	Extensive; private school	Mixed; had part-time edTPA Coordinator but no other help	Extensive; time was not discussed as an issue	Extensive; assoc. dean supported via edTPA Coordinator	Very-tight; small school	Sustained as part of continuous improvement	Open; encouraged collective sensemaking	Extensive; had prior tools/routines that were similar to edTPA	Inquiry-based approach; active use and no resistance found	99%
Ford	Not discussed as a problem; private school	Extensive; had a full-time edTPA Coordinator	Extensive; time was not discussed as an issue	Mixed; assoc. dean supported edTPA in so far as it was a mandate	Very-tight; small school	Sustained as part of continuous improvement	Open; encouraged collective sensemaking	Mixed; alternative program mostly aligned with edTPA	Inquiry-based approach; active use and minimal resistance	99%

Iowa TPPs	Fiscal resources	Human resources	Time	Leadership	Coupling	Routines	Social networks	Inst. compatibility	Sensemaking	Student outcomes (pass rates)
Roosvelt	Extensive; provided thousands of dollars for PD	Extensive; had two part-time edTPA Coordinators	Felt they had adequate time, non issue	Extensive; assoc. dean strongly supported edTPA adoption	Tight; collective sensemaking despite size	Faculty supported edTPA; sustained rollout	Open; encouraged collective sensemaking	Extensive; edTPA aligned with inquiry-based mission and student population	Inquiry-based approach; active use and no resistance found	93%
Madison	Not discussed as a problem; private school	Extensive; had one part-time edTPA Coordinator	Felt they had adequate time, non issue	Mixed; assoc. dean didn't overwhelmingly support, but Cooridnator did	Very-tight; small school	Faculty supported edTPA; sustained rollout	Open; encouraged collective sensemaking	Extensive; edTPA aligned with inquiry-based mission and student population	Inquiry-based approach; active use and minimal resistance found	89%
Adams	Limited; grant money went away, leading them to withdraw in favor of Praxis II	Limited; lacked official edTPA Coordinator, support team	Limited; said they lacked adequate time to implement and support	Limited; edTPA was only supported by a small team not affiliated with dept.	Some-what loose; supporters unable to provide good comminication about rollout	Piecemeal and voluntary; poor rollout	Closed; poor rollout limited routines	Mixed; some believed it aligned whereas others did not	Exercised local control; active resistance led to withdraw	80%

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