ABSTRACT

Title of Document: HISTORIANS’ ROLE IN TEACHER PREPARATION: PERSONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS THAT LEAD TO THEIR ENGAGEMENT IN PREPARING FUTURE TEACHERS

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Doctor of Philosophy, 2012

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Since the early 20th century, there has been a push to strengthen the connections between schools, colleges, and departments of education and the rest of the university, specifically the faculty from the arts and sciences (A&S). Due to various institutional and organizational barriers, the call for strong collaboration between A&S departments and schools of education has been unrealized; however, circumstances particular to certain colleges and universities have enabled partnerships to form and strong collaboration to exist. The involvement of faculty from the academic fields in preparing future teachers is essential; the academic fields provide both the general education that undergirds the preparation of teachers and the subject matter specialization which the candidate will use in teaching children and youth. As noted in Teacher Education for A Free People a half century ago, the academic fields also provide future teachers with “essential instructional content” and “an understanding of teaching as a concept ” (Stratemeyer, 1958). Faculty who teach liberal studies – literature, science, the arts, mathematics, philosophy, history and the other social sciences – make major
contributions to the education of teachers and, therefore, need to be engaged in all aspects of the teacher education program.

This study identified three teacher education programs that exemplify high-levels of A&S faculty member involvement in teacher education, specifically the involvement of historians. Operating under the premise that historians are essential to preparing effective history teachers, historians at each of the three institutions that are engaged in preparing teachers were identified with the intent of understanding the personal and institutional factors that lead to their involvement. A multiple case study design was used to find common themes among each historian’s experiences. Documents were collected and interviews and observations were conducted at each of the three institutions. Case reports were created for each of the three universities and a cross-case analysis was conducted. Findings reveal that a commitment to collaboration from the colleges of education, support from university and departmental leadership, and a commitment to improving public schools from the historians are significant factors that supported historian engagement in teacher preparation.
HISTORIANS’ ROLE IN TEACHER PREPARATION: PERSONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS THAT LEAD TO THEIR ENGAGEMENT IN PREPARING FUTURE TEACHERS

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Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Maryland, College Park, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy 2012

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Acknowledgements

Thanks to my family, friends, colleagues, informants, and committee for all your help with this endeavor. In particular, I would like to thank the following people:

To my parents. You made sacrifices over the years to send me to the best available schools and for that I am truly grateful. Your unwavering support and genuine interest in my studies has helped motivate me as I struggled through school at all levels. Thank you for everything. Love you both.

To Kerri. Thank you for putting up with long nights, early mornings, long commutes to College Park, and weekends at the library. Your support throughout this process has been my inspiration to graduate—the sooner I finish, the sooner we can enjoy our nights and weekends together. I love you.

To my friends and family. I am sorry for being an absentee friend over the years. Your support and interest in my academic pursuits has been appreciated.

To my classmates and colleagues, especially Brie, Jill, Ken, and Leslie. Thank you for providing feedback on papers and drafts over the past five years. Your advice and support helped me navigate my way through graduate school and for that I am grateful. You made class a highlight of each week.

To my editors, Jody and Leah. Thank you for your editing expertise. Even though I missed every deadline that we set over the past year, you always provided feedback in a timely manner. I especially appreciate the quick turnarounds when I was facing looming deadlines.

To my informants at NSU, SSU, and WSU, especially Howard, Helen, and Hank. Thank you for sharing your stories and letting me into your universities. Without your cooperation and honesty, this dissertation would not be possible.
To my committee members, Noah, Robyn, and Steve. Thank you for your willingness to sit on the committee and provide support and advice along the way. Your expertise was invaluable.

To my co-chair, Chauncey. Your enthusiasm for social studies education and commitment to the students at the University of Maryland are unmatched. Co-chairing this committee was an enormous time commitment that you did not have to accept—thank you for all your help! Best of luck at the University of Michigan—Go Blue!

To my advisor, David. From our initial meeting in the spring of 2007 to the day that this dissertation was submitted, you have always made time to provide support, advice, or just to catch-up on sports and family matters. You have been a true mentor to me and I am deeply grateful for the time and energy that you have dedicated to my academic and professional pursuits. You have made my stay at the University of Maryland enjoyable, educational, and worthwhile. Thank you!
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Overview

A universal problem for traditional teacher education programs is that the responsibility\(^1\) for preparing future teachers is shared between colleges of education and colleges of arts and sciences (A&S). Even though the responsibility is not shared equally, teacher educators are typically responsible for education coursework and supervision while A&S faculty members have the task of providing content knowledge to the prospective teachers. To prepare teachers is the mission of most colleges of education, but it is rarely considered a priority in A&S colleges and departments (Tom, 1997; McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000). This mismatch of college and departmental missions along with university structures, faculty workload, departmental agendas, and promotion and tenure policies often prevent A&S faculty from getting involved in preparing future teachers of their discipline; however, their participation is essential in providing pre-service teachers with deep subject knowledge.

While A&S faculty involvement is important for all teacher education programs, it is especially important for programs that produce future secondary teachers. Prospective elementary teachers are often required by their institution to take a few courses in several disciplines—valuing breadth of subject knowledge over depth\(^2\).

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\(^1\) The word “responsibility” is used throughout to describe the obligation of faculty to impart knowledge to students. In the case of A&S faculty, it is their responsibility to impart content knowledge to their students, whether they are prospective teachers or not. Throughout the dissertation, I discuss the importance of that obligation and ways in which the obligation can be fulfilled.

\(^2\) There is an ongoing debate about whether an elementary education student should have a content major, similar to a secondary education student (see Emans, 1989). Because of this debate on the importance of specific subject matter knowledge required for elementary education students and the fact that elementary teachers are asked to teach several different content areas, this proposed study will focus on the content knowledge and preparation for secondary teachers.
(Zeichner & Conklin, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006). Conversely, prospective secondary teachers are often required to major in the discipline that they intend to teach—valuing depth of subject knowledge over breadth. For example, if a student is preparing to be a secondary social studies teacher, he or she will major in one of the social sciences (history, political science, economics, etc.) while taking coursework in the school or college of education. Even though A&S faculty and education faculty share the responsibility for preparing these students for teaching in secondary schools, they rarely communicate, much less plan or teach in a collective manner (McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000). The lack of collaboration between A&S faculty and teacher educators leads, potentially, to a teacher education program that is disjointed and lacks coherence. Teacher preparation is a campus-wide responsibility that needs to be taken seriously by all parties involved, including teacher educators whose primary responsibilities are to prepare teachers.

This chapter argues that A&S faculty involvement is vital to the effectiveness of a teacher education program and that teacher educators should seek opportunities to involve them in preparing future teachers of their discipline. To fully understand A&S faculty’s importance in preparing teachers, a substantial amount of space in this chapter is dedicated to the concepts of subject matter knowledge (SMK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Due to the complexity of this issue and the differences among A&S disciplines, I address this matter with a focus on secondary history education in an effort to illustrate the importance of deep SMK in teaching. After demonstrating the benefits of A&S faculty involvement in teacher education, I propose research questions that, when
answered, will illuminate the phenomenon of A&S faculty involvement and the lack thereof.

**Statement of the Problem**

In spring 2002, I enrolled in Methods of Teaching in Secondary Social Studies as part of my teacher preparation program at Johns Hopkins University (JHU). The class was composed of 30 students; approximately half were enrolled in a Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) program and the other half were Teach for America (TFA) members teaching in the Baltimore City Public Schools and seeking initial teacher certification. Everyone in the class had a bachelor’s degree in a social science or closely related field. As in most graduate-level teacher education programs, adequate content knowledge is assumed because teacher candidates possess bachelors’ degrees; therefore, the preparation program places an emphasis on education and pedagogical coursework. Despite that assumption, in the case of JHU’s MAT program, there was an emphasis on assessing candidates’ content knowledge and an effort to incorporate additional content coursework (see Stotko, Beaty-O’Ferrall & Yerkes, 2005, for more information regarding JHU’s focus on content knowledge in the MAT program). Therefore, my methods course at JHU was co-taught by a full-time history professor and a teacher education faculty member.

The representative from the history department was a tenure-track faculty member with a research interest in local and state history. The education representative was an associate professor in the department of teacher education. Both faculty members shared the instructional responsibility throughout the course, with each teaching approximately an hour and a half of the three-hour class time. During a typical class the history
professor presented social studies content and facilitated a discussion regarding the topic, usually history or geography, for the first portion of class, and then the education faculty member facilitated a lesson on how to implement that content in secondary classrooms. Each professor participated in the entire class; however, it was evident that the historian led the beginning of class while the teacher educator was responsible for the second portion.

As a teacher candidate, I did not realize how rare it was to have an A&S faculty member so involved in the preparation of social studies teachers. Considering that the TFA members were from outside the state of Maryland, the historian’s focus on local and state history filled a void in the majority of the students’ content knowledge. Being born and raised in Baltimore, I already knew a lot of the local and state history and geography that was presented but the course was still valuable to me. This course was the only class I can remember prior to becoming a licensed teacher where I learned historical thinking skills, such as corroboration, sourcing, and evaluating evidence. My undergraduate coursework in history seemed to focus on remember people and events rather than acquiring historical thinking skills. Years later I found myself using the same historical thinking strategies when working with high school history students in Baltimore County. Similar to other teachers, my social studies methods course was the most valuable course in my teacher education program.

Not until I began my doctoral studies did I understand how truly fortunate I was to have a historian engage in my preparation. As I became more familiar with teacher education and preparation program structures, I found that my experience with history faculty was an anomaly rather than the norm. While there has been a call for A&S faculty
to be engaged in preparing teachers of their discipline as early as the 1920s⁴ the
movement has yet to be widely accepted in teacher preparation programs.

Conant’s “All University Approach”. In 1944, while the United States was in the
midst of World War II, Columbia University’s Teacher College held a conference to
celebrate its 50th anniversary. Harvard President James Bryant Conant was invited to
speak on this occasion and gave a talk entitled “Truce Among Educators” (*The Harvard
Crimson*, 1944). Conant took this opportunity to encourage professors of education and
the professors of college subjects, such as English or history, to agree to a “cease-fire
order” (Conant, 1963). Throughout the early 20th century, education faculty blamed the
faculties of A&S for having little interest in what was occurring in public schools—citing
the fact that public schools in the ’40s were drastically different from the public schools
that those professors attended in the early years of the 20th century. Meanwhile, A&S
faculty blamed the failures of the public education system on normal schools, colleges of
education, and the teachers who had been prepared. A&S faculty referred to education
coursework as “anti-intellectual” and “worthless” while education faculty were irate that
their counterparts in A&S departments were not exemplifying “good teaching” (Conant,
1963, p. 7). In closing, Conant urged education faculty, A&S faculty, and college
administrators to end the debate and begin working toward “an all-university approach”
to teacher education.

Approximately a decade later, Arthur Bestor, an educational historian, took
Conant’s comments one step further by addressing the potential impact that failing to get

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⁴ An extensive history of A&S faculty involvement in teacher education is provided in the subsequent chapter.
A&S faculty members involved would have on public schools. In *Educational Wastelands*, which was a book about declining educational standards, he stated that:

"The training of teachers for the public schools is one of the most important functions of the American university. It ought always to be treated as a function of the university as a whole...this will require a change of heart by many departments and faculty members...most faculties of liberal arts and sciences fail to take seriously the problem of devising sound and appropriate curricula for the education of teachers...[the failure of public education will continue until liberal arts faculty commit] themselves wholeheartedly to preparing teachers properly and adequately for public school instruction (pp. 137-138)

Unfortunately, Conant’s address and Bestor’s comments fell on deaf ears in 1944 and continues to be debated among higher education faculty. Education faculty still believe that A&S faculty do not model good teaching methods and are out of touch with what goes on in public schools while A&S faculty continue to have the perception that public schools are not doing their jobs and that colleges of education and teachers are largely to blame (McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000). Several teacher education reform efforts have worked to bridge the divide between education and A&S faculty members; however, it is my assertion that they have failed to create widespread change.

*Teacher Education Program Structures.* Zeichner and Conklin (2005) indetify six distinct teacher education program structures: (1) the four-year undergraduate model, (2) the extended five-year undergraduate model, (3) the extended five-year model leading to a bachelor’s and master’s degree, (4) the six-year program leading to a bachelor’s and master’s degree, (5) the fifth-year program leading to a master’s degree, and (6)
alternative certification programs. The discourse surrounding A&S faculty involvement only applies to the first four teacher education programs. The four-, five-, and six-year programs all provide a pre-service teacher with an undergraduate degree, thus assigning responsibility for their general education and content-specific knowledge to A&S faculty. Fifth-year and alternative certification programs require applicants to have bachelors’ degrees and assume that they have already received the required SMK at their undergraduate institution. Throughout this chapter and subsequent chapters, these teacher education programs are referred to as “traditional” as opposed to “alternative” programs, which are defined as programs enrolling non-certified individuals who have bachelors’ degrees and are eligible for standard teaching credentials (Adelman, 1986). Traditional teacher education programs, therefore, have more opportunities to involve A&S faculty in preparing future teachers.

While traditional teacher education programs have specific admission standards and graduation requirements, they fail to have the autonomy that many outsiders believe that they have (Wilson & Youngs, 2005). National accrediting organizations (e.g., the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE] and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council [TEAC], which have recently agreed to consolidate to form the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation [CAEP] by 2012), specialized professional associations (SPA) (e.g., the National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS] and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics [NCTM]), and state departments of education all impact public and private teacher education programs. Fully addressing the dynamics between teacher education programs and their outside forces is beyond the scope of this chapter; however, it is important to note that state
departments of education determine the teaching licensure and teacher education approval requirements for their particular state (Imig & Switzer, 1996). All states require that teacher education programs receive state approval, but not all of them require national accreditation (Wilson & Youngs, 2005). Twelve states require national accreditation from NCATE and over 40 encourage national accreditation via NCATE or TEAC (Mitchell et al., 2001). Although national accreditation is played out differently in each state, both NCATE and TEAC rely on the national content standards established by the SPAs as part of their process. The accreditation and approval process differs greatly across states, with some states playing larger roles in shaping teacher education program requirements (Wilson & Youngs, 2005).

Although states set expectations for what courses pre-service teachers take, they have limited influence on what occurs within that particular course. State course requirements are typically general and leave teacher education programs and prospective teachers flexibility to determine their course sequence. For example, the state of Maryland requires a minimum of two history courses for all certified social studies teachers (Code of Annotated Maryland Regulations, 2010); however, those two courses can be any type of history course, such as United States History or World History. Teacher education programs can, and often do, set their program requirements higher than those established by their respective state and many specify particular courses. Approved programs have the ability to mandate specific history courses to meet their graduation requirements, which ensure that prospective teachers get the requisite content knowledge to satisfy state curriculum requirements. Essentially, states set the bar on the types of courses that have to be taken and the particular preparation program can
establish more specific requirements (e.g., requiring two survey courses of American and World history rather than taking any two courses offered within the history department).

The landscape of teacher education approval and accreditation for traditional programs is convoluted but leaves opportunities for A&S faculty to become involved in the process of preparing teachers. Throughout this chapter and subsequent chapters, the terms “involvement” and “engagement” will be used interchangeably when describing A&S faculty’s role in teacher education. Involvement or engagement in teacher education can look different within and across institutions, so it is essential to determine what an A&S faculty member would have to do in order to be considered “involved” or “engaged” in teacher education. With the assistance of multiple authors who discuss this phenomenon (Goodlad, 1994; Tom, 1997; Nataraja-Kirby et al., 2006), A&S involvement in teacher education includes supervising pre-service teachers’ clinical experiences, participating in teacher education program planning and evaluation, jointly developing teaching and content standards, team-teaching content or methods courses with education faculty, and developing courses or sections of courses designed for future teachers of the discipline.

Absent from this definition of A&S involvement is the process of advising pre-service teachers.4 It is commonplace for a student seeking a double major in education and his or her content area to have two advisors—one in education and one in the A&S department. By serving as an advisor to a student seeking teacher certification, the A&S faculty member may provide a service that is specific to a pre-service teacher, but it is

4 King (1987) identifies three additional activities that have the potential to benefit pre-service teachers and K–12 schools but are not considered involvement or engagement: “(a) being an effective classroom teacher and role model, because this applies not only to teacher education students; (b) writing textbooks, because this may not affect local programs; and (c) serving on national committees or being active in national organizations” (p. 9).
conceivable that the A&S faculty advisor will treat the prospective teacher the same as their non-teaching advisees. If the A&S faculty member serves as a joint-advisor and works with the education faculty member, then it qualifies as participating in teacher education program planning. Of course, it is difficult for an A&S faculty member to be involved in all aspects of a teacher education program, and some faculty are more involved than others. Determining if and at what level an A&S faculty member is engaged in teacher education will be discussed in a later chapter.

Soliciting A&S faculty participation in teacher education has been a challenge that education professors and professors in A&S departments have been fighting since at least the early 20th century. Neither side listened to Conant’s call for a truce, and the question still remains: Which side is correct? Should A&S faculty members be involved in preparing future teachers of their discipline? Do pre-service teachers benefit from the involvement of their content faculty? This study operates under the assumption that the answer to the last two questions is yes—A&S faculty should be involved in preparing teachers and pre-service teachers will benefit from their involvement. Unfortunately, there is no research that supports those assumptions, just the logic that historians can model historical thinking and improve content knowledge through their engagement in teacher preparation. The fact that universities involved in teacher education reform efforts have dedicated time, energy, and resources to promote A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation is evidence that there is value. Even with the lack of research supporting A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation, the Ford, Carnegie, Rockefeller, and Annenberg Foundations’ financial commitment of over $100 million for TNE initiative is evidence that there is value in A&S faculty involvement.
Every undergraduate teacher education program has A&S faculty who “participate” in the preparation of teachers; however, not all preparation programs have A&S faculty who are involved or engaged. To participate in the preparation of teachers, A&S faculty members take part in the process by imparting content knowledge within the context of a content course. A&S faculty members become unknowing participants in the process as soon as a prospective teacher registers for their course. Rather than settle for participation, this proposal advocates for active involvement and engagement, which includes activities such as supervising pre-service teachers’ clinical experiences, participating in teacher education program planning and evaluation, and team-teaching content or methods courses with education faculty. A&S faculty involvement and engagement in teacher education has the potential to integrate subject matter content knowledge, curricular knowledge (CK), and PCK, which results in the production of more effective teachers (Tom, 1997; Nataraja-Kirby et al., 2006).

A&S Faculty Involvement to Improve the Knowledge Base of Prospective Teachers

Teaching is a complex endeavor that begins with a teacher’s understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 1986). The transmission of knowledge and skills lies at the core of teaching and is ultimately what students and their teachers are evaluated upon. It is expected that “a teacher knows something not understood by others, presumably the students,” and is able to transform and transmit that knowledge to his or her students (Shulman, 1987, p. 7). Many teacher educators rely on the belief that teacher education programs should be designed around the concept that there is a “knowledge base for teaching,” which Shulman (1987) defines as “a codified or codifiable aggregation of knowledge, skill, understanding, and
technology, of ethics and disposition, of collective responsibility—as well as a means for representing and communicating it” (p. 4). Shulman (1986) identifies three categories of content knowledge: (1) subject matter content knowledge, (2) PCK, and (3) CK. As a way to further illustrate the importance of A&S faculty in teacher education, I discuss Shulman’s categories of content knowledge with an emphasis on requisite content for future secondary history teachers.

State departments of education traditionally endorse teachers in broad categories, such as math or English, as opposed to specific content disciplines, such as calculus or British literature. Teacher licensure for history teachers is no different from the other disciplines. For example, a prospective secondary history teacher’s certification will read “social studies” as opposed to history, which gives school principals the flexibility to assign the new teacher to any social studies course (VanSledright, 2011). This broad endorsement of social studies has led to a fight for curriculum space between the disciplines within social studies (Ross, 2001; Wineburg, 2001). Rather than privilege history education, I acknowledge that social studies has a range of disciplines (i.e., history, geography, economics, and political science) that all provide benefits to students engaging in that particular discipline; however, history education is typically the focus of prospective social studies teachers’ preparation (Warren & Cantu, 2008). It is important to note that secondary education requirements for students are dominated by history courses compared to the other disciplines within social studies; therefore, the focus on preparing history teachers in secondary social studies preparation programs is warranted.

Subject Matter Content Knowledge. A teacher’s subject matter content knowledge, also known as subject matter knowledge or SMK, is defined as “the amount
and organization of knowledge per se in the mind of a teacher” (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). Zeidler (2002) extends Shulman’s definition and identifies SMK as the quantity, quality, and organization of information in a given field. Each discipline defines and structures its subject matter content knowledge differently so it is important to think beyond the boundaries of a particular subject. Essentially, SMK is a teacher’s understanding and command over the content in the subject that he or she teaches. For example, a high-school history teacher needs to have an advanced understanding of the history taught in secondary schools. Without that knowledge, it is difficult for a teacher to enable the students to acquire the same knowledge.

SMK is the key organizer of a secondary teacher’s professional life (Grossman & Stodolsky, 1994). The content knowledge of a particular discipline is at the center of a teacher’s lesson planning and the majority of classroom interactions with students, which causes the amount of SMK to directly influence the level of confidence that a teacher has when teaching his or her particular discipline (Floden & Meniketti, 2005). Teachers are expected to know the basic concepts and principles within their discipline, as well as the way in which those basic concepts and principles are established (Shulman, 1986). Essential to the discussion of SMK is the question: where do teachers acquire their SMK?

SMK is primarily taught in coursework taken in A&S departments. Teaching the concepts and principles of SMK is outside the scope of education coursework and is transmitted from the experts of the discipline to novices in A&S coursework. If a prospective chemistry teacher is expected to teach the knowledge and skills associated with chemistry, he or she needs to know what those knowledge and skills look like—he or she needs to experience the discipline and acquire the knowledge and skills. The most
qualified people on a college/university campus to teach the prospective chemistry teacher about the discipline are the chemists who reside in the college of arts and sciences. In the case of preparing future history teachers, historians are the most qualified people on a college/university campus to impart the knowledge of the discipline. Understanding the discipline is a prerequisite for effective teaching (Holt-Reynolds, 1999).

SMK in history can be broken into two interdependent types of knowledge: substantive knowledge and procedural knowledge (Lee, 1983). Substantive knowledge in history refers to the content of the discipline, meaning the historical themes, people, places, and events. Substantive knowledge is the basis for most student learning goals and assessments, and it is typically found in a student’s history textbook. Procedural knowledge refers to the process and skills needed to investigate history and includes evaluating evidence, having empathy, and establishing historical significance (Lee, 1983; Levesque, 2008). Procedural skills in history are often referred to as historical thinking skills (Wineburg, 2001).

Wineburg (1997) discusses the unfortunate use of vocabulary when discussing SMK in history. When discussing SMK, we are often “boxed in by binary oppositions—breadth/depth, content/process, declarative/procedural” (p. 256). The overreliance on binaries does not give justice to the complexities of the discipline. Within SMK in history there exist grey areas that fit in between binary concepts like content/process or substantive/procedural. There is more to history than content and process; there is a grey area in which content and process interact in order for historical content knowledge to be acquired. These concepts are multidimensional and interdependent, which make it more
difficult for teachers and students to gain a sophisticated understanding of SMK in history.

Knowing the substantive and procedural knowledge of history is an arduous task for any teacher, not to mention a novice teacher. One person simply cannot learn all of the substantive history considering the breadth and depth of the discipline; however, one could obtain the procedural knowledge of the discipline. Skills, such as sourcing, contextualizing, empathy, and colligation, enable teachers to study the discipline and understand the content of historical knowledge (Lee, 1983; Wineburg, 2001; Levesque, 2008). Assuming a teacher cannot learn all of the substantive knowledge in history, then having the procedural skills will allow him or her to teach any topic or time period in history given an adequate amount of resources and support.

Expecting history teachers to have both substantive and procedural knowledge is, in essence, asking them to be “historians.” The people on a university campus who are most qualified with the knowledge and skills to prepare historians are typically located in the college of arts and sciences—the historians themselves. This is not to say that history teacher educators are not qualified to impart the requisite SMK, but rather that historians are given the responsibility of imparting SMK through content courses, and they should take that responsibility seriously. The history-specific preparation in schools of education is typically a singular methods course often taught by faculty members without a major or minor in history (Ravitch, 2000).

Pedagogical Content Knowledge. The term “pedagogical content knowledge” was coined by Shulman (1986, 1987) to bring attention to the way in which SMK was used in the context of teaching. PCK is the “way of representing and formulating the subject that
makes it comprehensible” (Shulman, 1986). Teachers’ instructional decisions are shaped by their PCK, which distinguishes teachers from their non-teaching peers in the discipline.

Shulman (1986, 1987) and Grossman (1990) are clear in their position that PCK cannot be obtained without first acquiring SMK. Without knowledge of the content, novice teachers lack the structure upon which they base their pedagogical decisions. Much of the knowledge and skills required for the beginning phases of pedagogical reasoning are established and developed in A&S coursework. With A&S faculty members influencing pedagogical knowledge and decisions, it is essential that they begin to acknowledge the responsibility that they have to the future teachers of their discipline.

As is the case with all secondary school subjects, adequate PCK is needed for a teacher to represent SMK in a way that students can comprehend and acquire the substantive and procedural knowledge of history. If teachers do not understand the nature of historical knowledge, they will be unable to design and implement meaningful learning opportunities for their students (Barton & Levstik, 2004). It is unreasonable to expect teachers to teach students how to think historically when they are unable to do it themselves. To use the phrase that Wineburg (2001) coined, historical thinking is an “unnatural act,” and teachers need to learn how to do the skill before teaching it.

Curricular Knowledge. CK is the understanding of the full range of programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects at particular levels and the ability to use the resources available to teach that range of programs (Shulman, 1986). CK includes the ability to understand the most appropriate curricular alternatives that are present for a particular topic of study. Shulman uses the analogy of a physician presented with a
disorder. The public expects that the physician would understand the full range of methods available to treat the patient. In addition to the physician knowing all the available treatments, he or she is expected to know the costs and benefits associated with each method and how it has the potential to impact the patient’s decision-making process. Constantly comparing teaching to other professions, Shulman asserts that the public should expect teachers to understand all of the curricular alternatives available for instruction similar to the expectation that a physician knows all the treatment alternatives. Teachers should also understand the costs and benefits of using each instructional strategy while keeping student content mastery at the forefront.

CK in history has gotten easier to obtain with the influx of curricular programs provided by school districts and resources found on the Internet. Websites, such as History Matters by George Mason University (http://historymatters.gmu.edu/), provide countless lesson plans, primary and secondary documents, and images that teachers can use in their classroom. Before the advent of the computer age, teachers had trouble finding resources; now they have difficulties evaluating the large number of resources available at their disposal.

Procedural knowledge is needed for teachers to be able to evaluate available resources and determine the best way to convey content to their students. As previously mentioned, history professors are expected to teach the knowledge and skills of the discipline in their respective courses. Unfortunately, college history courses are primarily taught in a lecture format, which is another reason why historians should care about preparing future history teachers (VanSledright, 2007). Through the apprenticeship model of teaching, prospective teachers are bound to use lectures as a method of
transmitting knowledge rather than teaching historical-thinking skills so that students can comprehend and acquire historical knowledge, both substantive and procedural (VanSledright, 2011).

Included in CK is the understanding of what topics and skills are taught to students at each level of schooling. Since states and districts determine the scope and sequence of study for their schools, it is difficult for education faculty and A&S faculty to prepare students for the schools that they will ultimately work in. Fortunately, all states require pre-service teachers in approved teacher education programs to complete a clinical experience in a local school. University supervisors, in conjunction with K–12 personnel, assist students understanding the scope and sequence of history in schools.

Just as PCK required SMK, CK also necessitates knowledge of the subject matter. Teacher educators carry the bulk of the responsibility associated with transmitting CK to pre-service teachers, but they still require A&S faculty assistance. Teachers cannot understand the programs designed for teaching a discipline without knowledge of the discipline itself. The importance of SMK, PCK, and CK further endorses Conant’s (1963) call for making teacher education an “all-university responsibility.” Unfortunately, the truce that he requested has yet to materialize.

SMK in history is complex and multifaceted. If teachers are expected to acquire PCK, they need deep SMK, which is the responsibility of A&S departments. States acknowledge the importance of content coursework by establishing licensure requirement, albeit low coursework requirements, but requirements nonetheless. History faculty members are responsible for teaching the knowledge of their discipline to future teachers. They spend their entire professional careers working in the discipline and have
the opportunity to support prospective teachers as they acquire the requisite knowledge to teach students. The following section provides examples of history departments that have become involved in teacher education to show that the participation in teacher education is possible and beneficial to prospective history teachers.

**Research Questions**

Although my experience with a history faculty member in my teacher preparation program was limited to one semester, it highly influenced my future teaching methods. In retrospect, I wonder how my experience in that class would have been different if a historian did not co-instruct the course. Other questions come to mind, such as why did the historian teach the course? Did he receive support from his department chair? Did the course factor into his quest for tenure? Was his participation valued as a service commitment or a teaching assignment? Was the course part of his typical workload or was it overload? Regardless of the answers to those questions, that initial experience has led to my quest to determine why historians participate in preparing future teachers of their discipline.

The research questions described here have evolved over time, beginning with my experiences as a pre-service teacher at JHU and continuing through the completion of my coursework at the University of Maryland. It was not until my Pedagogy of Teacher Education course that I realized not every teacher experienced the same level of interaction with A&S faculty that I had had. Actually, it is rare that A&S faculty teach with education faculty in a collective manner (McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000). The spring after completing Pedagogy of Teacher Education, I had the opportunity to further investigate the phenomenon of A&S involvement in teacher
education. In spring 2008 as a member of an external evaluation team, I had the opportunity to talk to A&S faculty members who were involved in the teacher education program at Boston College (BC). We were given the charge of providing a comprehensive look at the Teachers for a New Era (TNE) Project at BC, which included a focus on A&S faculty involvement in teacher education. I, along with the rest of the group, had the privilege to speak with several A&S faculty members about their role in the preparation of future teachers of their discipline. A&S faculty members had fascinating stories about their passion for preparing teachers and how they were able to overcome the institutional pressures against collaborating with the school of education. A particular English professor told the evaluation team that even though his work with pre-service teachers would not factor into his quest for tenure, he was committed to working with prospective teachers. He spoke openly about his experience of observing pre-service teachers in the local schools and his realization that the local schools were teaching advanced content. His passion for preparing future English teachers was evident, and it is work that he continues two years after our last visit to BC.

The experiences that the A&S faculty members at BC shared with the evaluation team conjured up more questions than answers regarding A&S faculty involvement in teacher education. It was clear that the professors were voluntary participants in preparing teachers, but why were they so willing? Clearly, even though BC had received a substantial grant to promote A&S faculty engagement in teacher education, faculty

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5 As an English faculty member with a focus on Shakespeare, he was surprised at the depth of analysis that the teachers and students were conducting in a secondary British literature class.

6 In a series of follow-up e-mails during August 2010, the English faculty member at BC discussed his current work with teacher education. He took a break from participating in the TNE initiative during the fall 2010 semester but is planning on resuming that work when he returns from sabbatical. He continues to speak fondly of his work with prospective teachers—clearly the passion remains.
members still received resistance from their department chairs and other colleagues. It was evident that they enjoyed their work with prospective teachers and it was work that they wanted to continue; however, they were concerned with the level of institutional support and the effect of this involvement on the promotion and tenure process.

My time at JHU and BC, along with subsequent coursework and expansive literature review, ultimately led to the formation of the following research questions:

1. What personal and institutional factors lead historians to become engaged in the teacher education program at their respective institutions?
2. What institutional barriers limit historians’ level of involvement in teacher education programs?
3. How do historians benefit, both personally and professionally, from being involved in preparing future teachers of their discipline?
4. What are historians’ and teacher educators’ perceived value of historians’ involvement in teacher preparation?

Significance of the Study

Zeichner (2005) makes several recommendations for future research topics in teacher education and ways to design research in order to strengthen the knowledge base in teacher education. Within the discussion of the research agenda in teacher education, he calls for an extension of “research on teacher education curriculum and program of study, and instructional interaction” (p. 746). Research on A&S faculty involvement addresses Zeichner’s call for strengthening the knowledge base in teacher education.

7 Stake (1995) proposes that a researcher starts with “a set of 10 or 20 prospective questions” and ultimately pares them down to a few (p. 20).
programs of study and the instructional interaction between faculty and prospective teachers.

As previously mentioned, there are organizational factors that promote internal collaboration in higher education (Kezar, 2005; Kezar & Lester, 2009); however, there is limited research specific to colleges of education and their collaboration with A&S faculty members. According to Kezar (2005), institutional support needs to be in place for collaboration to be successful; however, there are examples of A&S faculty members who overcome colleague and institutional opposition and become involved in teacher education. Examples of A&S involvement despite a lack of support indicate that existing personal factors can lead to their participation in preparing teachers.

Education literature establishes that preparing teachers should be a university-wide responsibility; however, we do not know the personal and institutional factors that promote a “university-wide” approach. Higher education literature explains the factors that can lead to internal collaboration at colleges and universities, but the extension and application of those findings to teacher preparation would only be conjecture. To adequately answer my research questions, intense investigation of teacher education programs with high levels of A&S faculty involvement were conducted. Case study methodology was the most appropriate way to examine this particular phenomenon.

Over the past several years, the Organization of American Historians (OAH) and the American Historical Association (AHA) have given greater attention to matters of collaboration with schools, colleges, and departments of education to prepare and develop history teachers (Westhoff & Polman, 2008). Arnita Jones (2010), the executive
director of AHA and former executive director of OAH, recently provided the following stance on the historian’s role in teacher preparation:

There is certainly some truth to the charge that history departments have neglected opportunities to educate and train the students who will be the nation’s history teachers, although there have always been some [who] took this responsibility seriously. More, though, have not reached out to schools of education and instead have complained about the quality of students these schools attract (para. 2).

Jones follows her admission by recommending that historians apply the Teaching American History (TAH) grant program model to teacher preparation programs, whereby historians help “teachers to develop a deeper understanding and appreciation of U.S. history as a separate subject matter within the core curriculum [to] improve instruction and raise student achievement” (Teaching American History, 2010). She calls for “the opportunity for students to gain rigorous instruction in historical content, to apply different historical tools and methods in historical research, and to become familiar with new understandings of history teaching and learning” (para. 3).

Historians and history educators are not the only ones calling for greater levels of collaboration between education and history departments—history teachers are also calling for collaboration in their teacher preparation programs. According to Knupfer (2010), history teachers’ greatest criticism regarding their undergraduate preparation is the divide between their courses in history and education. To address this criticism, historians need “to bridge that divide by building relationships between departments and even by beginning to integrate teacher training practices into history instruction” (para. 3).
3). Historians and teacher educators should work collaboratively to determine how the needs of future history teachers differ from the needs of future historians or students taking a history course to fulfill college or university requirements. Once the needs of students are identified, courses most appropriate for prospective history teachers should be identified (or developed if they do not exist) and teacher education students should be encouraged or mandated to take that respective course (Barton, 2010).

Not only are historical associations and history teachers calling for historian involvement in teacher education, but so are teacher education associations and accreditation councils. In 2010, NCATE established its Blue Ribbon Panel on Clinical Preparation and Partnerships for Improved Student Learning. The Blue Ribbon Panel, composed of “state officials, P–12 and higher-education leaders, teachers, teacher educators, union representatives, and critics of teacher education,” identified 10 design principles and a series of strategies meant to “revolutionize” teacher education. According to the Blue Ribbon Panel’s report, in order to prepare teachers who are content experts, academic faculty must be engaged in the clinical preparation of teachers (NCATE, 2010). Institutions such as National Louis University (IL) and Boston College (MA) were all identified as programs exhibiting promising practices in engaging A&S faculty in teacher preparation.

In addition to supporting the Blue Ribbon report, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), a national alliance of educator preparation programs, explicitly supported the engagement of A&S faculty in teacher education in its recent report entitled 21st Century Knowledge and Skills in Educator Preparation. According to AACTE (2010), “implementing a 21st century vision will be much more
successful if it is part of a college- or university-wide transformation…. It is preferable to pursue a university-wide approach that involves the president, provosts, and other department heads and deans” (p. 14). Assuming the president, provost, and department heads support a university-wide approach to teacher preparation, the AACTE report suggests that A&S faculty engagement will occur.

Professional associations in history (AHA and OAH) as well as professional and accreditation associations of teacher education (NCATE and AACTE) clearly support A&S faculty involvement in teacher education; however, calls for change have yet to be realized (Jones, 2010; NCATE, 2010). Barriers that prevent collaboration among education and history faculty seem to be too great for most colleges and universities and manageable at a select few (e.g., Boston College and Johns Hopkins University).

Summary

In Zeichner’s (2005) *Research Agenda for Teacher Education*, he calls for “more in-depth multi-institutional case studies of teacher education programs and their components” (p. 740). This process of investigating various teacher education programs can provide a better understanding of promising practices in preparing future teachers. One such promising practice in teacher education is the process of A&S involvement in preparing future teachers of their discipline (AACTE, 2010; NCATE, 2010). A&S involvement in teacher education has the potential to simultaneously improve SMK and PCK; however, it is a practice that is not widely accepted in A&S departments (King, 1987). This study investigated historians engaged in teacher preparation in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the factors that promote their involvement and the benefits derived from their work.
Chapter 2: Review of Literature and Conceptual Framework

Overview

The Council of Colleges of Arts and Sciences (CCAS), an organization composed of 680 deans of colleges of arts and sciences at 444 baccalaureate-degree granting institutions, weighed in on the role of A&S departments and faculty in teacher education. In a statement entitled “Resolution on Teacher Education,” CCAS made the following recommendations:

Council of Colleges of Arts and Sciences urges its member institutions to affirm publicly that teacher education is the responsibility of every academic and administrative department contributing to the education of teachers. Furthermore, the Council of Colleges of Arts and Sciences urges every college and academic department that contributes to the education of teachers to make this important responsibility one of its priorities. Furthermore, the membership of CCAS urges that the faculty of all colleges, schools, and departments involved in teacher education be represented in the institutional design of the best possible educational program for teachers, as well as in the determination of individual areas of responsibility for implementing the many components of the program and for assessing its effectiveness (CCAS, 2001).

CCAS has made their stance on A&S involvement in teacher education quite clear; however, it is not uncommon to find that most A&S faculty feel little responsibility for the preparation of teachers (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). Even though A&S faculty members are responsible for the disciplinary knowledge of teachers, especially at the secondary level, they are typically not formally involved in or engaged with preparing
future teachers of their discipline. They will teach prospective teachers in both general education and academic or specialized content courses along with other students pursuing other academic degrees but infrequently consider the special needs of the future teachers. While preparing teachers is a primary responsibility of schools, colleges, and departments of education, it is rarely the focus of a college of arts and sciences (Conant, 1963; Durcharme, 1993; Tom, 1997; CCAS, 2001). In the past eighty years, there have been a multitude of teacher education reform efforts calling for A&S involvement in preparing teachers but those efforts have been met with only modest success.

From the American Council on Education’s Commission on Teacher Education (1944) to the most highly funded reform effort to date, Teachers for a New Era (TNE) in 2001, there are dozens of initiatives designed to promote greater collaboration between A&S faculty members and faculty in schools of education. Unfortunately, institutional factors, such as departmental rivalries, burdensome bureaucratic structures, fiscal constraints, and restrictive promotion and tenure policies, have prevented the cross-institutional partnerships from being successful (Kanter, 1994; Kezar, 2005). Even though collaboration can improve student learning and produce better teachers, teacher education programs have faced great resistance when attempting to make teacher education a campus-wide responsibility.

This chapter is an attempt to explain the involvement, or lack thereof, of A&S faculty in the preparation of future history teachers. The field lacks a substantive knowledge base on the involvement of historians in the preparation of future history teachers, not to mention A&S faculty involvement in preparing teachers for any discipline. Due to the lack of research in this area of interest, I refer to higher education
research and reports on teacher education reforms to explain this phenomenon. This
literature review is organized by four distinct bodies of knowledge; (1) teacher education
reform efforts calling for A&S involvement in teacher education; (2) barriers to
collaboration in higher education; (3) factors promoting collaboration in higher
education, and (4) factors both inhibiting and promoting A&S faculty involvement in
teacher education. When applicable, I draw on history education literature to determine
the factors that may prohibit or promote historians involvement in teacher education.

Before delving into the literature pertaining to collaboration in higher education, it
is important to clearly establish the scope of this review and define the terms discussed
within the higher education literature.

Collaboration in Higher Education

Collaboration is defined in a multitude of ways across many disciplines (Kezar,
2005). All of these definitions include concepts of working together across structures and
having a common goal; however, considering the nature of colleges and universities, I
turn to a definition in organizational development to guide this paper. According to Wood
& Gray (1991), organizational collaboration can be defined as “a process in which a
group of autonomous stakeholders of an issue domain engage in an interactive process,
using shared rules, norms, and structures to act or decide on issues related to that
domain” (p. 437). As Kezar (2005) points out, the literature is split between two distinct
types of collaboration—internal and external collaboration. Internal collaboration is the
process of two or more groups within a larger organization working together and external
collaboration is the process of organizations or sub-organizations working in conjunction
with an outside organization. For example, a physics department working with the
engineering department would classify as internal collaboration as opposed to the physics department working with NASA, which would qualify as external collaboration. Schools, colleges, or departments of education (SCDEs) are relatively successful in external collaborations (e.g., relying on school systems to develop professional development schools or to place pre-service teachers in local K-12 settings) due to the necessity of partnerships in providing clinical experiences to prospective teachers. SCDE and A&S partnerships can be evidence of internal collaboration; therefore, this study only addresses internal as opposed to external collaboration. While it is possible for teacher education programs to involve historians who hold appointments outside of a college or university, for the purpose of this study those historians do not qualify as A&S faculty.

When identifying the literature to be reviewed, it was important to limit my search to specific types of colleges and universities. First, the literature is restricted to baccalaureate-granting colleges and universities. The bulk of teachers in K-12 schools are prepared in such institutions because every certified teacher needs at least a four-year degree (Wilson & Youngs, 2005). This review is also restricted to collaboration at the undergraduate-level. A&S faculty involvement in teacher education is important in the preparation and professional development of all teachers throughout their professional lives (Learned & Bagley, 1920; Conant, 1963; McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000; Cantu, 2008); however, it is the contention of this study that it is more important for them to be involved at the undergraduate-level than at the graduate level, which primarily focus on education coursework. Outside of the rare extended and integrated five-year model in which a student begins taking graduate-level education courses in his/her third academic year and receives a bachelor’s and master’s degree from the same institution
(Arends & Winitzky, 1996), graduate teacher education programs assume that content knowledge has been acquired prior to the candidate’s admission. In fifth-year programs leading to a master’s degree and teacher certification, coursework is primarily in SCDEs and rarely offered in colleges of arts and sciences\(^8\) (Zeichner & Conklin, 2005). This literature review, therefore, will focus only on undergraduate education at four-year institutions.

Besides the level of education provided by the college or university, it is important to identify the differences between types of four-year institutions. The following descriptions of four-year institutions\(^9\) are based upon The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching’s (n.d.) basic classification of institutions of higher education (IHEs):

- **Doctorate-granting Universities**: These IHEs grant at least 20 doctoral degrees excluding professional practice degrees, such as the Ed.D., J.D., and M.D.. These institutions are further broken down based on research activity, which classifies them as either research universities, research universities with high research activity, or research universities with very high research activity.

- **Master’s Colleges and Universities**: These IHEs offer at least 50 masters’ degrees and less than 20 doctorates. Master’s colleges and universities are further broken down by size, with programs issuing over 200 masters’ degrees a year being

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\(^8\) See Stotko, Beaty-O’Ferrall, & Yerkes (2005) for an example of a graduate teacher education program involving A&S faculty in the preparation of teachers.

\(^9\) Associate’s colleges are part of the basic classification but are excluded from this literature review. According to the Carnegie Foundation (n.d.), these IHEs can issue bachelor’s degrees as long as it accounts for less than 10% of their total degrees confirmed. Tribal colleges are also part of the basic classifications; however, none of the 32 colleges appeared in the literature.
considered “large,” programs issuing between 100 and 199 masters’ degrees considered “medium,” and programs issuing less than 100 masters’ degrees considered “small.”

- **Baccalaureate Colleges:** Formerly known as liberal arts colleges and often referred to as such in the literature, these IHEs grant less than 50 masters’ degrees a year and more than 10% of their undergraduate degrees are at the bachelor’s level. If half of the bachelors’ degrees are in the arts and sciences, the baccalaureate college is included in the “Arts & Sciences” group, while the remaining institutions are in the “Diverse Fields” group.

- **Special Focus Institutions:** These IHEs award baccalaureates and higher degrees primarily in a single field or a set of related fields. These special foci include, but are not limited to, theological seminaries, medical schools, schools of law. Schools primarily issuing education degrees fall under the “other special-focus institutions,” which includes Bank Street College of Education.

Due to the varied sizes, settings, and missions of IHEs, the barriers that prevent and factors that promote collaboration may differ across colleges or universities; yet, much of the higher education and teacher education literature fails to make the distinctions between the classifications of IHEs and to make generalizations across sizes and settings of colleges and universities (Stein & Short, 2001; Kezar & Lester, 2009).

While each IHE may not have an official college of arts and sciences, the term “arts and sciences” is used within this chapter to describe academic departments in the arts, humanities, natural sciences, mathematics, and the social sciences. For example, a large doctorate-granting university might have a separate college of arts and sciences
while a small baccalaureate college may be solely composed of departments within the arts and sciences. Within the context of higher education collaboration, A&S involvement in teacher education refers to the process of faculty participating in the planning, implementation, or evaluation of a teacher education program. For example, a historian, whose academic appointment is in the history department, teaching a social studies methods course would qualify as a form of A&S involvement in teacher education for the purposes of this study.

Essential to the collaboration in higher education is that the partnership must produce benefits for the partners. Beyond the initial benefits of collaboration, the partnership must continue to yield benefits in order for all parties to remain engaged (Kanter, 1994). The following section identifies some of the benefits associated with collaboration in higher education.

**Benefits of Collaboration in Higher Education.** Much of the limited research base on the benefits of collaboration in higher education are based upon Peter Senge’s (1990) *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of Learning Organization* and Rosabeth Moss Kanter’s (1994) *Collaborative Advantage: The Art of Alliances*. Both seminal works investigate collaboration in corporations and discuss the potential benefits of building partnerships within the organization and with external parties. According to Senge (1990), collaboration within an organization and with external partners creates a learning environment that enables the organization to adapt to changing market forces. He identifies the ability to increase effectiveness and meet environmental demands as the two leading benefits associated with collaboration. Kanter (1994) coined the term “collaborative advantage” to describe the value that collaborating provides to parties
engaged in a partnership. These early publications illuminated the value of corporate collaboration and helped shape future research in higher education.

Internal collaboration in higher education often occurs while planning and implementing a new curriculum or a new interdisciplinary course (Briggs, 2007). Case studies have been conducted on individual interdisciplinary courses; however, those are often self-studies and discuss the planning and implementation process rather than the benefits of the collaboration. Lattuca and Creamer (2005) investigated interdisciplinary research and teaching collaboration and found that the major benefit to the work is that “it allows efficiencies gained by a clear division of labor” (p. 5). Briggs (2007) suggests that collaboration promotes improvements in student learning and instructional practice. According to Wenger and Snyder (2000), additional benefits of collaboration in higher education include being able to solve problems quickly, transferring best practices, developing professional skills, increasing the sense of collegiality, and helping recruit and retain faculty talent.

Before reviewing the potential factors that prohibit and promote collaboration, it is important to establish the historical context of A&S faculty and teacher education collaboration.

**History of Arts and Sciences and Teacher Education**

In 1920, Learned and Bagley along with several other researchers, published *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools: A Study Based Upon an Examination of Tax-Supported Normal Schools in the State of Missouri*. In response to their success in commissioning the Flexner (1910) report on medical education, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching commissioned Learned and
Bagley to conduct an exhaustive study on the tax-supported “normal schools” in Missouri (Fraser, 2007). While this report was much more limited in focus compared to the now famous *Flexner Report*, it made recommendations on “what is the best [teacher] preparation and what is the duty of the State in meeting it, and how can the State secure the greatest benefit at a minimum expense” (Missouri governor Elliot Major in Fraser, 2007, pp. 128-129). Among the many recommendations made in their 475-page report, Learned and Bagley suggested that “the minimum standard of admission to all professional teaching curricula should be the requirement of graduation from an approved four-year secondary school” (Learned & Bagley, 1920, p. 391). This report, along with the 1923 American Association of Teachers Colleges standards, established that normal schools would no longer be a substitute for high school, but, rather, a post-secondary institution that offered two-year and four-year program options. While it would take decades to be fully implemented, teacher education evolved into a post-secondary endeavor that drew upon faculties from A&S and education.

Within the larger recommendation of post-secondary teacher preparation, Learned and Bagley made suggestions on what the new “collegiate curriculum” would include. In addition to so-called “professional” courses—“psychology, the history of education, principles of teaching, school management, [and] practice teaching,” they argued that the curriculum should include “courses of distinctly collegiate character in all of the subject-matter that the student proposes to teach” (p. 393). Advocating a sequence of content courses, Learned and Bagley also recommended that “all teachers of the so-called

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10 The term “normal school” was used starting in the 1830s and largely disappeared in the 1930s. Normal schools could be supported by the state, municipality, or be privately funded. The curriculum could take anywhere between one and five years to complete. Some normal schools were considered the equivalent to a high school while some required a high school diploma for admission. During the early 20th century, normal schools began to seek college status and many became known as teachers colleges (Fraser, 2007).
academic subjects should hold a direct and responsible relationship to the training school” (p. 394). The proposal that future teachers should experience academic subjects related to their future teaching assignments is a theme that is repeated over the following half century. Thanks to the confluence of Learned and Bagley’s report, the adoption of standards to govern the emergence of teachers colleges by the American Association of Teachers Colleges’, and a teacher surplus caused in part by the Great Depression, states were able to regulate the preparation of teachers and to ensure that there was close collaboration between the academic subjects and courses in teacher education (Fraser, 2007). Several other large-scale studies, such as Flexner and Frank Bachman’s Public Education in Maryland (1916) and E.S. Evenden’s National Survey of the Education of Teachers (1934), persisted with this theme of interconnection between the academic subjects and teacher education and recommended that all teachers take a combination of courses in an academic discipline and in professional education at a public or private teachers college. While the teachers colleges would ultimately drop the word “teachers” from their name by the 1960s, “indicating a shift from a more or less single-minded focus on teacher education to being a multipurpose university serving a wide range of students with many different programs” (Fraser, 2007, p. 185), the priority placed on ensuring subject matter knowledge and a professional sequence of courses was embodied in these emerging institutions. With teacher preparation moving to a post-secondary setting and with both professional education and content course requirements, the issue of how to engage academic subject faculty in the process arose, just as Learned and Bagley suggested in 1920.
When Harvard President James Bryant Conant made his initial call for teacher education to be considered an “all-university approach,” it was done at Columbia University’s Teachers College’s 50th anniversary in front of a crowd primarily composed of education professionals. The Teachers College faculty that day consisted of both subject matter specialists and professional educational faculty, all part of an institution that was recognized as the premier college for the preparation of teachers and other school personnel. Academic courses or subject matter courses for prospective teachers were taught at Teachers College despite all of the academic resources of Columbia University sitting just across 120th Street. Conant was urging that the Teachers College faculty reach out to the Columbia A&S faculty and invite them to join them in the preparation of future teachers. Professional educators thought there was something unique about the teaching of subject matter knowledge to prospective teachers and insisted that they were best equipped to do so. Conant was suggesting an alternative that would come to prevail over the next half century – that future teachers undertake both their general education and the learning of the subjects they would eventually teach with faculty in the liberal arts. Conant was insisting that teacher education was an all university responsibility and that the intellectual resources of the A&S should be used to enhance the subject matter knowledge of prospective teachers.

As teacher education moved away from its normal school roots and into a prominent place in higher education institutions in the post-World War II era, there was the insistence that liberal arts faculty should play a significant role in the preparation of teachers. In exchange for the enrollment of thousands of prospective teachers in the
content courses of A&S faculty, it was expected that those faculty would contribute to the professional education of teachers.

As Stratemeyer optimistically noted in her examination of the professional sequence in education “work in professional education is directly related to the other parts of the teacher-education program” (Stratemeyer, 1958). She went on to note that teacher educators needed to draw from fields as diverse as nutrition, psychology, biology and sociology to address concerns facing future teachers. The Teachers College professor acknowledged that “the academic fields provide the essential understandings and skills which the teacher needs as he helps pupils with their concerns for everyday living.” She concluded by suggesting that “integration within the professional areas and recognition of interrelationships between professional and academic fields are essential to the preparation of the teacher.” While the type of faculty (professional or academic faculty with subject matter competence as well as understanding of children and youth and the curriculum of K-12 schools) and the ways that the content of the academic fields would be conveyed would continue to be contested, the audience that listened to Conant that day would witness the redistribution of teacher preparation across the college campus. The expectation by teacher educators that A&S would engage fully in the preparation of teachers beyond offering general education and specialized courses would go unfulfilled. There are many reasons why this expectation was not met. Colleges and universities are complex systems that consist of many subunits with different goals or different strategies targeted to achieve the same goal (Birnbaum, 1988). In this case, A&S departments have their own goals, which often do not align with the goals of SCDEs (Patterson, Michelli, & Pacheco, 1999).
Since Conant’s speech in 1944, there have been a series of teacher education reform efforts aimed at involving A&S faculty in teacher education. There have been many large-scale efforts dedicated to improving teacher education but not all of them have had a major aim at involving disciplinary professors (e.g., The Teacher Corps program that emerged in the late 1960s was an exception to this rule and engaged substantial numbers of A&S faculty). This section will review only those teacher education reform efforts which had the explicit goal of creating and sustaining partnerships between A&S faculty and SCDEs. These efforts include the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS), the National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER), The Holmes Group, The Renaissance Group, Project 30, and Teachers for a New Era (TNE).

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS). The National Education Association (NEA) responded to Conant’s call for improving teacher preparation by establishing the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS) in 1946. For nearly fifteen years, the Commission would attempt to develop models of teacher recruitment, selection, training, certification, and advancement of professional standards (Wilson & Youngs, 2005). One of their tenets was that A&S faculty’s involvement in teacher education was critical to the “professionalization” of teaching.

According to Wilson and Youngs (2005), criticisms of teaching during the 1960s combined with the increased militancy of teachers and a push for unionization undercut the TEPS’s professionalization agenda and led to its demise in 1971. Part of TEPS’s professionalization agenda included the involvement of A&S faculty in teacher
education. TEPS promoted their agenda by sponsoring conferences throughout the country aimed at informing teacher educators on ways to enact change at their institution. While it is unsure how many SCDEs TEPS influenced, the commission along with the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) and the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) created a central body for accreditation entitled the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) in 1952 (Wilson & Youngs, 2005).

NCATE was originally established to allow A&S faculty to have more influence on teacher education programs (Angus, 2001); however, the teachers and teacher educators demanded and gradually took control over the governing body.

TEPS suggestions for involving A&S faculty strongly resemble the factors that promote internal collaboration in IHEs; however, there are few, if any, studies that offer evidence that these policy suggestions were effective. TEPS encouraged SCDEs to create integrated structures in which A&S and education faculty could work together and design courses that prepare teachers for the disciplines they will teach (Cottrell, 1956). Slightly different from current research and reform efforts, TEPS wanted SCDEs to work under current structures rather than to create new ones that would support stronger partnerships. Most of the commission’s other suggestions focused on course selection of pre-service teachers rather than altering any of the work that A&S faculty members were conducting. In the 1960s, it was still not a requirement for teachers to hold a bachelor’s degree so to fully integrate A&S faculty in teacher education was an ambitious goal (Fraser, 2007).

*National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER). A Place Called School* (1984) is the product of John Goodlad and his colleagues’ at the University of California
at Los Angeles research into the working of schools. The research relied on “painstakingly structured and sustained visits to a carefully selected group of schools, watching, recording, comparing, and assessing” (Sizer, 1999 in Goodlad, 2004, p. ix).

Relying on data provided by over 27,000 individuals, Goodlad (1984) provided a thorough description of the status of the public school system. A year later, the findings of Goodlad’s research were parlayed into the creation of the National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER).

NNER, founded by John Goodlad and several of his colleagues, is a membership network “dedicated to the simultaneous renewal of schools and the institutions that prepare our teachers” (About NNER, n.d.). This network originally began with 10 settings and has grown to its current size of 24. Each setting consists of local schools and at least one college or university responsible for preparing teachers. Each site is unique in location, size, and number of participating institutions but they all have a “tripartite council” with representation from higher education arts and science, education, and public schools. The network’s mission has four primary foci; (1) provide access to knowledge for all children, (2) educate the young for thoughtful participation in a social and political democracy, (3) base teaching on knowledge of subjects, principles of learning, and sensitivity to the potential of learners, and (4) take responsibility for improving the learning conditions in P-12 schools, IHEs, and communities (NNER Mission Statement, 2007).

NNER’s membership network introduced the idea that A&S faculty needed to collaborate with education faculty and P-12 schools in order to adequately prepare

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11 Goodlad granted access to his data to the National Commission on Excellence in Education, which was ultimately used to create the Commission’s report, *A Nation at Risk* (Sizer, 1999 in Goodlad, 2004).
teachers for the future, which was implemented through the creation of “Centers of Pedagogy” (Goodlad, 1990; Goodlad, 1994; Patterson, Michelli, & Pacheco, 1999). Centers of Pedagogy bring together the three parties responsible for preparing teachers—education faculty, A&S faculty, and faculty in local schools. Each member of the “tripartite” has equal say in the preparation of teachers and the center “should be organized and operated so as to emphasize the unique qualities that each member brings to an effective program of ongoing renewal” (Patterson, Michelli, & Pacheco, 1999, p. 59). The key to these networks is for all parties involved to share the responsibility of teacher preparation and collaborating to foster inquiry about pedagogy and learning—both actions would improve the quality of prospective teachers.

*The Holmes Group.* The Holmes Group, a consortium of 96 research universities with professional education programs, was established in response to the following trends in teacher education: (1) several of the nation’s strongest universities had eliminated, or were eliminating, their SCDEs’ (2) these universities and policymakers viewed teacher education as an endeavor unworthy of the nation’s best universities’ time and energy; and (3) people outside the realm of teacher education believed that education schools were neither producing effective teachers nor had the potential to do so. In response to these attacks on teacher education, the Holmes Group institutions set forth a two-pronged agenda to reverse the political and academic attacks on SCDEs: (1) strengthen the connections between SCDEs and the rest of the university, specifically the colleges of arts and sciences; and (2) strengthen the connections between SCDEs and their partners (teachers, administrators, partner schools, etc.) (About the Holmes Partnership, n.d.).
In an effort to achieve their agenda, the Holmes Group published *Tomorrow’s Teachers* (1986), which established their vision for good teaching, recommended an agenda for change, and identified the obstacles to achieving widespread reform. Yinger and Hendricks (1990) described six types of reforms implemented at Holmes Group institutions: (1) new connections with faculty in arts and sciences; (2) teacher and school collaborations; (3) professional development schools; (4) internships; (5) professional studies; and (6) new organizational partnerships. Of the 50 Holmes Group institutions analyzed, Yinger and Hendricks found that 28 colleges or universities have experienced success in making connections to the arts and sciences.

*Project 30 Alliance.* As a result of efforts conducted by NNER and the Holmes Group, Project 30 Alliance (ASTEC Project 30) was born in 1988. The Project 30 Alliance, later named the Arts and Science Teacher Education Collaborative (ASTEC) Project 30 in 1991, was headed by Frank Murray and Daniel Fallon and consisted of 32 colleges and universities. Murray and Fallon added their institutions, University of Delaware and Texas A&M, to the original 30 institutions (F.B. Murray, personal communication, May 9, 2010). These 32 institutions, sponsored by Carnegie Corporation of New York, set forth to redesign their teacher education programs with the “full engagement of faculties of arts and sciences with faculties in education” (Murray & Fallon, 1989).

This alliance sought to redesign teacher education programs through five distinct conversations about “subject matter understanding; general and liberal knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; multicultural, international, and other human perspectives; and recruitment into teaching” (Murray & Fallon, 1989). Similar to the
Centers of Pedagogy, Project 30 institutions were to be governed equally among A&S and education faculty to capitalize on the expertise of each participating faculty member. The group disbanded several years ago; however, their work is still in operation on many of the campuses. Carnegie Corporation’s support for this initiative would be evident later in the birth of Teachers for a New Era in 2001.

*The Renaissance Group.* The Renaissance Group met for the first time in the spring of 1989 at the University of Northern Iowa in response to the constant threats to the legitimacy of teacher education programs (The Renaissance Group Profile, n.d.) and in reaction to the work of the Holmes Group. Working under the mantra of “the education of teachers must become an all-campus responsibility,” the member institutions believed that no teacher education reform could be implemented without the input of A&S faculty and upper-level college administrators (e.g., the provost or chief academic officer). Distinctive to this initiative was the involvement of presidents and provosts along with A&S faculty in redesigning teacher education programs. The group currently consists of 24 colleges and universities along with the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) (The Renaissance Group, 2010).

Renaissance Group institutions seek to further their mission of making teacher education an all-campus responsibility by making presentations at professional conferences and inviting non-Renaissance institutions to observe or participate in Renaissance Group conferences. It is unknown how far their message has spread but one of their goals is to increase their list of participants to include private and land grant institutions (The Renaissance Group Goals, n.d.).
Teachers for a New Era (TNE). The Carnegie Corporation of New York\textsuperscript{12} believed A&S faculty engagement was so important in preparing future teachers they included “Engagement with Arts and Sciences” as one of their three guiding principles for their multi-million dollar teacher education reform effort entitled Teachers for a New Era (TNE). TNE provided 11 colleges and universities one million dollars per year for up to five years in an effort to re-invent teacher education at each institution (Teachers for a New Era, 2001).

Similar to Project 30, TNE institutions’ profiles vary by Carnegie Classification. Although many are Doctorate-Granting Universities with very high levels of research, such as Stanford University and Michigan State University, there are Master’s Colleges and Universities (Florida A&M) and a Special Interest Institution (Bank Street College of Education). Each TNE institution was required to be evaluated by the Academy for Educational Development (AED), which has published its findings from each institution. One of the goals of this project was to establish 11 exemplary teacher education programs that will serve as models for other SCDEs. In 2006, TNE was extended to 30 additional colleges and universities and entitled the TNE Learning Network. The Learning Network provided mini grants from 2006 to 2011 to help institutions implement one of the three TNE guiding principles. Of the mini grants provided by the Learning Network, less than five were provided to institutions seeking to engage A&S faculty in teacher preparation.

Millions of dollars and countless hours have been spent on teacher education reform efforts aimed at making teacher preparation an all-campus responsibility and yet A&S collaboration remains an anomaly rather than a standard for teacher education.

\textsuperscript{12} The Ford Foundation, The Annenberg Foundation, and The Rockefeller Foundation also helped fund TNE (Teachers for a New Era, 2001).
Outside of the SCDEs participating in the previously described reform efforts, there is little-to-no evidence that A&S faculty members are actively involved in teacher education on a widespread basis. Even with the external pressures of funding agencies and college or university administrators, A&S faculty involvement has been difficult to realize.

**Barriers to Collaboration in Higher Education**

Collaboration between SCDEs and colleges of arts & sciences is essential if future teachers are to acquire adequate subject matter knowledge (Goodlad, 1994; Tom, 1997; McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000; Nataraja-Kirby et al., 2006). Even though the benefits of collaboration are well known in the field of education, it rarely occurs. Even when both parties agree to collaborate, university-wide efforts of collaboration fail over 50 percent of the time (Doz, 2006). Fortunately, there is an emerging body of literature in higher education that can help explain why collaborative efforts are more likely to fail than be successful.

While there are many reasons why groups in higher education do not effectively collaborate, the following reasons have been found to be common across colleges and universities: (1) a feeling of superiority regarding faculty domains; (2) over-specialization of faculty work; (3) impermeable institutional and departmental structures; (4) the fear of changing the status quo; (5) the belief that groups are losing something rather than creating something new when collaborating; and (6) rigid faculty reward systems (Stein & Short, 2001; Kezar & Lester, 2009). Several other barriers to collaboration will be discussed later in the paper by using a structural frame of analysis on the phenomenon of collaboration in higher education.
One major barrier to collaboration within higher education is the “ethnocentric feeling of superiority regarding one’s domain” that higher education faculty members often have (Stein & Short, 2001, p. 427). When groups within higher education engage in collaborative activity, one of the groups, if not all of them, often perceives its program as superior to the others. The power dynamics within the collaborative organization can cause the actors to place their own self-interests ahead of the interests of the group.

Stein and Short’s (2001) study of four collaborative efforts at IHEs in the state of Missouri found that faculty members felt pressure to demonstrate the value of their work to the faculty members outside of their department. During the interviews, several faculty members stated that the other departments in the partnership acted as if their programs were superior and that the work of the inferior programs would lower their standards. The feeling of superiority and the fear that quality of work will suffer with collaboration is a barrier that can prevent partnerships from forming, or if they are formed, may prevent full participation.

Another barrier to internal collaboration is an over-specialization of faculty members, which creates tensions between departments and across disciplines. As new disciplines are created, research and teaching are increasingly specialized (Kezar & Lester, 2009). As a result of this over-specialization, some faculty members lose touch with the founding fields of their discipline. According to Birnbaum (1988), the rise of academic specializations has created cultural differences between departments and may cause tensions that prevent effective collaboration.

Not only does over-specialization cause tensions but it creates discipline-specific approaches to teaching and research (Diamond & Bronwyn, 2004). As Kezar and Lester
(2009) posit, discipline-specific approaches to teaching and learning cause faculty members to identify themselves by discipline and spend the majority of their time working with disciplinary colleagues. Faculty members no longer consider themselves as part of the larger academic profession in which they work—they are more associated with their discipline, which is a barrier to interdisciplinary collaboration.

Due to these disciplinary specializations, departments tend to hire faculty members that share their specific interests, which further exacerbates the divide between departments. Each discipline has a distinctive approach to its profession, teaching, and research, which ultimately defines it as a field of study (Diamond & Bronwyn, 2004). These differences between disciplines factor into the creation of silos, which are frozen structures within colleges and universities that have the potential to prohibit collaboration. These silos also have the potential to result in competition for intellectual and financial resources between and among departments and colleges within a university (Frost et al., 2004).

The “silo effect” in higher education is not only created by the over-specialization of faculty, but also by the institutional and departmental structures in higher education. According to the American Association for Higher Education (1999), the departmental structures of IHEs are one of the leading barriers to collaborative work and prevent interdisciplinary student learning and teaching. It is no secret that faculty members work within their department and typically conduct research specific to their discipline. This lack of exposure to other disciplines and faculty prevents collaboration from occurring. If the goal is interdisciplinary knowledge, then undergraduate education is suffering and reorganizing higher education structures to allow for collaboration holds great promise in
ensuring student success in the future (Kennedy, 1997; American Association for Higher Education et al., 1999; Stein & Short, 2001). Unlike some other barriers to collaboration, altering departmental and institutional structures and governance is extremely difficult to achieve and usually meets with great faculty resistance (Kennedy, 1997).

Another major barrier to internal collaboration is that each group feels that it will be giving up something rather than creating something new (Stein & Short, 2001; Kezar & Lester, 2009). Faculty members fear losing their influence within the institution because they are giving up a level of autonomy by participating in collaboration (Stein & Short, 2001). In sharing authority, some faculty members believe that they must forfeit autonomy rather than receive a new voice through an innovative partnership. Even though the participants may not lose authority or may even gain greater influence, the perception that they could lose influence is often enough to prevent effective collaboration. The only way to overcome this barrier is to change faculty perceptions of collaboration, which is a difficult task for colleges and universities to accomplish. There are multiple steps in the next section of this chapter that illustrate ways that this barrier might be overcome.

Similar to the fear of losing authority, there is a fear of changing the status quo (Stein & Short, 2001). Comments, such as “fear of the unknown,” “fear of technology,” and “fear that we will look bad,” illustrate the unwillingness of some faculty to change the status quo (p. 427). This barrier is common to all organizations attempting to change, not just for institutions of higher education (Bolman & Deal, 2008). By nature, people are afraid of change and the unknown. There is a genuine fear of failure that exists when attempting to alter an organization that limits people from actively participating in the
new initiative. For example, if two faculty members are co-teaching an interdisciplinary course, there may be a fear that the class will be unsuccessful or that the course would be better with only one of the professors (Kezar & Lester, 2009). That legitimate fear could restrict innovation and collaboration, which may result in an unsuccessful course that is never offered again. Through their multiple case study design, Bohen and Stiles (1998) were able to ascertain that challenges to academic norms typically lead to conflicts between disciplines and restrict the possibility of collaboration.

Another major barrier to collaboration in higher education is the reward system in place on most college and university campuses. The reward system for faculty is often tied to the faculty review process, which includes both the promotion and tenure review and the post-tenure review processes. The typical roles and responsibilities of tenured or tenure-track faculty are to teach, conduct research, and provide service. While this triumvirate of responsibilities is often ambiguous and varies by institutional type and academic discipline, it is the basis for promotion and tenure decisions. Each college and university defines and values such responsibilities differently but often views service as the least important for tenured and tenure-track faculty (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Unfortunately, internal collaboration is often viewed and categorized as a form of service and is not weighted as heavily as individual work (Kezar & Lester, 2009). Collaboration, often viewed as an addition to typical faculty workloads, can take away energy from activities that have a larger impact on promotion and tenure (i.e., research and publishing in peer-reviewed journals). Due to the reward systems in place, institutions of higher education reward individual work and often fail to value or recognize collaboration (Huber, 2002; Lee & Rhoads, 2004); however, changes in faculty reward systems have
been found to have a lasting impact on faculty behaviors (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995) and improved faculty satisfaction (O’Meara, 2006).

Fortunately, these barriers to collaborative work are not insurmountable. Collaborative work is successful in higher education, albeit not as often as it fails (Koz, 2006). Successful collaborative efforts can illuminate the factors that promote interdisciplinary partnerships in higher education.

Factors That Promote Collaboration in Higher Education

While several research studies have been conducted to determine the barriers to higher education collaboration, little work illustrates the contexts that enable and promote collaboration. As a way to further understand this phenomenon, Kezar’s (2005) eight core elements are helpful to interpret internal collaboration in higher education, which are (1) campus networks, (2) external pressures, (3) values, (4) learning, (5) a sense of priority from people in senior positions, (6) mission and vision, (7) integrating structures, and (8) rewards¹³ (see figure 1). As figure 1 demonstrates, there are three stages of collaboration in higher education: (1) building commitment, (2) commitment, and (3) sustaining the collaboration. The elements of collaboration are not mutually exclusive to a particular stage of collaboration. For example, the process of creating and sustaining networks is essential to all three stages of collaboration. It is also important to note, that Kezar (2005) and Kezar and Lester (2009) found all eight elements important in promoting

¹³ Kezar’s (2005) eight core elements of collaboration will heavily influence my conceptual framework for understanding the phenomenon of A&S involvement in teacher education. These elements are the organizational factors that lead to collaboration; however, there are personal factors, such as personal commitment to public education that could also influence the level of involvement from A&S faculty. Kezar’s (2005) eight core elements were cut to seven for her work with Jaime Lester in 2009. There is no explanation as to why the elements were reduced to seven.
collaboration but only three of them are essential: mission and vision, campus networks, and integrating structures.

**Figure 1**: Stage model collaboration in higher education (Kezar, 2005, p. 845; Kezar & Lester, 2009)

*Networks*. There needs to be a critical mass of people on campus calling for collaboration for it to be implemented effectively. In this case, that critical mass is referred to as a campus network. These networks can be pre-existing or newly formed in an organization when there is an effort to undertake collaborative activity. Even though most campus networks are pre-existing, there are instances when the networks need to be created by leadership at the institution (Kezar & Lester, 2009). Whether the goal is to establish a new network or strengthen an existing one, the campus can use the following techniques to develop and foster collaboration: (1) hosting events pertaining to collaboration; (2) encouraging participation on campus committees; (3) opening up
meetings to more individuals; and (4) using physical spaces such as faculty and staff eating areas or common spaces for meetings; among other strategies that promote interactions (Kezar, 2005). It is important that these networks are established early and continue to function throughout the collaboration process.

In a recent case study, Allen, James, and Gamlen (2007) found that these networks can either be formal or informal but that informal networks are more important for promoting collaboration. Since informal networks are created at the discretion of the participants, members of the network feel more responsibility to the group as opposed to a more formal partnership, which might be mandated by the institution. When establishing or sustaining a network in higher education, trust, mutual interests, and available time and energy are essential for the partnership to be successful (Keyes et al., 1996; Adler, 2001).

External Pressures. While the campus network is essential to collaboration in higher education, it is the external pressures that cause the network to call for change. The external pressures can come from a multitude of places, such as accrediting bodies, business and industry, government bodies (federal, state, and/or local), funding organizations, or in the case of public institutions, the state system could place pressure on the public institutions within their system (Kezar & Lester, 2009). Campus leaders and the change agents within a college or university could receive messages from external groups that call for collaboration. Without an external force calling for collaboration, it is unlikely that it will occur (Kezar, 2005).

In the case of IHEs, public colleges and universities receive a substantial amount of state funding, which leaves them susceptible to state and federal mandates and
accountability requirements. The influence that a Board of Regents has on their state institutions cannot be overstated—if they call for collaboration, it most likely will occur. In the case of private IHEs and many doctorate-granting universities with very high research activity, much of their funding is provided by federal and private grant organizations, individual donors, and corporate partnerships. According to Slaughter and Rhoades (2004), external pressures to IHEs are increasing, especially from businesses and corporations whose influence on college campuses continues to rise due to an increasing focus placed on workforce development.

Values. An organization’s values characterize what they stand for and work toward (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Different from a goal, a value is intangible and permeates all aspects of an organization. In higher education, a college or university’s values drive the decisions and actions from all the actors within the organization. For example, if a college values the surrounding community and has a commitment to maintaining a positive relationship with it, then the college would emphasize community service and elicit input from the greater community when making major decisions. In the case of internal collaboration in higher education, it is essential for both constituencies to have a shared sense of values (Tjosvold & Tsao, 1989; Philpott & Strange, 2003). According to Kuh et al. (2005), college campuses that are designed to encourage collaboration share the value of improving student learning and teaching over other values such as research productivity. Many of the values specific to post-secondary environments, such as academic freedom or faculty autonomy, can restrict collaboration; however, values such as shared governance and democratic involvement can promote collaboration (Clark, 1983).
Learning. Once the campus has responded to external pressures by creating networks, the actors need to learn the importance of the proposed collaboration. Whether the individuals on campus are compelled to collaborate by external pressures or institutional values, they need to be convinced that the collaboration will benefit all parties involved. The process of learning is a shared responsibility between the campus leaders and the faculty and staff. The transmission of knowledge can include the dissemination of research, an expert presentation, or simply holding conversations regarding the importance of collaboration (Kezar & Lester, 2009).

Specific to internal collaboration, learning consists of reading materials about collaboration and the mission of the partnership, collecting data, visiting other organizations to observe and learn about their process of collaboration, and constantly evaluating their own performance (Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995). Important to the learning process is the willingness to learn and the availability of time by all members of the partnership. Mohrman, Cohen, and Mohrman, found that if the institution lacks experience collaborating, then leadership teams must initiate, organize, and model the collaborative process.

A Sense of Priority from Administration. Associated with external pressures is the idea of an administration promoting and prioritizing the concept of collaboration. Senior-level executive support is critical to solidifying a commitment to collaborate, and without pressure from the top, organizations will not be able to overcome the barriers discussed earlier in the chapter (Kezar & Lester, 2009). If the college or university does not make collaboration a priority, A&S faculty will not participate in teacher education as much as if the priority is present. A sense of priority is woven throughout the other factors.
promoting collaboration, such as rewards, mission setting, and integrating structures. If collaboration is a priority for the IHE, it will most likely be reflected in the school mission and faculty might be rewarded for participating in a collaborative process.

**Mission.** Similar to values, an organization’s mission is supposed to drive action. The difference is that a mission is a tangible document that reflects the organization’s core ideology. According to Kezar (2005), IHEs need to successfully rethink and revise their mission statements to reflect the new commitment to collaboration. Not only does the mission have to be revised, but organizations also have to reorient people to the newly constructed mission. This could include, but is not limited to, public speeches, orientations, or town hall meetings.

It is important to note that there is a difference between a mission statement and the enacted mission. While it is ideal that the mission statement and the enacted mission are the same, it is not always the case (Kezar & Lester, 2009). There is a natural separation between the stated mission and the enacted mission, but successful organizations limit that gap (Tierney, 2002). According to Tierney, IHEs should revisit and reevaluate their mission statement on a yearly basis to ensure that the stated mission is being implemented across the campus. It is important to revisit the mission on a yearly basis, as opposed to changing it on a yearly basis to maintain continuity and continue progression.

**Integrating Structures.** Kezar & Lester (2009) describe IHEs as “siloed, bureaucratic, and hierarchical organization[s]” (p.22) and they assert that for collaboration to be effective, the silos need to combine with one another. The process of tearing down silos is essential to sustaining collaboration to ensure that people are
working together. Kezar (2005) cites three distinct integrated structures: (1) a central unit for collaboration; (2) a set of centers and institutes for interdisciplinary projects; and (3) a new accounting and budgetary system. A central unit and subsequent centers and institutes provide opportunities for interdisciplinary work and illustrate the commitment to sustaining the established partnerships. Creating a new accounting and budgetary system allows for funding team-taught courses, establishing cross-listed courses, and creating joint appointments.

Integrating structures have been found to create communication among individuals, solve information processing problems, increase individual motivation, and improve overall job satisfaction (Denison, Hart, & Kahn, 1996; Holland, Gaston, & Gomes, 2000). Integrative structures are more important to larger IHEs that tend to have more bureaucratic silos with structural barriers to collaboration (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Conversely, smaller baccalaureate colleges may need fewer simplified integrating structures to promote collaboration (Kezar & Lester, 2009).

**Rewards.** As previously mentioned, the typical roles and responsibilities of tenured or tenure-track faculty are to teach, conduct research, and provide service. While this triumvirate of responsibilities is often ambiguous and varied by institution and academic discipline, it is the basis for promotion and tenure decisions (O’Meara, Terosky, & Neumann, 2008). Unfortunately, collaboration is rarely factored into these current reward structures. The most important way to reward faculty for collaboration is through the promotion and tenure process (Kezar, 2005; Noftsinger, Brown, & Benson, n.d.). If the promotion and tenure structure at colleges and universities supported collaboration, internal partnerships will continue. If faculty members are not rewarded for
collaboration, it will not persist. Both Blackburn & Lawrence (1995) and O’Meara (2006) found that changes in faculty reward systems were essential to having a lasting impact on faculty behaviors.

In addition to the promotion and tenure process, reward systems can include, but are not limited to merit pay programs, salary bonus plans, feedback programs, and annual performance reviews (Strickler, 2006). These rewards provide faculty with the extrinsic motivation needed to collaborate with other faculty and departments outside of their own. Strickler identifies the helpfulness of reward structures in establishing partnerships; however, faculty’s motivation has the potential to diminish over time.

The following section details how the factors that prohibit and promote collaboration at IHEs apply to A&S faculty involvement in teacher education.

**Factors Prohibiting and Promoting A&S Involvement in Teacher Education**

“The wall between arts and sciences and the College of Education is a mile high. There’s almost an adversarial relationship that really needs work” (Levine, 2006, p.48). Levine is correct in saying that a wall exists between the arts and sciences and SCDEs, but we know little about why that wall exists and how it can be overcome. Colleges and universities wanting to strengthen the ties between A&S faculty and teacher educators can glean some information from higher education literature but that would assume that all faculty and departmental relationships in higher education are similar. This section draws on education literature to identify common factors that prevent and promote A&S faculty’s involvement with teacher education.

*Factors Prohibiting A&S Involvement in Teacher Education.* In the case of A&S faculty involvement in teacher education, A&S faculty members have historically
perceived work in education as inferior (Conant, 1963; Labaree, 2008; Floden & Meniketti, 2005). The apparent inferiority has caused A&S faculty members to believe they are committing professional suicide if they participate in teacher education, which is interrelated with existing reward systems on most college campuses (Ducharme, 1993). The power dynamic between these two groups might cause A&S faculty to withdraw from collaboration while education faculty members might act aggressively to prove the legitimacy of their field of study (Stein & Short, 2001). This is not a condition that is conducive to collaboration.

According to Patterson, Michelli, and Pacheco (1999), potential barriers to A&S involvement in teacher education are the cultural differences that exist between faculty members. Collaboration or the creation of partnerships in education must be built on a shared interest between K-12 practitioners and higher education faculty. In the case of A&S faculty and teacher education faculty members, the shared interest could be the desire to improve schools, the desire to improve the manner in which their discipline is taught in schools, and/or the need for better teachers. If there is a shared interest, then it is assumed that the cultural barrier can be overcome.

According to Labaree (2008), the relationship between universities and their teacher education programs is long standing and has been uneasy for both parties. Labaree argues that universities and teacher preparation programs “each needs the other in significant ways, but each risks something important by being tied to the other” (p. 290). The university setting and the involvement of A&S faculty provides status and academic credibility to teacher preparation programs but that stature is diminished by the involvement in teacher education programs given the low status they are accorded on the
campus. At the same time, teacher preparation programs provide large numbers of students to the A&S departments at a low cost and provide social utility to the university and the surrounding communities. While both sides derive benefit, often it is only the teacher education faculty that promotes collaboration. This “uneasy relationship” between the university and the teacher preparation program often causes animosity among faculty members and subsequently limits collaboration.

Perhaps the largest barriers to A&S involvement are current reward systems that exist in IHEs. It is doubtful that A&S faculty will be motivated adequately by the potential for better teachers and students (Patterson, Michelli, & Pacheco, 1999) so extrinsic motivation must be increased through rewards. When Fischer (2008) interviewed historians about engaging in teacher education, one historian said that promotion and tenure committees view time spent in local schools as “worse than a waste of time” (p. 213). Simply put, A&S faculty members typically are not rewarded for the time they spend working with SCDEs. While no evidence exists to support this, it is assumed that if an A&S faculty member is already tenured, he/she would be more willing to participate in teacher education because time spent working with SCDEs will not be evaluated by a promotion and tenure committee. Tenured faculty members do get post-tenure reviews at most institutions, but they are not nearly as consequential as the pre-tenure review process.

Factors Promoting A&S Involvement in Teacher Education. In the case of teacher education, the external pressures come from the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education\(^\text{14}\) (NCATE) as well as from a number of philanthropic or

\(^\text{14}\) There are currently two accrediting bodies in teacher education—NCATE and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC). These groups have been competing since 1997 and have recently agreed to
governmental funding organizations. The status of teacher education program accreditation differs greatly from state to state. Some states require all of their teacher education programs to be accredited by NCATE while other states make it optional. Ultimately, the power and influence of NCATE depends greatly on the location of the teacher education program. If a teacher education program is seeking accreditation, it needs to meet NCATE’s six unit standards. For example, Unit Standard #1: Candidate Knowledge, Skills, and Professional Disposition calls for all teacher candidates to have in-depth content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (NCATE, 2008). Other NCATE standards that would require the involvement of A&S faculty are standards 4b: Experiences Working with Diverse Faculty and 6: Unit Governance, where the unit works with “colleagues from the arts and sciences” (p. 45).

In the past, another external pressure for SCDE and A&S collaboration has been the private funding organizations, primarily the Carnegie Corporation and the Ford Foundation. The Carnegie Corporation solely funded ASTEC Project 30 and jointly funded TNE with a number of other philanthropic organizations (Fraser, 2006). The millions of dollars that these organizations provided to encourage internal collaboration between SCDEs and A&S colleges served as the external pressure.

With many of the teacher education reform efforts (e.g., Project 30 and The Renaissance Group), preparing teachers was made a priority on a college campus. Learning from previous reform efforts, TNE housed the program in each institution’s provost’s office (Teachers for a New Era, 2001). Not only did the provost monitor the program, but he/she also managed all of the finances. SCDEs and A&S colleges knew
that the effort was a priority for the provost and they responded by implementing the reform.

According to higher education research, a mission that encourages collaboration is a major factor in promoting partnerships (Tierney, 2002; Kezar & Lester, 2009). Changing an institutional or departmental mission statement is a time consuming and difficult endeavor. Each department has a unique mission and getting each one to revise it would be extremely difficult to accomplish.

In SCDE and A&S faculty partnerships, evidence suggests that independent silos are not conducive to collaboration. Goodlad’s Centers of Pedagogy are prime examples of an integrative structure that supports collaboration (Patterson, Michelli, & Pacheco, 1999). Another strategy that seems to have worked is housing the initiative in the provost’s office rather than in either the A&S or education colleges. The provost controls the funding and can easily distribute money to both groups. In many TNE institutions, the provost’s office has created institutes for education and A&S faculty in which to jointly participate. Creating new structures is a serious commitment that colleges and universities undertake when there is a real effort at collaboration. Again, the evidence suggests that when cross campus collaboration for teacher education is a priority of institutional leaders, then collaboration will occur.

Another factor that supports A&S faculty involvement in teacher education would be rewarding faculty members that participate in the partnerships. One way to reward faculty for collaboration is to provide travel incentives, course development grants, summer pay, course reductions, and administrative support. If faculty are going to be expected to conduct interdisciplinary work, evidence suggested that they require relief
from their current set of responsibilities. The level of incentives will differ across colleges and departments and it is the responsibility of senior-level administrators to determine the appropriate levels of incentives, further supporting the importance of making collaboration an institutional priority.

Another factor that promotes A&S faculty members’ work with teacher preparation is the historical roots of teacher education programs’ role in universities. Many state universities originated as normal schools that were responsible for meeting labor market needs within a state (Fraser, 2007; Labaree, 2008). Those normal schools ultimately evolved into regional state universities to address competing labor market demands in other sectors (Labaree, 2008). The early focus and responsibility to prepare teachers is still evident in many regional state universities that originated as normal schools. Therefore, historical roots of some universities can be a factor that promote an all-university approach to teacher preparation.

College and university administrations along with faculty senates establish faculty reward systems and make no distinctions among faculty from different departments. In other words, a tenure-track faculty in education is held to the same institutional standard as other tenure-track faculty on campus. Therefore, if promotion and tenure are altered to value collaboration, it would happen more regularly. If they are provided with incentives to collaborate, they would be more apt to participate. It is no secret that the proper incentives will alter faculty work days and encourage collaboration; however, the essential question still remains—what set of circumstances have to exist in order to alter faculty work and promote collaboration with faculty from other departments?
Conceptual Framework

In order for collaboration in higher education to occur, all of the participants need to have the desire to engage in the partnership (Kezar & Lester, 2009). Even if all parties involved have a desire to collaborate, institutional barriers can inhibit or even prohibit the groups from working together. If one group of people lacks the desire to collaborate, according to Kezar & Lester, genuine partnerships will not form.

Figure 2 illustrates a college or university’s lack of collaboration between A&S faculty and SCDEs. Both parties have a desire to collaborate but the barriers to collaborate are too high to allow any genuine partnership. This framework assumes that SCDEs have a desire to work with A&S faculty due to the always-present external pressures of accreditation and teacher certification examinations. SCDEs are held accountable for their graduates’ content knowledge and will usually desire A&S faculty involvement to ensure their graduates have the content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge necessary to be effective teachers.

Figure 2 illustrates that A&S faculty members possess a personal desire to collaborate with SCDEs and their teacher preparation program. Their desire to collaborate come from personal factors that could include, but are not limited to, a commitment to P-12 education, being tenured, and having had prior experience working with pre-service or in-service teachers. Even though both parties in this figure want to collaborate, the barriers are too high and prevent the partnership. The barriers include the feeling of superiority regarding faculty domains, over-specialization of faculty work, institutional and departmental structures, the faculty reward system, and others. There are also institutional factors that can decrease the barriers to collaboration; however, those
are not present in Kezar and Lester’s (2009) stage model collaboration in higher education (Figure 1).

**Figure 2:** No collaboration between A&S faculty and SCDEs

![Diagram showing barriers to collaboration between A&S faculty and SCDEs](image)

Figure 3 illustrates the presence of institutional factors that have decreased the barriers to collaboration or barriers that were lower to begin with. A&S faculty members’ desire to be involved in teacher education exists along with the SCDE’s desire to collaborate. In this figure, the barriers to collaboration have been broken down by the institutional factors, which include campus networks, learning opportunities, mission statements, institutional values, integrating structures, and a reward system that promotes collaboration. In addition to institutional factors diminishing the barriers, it is possible that the barriers were surmountable by a strong desire to collaborate on the part of the A&S faculty members and the college of education. Barriers still exist in this case but
they can be overcome by the personal factors that A&S faculty members possess and the desire of the college of education to engage the A&S departments and faculty.

**Figure 3:** A&S faculty involvement in teacher preparation

![Figure 3: A&S faculty involvement in teacher preparation](image)

**Summary**

“People collaborate when the job they face is too big, is too urgent, or requires too much knowledge for one person” (American Association for Higher Education et al., 1998). Preparing teachers is an urgent job that requires more time and knowledge than one person has and, therefore, it requires collaboration. Unfortunately, barriers exist that prevent SCDEs and colleges of arts and sciences from collaboration. Literature in higher education and teacher education illustrate that collaboration can occur when barriers are decreased by personal and intuitional factors that promote internal partnerships dedicated to the preparation of teachers. What follows is a synthesis of the literature and description of the theoretical framework that will shape my research design.

As Levine (2006) mentioned, “the wall between arts and sciences and the College of Education is a mile high. There’s almost an adversarial relationship that really needs
work” (p. 46). As Kezar’s (2005) and Kezar and Lester’s (2009) research suggests, the wall between A&S faculty and SCDEs can be overcome. Evidence from multiple teacher education reform initiatives show successful ways in overcoming the gap between A&S departments and SCDEs. The premise upon which this study was constructed is that collaboration must work if we are to improve the content knowledge of secondary teacher education graduates. In IHEs where A&S and teacher education partnerships are successful, evidence shows there are personal and institutional factors that have allowed the faculty to overcome the barriers and to engage in sustained and meaningful and fulfilling partnerships that benefit the preparation of teachers. More research needs to be done to determine exactly what the personal and institutional factors are that promote A&S and teacher education partnerships so colleges and universities can begin to create structures that encourage these internal partnerships.
Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

Studying teacher education is a complex endeavor that requires an array of methodologies and theoretical approaches to understand more about “teacher education programs, their components, and policies affecting teacher education” (Zeichner, 2005, p. 741). Essential to strengthening the research base in teacher education programs is selecting research designs and using methodology that are appropriate for the posed research questions (Borko, Listen & Whitcomb, 2007). The research questions should dictate the methodology, rather than the methodology dictate the questions (Shulman, 1997).

Case studies are inherently multi-method in nature, relying on several data sources in an effort to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. Whether the multi-method approach is referred to as triangulation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000), crystallization (Richardson, 2000), or a chain of evidence (Yin, 2009), the strategy is used to corroborate various perspectives and representations of the phenomenon. Objective reality never can be captured, but mining and analyzing multiple data sources “adds rigor, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry” (Flick, 1998, p. 231).

The following sections include a rationale for a case study methodology being the best methodology to provide answers to the previously established research questions. Following the rationale are descriptions of the processes that I went through in selecting study samples and collecting and analyzing data. The chapter ends with a discussion of the validity and reliability issues relevant to this project and limitations of the research.
Rationale for Case Study Methodology

Case study methodology is best used when research addresses explanatory or descriptive questions (Yin, 2006). I used this research design to explain the reasons why A&S faculty members, specifically historians, get involved in teacher education and also to describe their experiences in order to determine the personal and professional benefits derived from working with preservice teachers in partnership with teacher educators. In addition to explaining the reasons why historians maintain their engagement in teacher education and the benefits derived from their work, this paper presents an investigation that was conducted of their value to the teacher preparation program. Using a case study design will provide a detailed portrait of A&S faculty involvement in teacher education that will describe the phenomenon and explain the factors that led to its occurrence.

According to Merriam (1998), case studies can be characterized as being particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic. The particularistic nature of case studies allows the researcher to focus on a particular program or phenomenon to gain an in-depth understanding of the issues pertaining to the case. The descriptive nature of case study methodology provides the audience with a thick description of the program or phenomenon. The term “thick description” stems from the work of philosopher Gilbert Ryle and has come to mean a complete and literal description of an event, as opposed to a “thin description,” which lacks the rich details provided in a thick description (Geertz, 1973). If a thick description does not add to the general understanding of the event, program, or phenomenon, that aspect of the case only requires a thin description (Brekhus, Galliher & Gubrium, 2005). The heuristic quality of case studies “illuminate
the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Merriam, 1998, p. 30). Cases have the ability to discover new meaning or confirm what is already known about the object of study. Because of the particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic nature of case studies, this methodology has the ability to answer the proposed research questions. Upon selecting case study as my methodology, the next logical step is to define the case.

Defining the case is an issue that many beginning researchers struggle with when embarking upon case study methodology (Ragin & Becker, 1992). The case can range from more concrete topics, such as individuals, organizations, and partnerships, to less concrete examples, such as relationships, decisions, and communities (Yin, 2009). Important to the definition of the case is the boundedness of the event, program, or phenomenon. According to Merriam (1998), “if the phenomenon you are interested in studying is not intrinsically bounded, it is not a case” (p. 27). The case has to be a single entity that has clear boundaries—a beginning and an end.

In this design, the cases, often referred to as the unit of analysis, will be the historians who are engaged in the teacher education program and their relationship with people involved in the preparation program. The historians and their relationships are not bounded by time; rather they are bounded by the people with whom they interact. All of the people associated with the teacher education program are included in the case as secondary cases or data sources, which are the pre-service teachers, teacher educators, A&S faculty, K–12 supervising teachers, and university staff. The teacher education program will serve as the context in which collaboration occurs.

Yin (2009) states “when you have the choice, multiple-case designs may be preferred over single-case designs” (p. 60). Assuming a quality research design,
conclusions drawn from multiple cases are more powerful and have more external validity than those drawn from a single case. Critics of case studies find single cases to be a poor basis for generalization even though there are other factors that sacrifice external validity, such as site selection, data sources, and data analysis. Regardless of the other factors involved in the research design of case studies, “the inclusion of multiple cases is, in fact, a common strategy for enhancing the external validity or generalizability of your findings” (Merriam, 1998, p. 40). The goal is to have at least two cases, but how many cases after two depends partly on the nature of the phenomenon and ultimately the researcher’s discretion (Yin, 2009). I ultimately selected three historians as cases with the goal of answering the following research questions:

1. What personal and institutional factors lead historians to become engaged in the teacher education program at their respective institutions?
2. What institutional barriers limit historians’ level of involvement in teacher education programs?
3. How do historians benefit, both personally and professionally, from being involved in preparing future teachers of their discipline?
4. What are historians' and teacher educators' perceived value of historians’ involvement in teacher preparation?

Site Selection

One of the major questions to be answered regarding research design is “who or what will be studied?” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 368) Determining the “who” and “what” involves the selection of a research site, people, and events. The selection process in qualitative research can be classified into two groups—probability sampling and
nonprobability sampling. Probability sampling allows the researcher to generalize results from a representative sample drawn from the population. The most common conception of probability sampling is a simple random sample, which is a selection process in which all members of the population share the same probability of being selected (Hinkle, Wiersma & Jurs, 2003). Since statistical generalization is not a primary concern in most qualitative studies, nonprobability sampling is most often used in case study methodology.

Nonprobability sampling is the opposite of probability sampling in that it does not use random selection to determine the sample. This type of sample often comes in the form of purposeful sampling or criterion-based selection, which is the process of selecting a sample based on criteria established by the researcher. There are subcategories of purposeful sampling, including quota, snowball, and model instance sampling (Hakim, 1987). Other types of nonprobability sampling are accidental, haphazard, or convenience sampling.

To participate in purposeful sampling, a list of criteria needs to be created to ensure that each case selected is “information-rich” (Merriam, 1998). In the case of A&S involvement in teacher education and historians’ roles in preparing history teachers, the most important criterion is to select a case that has high levels of A&S faculty engagement in teacher education. Because I wanted to determine what factors lead to A&S involvement and the benefits associated with that phenomenon, I made sure that there were plenty of faculty and staff to interview and extensive A&S participation to allow for a rich description of the phenomenon. To determine what teacher education
programs have high levels of A&S involvement, I first established what constitutes “high levels” of that involvement.

To be considered a teacher preparation program with high levels of A&S involvement, the program must have at least one historian within the department who meet at least two of the following criteria:

- Historians teach or co-teach a methods course or a content course designed only for prospective history teachers.

  OR

- Historians observe prospective teachers during their internships.

  AND

- Historians participate in formal or informal curriculum planning meetings in which content, pedagogical strategies, or course sequences are discussed.

To be considered “highly engaged” in teacher preparation, a historian needs to teach a course dedicated to prospective history teachers or observe prospective teachers during their internships. In addition to teaching or observing prospective teachers, historians must have participated in social studies or history education curriculum planning with education faculty. By meeting both criteria, the historian has demonstrated that he/she participates in the instructional and planning aspects of teacher education. Because faculty members’ teaching schedules and workloads are constantly changing, it was not essential that historians are equally engaged every academic year in order to be eligible for participation. However, it was important that they have been highly engaged within
the past three academic years and that they have the desire to continue their high level of involvement in teacher preparation.

A preference was given to institutions with multiple historians engaged in teacher education; however, no institution had more than one historian who was highly engaged in teacher education. Many of the institutions that were investigated to participate in the study had historians who had been involved in some capacity, such as sitting on a curriculum planning committee or co-teaching a course. Prior to the site visit, the department chair was asked if there were any additional historians involved or engaged in teacher preparation beside the historian being investigated. At SSU and WSU, there were historians who had been involved in the past but were currently not involved in any capacity. At NSU, the social studies coordinator is a historian and was interviewed. Based on the criteria for engaged historians, he did not qualify since he does not teach or co-teach courses designed for prospective history teachers or observe teachers during their clinical experiences.

With the goal of finding multiple cases of highly engaged historians, the site selection process took approximately four months. Armed with my criteria of highly engaged historians, I employed two strategies to create a list of potential sites: (1) search academic journals and books that highlight or mention historians’ involvement in preparing teachers; (2) contact experts in teacher education and history education and ask for referrals of potential cases. After searching journals and books and consulting with experts, I had a list of 14 potential cases for investigation.

Once the 14 potential cases were identified and investigated, I selected three cases based upon the following criteria, which are listed in order of importance:
1. **Level of engagement by historians:** The level of historians’ engagement was detailed by either a journal, book, or by an expert in the field. Potential cases with marginal levels of engagement were immediately removed from the list after contacting someone at the institution or researching the program online to confirm the extent of historians’ involvement in the teacher preparation program.

2. **Size of institution and size of teacher preparation program:** Each of the remaining institutions was classified using the Carnegie Foundation’s basic classifications, which are baccalaureate colleges, master’s colleges and universities, and research universities. The goal was to have at least one institution from each Carnegie classification to make comparisons across different types of colleges and universities; however, I was unable to be that selective in my cases because of the small number of historians and institutions that met my criteria.

3. **Proximity to researcher:** Due to limitations of financial resources and time, a preference was given to institutions within relative close proximity to the mid-Atlantic. Similar to the previous criterion, I was unable to be that selective because of the small number of historians and institutions that met my criteria for site selection.

The list of potential cases was cut to four institutions after applying my selection criteria. All four had high levels of historian involvement in teacher preparation, had sizable teacher preparation programs, and were public universities. Two of the universities were classified as master’s colleges and universities, and two were classified
as research universities. Two of the potential cases were in the Northeast, one was in the Southeast, and one was in the Southwest. The goal was to stay in close proximity to the Mid-Atlantic but the only three institutions that met my criteria were spread throughout the United States.

My next step was to contact the historians to determine their willingness to participate in the study. Because historian participation is essential to the study, I contacted them first and contacted additional participants at a later date. Three of the four sites were willing to participate and excited about the research. The institution that was unwilling to participate was a master’s university in the Northeast. The remaining three universities were selected and given pseudonyms to protect the identities of the university and the participants. They were Northern State University, Southern State University, and Western State University. A description of each case is provided in chapter 4.

After the historians at each of the three universities confirmed their participation via e-mail, I contacted the social studies coordinator, the dean of the college of education, and the social studies education coordinator to inquire about their willingness to participate. I also contacted additional faculty and staff who were referred to me by the participants at each university because the participants thought these faculty and staff would be able to help answer the research questions. Each potential informant was sent a copy of my dissertation proposal, a brief description of my study, and IRB approval forms so they could make an informed decision about whether to participate in the study. After all parties agreed to participate at each institution, a two-day site visit was scheduled that included interviews and observations. A consent form (see Appendix A) was sent to all participants prior to the site visit and a signed copy was obtained during
the visit. I collected internal and external documents before, during, and after each site visit. Prior to the site visit, I collected public documents and while I was on campus, I asked informants if they had additional documents that illustrated the engagement of historians in teacher preparation. During data analysis, I asked informants for additional documentation when necessary. For example, when I reviewed the interview transcripts and found that promotion and tenure was a common topic of conversation, I asked faculty members for a copy of their promotion and tenure policies if they were not publicly available.

**Data Collection**

Yin (2009) identifies the following six common sources of evidence found in case studies: (1) documentation, (2) archival records, (3) interviews, (4) direct observations, (5) participant observation, and (6) physical artifacts. Of those six sources of evidence, only documentation, archival records, interviews, and direct observations apply to this proposed case study. Each source of evidence was selected to provide a thorough description of the phenomenon and help triangulate the findings, which are described in the subsequent chapters.

As Merriam (1998) mentions, the phrase “data collection” can be a bit misleading. Data were not at each institution waiting to be collected, “like so many rubbish bags on the pavement” (p. 69), but rather the data were purposefully identified and collected for the value that they provide to the research. For example, every document pertaining to a historian’s work in teacher education was not collected just as every person within the college of education was not interviewed. Only data that had the potential to add to a rich description of the phenomenon or help answer the research questions were identified and
gathered. The sources of evidence collected before, during, and after the site visits are detailed below. For the sake of describing the sources of evidence, Yin’s (2009) categories of documentation and archival records are combined into a larger category of document collection because archival records were only collected at one institution and the nature of Yin’s two categories are very similar.

Document collection. Prior to conducting each site visit, I conducted an extensive search for public documents pertaining to the institutions’ teacher education program and the historians’ involvement in the program. At the conclusion of each interview, I asked the participants if there were any documents that they could recommend that would help me understand the phenomenon at their institution. Documents provided by the participants included, but are not limited to, course syllabi, meeting minutes, e-mails, and program handbooks. Documents received prior to the site visit were read and entered into a document summary spreadsheet, which for each document included the date and author of the document, a brief description of the document, the significance of or particular quotes from the document, and questions regarding the document. Documents that were collected during and after the site visit were also entered into the document summary spreadsheet. Pertinent documents were entered into NVivo for coding and analysis with the other sources of evidence. The information found in these documents helped “corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (Yin, 2009, p. 103).

Interviews. I conducted interviews with the engaged historian, the social studies coordinator, the history department chair, the dean of the college of education, and any other faculty members with knowledge of the phenomenon. In total, there were 14 interviews (five interviews at two institutions and four at the other) that lasted between 30
minutes and two hours. Interviews with the historians were at least 90 minutes long, while the shorter interviews were with the history department chairs and auxiliary informants. Each interview was guided by a semi-structured interview protocol (see Appendix B) that contained open-ended and task-oriented questions. Each participant signed an IRB consent form that stated that the interviews would be transcribed and returned to the participant for member checking. Of the 14 interviews, 10 were returned with changes to the transcript. Informants either struck their comments from the record or provided more details to clarify their statements.

*Direct observations.* This third source of data was collected throughout each of the two-day site visits. Historians’ engagement in teacher preparation along with the factors and benefits associated with the work are not always observable phenomena, which makes it difficult to capture in an observation. Therefore, I used a general field notes observation protocol (see Appendix C) throughout each visit to capture a variety of activities. For example, I observed a historian teaching a class at one institution and observed a meeting with A&S faculty and teacher educators at another institution. Throughout each visit, I kept a running log of thoughts and observations I had as I spoke to students in the hallways, walked around campus, and overheard conversations.

Each source of evidence was essential in answering each of the four research questions. Interview was the most informative method of data collection, while document collection and direct observation provided supporting pieces of evidence used to triangulate the data. Data was simultaneously collected and analyzed throughout the data collection process. Conducting early data analysis allowed me time to alter data collection while still in the field, which has the potential to save time in the long-run and
ensure that my research questions are being answered (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009).

**Data Analysis**

According to Yin (2009), an experienced researcher is likely to have an advantage over a novice during the data analysis phase of case study research. While some computer-assisted programs can be helpful at times, I believe the best way to begin the analysis phase is to “play” with the data before entering them into a database. In this case, playing with the data begins with transcribing interviews. Even though I outsourced my interview transcriptions, I listened to each interview within 12 hours of its completion and added to the notes that I took during my time with the informant. Listening to the interviews allowed me to identify whether the research questions were addressed and provided me with the opportunity to alter the data collection plan while still in the field. Yin suggests creating data displays, tabulating frequency of responses, and beginning to create categories as ways to start playing with the data, so I began to create potential themes and categories, such as professional benefits of historian engagement and institutional factors that promote engagement. In addition to listening to each interview after it occurred, I updated my field notes observation protocol throughout each site visit and reviewed it immediately after the visit was complete. Formal data analysis did not begin until after my last visit was completed, which was approximately one month after my first site visit began. Document collection began three months before the first site visit and continued throughout the reporting phase of the research.

Yin posits four general strategies for analyzing data: (1) relying on theoretical propositions, (2) developing a case description, (3) using both qualitative and quantitative
data, and (4) examining rival explanations. Of the four strategies, I relied on the theoretical propositions set forth by Kezar (2005) and Kezar & Lester (2009) and developed case descriptions for each institution (see chapter 4). The research questions called for qualitative data so Yin’s third strategy was not viable, and because Kezar and Kezar & Lester established that there is a confluence of factors and explanations for collaboration in higher education, examining rival explanations would be a difficult strategy to implement for each of the institutional and personal factors that promote and prohibit collaboration.

As for the data analysis techniques used to implement the previously mentioned strategies, I implemented pattern matching, explanation building, and cross-case synthesis. To successfully use those techniques, I put all interview transcripts, documents, and field notes in NVivo, which is a qualitative research program that allows for easy coding and analysis.

*Pattern matching.* Before I coded the interview transcripts, documents, and field notes, I created nodes or themes for each of the research questions. Depending on the amount of data collected for each research question and the nature of the content, I created child nodes or subthemes in an effort to find patterns in each case and across the three cases. When applicable, I used theoretical propositions to create the themes and subthemes. For example, when I created the themes for the institutional factors that promote and prohibit historians’ involvement in teacher preparation, I established a subtheme for each of Kezar and Kezar & Lester’s stages of model collaboration (see figure 1). By matching the data with a theoretical model, I was able to determine if each case exhibited characteristics of model collaboration in higher education.
Evidence building. This technique was essential to creating case descriptions. I relied heavily on documents and interviews with my informants to “explain” the phenomenon of historian involvement in teacher preparation at each of the three institutions. Similar to my process in pattern matching, I created a separate node or category entitled “description of involvement.” Any comment in an interview or statement in a document that helped explain the nature of a historian’s involvement in teacher preparation and the factors surrounding the work were placed into that category. Descriptions of the phenomenon, along with the other themes, were color coded based on the institution, which made cross-case analysis easier.

Cross-case synthesis. In a multiple-case study, within-case and cross-case analysis should be utilized (Merriam, 1998). Once all of the data were coded, I conducted a within-case analysis to compare faculty responses within each teacher education program and then conducted cross-case analysis to compare faculty responses across institutions (e.g., compare historians’ responses across all three cases). Just as Yin (2009) suggests, I wrote each individual case report before beginning the cross-case analysis. After each case description was written, I analyzed the similarities and differences pertaining to each research question across the three institutions. This cross-case analysis revealed the major findings that are described in chapters 5 and 6.

The logical step after analyzing the data is to report the data. Because this study is designed to meet a graduation requirement, the format adheres to traditional college, university, and professional standards. However, this study is presented with a slight variation to the traditional five-chapter dissertation that includes an introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, and conclusions. Rather than including the case
descriptions and reporting cross-case analysis in chapter 4, I dedicated chapter 4 to the case descriptions and chapter 5 to presenting the cross-case analysis.

**Validity and Reliability of Research**

All research is concerned with producing valid and reliable results in an ethical manner (Merriam, 1998). Being able to produce trustworthy results is essential to generating significant findings that can be useful to the field and inform future research. Reliability and validity are increased when selecting a multiple-case study design over a single-case design (Borman, Clark, Cotner & Lee, 2006; Yin, 2009). In addition to investigating multiple cases, I implemented several strategies designed to increase the internal validity, external validity, and reliability of the study.

*Internal validity.* Internal validity in qualitative studies measures the amount of the findings that match the reality of the phenomenon. According to Merriam (1998), there are six basic strategies to enhance a study’s internal validity: (1) triangulation, (2) member checks, (3) long-term observations, (4) peer examination, (5) participatory or collaborative modes of research, and (6) researcher’s bias. I implemented all of Merriam’s suggested strategies except for conducting long-term observations and using participatory or collaborative modes of research. Participatory or collaborative modes of research, which requires participants to be involved in all phases of research including the conceptualization of the study, were not used because the study was conceptualized before the cases were identified; this strategy was not an option. Other than that, I used multiple data sources to triangulate the data and used member checking with all of the interview transcripts. Fellow doctoral candidates and colleagues reviewed the findings as they emerged, and my bias as a researcher is outlined later in the chapter.
**Reliability.** Reliability refers to the extent to which the research and subsequent findings can be replicated. In other words, if this research were conducted at other institutions or again at the same three institutions, would the study yield the same results? Since human behavior and social organizations are constantly evolving, reliability is problematic in social science research (Merriam, 1998). To address the issue of reliability, Lincoln & Guba (1985) suggest thinking about reliability in terms of “dependability” and “consistency.” Therefore, triangulation is essential to providing reliable results. In addition to triangulating data, an audit trail that describes how data were collected and analyzed is provided in this chapter. With an audit trail, a reader could read this report, replicate the study, and produce similar findings. Since colleges and universities are ever evolving, another study can potentially produce different findings; however, it is unlikely that the findings will be drastically different because multiple cases produced similar findings.

**External validity.** External validity measures the extent to which the findings of a study can be applied to similar situations. This issue of generalizability is a constant threat to qualitative studies, especially when a single case or a small nonrandom sample is investigated. The goal of case study methodology is not to produce generalizable results but rather “to understand the particular in depth, not to find out what is generally true of many” (Merriam, 1998, p. 208). To address the issue of external validity, I made the calculated decision to select more than one case and provided a rich, thick description of each case. Providing a rich case description provides readers with enough information so they can determine the extent to which my study can be applied to their situation.
Every attempt to produce valid and reliable results was taken throughout the research design, sample selection, data collection, and data analysis phases of the study. Even with careful consideration for validity and reliability, biases and limitations of the study still persist.

**Potential Bias and Limitations**

The major limitation of case study methodology is the difficulty in generalizing beyond individual cases (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Ho, O’Farrell, Hong & You, 2006; Yin, 2009). Generalizability of qualitative research suffers from the public’s conception of the term applied to experimental and correlational designs (Merriam, 1998). In most quantitative studies, generalizability is addressed a priori through random sampling and controlling the sample size. In this design, cases were selected in a nonrandom fashion based on established criteria to understand the phenomenon of A&S faculty involvement in teacher education, rather than to make generalizations across all colleges and universities.

Another limitation to this study is the length of each site visit. As previously mentioned, long-term observation is an effective strategy to improve the study’s internal validity. Due to time and funding limitations, I was only able to spend two days on each campus. Given endless time and resources, I would have preferred to return to each campus to conduct follow-up interviews and to observe each historian actively engaging in teacher preparation.

An additional limitation to this study is that all three cases selected are former normal schools and are public institutions. The fact that all of the universities originated as normal schools does not allow for cross-case analysis between non-normal schools and
institutions that were normal schools. There is a tradition and history that comes with being a normal school that predisposes universities to value teacher preparation within the institution. By limiting the cases to former normal schools and current public institutions, there are limitations to the level of cross-case analysis.

As a student studying teacher education and a former teacher who has completed a teacher preparation program, I entered this study with several biases. As a firm believer that A&S faculty members should be more engaged in teacher preparation, there is no doubt that my philosophical perspective shaped my research design, data collection, data analysis, and reporting. For example, a researcher who believes that historian engagement in teacher preparation is an endeavor that provides little value and takes them away from conducting historical research would design a study to investigate the negative consequences of historian engagement in teacher preparation. Since I assume there is value in historian engagement in teacher preparation, I designed this study to gain a better understanding of factors that promote engagement and the benefits associated the work. In addition to my experience as a teacher and graduate student, I had previously established contacts at each of the three institutions that I investigated. These contacts helped me gain access to informants within the university; however, the relationships that I have with each institution were factors in selecting them as a case for investigation. None of my previously established contacts were the unit of analysis in the study, but they did provide me access to internal documents that informed the case descriptions and cross-case analysis.
Data Sources

The data sources collected in each case varied depending on availability of information, willingness of informants to participate, and opportunities for observations. On the next page is a matrix (table A) that identifies the data that was collected at each institution. The documents were collected before, during, and after the site visit. All interviews were conducted during the site visit with the exception on Steve Newton, who was unavailable during the visit so the interview was conducted over the phone. All direct observations were collected during the site visits. The list of documents collected is not exhaustive, rather a list of the most informative pieces that were gathered.

Throughout the research study, I relied heavily on the faculty members at each institution. There were four essential informants at each institution; (1) the historian engaged in teacher preparation, (2) the history department chair, (3) the social studies coordinator, and (4) the dean or associate dean of the college of education. In the case of NSU and SSU, there were integrated structures designed to bring A&S faculty and teacher educators together to make curricular decisions. In those cases, either the director or an influential member of that structure was identified to be interviewed.
Table A: Data sources at NSU, SSU, and WSU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Collection</th>
<th>Interviews</th>
<th>Direct Observation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Northern State University</strong></td>
<td>Chair of History Department, Dean of Education, Historian, Social Studies Education Coordinator, and Director of Center for Instruction and Learning</td>
<td>General Field Notes and Observation Notes from Center for Instruction and Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education Handbook 2011-2012, College of Education Newsletters (2010-2011), Social Studies Education Program Outline, Social Studies Methods Syllabi, University, College, and Department Missions, Promotion and Tenure Guidelines, and various on-line resources</td>
<td>Chair of History Department, Dean of Education, Historian, Social Studies Education Coordinator, and Director of Center for Instruction and Learning</td>
<td>General Field Notes and Observation Notes from Center for Instruction and Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Southern State University</strong></td>
<td>Chair of History Department, Dean of Education, Historian, Social Studies Education Coordinator, and Teacher Educator on Education Council</td>
<td>General Field Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minutes and Agendas from Education Council Meetings (2008-2012), Syllabi of Two-Course Sequence Taught by Helen South, Teacher Education Handbook 2011-2012, Social Studies Methods Syllabus, University, College, and Department Missions, Promotion and Tenure Guidelines, and various on-line resources</td>
<td>Chair of History Department, Dean of Education, Historian, Social Studies Education Coordinator, and Teacher Educator on Education Council</td>
<td>General Field Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Western State University</strong></td>
<td>Chair of History Department, Dean of Education, Historian, and Social Studies Education Coordinator</td>
<td>General Field Notes and Observation Notes from Social Studies Methods I and Observation Notes from United States History Exploration to Civil War (Taught by Hank West)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies Education Curriculum Redesign Documents, Teacher Education Handbook 2011-2012, Social Studies Methods Syllabus, University, College, and Department Missions, Promotion and Tenure Guidelines, and various on-line resources</td>
<td>Chair of History Department, Dean of Education, Historian, and Social Studies Education Coordinator</td>
<td>General Field Notes and Observation Notes from Social Studies Methods I and Observation Notes from United States History Exploration to Civil War (Taught by Hank West)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The matrix (table B) on the following page includes the pseudonym for each of the informants in the study. To help follow the roles and responsibilities of each informant, the last name of faculty member starts with the same letter as their institution. For example, Professor Smith is a faculty member at Southern State University. In addition to the link between the last name and the institution, each informant’s first name starts with the same letter as their role at the institution. For example, Donald Smith is the dean at Southern State University. Throughout the case descriptions, I make an effort to refer to each informant by their first name so readers can easily determine the role of each participant. I also use “North”, “South”, and “West” as the historians’ surnames so they can be easily identified with their institutions. Throughout the cross-case analysis, I use the informants’ last name more often so it is easier for the reader to easily determine which institution they represent.
Table B: Informants’ position and institution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position at Institution</th>
<th>Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charles Noland</td>
<td>Chair of History Department</td>
<td>Northern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dana Neal</td>
<td>Dean</td>
<td>Northern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howard North</td>
<td>Historian</td>
<td>Northern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steve Newton</td>
<td>Social Studies Education Coordinator</td>
<td>Northern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracy Nichols</td>
<td>Teacher Educator</td>
<td>Northern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris Simpson</td>
<td>Chair of History Department</td>
<td>Southern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donald Smith</td>
<td>Dean (Associate)</td>
<td>Southern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen South</td>
<td>Historian</td>
<td>Southern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shawn Simms</td>
<td>Social Studies Education Coordinator</td>
<td>Southern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor Segal</td>
<td>Teacher Educator</td>
<td>Southern State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad Williams</td>
<td>Chair of History Department</td>
<td>Western State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denise Wilson</td>
<td>Dean</td>
<td>Western State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hank West</td>
<td>Historian</td>
<td>Western State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susan Weber</td>
<td>Social Studies Education Coordinator</td>
<td>Western State University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of Southern State, the dean of the education school is new to the institution and she determined that the associate dean would be more informed about the A&S faculty and historian engagement in teacher preparation. The associate dean oversees the teacher preparation program and has been at the university for over 20 years.

In the case of NSU and WSU, the additional faculty members were referred to me by other informants and were helpful in corroborating information provided by other faculty members, observations, and institutional documents.
Chapter 4: Investigation of Historian Engagement in Teacher Preparation Programs at Three Universities

Overview

This chapter describes the phenomenon of historian engagement in teacher preparation at three universities—Northern State University (NSU), Southern State University (SSU), and Western State University (WSU). Within each case description, the factors that promote and prohibit historian engagement in teacher preparation, the benefits derived from their engagement, and advice for promoting future collaboration are discussed.

Northern State University

When asked if he was interested in being involved in teacher preparation at NSU, Howard North responded with three simple words: “Sure, why not.” Those words reflect Howard’s attitude toward his work with prospective teachers; there are no reasons not to be involved, so he might as well. His decision to get involved in 1994 marked the beginning of a “professional rebirth” for him, which has benefited him personally and professionally while providing an “invaluable service” to the institution. The factors involved in that decision, along with the benefits experienced and value added, are discussed in the following pages.

Institutional Context. NSU was founded in the early 20th century as a normal school and began offering bachelor’s degrees shortly after the end of World War I. It served as the largest normal school in its state until it was transformed into a multipurpose institution in the 1960s. NSU is a large university and currently serves close to 20,000 students annually. Of its roughly 20,000 students, approximately 20 percent are
graduate students. NSU offers master’s degrees in 44 disciplines and six doctoral degrees. According to Carnegie Classifications, NSU is a Master’s College and University (large programs).

NSU draws the majority of its students from the surrounding communities, and 98 percent of students are classified as in-state students. NSU is considered a selective institution with an acceptance rate around 50 percent. Approximately 60 percent of students are female, and the institution was widely known as a commuter school until a series of new dormitories was built in the past five years. Since the influx of student housing options, NSU has made a concerted effort to recruit more students from out of state and from areas within the state that are too far for commuters. NSU offers more than 250 majors, minors, concentrations, and certificates and has more than 100 graduate programs.

NSU’s college of education enrolls approximately 4,000 students, which is a little over 20 percent of the NSU student body. The college contains the Center for Instruction and Learning (Center), which oversees all aspects of the teacher preparation programs and brings in representatives from the local schools, arts and sciences faculty, and teacher education faculty to inform program decisions. The Center also houses the Teacher Preparation Policy Committee (TPPC), which makes all policy decisions for undergraduate and graduate teacher education programs. While policy decisions are made by the TPPC housed in the college of education, each academic department with a teacher licensure program has equal representation on that committee. NSU is a member of the
National Network for Education Renewal (NNER)\textsuperscript{15}, which promotes the involvement of A&S faculty members in teacher preparation programs.

Each teacher candidate at NSU is required to have a content major and a minor in elementary or secondary education in order to receive licensure. Most secondary education methods courses are offered within the academic department rather than the college of education, which is the case in the history department. The history department has approximately 20 full-time, tenured, or tenure-track faculty members, with close to 250 undergraduate and 30 graduate students majoring in history. Of the 250 students majoring in history, roughly 60 are seeking secondary social studies licensure.

NSU’s teacher preparation program relies heavily on partnerships with local districts. NSU’s partnerships with local districts includes NSU provided professional development to local schools and graduate course offerings for teachers in exchange for support and placement of teacher candidates in the district. There are close to 30 partner districts located throughout the state. Even though NSU is located in a suburban community, it has partnerships with multiple urban districts within the area. The partnerships give priority to NSU teacher candidates for clinical placements, and in exchange, the local school districts receive professional development opportunities from education and A&S faculty members at NSU.

\textit{Description of Informants}. In addition to observations and document analysis, I conducted formal interviews with five faculty members, two within the college of education and three within the history department. Informal conversations also occurred

\textsuperscript{15}As described in chapter two, NNER is a membership network that is dedicated to the simultaneous renewal of local schools and teacher preparation programs. Each NNER college or university has a tripartite council with representation from higher-education arts & science, education, and public schools.
with the provost and several teacher educators. The two representatives from the college of education were Dana Neal, the dean of the college, and Tracy Nichols, director of the Center for Instruction and Learning. The three representatives from the history department were Howard North, a historian who is highly engaged in teacher preparation; Charles Noland, the history department chair; and Steve Nichols, a historian who serves as the social studies education coordinator. Unique to this case, Charles Noland was prepared as a social studies educator, but he has slowly divorced himself from teacher education over the years. He does not identify himself as a teacher educator; rather, he considers himself a historian.

*A Historian’s Path to Engagement: History Department Chair to Dual Appointment in History and Education.* Howard North has been a professor at NSU for more than 25 years. He joined the history department as an assistant professor shortly after receiving a Ph.D. in history from a large research university in the Northeast. After five years at NSU, Howard received tenure and a promotion to assistant professor and was later named the history department chair. While department chair, Howard became involved with the teacher preparation program. After stepping down from his position as department chair, he accepted a joint appointment with the college of education for the 2003–04 academic year. He continues to teach a full course load in the history department while serving in an administrative capacity in the college of education. He does not teach a social studies methods course or a course dedicated to history teachers; however, he has in recent years and plans to in the future.

Howard began his involvement with the college of education in 1994 when he was asked by the education dean to participate in NSU’s Leadership Associates Program,
which is based on John Goodlad’s Institute for Educational Inquiry and organized by the Center for Instruction and Learning at NSU. The Leadership Associates Program is designed to bring together faculty and administrators from local public schools, the arts and sciences, and the college of education to focus on public education in a political democracy. The program begins in the summer with an eight day seminar that tackles issues germane to public schools with a focus on ways that members from the three groups can work together to improve local schools. Approximately 20 people participate in the program each year, and at the conclusion of the seminar, participants are placed into groups with members from the other groups. For example, a teacher educator is placed in a group with a public school teacher and an A&S faculty member. Each group plans and implements a funded inquiry project that is designed to improve public education. The group conducts the research throughout the following academic year and shares the results with the rest of the groups that participated in the program. Each participant is paid a stipend of $1,000 for his or her attendance and participation in the summer seminar and subsequent inquiry project.

When Howard was approached about joining the Leadership Associates Program in 1994, he agreed and did not see any reason not to participate. During his two weeks in the summer seminar, Howard was exposed to John Goodlad’s ideas and philosophies for the first time. He and the rest of the leadership associates discussed the importance of Goodlad’s “tripartite,” which is a governance model for teacher education that requires the equal participation of school-based administrators and teachers, A&S faculty, and education faculty in the simultaneous renewal of public school and teacher education. The Leadership Associates Program is designed to encourage the involvement of A&S
faculty members in teacher preparation. At the time, Howard had no idea that an eight-day workshop would shape the rest of his life. But what he learned in the program kept him engaged for the next 18 years and would shape the rest of his professional career.

Since 1994, Howard has been actively engaged in the teacher education program at NSU and equally involved in the local public schools. Shortly after participating in the Leadership Associates Program, he began teaching History of Black America, which was one of the course requirements for prospective social studies teachers in the state. That was part of a two-course sequence, along with History of Women in America, designed to prepare teachers for the changing state curricula that were placing an emphasis on previously unrepresented populations. By teaching a required course for all of the social studies teachers that NSU produced, Howard had a relationship with many of the new teachers who accepted teaching positions in the surrounding public schools. The combination of his participation in the Leadership Associates Program and his involvement in preparing every social studies teacher at NSU caused Howard to be more involved in the local public schools, an involvement that continues to this day.

During the 1994–95 academic year, Howard along with a local history teacher and NSU teacher educator created two courses for their inquiry project. One course, Foundations of American Education, was offered at NSU, and the other course, Civics in Government, was offered at the local high school. The college course focused on the history of democracy in public education, and the high school course was designed to bring awareness of government and public issues to students. Both courses are still offered 15 years later.
Howard was responsible for the course at NSU, while his colleagues at the high school were in charge of implementing the high school course. Within two years, the two teachers responsible for teaching the Civics in Government course had left the school. Without the human capital at the local high school, Howard was brought in to help transition the course to the new teachers, and he led the redesign of the course and helped establish a series of events and community outreach programs, now referred to as the Civics in Government Institute. Even though he does not take credit for the institute, he is known at the local school as the founder of the Civics in Government Institute, which is a much larger enterprise than the original course that was planned in 1994. When discussing the institute, Howard said, “It sort of revitalized my career and changed the way that I saw my mission.”

Prior to the 2003–04 academic year, Howard was approached by Dana Neal, the dean of the college of education at NSU, about a new position in the college. He accepted the position and assumed the role of coordinator of the Agenda for Educational Renewal, which is the NSU affiliate of NNER. When asked about the origin of his position with the college of education, he responded by saying:

Dana and I had these conversations. She said, “Why don’t we change your role?” and “Would you be interested in a position in the college of ed?” And I said, “Yeah, I can do that.” So they came up with this mission for me and made me the faculty liaison to the Arts and Sciences. And I would say that became the beginning as what I see as the next part of my career.

As coordinator of the Agenda for Educational Renewal, Howard plans and implements NSU’s Leadership Associates Program that he participated in more than 15 years ago. In
addition to organizing the Leadership Associates Program, he attends and presents at NNER’s national conferences and other local, state, and national programs designed to involve A&S faculty members. He has also served on the NNER executive board at the national level. Howard conducts site visits to potential P–12 partner districts and is invited by local public schools to be a guest speaker at various events. He usually visits high schools to discuss historical thinking skills for professional development programs, but he has also participated in events at elementary and middle schools. Individual teachers at the local schools also invite him to be a guest lecturer in their classes or teach a series of classes.

Howard referred to his position in the college of education as a full-time responsibility even though he teaches a full course load in the history department. Each year he signs a memorandum of understanding that defines his annual mission for the college of education, and is provided with a three-credit course release from his teaching load in the history department. During the 2011–12 academic year, Howard declined the release time and is currently teaching a full course load in addition to his administrative responsibilities in the college of education. He has offices in the education building and the social science building and makes it a point to spend time in both offices each day.

Factors That Prohibit and Promote Engagement. As the theoretical framework suggests, there are personal and institutional factors that have the ability to promote or prevent historians from engaging in teacher preparation at NSU. In Howard’s case, the personal and institutional factors were so strong that they led to a joint appointment between the history department and the college of education. The following is an analysis
of the factors that led to his involvement in teacher preparation and the factors that keep him engaged with prospective teachers and local schools.

Institutional Factors. As Kezar (2005) states, there are eight institutional elements that are necessary for internal collaboration in higher education. These include (1) campus networks, (2) external pressures, (3) values, (4) learning, (5) a sense of priority from people in senior positions, (6) mission and vision, (7) integrating structures, and (8) rewards. While these are the factors that promote historians’ engagement in teacher preparation, the lack of these elements can serve as barriers to the work. A&S faculty members at NSU are not equally engaged in teacher preparation, and some departments are more involved than others due to personality conflicts and competing departmental agendas. The following discussion of institutional factors applies only to the history department; however, there are comparative comments made by the informants in an effort to describe the level of historian involvement compared to the involvement of other departments within the university in teacher preparation.

The institutional factors that promote historian involvement in teacher preparation at NSU are campus networks, external pressures, learning, integrating structures, and rewards. Values, a sense of priority from people in senior positions, and mission and vision exist in the college of education but not in the history department.

Campus networks and learning opportunities at NSU are made possible by the Center. The Center sponsors the Leadership Associates Program, which provides opportunities to A&S faculty members interested in learning more about local schools and the college of education. The Center provides a modest stipend for A&S faculty to participate; however, it was suggested by Tracy Nichols, director of the Center for
Instruction and Learning, that the stipend is not enough to recruit A&S faculty. As she stated, “They can’t sacrifice their time [to teacher preparation] because of the focus on research.” The stipend does not provide adequate compensation; rather, it is meant as a goodwill gesture for A&S faculty members’ time and energy that is exhausted in the program. If A&S faculty members participate in the Leadership Associates Program, they receive a yearlong learning experience that involves the faculty members in the work of local schools and the teacher preparation program. That initial learning experience has led to Howard’s constant engagement in teacher preparation for over 15 years.

External pressures, values, a sense of priority from senior faculty and administration, and mission and vision exist in the college of education but are seriously lacking in the history department. The college of education gets pressure to engage historians in teacher preparation by their accreditation organization, NCATE, and by two networks in which they are members, Teachers for a New Era Learning Network and NNER. As mentioned in chapter two, NCATE requires the involvement of A&S faculty members in the planning and implementation of a teacher preparation program. In addition to NCATE, NSU participates in the Learning Network and NNER, which both encourage A&S faculty engagement as part of their guiding principles. The history department does not feel pressure to participate in teacher preparation and, according to the history department chair Charles Noland and the social studies coordinator Steve Newton, they have pressure to not be engaged in teacher preparation. Outside of Howard, the other historians discussed the pressure to conduct original research, publish journals, and write books. Steve mentioned that his work with the college of education has put his quest for tenure behind schedule. He stated, “I have this book that I need for tenure and I
just can’t finish it.” In order for him to complete the book, he is giving his teacher preparation responsibilities to Charles, the department chair. Steve’s role as social studies coordinator requires his involvement in teacher preparation, but he still needs to meet the teaching and scholarship requirements that every historian in the department has to meet.

The level of support and sense of priority that the senior faculty and administration place upon A&S faculty involvement in teacher preparation seems to differ between the college of education and the history department. Dana, the dean of education, said that “interdisciplinary collaboration is an underlying premise of our teacher preparation agenda,” while Charles, the history department chair, stated that, “If it were up to me, we would be less involved than we are already.” When discussing the level of support he provides to members of his department interested in being involved with teacher preparation, Charles said:

If you are untenured, I would advise [you] to not get involved. You would be silly to get involved. Once you are tenured, I would advise [you] that promotion is up to you. You can stay an associate professor forever; people wouldn’t mind. Maybe the work will pay off and you will find interesting scholarly avenues by getting involved, but maybe you won’t. You also would have to sell people in this department that this is significant scholarship and that it is something that a history department should be endorsing.

It is clear that Charles does not support faculty in his department getting involved in teacher education in any capacity. When discussing his work in teacher education, Howard said, “People in the history department don’t know what I do over in the college of education, and they question the legitimacy of my work.” According to Charles and
Howard, there is a divide between the junior and senior faculty. Senior faculty members are more service oriented and junior faculty question their work, such as their engagement in teacher preparation and work with local museums, because it is not typical research for history faculty members.

The level of support from senior administration is reflected in each department’s mission and values. The mission of the history department does not mention prospective or current history teachers while the mission of the Center references A&S faculty members several times. For example, one of the goals of the Center and the teacher preparation program is to “equally involve the faculty from [A&S], education, and public schools.” The desire to collaborate with one another is clearly one-sided, and Howard’s engagement goes against the department’s mission and the vision set forth by the department chair. As Charles mentioned, “whenever Howard or another faculty member gets involved with the college of education, that takes away from the research of the department.” There was no mention of the value historians provide in the teacher preparation program at NSU, only mention of the costs of their involvement.

At colleges and universities, faculty members are rewarded through the promotion and tenure process by illustrating a record of research, teaching, and service. At this point, when making promotion and tenure decisions, NSU administration does not value A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation as much as the quantity and quality of their publications and teaching. As Charles and Steve mentioned, their work with the college of education counts as service to the institution, which is of tertiary importance in the promotion and tenure process. As Steve said, “My work with teacher preparation is

16 According to NSU’s promotion and tenure application, “tenure decisions will be based on a weighting scheme of teaching: 40%, scholarship: 40%, and service: 20%.”
taking away time from my research.” Howard has already reached full professor so the
traditional reward systems do not apply to him. In his case, there are personal factors and
benefits that led to his involvement and kept him engaged in teacher preparation for close
to two decades. In Steve’s case, it was recently decided that he be relieved of his social
studies coordinator duties. Charles will begin serving as history department chair and
social studies education coordinator in the 2012–13 academic year. Needless to say,
hopes for increased engagement of historians, besides Howard, is highly unlikely.

**Personal Factors.** Howard originally got involved in teacher preparation because
of his relationship with the former dean of education. Just talking to the former dean
made Howard “aware of issues in schools and made [him] consider concepts that [he]
hadn’t thought of before.” Howard and the former dean had a great working relationship,
and Howard originally got involved as a personal favor to the former dean. Since the
dean left, Howard has continued to have great relationships with the administration in the
college of education because they made him realize that “improving schools should be a
mission, and it became a life mission.”

Another factor that led to Howard’s initial involvement was his colleagues in the
history department. He described his colleagues as “complaining about the local schools
and quality of NSU students.” When reflecting on his decision to get involved he
recalled:

I listened to colleagues complain and then I decided to do something about it.
That decision changed my whole attitude, and I don’t think I would ever go back.
It was like an “ah-ha” moment; it was an awakening. My awakening came largely
when I got the chance to go to visit the local schools.
The last personal factor that promoted Howard’s work with prospective teachers and local schools was all the benefits derived from the work. As Howard described his work, his passion for improving local schools was evident and far overshadowed his excitement for his work in the history department. He enjoys teaching history courses, so much so that he declined a course buyout to provide release time for his work with the college of education; it seemed that the benefits of his work with schools and prospective teachers were the highlights of his professional career.

**Benefits: Personal, Professional, and Institutional.** When discussing the personal and professional benefits of his work with the college of education, Howard was unable to distinguish between the two. His inability to do so illustrates the satisfaction that he gains from his work at NSU. That being said, the following sections classify the personal, professional, and institutional benefits of Howard’s work.

**Personal and Professional Benefits.** When Howard began his involvement in the Leadership Associates Program, his daughter was starting elementary school. Prior to that, he had not spent time in a public school in over a decade so his involvement with public schools and NSU’s teacher education program helped him as a parent. He stated that:

It really helped a lot because I knew what to look for in schools; I knew what to look for when helping [my daughter] outside of school, like reading. It also makes you aware of resources, the important resources that you give to your kids or the resources you want your kids to have or know about. It’s just been amazing.

His work with NSU’s teacher education program not only helped Howard as a parent, but it also helped him work with his goddaughter, who struggled with reading and reading
comprehension. Because he knew of the resources available to struggling readers, he was able to get his goddaughter into remediation courses, “which [he] would have never have known about if [he] had just stayed in his little history bubble.”

According to Howard, the most rewarding personal benefit associated with his work has been his involvement with NNER. He has been a member of the leadership committee of the organization. Howard attends every national conference and regularly presents at the annual conference, and he thoroughly enjoys working with faculty members from other institutions who work outside of his field. His involvement with NNER has led to his taking on side projects, such as working with ETS on creating field exams. The work outside NSU and outside the field of history has “been personally rewarding and fuels [his] curiosity,” he says. Overall, the work has given Howard exposure to people, ideas, and programs that he would have never experienced, and that increased exposure has been “life changing.”

In the late 1990s, Howard’s involvement in teacher education at NSU helped him receive tenure and promotion to associate and full professor. Unfortunately, those professional benefits are not available to current A&S faculty members since NSU’s promotion and tenure policies have changed over the years. Prior to 2006, NSU weighted teaching, scholarship, and service equally, which is different from the current system that uses the 40/40/20 weighting system that deemphasizes service. When Howard was up for full professor and department chair, collaboration with other colleges and departments within the university and work in schools and the surrounding community were equally valued by the university. As the university has increased its focus on research and obtaining external grants, its promotion and tenure policies have followed suit.
In addition to helping his promotion and tenure earlier in his career, Howard’s work has had an impact on his teaching. Even though collaboration and work in the community were valued early in his career, conducting research and getting publications were the expectation in the field of history—teaching was of secondary importance. Not until Howard participated in teacher education at NSU did he start reflecting on his ability as a history teacher. When asked how this work affected his professional career, he stated:

I think I’m always looking at things from a teaching perspective as opposed to the idea of just being a researcher, and it’s made me a better teacher. It’s given me more empathy for my students. It’s forced me to teach in multiple ways. [It’s given] me insights that I wouldn’t have had before. It’s forced me to be more interested in technology, be more creative, and have different expectations.

There is no doubt that thousands of Howard’s students have benefited from his refined focus on teaching. Given his discussion of teaching, it was no surprise when everyone I spoke with on campus had nothing but praise for Howard, and they all mentioned that he was admired by his students and colleagues.

Throughout the interview with Howard, he constantly mentioned the idea of validation and the appreciation that he receives through his work with the college of education. He says that he is truly honored to be asked to visit local public schools to talk about history or democracy, or to share his experience as a college professor. (He often attends college and career fairs as a representative of NSU.) He reports that he rarely, if ever, turns down a request to visit a local school, and after he leaves, the students, teachers, and administrators are overly appreciative of the time that he spent with them.
As he mentioned, “I come home and feel more fulfilled and feel like I really made a difference.” According to Howard, the increased levels of satisfaction that he experiences would never occur if he stayed on campus and did not stray from the history department. His involvement with teacher education allows him to reach a larger audience.

_Institutional Benefits._ With the exception of Charles, the history department chair, and Steve, the social studies coordinator, the other three informants at NSU operated under the assumption that A&S faculty engagement inherently improved both the quality of teacher preparation programs and the teacher candidates that they produced. Throughout the series of interviews, it was evident that the informants believed that involvement of historians benefited the teacher education program by increasing coherence between the content and methods courses. The teacher educators confirmed that when A&S faculty members are substantially involved, increased coherence occurs in all of the teacher certification programs, not just in social studies education. According to Tracy, the director of the Center for Instruction and Learning, “the history department works with the college of education to make all program decisions,” which enables the coherence between the history and education coursework.

Even though NSU is attempting to recruit throughout the state, the majority of its current students are from the surrounding communities so many of NSU’s students attended the same public schools that the college of education works in. That being said, it was mentioned by multiple NSU faculty members that the involvement of Howard and other A&S faculty members improved the quality of teachers that NSU prepares, which NSU faculty members believe will ultimately improve student performance in the surrounding schools and, thus, improve the quality of students who enroll at NSU.
Not only does A&S faculty involvement at NSU prepare better teacher candidates, but it also improves the quality of instruction by the faculty. Just as Howard’s quality of instruction increased, so too does the level of instruction for other A&S faculty members. As Dana and Tracy mentioned, the best professors on campus are the ones who have been involved in the Leadership Associates Program and continue to work with the teacher preparation programs. Whether the professors were effective before working with the college of education or whether their work with teacher preparation improved their instruction is impossible to determine, but as Dana said, “They have an awareness that they never would have had without being involved in teacher preparation.”

Lessons Learned: Advice for Leadership. Education faculty members at NSU were not impressed with the level of historian engagement, and most believe there is tremendous room for improvement. Each informant acknowledged that the other departments within the College of Arts and Sciences are more engaged than the history department. Even though Howard is a history professor, it seemed that the historians and teacher education faculty viewed him as a member of the education faculty. Noting opportunities for improvement, faculty members were quick to offer potential policies that have the possibility for increasing historians’, and other A&S faculty members’, engagement in teacher preparation.

When Howard was asked how NSU could increase the level of historian involvement in teacher preparation, he responded with the following:

That would be easy. I would encourage the administration to create a reward structure for involvement. The rewards could be provided to the individual
engaging in teacher preparation through the promotion and tenure process, or the reward could be provided to the department with financial resources.

Steve supported Howard’s notion of providing rewards by saying that “administration needs to put money into collaboration and pay faculty for their work.” Throughout the conversation, it was clear that Steve viewed his work with teacher preparation as an additional task outside the scope of his position. Even though he receives a two-course release each semester to coordinate the social studies education program and it counts as service to the institution, he still believed he should get financial compensation. According to him, “there has to be additional monetary incentives to remain involved.”

The teacher educators believed that the college of education provides adequate incentives to encourage A&S faculty involvement in teacher education, and in cases where the level of engagement within a department was low, they cited personalities and a lack of personal relationships as the cause. Each of the five informants mentioned the strained relationship between the history department and the college of education. Unwilling to go on record with details, faculty members from each department attributed the strained relationship to “personalities” and “differences in theoretical perspective.”

**Southern State University**

As a doctoral student of history, Helen South had aspirations to be a public historian, a position that would be far removed from a traditional academic setting. A particularly enlightening experience in graduate school altered those aspirations, and Helen sought a tenure-track position upon graduation. Approximately 14 years after starting her career in academia, Helen became engaged in preparing future history teachers at SSU. Her work immediately impacted the quality of her teaching and the
quality of the history teachers that she prepares. All Helen needed was an opportunity, and she quickly became active in state licensure decisions and program redesign at SSU. Without that opportunity, it is fair to assume that Helen probably would never have been involved in teacher preparation. Helen’s career-altering experiences and opportunities, in addition to the benefits experienced and value added due to her extensive involvement in preparing future history teachers, are discussed in the following pages.

*Institutional Context.* SSU is a public institution located in the southeastern part of the country. Although SSU is not the state’s flagship institution, it is one of the more selective public universities in the region. Annual enrollment is approximately 18,000 students, with slightly under 20 percent of those students seeking post-baccalaureate degrees. Founded in the late 19th century as a normal school, SSU did not admit male students until it became a multipurpose institution in the 1960s. SSU is a research university and offers a wide selection of graduate programs, including doctoral programs in more than 30 departments. According to Carnegie Classifications, SSU is a Research University with high research activity.

The majority of SSU students are from the surrounding communities, and slightly more than 10 percent of students come from out of state. SSU is considered a selective institution with an acceptance rate of just more than 55 percent, but it suffers from a relatively low retention rate of 75 percent. Similar to other schools in the state, SSU is composed of approximately 65 percent females, which is no surprise considering its history of being a women’s college. SSU offers undergraduate programs in more than 100 areas of study, and its college of education is considered to be one of the best in the state and region.
The college of education at SSU brings in more grant dollars than the rest of the university combined. That level of grant productivity is one of the reasons why the college has such high status on campus. The college of education has more than 20 teacher licensure programs and graduates approximately 150 teacher candidates each year. All of the early childhood education and elementary education programs are housed with the college of education, while most secondary licensure programs are in A&S. The only secondary education program that is managed by the college of education is the social studies education program. Since there are so many content areas within social studies, faculty and staff voted years ago to house the program in the college of education and seek input from the social science departments. The mechanism that the college of education uses to engage the various A&S departments in teacher education is the Education Council, which has representation from A&S faculty in all of the teacher licensure areas and from education faculty. The council is a policy-making body that approves all teacher education curricular decisions.

The history department has more than 15 tenured or tenure-track faculty members and approximately five adjunct faculty members in a given year. Since the social studies education program is housed in the college of education, there is no social studies education coordinator in the department; however, the department does have a representative on the Education Council. The department offers undergraduate majors and programs along with a wide array of graduate-level programs, including a newly created Ph.D. program. Students seeking secondary social studies certification are required to have a content major, and approximately 95 percent select a major in history. All of the candidates’ education coursework is taken in the college of education.
Description of Informants. In addition to observations and document analysis, formal interviews were conducted with five faculty members, three within the college of education and two within the history department. Informal conversations also occurred with several teacher educators. The three representatives from the college of education were Donald Smith, associate dean of teacher education; Shawn Simms, social studies coordinator; and Taylor Segal, teacher educator and member of the Education Council. The two representatives from the history department were Helen South, a historian who is highly engaged in teacher preparation, and Chris Simpson, the history department chair.

A Historian’s Path to Engagement: Reluctant Volunteer to Enthusiastic Stakeholder: Helen South joined SSU’s history department directly after graduating with a Ph.D. in history from a prestigious university in the Southeast. Helen had received a master’s degree in museum studies and enrolled in a doctoral program with the goal of working in public history upon obtaining a terminal degree. As she said, “I wanted to stay as far away from teaching as possible.” Working in public history would have provided Helen the opportunity to work in museums, historic sites, and archives; however, that professional goal was never realized due to a series of experiences in graduate school that altered her career path.

Helen was a teaching assistant (TA) for two years while working on her master’s degree, which was her first experience in teaching. As a typical graduate student working as TA, she received minimal support from her department, and that experience convinced her that she had no desire to teach. That early experience as a TA steered Helen in the direction of public history, where she would be removed from an academic setting; however, her experience teaching in her doctoral program gave her the desire to pursue a
career in academia. In the second year of her doctoral program, Helen participated in a grant-funded project that linked English composition courses with A&S coursework to encourage writing across the university curriculum. Students received writing instruction in the composition course, and the content was the responsibility of the A&S faculty members and the TAs assigned to the course. All of the writing assignments in the composition course revolved around the content being taught in the A&S course, in this case the history course. The project required coordination among the departments and provided Helen with pedagogical knowledge and skills that she was previously unaware of. This was the first time she had discussed instruction with colleagues at the university. She had experienced an apprenticeship by observation up to that point and had relied on lecturing as her only pedagogical tool. Co-planning and co-creating assignments and rubrics was an eye-opening venture and, as she described it, “was a transformative experience” for her as a teacher. The opportunity to collaborate with the English department altered Helen’s experience as a TA and led her to seek a tenure-track position upon graduation.

Helen started at SSU in fall 1994 and did not have any substantive experiences with the college of education until 2008. At that point she had already been granted tenure and promoted to associate professor. In 2007, Helen was appointed chair of the General Education Committee, which was charged with revising the general education curriculum at SSU. While Helen admits that her experience as chair of the committee was one of the most difficult of her life, it directly led to her involvement in the teacher preparation program at SSU. In 2008, the state department of education convened a panel to revise the content standards for state licensure in social studies and each state
institution was asked to send a representative. At the time, the college of education was without a social studies education coordinator to represent SSU on the panel. An invitation for volunteers was circulated around the history department, and it was clear that someone had to volunteer to serve on the panel. Since Helen was constantly urging interdepartmental collaboration on the General Education Committee, she figured that she would “practice what [she] preached in those meetings” and “reluctantly volunteered for the state panel to revise licensure standards.” That was officially her first direct involvement with teacher preparation outside of teaching prospective social studies teachers in her history courses.

Helen attended the workshops and subsequent meetings to develop the new state standards for social studies licensure. After the panel established the new standards, it was the responsibility of each teacher preparation program in the state to redesign its program to ensure that the new standards were addressed. Back at SSU, the social studies coordinator position was still vacant, so Helen assumed the responsibility for formulating the new social studies education program. Shawn Simms, the current social studies education coordinator, was hired at the end of the redesign process, but because he was new to the institution, he decided to let Helen finish redesigning the program. Shawn had the opportunity to provide feedback on the final draft of the redesign, and, as he put it, “the new program looked good to me so we went with it.” The Education Council approved the new program and it was implemented for the 2009–10 academic year. Over the past two academic years, Helen and Shawn have discussed future changes to the program, but at this point, the program has remained unchanged since it was rolled out.
After serving on the state licensure panel, Helen joined the Education Council as the A&S faculty representative for the social studies education program. Since joining the council, Helen has been a regular attendee at the monthly meetings and is one of the most active A&S faculty members on the council. According to Education Council meeting minutes, Helen attended more than 90 percent of the meetings over the past two and a half academic years. The Council gives Helen the opportunity not only to be involved in the social studies education program, but also to make programmatic decisions that impact every prospective teacher at SSU.

Part of the social studies education redesign is a two-course sequence that is taught in the history department: Historical Thinking for Social Studies, and Theory and Practice of Teaching History. Not only did Helen design the courses, but she also teaches both courses each year. Both are 400-level courses and taught in a sequence. Historical Thinking is taught every fall semester and is a prerequisite for Theory and Practice, which is offered every spring. This two-course sequence is taken in addition to three lower-level history courses and a social studies methods course. Even if a social studies education student does not major in history, he or she takes a minimum of five history courses, which are three more than the state requires. Helen designed the social studies education program under the premise that most social studies teachers are placed in schools and expected to teach history more often than the other social sciences. Helen acknowledged that her work with the college of education has been time consuming and “put [her] behind professionally,” but she said she continues to be a willing participant and plans to continue her involvement for the foreseeable future because of the “potential impact that [her] work has over time.”
Factors that Prohibit and Promote Engagement. It took Helen 14 years to be involved in the preparation of future history teachers. A confluence of factors prevented her from becoming involved until 2008, when, for a series of reasons, she began working on state teacher education policy, which in turn led to her involvement on SSU’s campus. The following section identifies those institutional and personal factors that led to her involvement in teacher preparation and the factors that have kept her engaged for the past four academic years. When applicable, I discuss the factors that prevented her from being involved in teacher education throughout the first 14 years of her time at SSU.

Institutional Factors. Helen’s involvement in teacher preparation was made possible by a series of institutional factors. The institutional factors at SSU allow for anyone in the history department to be involved in teacher preparation, and with the redesigned social studies education curricula that Helen created, it will be mandatory that a historian be engaged as long as the course sequence remains the same. Of Kezar’s eight institutional elements necessary to promote internal collaboration in higher education, SSU has campus networks, external pressures, values, learning, a sense of priority from people in senior positions, mission and vision, and integrating structures. The only element that SSU lacks is a reward system that promotes historians’ involvement in teacher preparation.

Campus networks exist throughout a university, but collaboration and engagement outside of a faculty member’s department cannot occur without the faculty member being a member of a particular network. In Helen’s case, she was an active member of two networks that promoted her engagement in teacher preparation. First, her role as the chair of the General Education Committee gave her experience in interdepartmental
collaboration and made her realize the importance of working outside of one’s
department and college. While her experience as chair of the committee was difficult, it
directly led her to volunteer for the panel to redesign the state standards for licensure.
Helen believed that as the chair of the committee, it was her responsibility to “practice
what [she] preached” and illustrate the cross-departmental collaboration that she was
advocating. As Helen became more involved in teacher preparation, she joined another
campus network—the Education Council. That network provides opportunities for all of
the A&S faculty members on the committee to make programmatic decisions that impact
all teacher candidates. As the council’s bylaws state, the Education Council “coordinates
the policy and practice of all teacher preparation programs on campus.” Without this
network, Helen would be unable to participate in teacher education policy decisions on
campus, and her level of involvement would be limited to teaching history courses
dedicated for prospective social studies teachers. Although the General Education
Committee and the Education Council are formal networks, there are also informal
networks that promote Helen’s work in teacher preparation.

According to Shawn and Helen, they have a positive working relationship that
promotes Helen’s work with prospective social studies teachers. The informal network
that they have created allows Helen to continue her work in teacher preparation; without
it, she would have difficulty maintaining her engagement. Helen and Shawn were very
complimentary of one another and seemed to genuinely enjoy working together. In
describing what prevents other A&S faculty members from being involved, Helen said,
“It’s mostly the personalities. I wouldn’t say that it’s only personalities, but having a
different perspective on student learning can prevent departments from working together.”

As Helen mentioned, personal and pedagogical differences can prevent collaboration. Conversely, in the case of Helen and Shawn, their pedagogical similarities and strong working relationship promotes collaboration. In addition to the informal network that Helen and Shawn have, Donald, the associate dean of teacher preparation, and the dean of education have a strong network with the dean of A&S. As Donald said, “the university supports any initiative that we present.” Since the A&S dean dictates college and departmental priorities, a strong network between the education and A&S administration can only help promote A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation.

External pressures are what initially got Helen involved in teacher preparation at SSU. The mandate that SSU send a representative to the licensure standards redesign put pressure on the college of education to seek involvement from outside its program. The college of education had no choice but to extend an invitation to the history department for one of its faculty members to represent the institution on the panel. Additional external pressure came from the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) when SSU received feedback from NCATE’s accreditation visit. SSU’s teacher preparation programs received a “slap on the wrist,” as Helen put it, for not involving A&S departments in its programs. To address NCATE’s concerns,17 SSU revamped its policy-making structures and procedures and created the Education Council. Due to

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17 NCATE’s *Standard 6: Unit Governance* states that education faculty members work with “colleagues from the arts and sciences” (NCATE, 2008, p. 45). The NCATE visitation team found that SSU needed to increase the involvement of A&S faculty members in the teacher preparation programs.
NCATE’s feedback, A&S faculty members now have an opportunity to make policy and practice decisions regarding SSU’s preparation programs.

When asked if the university values interdisciplinary collaboration, every informant replied in the affirmative. There was no doubt among anyone that collaboration between departments and colleges within the university is valued and promoted. Chris, the history department chair, said, “Collaboration has been pushed by the chancellor and provost, and that emphasis has filtered all the way down to the departments.” Chris showed unwavering support for Helen’s work. But the value that he places on work with teacher preparation did not come from university administrators; it came from his previous experience. Chris was a faculty member and department chair at a midsize public university for 15 years prior to joining SSU. At his previous institution, the history department housed and implemented the social studies education program, and even though Chris did not run that program, he witnessed the benefits that historians’ engagement in teacher preparation can create. Due to the values that his previous institution had regarding historians’ involvement in teacher preparation combined with SSU’s emphasis on interdisciplinary collaboration, Chris provides unwavering support for Helen as she engages with the teacher preparation programs.

Key to Helen’s engagement in teacher preparation was the learning experience of redesigning the social studies education curriculum. To learn from a panel of content and pedagogy experts on the state standards panel and then to have the opportunity to use that knowledge to redesign the social studies education curriculum was invaluable. In addition to redesigning the program, the opportunity to teach history courses dedicated to prospective social studies teachers has provided Helen the opportunity to delve into social
studies education literature. Participation in the Education Council also provides Helen with the chance to learn about teacher preparation issues and policies. She is constantly involved in teacher preparation learning opportunities that engage her in the process of preparing future teachers.

According to its strategic plan for 2009–14, one goal the college of arts and sciences has is to “increase the level of support and visibility of interdisciplinary research and teaching.” The college of arts and sciences seeks to achieve that goal by “strengthening and expanding opportunities to facilitate interdisciplinary discourse among faculty” and by “reviewing all interdepartmental programs to ensure their ability to support interdisciplinary research and teaching.” By establishing the goal of increasing interdisciplinary research and teaching, the A&S dean is conveying that the type of work that Helen engages in is a university-wide priority. The college of education conveys that A&S engagement is a priority by maintaining the Education Council, which has an A&S member representative for each teacher licensure program. This sense of priority is also expressed in the form of college and departmental missions and visions.

A&S faculty engagement is not part of the college of education’s mission, nor is being engaged in teacher preparation part of the history department’s mission. However, these two objectives are part of the vision of each group. Involvement in teacher education is so much a part of the history department’s vision that it is exposing its Ph.D. candidates to social studies education literature with the expectation that they will work with prospective teachers in their academic careers. When discussing the Ph.D. in history program at SSU, Helen described the impact of social studies education literature as “blowing the students out of the water.” She went on to say:
They have always had the experience of the history classroom being lecture mode, and honestly, that approach is kind of dated. I think a lot of times we think we are teaching historical thinking and we really aren’t. We’re teaching memorization activities and lower-level thinking. So looking at the literature on student learning and the challenges of historical thinking, we are working with our Ph.D. candidates to develop those skills in a way that they can provide the same skills to their students.

The vision of preparing future teachers not only dictates the undergraduate program, but it influences the doctoral-level courses as well.

As previously discussed, the General Education Committee and the Education Council are networks that promote Helen’s work in teacher education. These formal networks also serve as integrating structures that provide the physical space and configuration that allows the work to occur. In addition to the previously discussed structures, the newly redesigned curriculum provides space for Helen to be engaged with preparing future history teachers. By creating two required history courses for prospective history teachers, Helen made the sequence of courses for her and any other historian that teaches the course to be engaged in the teacher preparation program. As long as those two courses are required, historians will continue to be involved in teacher preparation at SSU.

Helen said that if I had visited in 2006, she “could give me a long list of institutional barriers,” but there are no longer many barriers. Struggling to identify an institutional barrier to her involvement in teacher preparation, she mentioned that the promotion and tenure process has the potential to limit her involvement in the future.
Because Helen receives no financial reward for her work with the teacher preparation program, the lack of professional recognition of this work is a huge disadvantage. As Helen said”

I’ve put a huge amount of time into service in the past several years, and it’s actually put me behind professionally. But it is time I did not spend finishing my book; now I have to catch up on that.

Helen will not be eligible for full professor until she finishes her book so it is not a stretch to say that her work with the teacher preparation program has had a negative impact on her promotion and tenure.

Helen received tenure in 2000 and did not get involved with teacher preparation until eight years later. With all of the institutional factors that promote collaboration at SSU, she could have easily decided not to get involved in preparing future teachers. Therefore, personal characteristics and experiences had to have factored in to her decision to be so engaged with the college of education. The following section discusses the personal factors that promoted Helen’s engagement in teacher preparation at SSU.

**Personal Factors.** Helen’s experience in her doctoral program was the leading factor that promoted her engagement in the teacher preparation program. Without that experience, Helen could be working in a museum or at a historic site rather than teaching at SSU. Collaborating with the English department provided a valuable experience that not only led her to academia, but also led her to engage with the teacher preparation program.

Another personal factor that led to Helen’s involvement with the state licensure standards and the teacher preparation program was her desire to improve the P–12 school
system. Prior to her initial experience in teacher preparation, Helen had encountered several students who entered SSU without adequate reading, writing, and historical thinking skills. For example, one of her introductory-level history courses has several students that “don’t know how to read” and require remediation. At some point, Helen came to the realization that if the local schools had better teachers, the quality of students would improve at SSU—and in order to get better teachers in the local schools, SSU had to prepare higher-quality teacher candidates. The desire to improve P–12 schools not only promoted Helen’s initial involvement with teacher preparation, but it has also kept her involved for the past four years.

A factor that has kept Helen engaged in teacher preparation is the fact that she enjoys it. She sees the benefit of her work, and the teacher educators in the Education Council value her input. When describing one of the required history courses designed for teacher candidates, she said, “This is the most powerful class I have ever taught because of its potential impact over time. The impact I have on future history teachers makes me enjoy the class all the more.” At this point, Helen has no plans on giving up those two courses and her position on the Education Council.

**Benefits: Personal, Professional, and Institutional.** Helen’s enjoys her work with the social studies education program and prospective students and has no plans to stop her high levels of engagement. Down the hall from Helen’s office, Chris, her department chair, highly values the work that she does with the teacher education program. Across the street, her colleagues in the college of education value her work with teacher preparation and would love to see her continue to be involved with their preparation
programs. Everyone involved with the social studies education program, including Helen, wants her to continue her involvement with teacher preparation at SSU.

**Personal and Professional Benefits.** When asked about the personal benefits of her work with teacher preparation, Helen responded, “It is hard for me to separate my personal and professional benefits because they are so intertwined.” When describing the benefits of her work with prospective teachers, Helen stated:

I love teaching the courses, and that’s the number one benefit. I just find them incredibly meaningful because I feel like that is where my impact will be for the future. Not just impacting a group of teachers but impacting their future students. That is more important than any books I might publish.

For Helen to say that preparing future history teachers is the most important aspect of her job illustrates the impact that her engagement with teacher preparation has had on her career. To say that this work “is more important than any books I might publish” speaks volumes of the personal and professional fulfillment that Helen receives from this work. Helen’s transformation from a reluctant volunteer on a state licensure panel to a history professor who identifies her work with teachers as the most important part of her job illuminates the potential effect that working with prospective teachers can have on a professional career. Helen went so far to say that she has contemplated going back for a second degree in teacher education, but the time commitment required for another terminal degree is too great at this point in her professional and personal life.

Prior to getting involved in teacher preparation at SSU, Helen contemplated an administrative path within the university, but her experience working with prospective teachers caused her to abandon that idea. As she put it:
I just decided the classroom is where I want to be, and being there with prospective teachers is incredibly powerful and meaningful to me. The choice to stay in the classroom is both a personal and professional benefit, I think.

The strictly professional benefits from Helen’s engagement in teacher preparation are simple: the work is respected by her department and department chair, and it has improved her teaching. Helen stated that her work is respected by the department, and Chris was very clear in the support and admiration that he had for Helen’s work. When discussing the impact that working with prospective teachers had on her teaching, Helen stated, “My teaching has definitely improved. I’ve found and discovered new scholarship that impacts me daily. It’s the kind of relationship between research and teaching that faculty members always talk about.”

*Institutional Benefits.* Chris and Shawn both agreed that Helen’s engagement in social studies education produces better teachers. When discussing the impact of the two-course sequence that Helen designed and teaches, Chris stated:

Students are getting a strong background in historical content, but also having the opportunity to think like historians. Using historical methods, such as evaluating sources, provides skills that are just as important as the content knowledge. To have a historian teach those two courses rather than a social studies educator provides a valuable perspective of what it means to be a historian. The courses provide Helen with two semesters to model historical thinking skills that prospective teachers will hopefully model when they begin teaching in local schools.

*Lessons Learned: Advice for Leadership.* When provided with the opportunity to give advice to university administrators on how to promote higher levels of A&S
engagement in teacher preparation, each of the five informants at SSU provided valuable strategies that would increase collaboration between the college of education and the A&S departments. Given the current structures at SSU, faculty members from the history department and the college of education provided innovative strategies that are feasible to implement and have the potential to support collaborative research, teaching, and planning between both groups.

A common strategy offered by informants at SSU was for financial incentives to be used to promote collaboration. Interestingly, most people suggested giving money to the departments rather than providing money directly to the faculty members. If the history department received the money directly, the department chair would have the ability to use the funds to encourage more historians to get involved with teacher preparation. At this point, Helen is the only department member engaged with the teacher preparation program and her colleagues in the department could benefit from being involved. Both of the historians already support A&S engagement in teacher preparation, and they believe that financial incentives would increase support throughout the various A&S departments.

Another piece of advice offered by two informants was to create faculty learning communities to break the silos that exist throughout the university. Shortly after offering that suggestion, Helen identified a challenge to the approach:

The idea of faculty learning communities has a lot of potential, but trying to get faculty to come and participate and integrate the ideas would be a problem. Getting faculty to attend valuable workshops doesn’t happen—attendance is so low. We don’t have any structures that require faculty development.
With that comment, Helen identified a caveat to the strategy: attendance needs to be required. Establishing faculty learning communities would require substantial time spent to build support within the faculty, and if support is provided, the implementation of the learning communities would take time.

**Western State University**

Hank West was heavily involved with various Teaching American History (TAH) grants from the day he stepped on campus at WSU. As a participating faculty member and co–principal investigator, he worked with dozens of active history teachers and was unpleasantly surprised by the low quality of teachers who were selected to participate in the TAH program. His experience with TAH provided a troublesome picture of the quality of history teachers in and around the WSU area. Seeing firsthand the lack of content knowledge that some teachers possessed along with the opportunity of being engaged in the teacher preparation program provided Hank with a perfect chance to be more actively involved in preparing prospective history teachers. Unfortunately for Hank, his high level of engagement would be short lived, as his opportunities for involvement have diminished over the past academic year. The factors that led to Hank’s involvement in teacher preparation along with the benefits experienced and value added from his work with prospective teachers are discussed below.

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18 TAH was a federal program designed to improve student achievement by improve teachers’ knowledge and understanding of United States history. TAH grants were awarded to school districts with the desire to improve the history education in their schools. School districts were required to partner with a college or university, nonprofit history organization, or museum. The majority of school districts partnered with history departments at their local college or university in order to provide content expertise. The TAH program was not renewed in 2012.
Institutional Context. WSU is a public institution located in the southwestern area of the country. It is classified as a large research university with a relatively high acceptance rate of close to 90 percent. One of the largest universities in the country, WSU operates on multiple campuses and provides more than 250 undergraduate programs and majors. Less than 20 percent of the student body is enrolled in one of WSU’s roughly 100 graduate programs. Approximately 75 percent of WSU’s student body is in-state students, with the majority of those in-state students classified as commuters. According to Carnegie Classifications, WSU is a Research University with high research activity.

WSU was founded in the late 19th century as Western Normal School and served as a teachers college until the 1960s. Within two decades of transforming to a multipurpose institution, WSU grew to be one of the largest universities in the country. WSU is currently one of the most diverse institutions in the country, with students of color comprising over 30 percent of the student population. WSU takes pride in being an open institution and works to increase accessibility for low-income and minority students.

The college of education at WSU enrolls approximately 4,700 teacher candidates in six undergraduate and five graduate degree programs that lead to teacher certification. The college benefits from a university-wide commitment to teacher preparation and has high levels of support from the university president and provost. The college has been able to leverage support from leadership to remake undergraduate and graduate teacher preparation programs with a focus on clinical practice and strong K–12 partnerships. In the beginning of the 2010–11 academic year, the college of education embarked on a process to reshape its teacher preparation programs. In the semester before beginning the
curriculum redesign process, the college elicited the help of the A&S colleges and departments, one of which was the history department.

The history department has more than 20 tenured or tenure-track faculty members and approximately five adjunct professors each semester. The department includes a social studies education coordinator, who oversees the secondary social studies education program and teaches the social studies methods courses. The department offers undergraduate majors and programs along with a wide array of graduate-level programs, including a highly rated Ph.D. program. Students seeking secondary social studies certification are secondary education majors who will have a minor in history. All of the candidates’ education coursework is taken in the college of education except for a two-course sequence of social studies methods, which is taken in the history department.

Description of Informants. In addition to observations and document analysis, formal interviews were conducted with four faculty members—one in the college of education and three in the history department. Informal conversations also occurred with several teacher educators. The lone representative from the college of education was Denise Wilson, the dean of the college. The three representatives from the history department were Hank West, a historian who is highly engaged in teacher preparation; Chad Williams, the history department chair; and Susan Weber, a teacher educator who serves as the social studies education coordinator within the department. Unique to this case, Susan was trained as a teacher educator and was granted a tenure-track position within the history department. Even though she is in the history department, she is categorized as a teacher educator throughout the case description and cross-case analysis because she is not an academically trained historian and teaches only social studies
education courses. Since she was hired as a social studies educator in the history department, she is expected to conduct her scholarship in social studies education rather than history.

*A Historian’s Path to Engagement: Involvement in P–12 That Leads to Engagement in Teacher Preparation*. Hank West joined WSU’s history department as an assistant professor in 2001 after serving as a visiting professor of history at a prestigious university on the East Coast from 1998 to 2000. He received his Ph.D. in history from a research university in the Midwest the semester before accepting the visiting professor position. After seven successful years of research, teaching, and service at WSU, Hank was granted tenure and promoted to associate professor of history. He teaches a full course load that typically includes a combination of introductory-level U.S. history courses, a capstone course for history majors and prospective history teachers, and graduate-level U.S. history courses. Hank’s research focus is on early American history, religion, and culture. Prior to his time in academia, Hank was a high school history teacher for two years, and since 2003, he has participated in several TAH grants.

During his second year at WSU, Hank began participating in TAH grants by giving guest lectures and working with current secondary history teachers. He continued working as a participating historian in the TAH grants until 2008, when he and a colleague in the history department applied for and were awarded a three-year TAH grant. As co–principal investigator for the TAH grant, Hank worked closely with the local curriculum leaders and history teachers. Having such an intense and influential experience with active history teachers provided Hank with a sense of satisfaction that he
would not have otherwise experienced as a university professor. As he phrased it, “I enjoyed it and it made me feel more useful than just being a university professor.”

Still not yet directly involved in teacher preparation at WSU, Hank was named the director of undergraduate history education in 2010. Historically, the history department has housed the social studies education program, and at the time of Hank’s appointment, the social studies education coordinator position was vacant. It was during the 2010–11 academic year that Hank’s involvement in P–12 schools transformed into engagement in the teacher preparation program at WSU. The social studies education coordinator position was filled over the summer before the 2011–12 academic year.

Since Hank had experience as a high school teacher and working with the TAH grant, he became the go-to person for all issues pertaining to the social studies education program. During the same year that Hank was the representative for social studies education, the college of education was in the process of redesigning its entire teacher preparation program. The college created new curricula for each teacher licensure program and relied heavily on the A&S faculty to help guide the curriculum redesign. The associate dean of the college of education happened to be a social studies educator and collaborated with Hank to revamp the social studies education program. In addition to partnering with the associate dean, Hank worked closely with Amy, an adjunct faculty member responsible for teaching the social studies methods courses in the absence of a full-time social studies coordinator. The three of them redesigned the curriculum, including the clinical experiences and coursework, and Hank and Amy co-taught the methods courses.

When discussing his work during the 2010–11 academic year, Hank said:
The coordinator ended up leaving, and that is when I started to work with the college of education. I always thought I didn’t know anything about social studies education, but since I had just done the TAH grant and there was no one else, I was the default person. Even though I didn’t feel like I was qualified, I did enjoy the work. I do enjoy the work.

Since the social studies education coordinator position was vacant, Hank was in the position to be engaged in teacher preparation, and he took advantage of the opportunity. At the end of that academic year, Hank wrote an article in the American Historical Association’s monthly publication about the role that historians should play in teacher preparation. That article drew on his experience working with TAH, working on the curriculum redesign, and teaching prospective history teachers.

A new social studies coordinator was hired for the 2011–12 academic year, and since then, Hank’s involvement in teacher preparation has decreased. As director of undergraduate history education, Hank continues to be involved in teacher preparation, but the work that he previously did by himself is now shared with Susan, the new social studies education coordinator. And as Hank stated, “I’m much less involved than I was last year because I don’t need to be.” Susan has taken on many of Hank’s prior responsibilities, but they still work together to make policy decisions that affect history majors and prospective teachers. When describing his current work with the teacher preparation program, Hank said:

We are in the process of turning the major inside out, so instead of a secondary education major with a history concentration, we are creating a program with a
history major with a secondary education minor. In fact, we are meeting next week to finalize the new program. All the historians love that.

WSU is in the process of creating an academic program that allows for history majors to seek certification with a secondary education minor, rather than their current program that requires a secondary education major. Hank is currently leading the team charged with creating the new academic program.

*Factors that Prohibit and Promote Engagement.* Hank became involved in P–12 schools almost immediately after arriving at WSU. There was a financial incentive to participate in the TAH grant, and working with active history teachers was an activity that he was interested in. Even though working with the TAH grant is a service to the institution, local schools, and the discipline, Hank remained relatively uninvolved with the teacher preparation program. Not until he was named the director of undergraduate history education did he begin to be involved in the social studies education program. A series of factors were in place that enabled Hank to work with the teacher preparation program; however, the addition of a social studies educator in the history department has since decreased his involvement with the program. The following section identifies the institutional and personal factors that promoted and prohibited Hank’s work with teacher preparation at WSU.

*Institutional Factors.* Hank’s engagement with the teacher preparation program was made possible by a series of institutional factors. The institutional factors at WSU allowed him to be highly engaged for an academic year, but a new series of factors led to his decreased involvement the following year. The desire to continue high levels of engagement was there, but institutional factors prevented it from happening. Of Kezar’s
eight institutional elements necessary for internal collaboration in higher education, there was evidence that Hank experienced all of them except being rewarded for his engagement in teacher education. Once the social studies coordinator was hired in the history department, Hank’s engagement in teacher preparation was no longer necessary, so he is currently involved in the social studies education program through curriculum and course planning, but not as a co-teacher of social studies methods. Even his role in curriculum planning has decreased since Susan’s arrival on campus.

As a historian who claimed not to know much about teacher education, campus networks were essential to Hank’s successful engagement in WSU’s teacher preparation program. He relied on informal networks with the associate dean of education and Amy, the adjunct professor responsible for the methods courses. The associate dean reached out to Hank; without that network, he would not have been such a major contributor to the social studies education program. As Hank said, he was “just very fortunate” to have Amy’s help with the planning and implementation of the two methods courses offered in the history department. Amy had taught high school history for more than 30 years, so she brought a substantial amount of practitioner knowledge that Hank lacked. While Hank was a former high school history teacher, his two years of teaching experience over a decade ago is considerably less P–12 experience than Amy provides.

Education and A&S faculty members felt pressure to collaborate; however, all the pressure came internally from the president and provost of the institution. If there were external pressures, those factors were not sensed due to the overwhelming nature of the pressure coming from the university administration. As Denise, the dean of the college of education, stated:
The university president and provost set the expectation that colleges work together. The president went so far as to break up colleges and departments to create transdisciplinary schools that are forced to collaborate. Collaboration is a priority in every college, school, and department at WSU.

It is unclear whether the president was getting external pressure to collaborate from the state, community, or a university accreditation body. In the case of WSU, the president had the overwhelming support of the state, community, faculty, and students, so no one questioned his motives for advocating for collaboration.

One of WSU’s goals is to “develop a culture that represents a commitment to quality and community outreach.” According to the education dean, there is no college at WSU that has the level of community outreach that the college of education has. Therefore, the president provided unwavering support to the college of education and the teacher preparation program. Community service and visibility within the community are priorities at WSU, so the president supported any program that conducted outreach with the surrounding populations. The president also viewed teacher preparation as a “university-wide responsibility” and strongly encouraged the A&S dean to promote A&S faculty involvement. Valuing teacher preparation and making it a priority on campus is one of the keys to getting A&S faculty members involved at WSU.

Essential to Hank’s involvement in teacher preparation were his early learning experiences as a high school history teacher. The experience he gained as a teacher provided Hank with a better understanding of the content knowledge necessary to teach history at the secondary level. In addition to his two years as a high school teacher, Hank’s experience with the TAH grant provided him with experience as a teacher
educator. Working with in-service teachers provides a different perspective than simply being a teacher. Hank downplayed his knowledge and experience in teacher preparation, but it was clear from our conversation that he knew much more than he gave himself credit for. For example, he referred to social studies education scholars, such as Wineburg and Levesque, and had several social studies education books on his bookshelf. During the 2010–11 academic year when Hank was highly engaged in teacher preparation, he received support and learning opportunities from Amy and the associate dean.

As previously mentioned, the president and provost fully support A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation. It is conceivable in some cases that college deans and department chairs disagree with university administrations and undermine their vision of collaboration in teacher preparation; however, that is not the case at WSU. The A&S dean was quoted as saying, “Teacher preparation is a top priority in the arts and sciences.” The history department chair, a former high school teacher himself, corroborated the dean’s statement by stating that “teacher preparation is essential to our work in the history department.” With the education dean, A&S dean, and department chair supporting the work of historians in teacher preparation, Hank felt more comfortable engaging with the college of education to redesign the curriculum and co-teach the methods courses.

Although teacher preparation is not mentioned in the history department’s mission, Chad, the department chair, made it clear that getting involved in teacher preparation has always been part of the mission and vision in the history department. According to Chad:

“Back in the ’70s, a lot of departments decided to give their methods courses back to the school of education, but we decided to keep our history methods courses.”
Fast forward to 2001–02, we decided to pursue someone in history teaching. That decision reflected the number of our history students [who] were going to teach in local schools. When we filled that position, it was the next stage of developing the department’s connection with teacher preparation.

Chad’s comment that the history department “decided to pursue someone in history teaching” insinuates that a historian does not have the ability to be the social studies education coordinator and teach the history methods courses. Once the social studies education coordinator position was established, it was difficult for other historians to be engaged in teacher preparation, which is evidenced by Hank’s engagement that occurred while the position was vacant. Unfortunately for Hank, as soon as that position was filled prior to the 2011–12 academic year, his involvement decreased substantially.

The commitment of the history department to teacher preparation directly led to a history education faulty member within the department. That position enabled the social studies methods courses to stay in the history department, which created the integrated structure that supports the constant engagement of the history department in teacher preparation. In Hank’s case, he accepted the responsibilities of that position during 2010–11 until the position was filled by Susan. Susan is a social studies educator with a strong background in history; however, most people would not classify her as a historian even though she is in the history department. She is expected to get published in teacher education in order to be granted tenure instead of writing books and history journal articles like the rest of her colleagues in the history department. It was this integrated structured that promoted Hank’s engagement, but it also prohibits his involvement now that Susan is in the position. Hank and Susan are still in the same department and have
offices three doors down from one another. That structure allows Hank to remain involved, and it is fair to say that he is more involved under the current structure than if Susan’s appointment were in the college of education.

WSU does not provide rewards for A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation. Math and science faculty members are much more involved in teacher preparation than historians because of the influx of federal grant opportunities that promote their work with future teachers. In the case of historians, working with prospective teachers will not help them with promotion or tenure\textsuperscript{19}, and they do not receive any financial rewards for their work. Hank went so far to say, “My work with history education is not going to advance my career.” The lack of reward system is such an issue that each informant identified the need for rewards as a way to promote the engagement of A&S faculty members in teacher preparation. Even though history education will not advance Hank’s career, he has dedicated almost a decade working with the TAH grant and has been active in the teacher preparation program over the past two years. Clearly there are personal factors that promoted his involvement and caused him to have the desire to continue to work with prospective history teachers.

\textit{Personal Factors.} Hank was a tenured professor when he began his direct involvement in the teacher preparation program at WSU. As a tenured professor, he could have chosen not to collaborate with the college of education, but that was not the case.

\textsuperscript{19} For example, the provost office at WSU provides a series of workshops for faculty members seeking tenure. The presentation slides for one of the workshops stated that faculty members should “protect the time devoted [their] scholarship.” There were no mentions of advice to increase service. The presentation slides make it clear that scholarship and teaching are more important than service in the promotion and tenure process.
There were several personal factors that promoted his work with preparing future history teachers.

The leading personal factor that led Hank to be engaged in teacher preparation was his experience as a high school teacher. As Hank mentioned, “I am somewhat surprised that I ended up as college professor and not a K–12 teacher. I love history and just had to find a way to teach it.” Clearly, Hank enjoys history and felt that teaching was a way to stay connected to the subject while sharing his love for history with students. It was that love of history that led Hank to quit teaching high school and seek a Ph.D. in history, with the goal of teaching history at the collegiate level upon graduation. It is that love of teaching and his experience teaching high school that has impacted his perspective on the importance of effective local schools.

Throughout our conversation, Hank constantly stressed the importance of a strong public school system. This perspective was informed by his experience in schools, as well as his experience with the struggling students at WSU and the struggling teachers he worked with through the TAH grant. Hank acknowledged that students enter WSU with severe reading and writing deficiencies and said that one way to solve that malady is to improve the quality of teachers. When discussing the issues of having WSU students with academic deficiencies, he stated:

It all happens before they get to me. I can’t painstakingly work with them to get their writing up to standard. I grade them on their writing but do not have the opportunity to help develop their writing. That is how we evaluate them—their study skills, their sense of curiosity—and so much of that is developed before
fresman year. Out of respect for that, [I get involved with teacher preparation] to be a bit more useful than a college professor tends to be.

When discussing the quality of teachers he encountered through the TAH grant, Hank was surprised at the low quality. As he mentioned, TAH teachers are a “self-selected group who care enough to want to participate,” and Hank felt the level of effort they put into the program is minimal at best. In addition to the level of effort put forth, Hank was also surprised about their lack of historical thinking skills and overall knowledge of history. In describing a particular moment that stood out, Hank discussed a day that they focused on the Salem witch trials, which happen to be Hank’s research focus. He said:

Teachers are pulling stuff off the Web and trying to say, “I don’t think all these people were really witches.” Wow, let’s back the truck up here. There are clear gaps in content knowledge, and I can attribute that to the time they spend disciplining students and lesson planning. They don’t have the opportunity once they start teaching to go back and learn the content. The history basics need to be learned while they are in school, not when they are teaching.

In addition to wanting to improve the quality of teachers to in turn improve the quality of students, Hank is engaged in teacher preparation because of the realities of his students’ plans after college. According to Hank, “most history majors don’t go to graduate school; they go off into business or whatever else they want to do.” It is really the secondary education students who are the WSU students who are continuing to be involved in history upon graduation.

Hank has children in the local schools, which could be one of the reasons that he is engaged in teacher preparation. He did not explicitly state that his children were one of
the factors that led to his engagement in teacher preparation; however, he did note that “arts and sciences faculty are personally interested because their kids go to schools or their wives or husbands are teachers.” Hank’s wife is not a teacher, so his comment either came from prior experiences with A&S faculty members, or it was pure speculation.

Hank provided several reasons why he initially got involved with teacher preparation at WSU; however, if his experiences with teacher preparation were unsuccessful or failed to provide personal and professional value, it is unlikely that his work would have continued and he would likely no longer have the desire to work with prospective history teachers. Fortunately for Hank and the future history teachers prepared at WSU, there are personal and professional benefits that keep him involved with the teacher preparation program.

**Benefits: Personal, Professional, and Institutional.** It was clear that Hank’s engagement, as well as the involvement of other historians, in teacher preparation was valued by the history department and the college of education. He experienced professional benefits from the work, which is one of the reasons why he continued his work and plans to be involved in the teacher preparation program in the future.

**Personal and Professional Benefits.** When Hank was asked about the personal benefits associated with his work with prospective teachers, he offered a series of benefits that most people would classify as professional. Improving his teaching, reaching students at a different level, and using different pedagogical techniques are just a few “personal benefits” that he said he experienced through his work. Throughout our conversation, he did mention the impact of his work on his view of local schools, which had the potential to impact his daughter when she enters school in the next couple years.
The lack of personal impact on Hank could be caused by two reasons: (1) his work with teacher preparation was at the university rather than in the local schools and (2) his experience as a high school teacher could account for any personal impact as opposed to his work with WSU’s teacher preparation program. Hank’s involvement in teacher preparation was mostly at the planning stages with additional involvement in the history methods courses. His engagement in teacher preparation never took him into the local schools where additional personal impact would occur. Also, Hank’s experience as a high school teacher could have had lasting personal benefits, and when asked about the impact of his work at WSU, he may attribute those benefits to his days as a secondary history teacher rather than his time working with prospective teachers. The fact that Hank reeled off professional benefits when asked about personal benefits could mean that there is little separation between his personal life and professional life. He could derive great personal benefits from his work with prospective history teachers.

The leading professional benefit derived from Hank’s engagement in teacher preparation and the TAH grant is the positive impact that the work has on his level of instruction. Hank was observed using primary documents, document analysis, and other historical thinking skills in an introductory history course held in a 300-person lecture hall. In a follow-up conversation, Hank apologized for what he thought was too much lecturing because they were preparing for the final exam. In actuality, this was not a traditional “lecture-style” class. Hank provided students with the opportunity to wrestle with primary documents, to share their analysis with classmates, to extend their learning past basic recall information, and to make predictions based on information provided by the instructor. Hank attributed his teaching style to the work he has done with the TAH
grant and with prospective teachers. He stated that he “needs to model the kind of historical engagement that [he] expects [his] students to use outside of class and if they become teachers, the kind of skills that they should use with their students.”

Hank also views his work with teachers as helping him “reach [his] own students more effectively.” Hank has begun looking at social studies education literature and has found value in the focus on student learning. He has also seen teacher educators, teachers, and prospective teachers make instructional decisions based on student learning rather than the traditional lecture-style pedagogy popular among history professors. That focus on student learning is why Hank “loves working with teacher educators and teachers.”

**Institutional Benefits.** Related to Hank’s professional benefits, the institution benefits from A&S faculty engagement due to the positive effects the involvement has on the level of instruction. The interaction that Hank and other A&S faculty members have with the college of education provided them with new instructional strategies that can be used in their classroom. The majority of Ph.D. programs do not focus on teaching and instructional strategies; rather they focus on content and research. As Hank mentioned, new faculty members “don’t know how to teach when they arrive.” According to all the informants, A&S faculty involvement with teacher preparation and the college of education has a positive impact on instruction. While that is only one institutional benefit, it is an important factor that has the potential to impact every student on campus.

**Lessons Learned: Advice for Leadership.** After discussing the institutional factors that promote and prohibit the involvement of historians and other A&S faculty members in teacher preparation, each informant had the opportunity to discuss potential changes to his or her institution that would increase the level of A&S faculty involvement. Given the
current structures at WSU, faculty members from the history department and the college of education provided feasible and innovative strategies that have the potential to support collaborative research, teaching, and planning between both groups.

A common strategy proposed by informants at WSU was to offer mini-grants or stipends for historians and other A&S faculty members to be engaged in teacher preparation. The concept of paying a historian to be engaged in teacher preparation fulfills a missing institutional factor that promotes collaboration: rewards. All three historians suggested financial rewards as a viable incentive to promote engagement in teacher preparation. Hank and Chad, the department chair, both referenced TAH grants as a model to promote their engagement in teacher preparation. They figured that the money gets historians involved with providing professional development to active teachers so it would work with getting them involved with teacher candidates.

Within academia, faculty members can also be rewarded through the promotion and tenure process. It was made clear by all informants that working with teacher preparation programs would not help faculty members gain tenure or get a promotion; however, no one suggested that promotion and tenure policies needed to be changed to recognize and reward faculty members for engagement with P–12 schools and teacher preparation. If the promotion and tenure process supported and encouraged work with the teacher preparation program, engagement would increase, but for some reason, no one offered changing the promotion and tenure process as an option. Perhaps they did not think it was a feasible option. To get the promotion and tenure process altered at a university is a daunting task, and for that process to promote collaboration, it would have to deemphasize teaching or research. In a large research institution that serves the
community, like WSU does, it is highly unlikely that teaching or research would be
devalued.

Hank offered one particularly interesting suggestion. He recommended “a teacher
exchange where a professor would spend a semester in a high school classroom and the
teacher from the school would sit on the history department faculty.” Not only would this
policy give historians a better understanding of local schools, but it would give them the
opportunity to work with teacher candidates in schools rather than the university, which is
where they typically interact. This policy would also give the high school teacher a better
understanding of life on a university campus, which he or she probably has not spent
much time on since graduation. At the end of the exchange program, the high school
teacher would be able to better prepare his or her students for college, and the historian
would be able to better prepare his or her students to enter the teaching profession. While
Hank’s idea was not fully developed, his excitement was evident as he discussed the
concept.

Denise, the dean of education, offered a suggestion that she believed has been
successful in other departments: to add more jointly appointed faculty members, similar
to Susan. Joint appointments would “attract faculty members interested in preparing
future teachers of their subject,” and in the current economic state, “we would have
plenty of qualified candidates.”

**Summary**

Case descriptions of NSU, SSU, and WSU were provided to illuminate the factors
that promote and prohibit historian engagement in teacher preparation. There were
similarities across institutions, such as a lack of a rewards system; however, each
institution experienced its own confluence of factors that promoted the work of historians in teacher preparation. Each institution had factors that prohibited more involvement in teacher preparation, but those barriers were overcome by the desire of each historian to be highly engaged in teacher preparation. The following chapter provides a cross-case analysis that synthesizes the findings in order to answer each research question.
Chapter 5: Cross-Case Analysis

Introduction

This chapter presents a cross-case analysis of findings on the personal and institutional factors involved in historians’ engagement in teacher preparation and the value that the work provides to themselves, teacher preparation programs, and universities. The chapter is divided into five sections—one section for each of the four research questions and a summary section. In this chapter, informants are referred to by their last name so the reader can identify the institution that the informant represents. The last name of each informant starts with the same letter as the name of the institution. For example, all the informants from Northern State University (NSU) have last names that start with N, and all informants at Southern State University (SSU) have last names that begin with S. The historians—Professors North, South, and West—are the primary subjects of discussion within this chapter. This chapter presents the findings of the cross-case study, and the subsequent chapter discusses the implications of the findings.

Institutional and Personal Factors That Promote Historian Engagement in Teacher Preparation

Kezar (2005) states in her initial research on internal collaboration in higher education that “the eight core elements are necessary to create a context that enables collaboration” (p. 833). In addition to the eight core elements, she offers one caveat to her research: collaboration has moral considerations, so partners need to consider whether the collaboration will benefit each party. Premised on Kezar’s assertion, we can assume that when there is historian engagement in teacher preparation, that historians and teacher educators need to identify the benefits of collaboration and will act within the
institutional structure to work together to produce more effective teachers. Among NSU, SSU, and Western State University (WSU), there are varying degrees of institutional support relative to the eight characteristics. At one institution there may be more opportunity for collaboration than at another institution. Attempting to assess or determine this intensity level is beyond the scope of this study. What this study attempts to do is to determine whether such characteristics are evident and apply when there is evidence of collaboration.

There were institutional and personal factors that facilitated historians’ engagement in teacher preparation at each of the three institutions. The institutional and personal factors not only contributed to the engagement, but they also caused different levels and types of engagement by the historians involved. The following section includes comparisons across the three institutions to determine the leading factors that promote the engagement of historians. Institutional factors that promote historian involvement in teacher preparation are applied to Kezar’s (2005) model to determine which of the eight characteristics needed for collaboration exist at each of the sites. I compare personal factors, including faculty characteristics, across the three historians to determine the commonalities and differences among the historians engaged in teacher preparation.

Institutional Factors That Promote Engagement. According to Kezar (2005) and Kezar & Lester (2009), there are eight essential elements for internal collaboration in higher education. In each of the three cases, historians were collaborating with members of the college of education in order to prepare higher-quality teachers. At NSU, Professor North has worked with the college of education for the past 15 years and was offered an
administration position there several years ago. In the case of SSU, Professor South began working with a state licensure board and returned to SSU to redesign the social studies education program and teach a two-course sequence in the history department for future teachers. At WSU, Professor West was involved with several Teaching American History (TAH) grants and had the opportunity to help redesign the social studies education program and co-teach methods courses. All three cases demonstrate evidence of Kezar’s eight elements for internal collaboration (see figure 5).

**Figure 4:** Stage model collaboration in higher education (Kezar, 2005, p. 845; Kezar & Lester, 2009)

Table C identifies Kezar’s eight characteristics necessary for collaboration and illustrates whether each institution exhibits each characteristic. There were several instances where evidence for a particular characteristic existed; however, the characteristic was not evident enough to fully support collaboration. In the table, a check mark represents the cases in which the characteristic was evident enough to support
collaboration. A dash indicates cases where the characteristic was evident but did not fully promote collaboration. For example, there is an integrated structure at WSU, but it restricts rather than promotes full engagement in teacher preparation. Cases with little to no evidence of the characteristic are indicated with a zero to represent the lack of that particular characteristic.

Five of the eight essential characteristics for collaboration (i.e., campus networks, external pressures, values, learning, and mission and vision) were fully evident at all three institutions. Of the remaining three characteristics (or bases) for collaboration, two elements (sense of priority and integrating structures) were fully evidenced on two of the three campuses and partially evident at the other institution. The last characteristic (rewards) was nonexistent at two of three institutions and therefore is considered an inhibitor or barrier to collaboration, which will be discussed in the next section.

**Table C: Kezar’s characteristics at NSU, SSU, and WSU**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kezar’s Essential Element for Collaboration</th>
<th>Northern State University</th>
<th>Southern State University</th>
<th>Western State University</th>
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Essential to *campus networks* are strong relationships between the faculty members participating in the collaboration. At each institution, the participants in the study who are teacher educators and historians engaged in teacher preparation all
discussed the positive relationships that they had with one another. Both parties identified the benefits of the work and forged strong professional relationships to promote collaboration. Each historian mentioned interpersonal relationships as one of the factors that can either promote or prohibit their work with teacher educators. For example, South said that the interpersonal relationship that the history department members had with the previous social studies coordinator was one of the reasons why collaboration did not occur until 2008. While each institution created its campus network differently, personal relationships were the common denominator across the sites. NSU and SSU had formal units that promoted the campus networks whereas WSU established informal working groups to redesign all of its teacher preparation programs.

As Kezar (2005) noted, _external pressures_ come from organizations outside the university, such as accreditation organizations, disciplinary and professional societies, and philanthropic foundations (in the form of eligibility requirements for grant applications.) Not only is it important that these forces exist, but it is equally important that they also be felt by administration and faculty members and be seen as essential for collaboration. External pressures were evident at all three institutions; however, they came from different sources. In the case of NSU, North was highly involved with the National Network for Education Renewal (NNER) at the local and national level. One of NNER’s key objectives is to get arts and sciences (A&S) faculty involved in teacher preparation and the improvement of local schools. North’s role within the college of education was to ensure that A&S faculty members are engaged in teacher preparation, so it was important that he be engaged as well. In the case of SSU, four of the five informants explicitly mentioned the external pressure of the National Council for
Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). According to faculty members at SSU, an accreditation visit by NCATE revealed that A&S faculty members were not engaged in teacher preparation. In response to NCATE’s criticism, SSU established the Education Council to get A&S faculty members further involved in preparing teachers. The state board of education also pressured SSU to involve a historian in teacher preparation when it requested that a representative from the university serve on the state licensure review panel. Because the social studies coordinator position was vacant at the time, North volunteered her services. In the case of WSU, the external pressure came from the community. The dean of education and the history department chair mentioned a university-wide approach to teacher education. The university president and provost, who were acting in response to the community’s need for better schools and better teachers, promoted the university-wide approach. It was unclear if a particular community organization was pressuring the university president and provost, but they were acting in response to a legitimate need that had been conveyed to them. The need for better schools and better teachers led to the curriculum redesign process, which is how West became engaged with the social studies education program.

Another commonality across the three cases is the value that administration and faculty placed on teacher preparation. Teacher education was held in high regard at each of the three institutions so collaboration between various units or departments and the college of education was not uncommon. There was mention of a “university-wide” approach to teacher education in each institution’s internal and external documents, as well, so it was clear that preparing future teachers was a viewed as a priority by the president and provost at each university. At NSU and SSU, the college of education
brought in the most grant money of any other college, school, or department on campus, so the university administration had financial reasons to value teacher preparation. In the case of WSU, the president and provost valued community engagement and service, and working with prospective teachers to improve local schools is one way to demonstrate those values.

Another commonality across institutions is the existence of learning opportunities that enabled the historians to understand ways they can be involved in the teacher preparation programs within their institution. At NSU, North had the opportunity to participate in the Leadership Associates Program, which allowed him to be involved in local schools and teacher preparation for an academic year. At SSU, South participated in a state licensure panel that provided a learning opportunity to establish standards and redesign the teacher preparation program to meet the new standards. At WSU, West had years of experience working as a secondary school history teacher and with the TAH grants, which enabled him to envision his role in teacher preparation. All of the learning opportunities that these historians participated in provided them with the experience of working with teacher educators and made them aware of the potential benefits of getting further involved with the teacher preparation program. The historians’ learning experiences did not all occur on campus—for example, South’s work was at the state level—but they all involved working with teachers and teacher educators.

Similar to the values set forth by an institution, a university and the various structures within it have formal missions and visions that guide their work. None of the history departments’ mission statements mention preparing future history teachers or collaboration with the school of education; however, each university mentions as one of
its goals the promotion of internal collaboration among and between university departments and colleges. In addition to the university-wide missions, each college of education explicitly identifies A&S faculty as being essential to producing effective teachers. Even though the history department missions did not mention teacher preparation or collaboration, the history department chairs supported working to prepare teachers, except at NSU. In the case of NSU, North subscribed to the mission and values of the college of education rather than the history department. His position within the college of education is based on a yearly contract, so it is important for him to be engaged in teacher preparation. When confronted with the competing demands of his department chair and the college of education, North is typically aligned with the college of education.

There was a sense of priority that collaboration mattered from people in senior positions at all three institutions; however, that sense of priority waived at NSU. Senior positions at each institution are held by the president, provost, A&S dean, and the history department chair. According to the deans of education and the history department chairs at SSU and WSU, all of the people in senior positions support collaboration and A&S faculty involvement in teacher preparation. Their comments were corroborated by university documents, such as mission statements, meeting minutes, and strategic plans, which expressed the importance of interdisciplinary collaboration. University documents at NSU mentioned the importance of interdisciplinary collaboration; however, all three historians disagreed with the message conveyed in university documents. They said that the priority in A&S is being placed on research and not working with teacher preparation. They indicated that NSU has recently focused on research as it attempts to improve its
reputation among state and regional institutions; it aspires to be a research-oriented institution and is encouraging faculty to publish more than they have in previous years.

NSU and SSU have formal integrating structures that provide opportunities for historians to be engaged in their teacher preparation program. NSU has the Center for Instruction and Learning, and SSU has the Education Council—and both North and South are avid participants in these respective structures. WSU has a structure in place for its curriculum redesign; however, that structure is only temporary. Also, the only reason West was so involved in the redesign was because the social studies coordinator position was vacant. If the social studies coordinator position was filled at the time, West would have been involved but not at the level that she was when the position was vacant. In addition to the redesign committees, the history department has had a social studies education expert in the department. This structure singles out the social studies expert in the department to handle the teacher preparation program and does not allow for engagement by other history professors. Susan Weber, the social studies coordinator, has worked with West this year, but West’s level of involvement has decreased over time. If the social studies coordinator position were left vacant, it would provide an opportunity for a historian, such as West, to be highly engaged in the teacher preparation program.

None of the three institutions exhibited all of the essential elements for internal collaboration that Kezar identified, which leads one to believe that they are not all essential. There were clear deficiencies in the level of institutional support in each case; however, those were overcome by the personal desire of each historian to become involved and stay engaged with the teacher preparation programs. While it is difficult to know, it would be interesting to see if the historians at each institution would be engaged
with teacher preparation with even fewer of Kezar’s essential elements in place. For example, would Helen South continue to teach her two-course sequence for prospective history teachers if she lost support from her department chair or if the Education Council was disbanded? In Helen’s case, she would probably continue to be engaged but without those circumstances in place, it is impossible to know for sure.

*Personal Factors That Promote Engagement.* Faculty members—especially tenured faculty—have academic freedoms that allow them to make decisions that often go against their department’s, school’s, college’s, or university’s mission and values (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). In the case of engaged historians in teacher preparation, all three faculty members had varying levels of institutional support and were still able to be highly engaged in preparing teachers at their institution. For example, North had the least amount of departmental support among the three historians and was able to overcome those factors to become highly engaged in teacher preparation for more than a decade. The varied level of support and barriers highlights the personal nature of being a faculty member. When it comes to being engaged, each historian had the choice to participate in teacher education or not to participate. At NSU, SSU, and WSU, each historian made the personal decision to get involved in the teacher preparation program at their institution. The following section identifies the personal factors that led to historians’ involvement in teacher education and that kept them engaged in the program.

Each historian had his or her own set of personal reasons for getting involved in teacher education, but the most obvious commonality among the group was how they envisioned their roles and responsibilities as historians. Each historian believed that it was his or her duty as an educator and university professor to improve history education
in local schools. As university faculty, the most obvious way to impact history education in schools was to get involved in preparing future history teachers. In the case of NSU, North’s role as an administrator in the college of education provided him with opportunities to visit local schools much more than professors South and West did. It is also worth noting that North was the most engaged in the local schools and, therefore, had a different set of personal and professional benefits compared to the other historians.

Another commonality among the historians was that they each were presented with an opportunity to be involved in teacher preparation and they willingly accepted the responsibility. None of the historians actively sought to be involved with teacher preparation; rather, there was a desire or necessity to collaborate from the college of education. In the case of NSU, the college of education was constantly recruiting A&S faculty to participate in its Leadership Associates Program, and North determined that there was no reason for him not to participate in the seminar. In the case of SSU, the college of education needed a faculty member from the history department to represent the university on a state licensure panel, and South felt obligated to participate due to her position on the General Education Committee. In the case of WSU, the college of education was redesigning its teacher preparation curricula and needed someone from the history department to work on the project. Because the social studies education role was vacant, West was in the position to get involved in teacher preparation and accepted that responsibility partly due to his experience as a high-school teacher and having worked with TAH grants. Important to note about all their involvement is that they had no obligation to participate in teacher preparation. Even though collaboration was encouraged at each institution, the work with teacher preparation was not mandatory.
There was an opportunity to get involved, and each historian voluntarily engaged in teacher preparation.

One key factor among the three historians is that they had all received tenure before becoming engaged in teacher preparation. Work with the college of education is not valued under the current promotion and tenure system at each institution, so getting untenured faculty members to participate is difficult. In the case of NSU, North was invited to participate in the Leadership Associates Program and, years later, received an offer to serve in an administrative capacity within the college of education. Dana Neal, the dean of education at NSU, would have never offered North the position unless he were tenured. In the case of SSU, an open invitation was offered to the history department, so an untenured faculty member could have potentially volunteered to serve on the state licensure panel. However, South volunteered because of her work on the General Education Committee, and she would have never chaired that committee if she were not a tenured professor. Therefore, it is safe to say that she would have never been involved in that initial experience if she were not tenured. In the case of WSU, West participated in the curriculum redesign because his role as director of undergraduate history education. He would have never been granted that position if he were not tenured, so it is doubtful that he would have been so engaged if he were not a tenured professor. Due to the promotion and tenure process, it is difficult for untenured faculty members to be highly engaged in teacher preparation, and fortunately, there are tenured faculty members at NSU, SSU, and WSU who have stepped up and gotten involved in teacher preparation. Further, the two associate professors engaged in teacher preparation said that being involved was getting in the way of promotion to full professor.
Another personal factor that promoted the historians’ engagement was the value that they experienced during their initial involvement with teacher preparation. Each historian envisioned the benefits of his or her involvement and was a voluntary participant in the teacher preparation program. Once involved, they experienced personal and professional benefits that have maintained their desire to be involved in teacher preparation at their respective institutions.

Overall, there were common personal factors that promoted historians’ involvement in teacher preparation. Each historian had different forms of academic preparation and varied levels of experience working with teachers and local schools. Howard North had no experience working with teachers before being involved in teacher preparation, whereas Hank West had a decade of experience as a high-school teacher and working with TAH grants. Regardless of their prior experience, the historians all had a willingness to participate because of how they viewed their role as a historian, educator, and university professor. They all believed that it was their professional duty to improve history education in local schools, and they participated in preparing future history teachers in order to serve that duty. Characteristics such as their tenure, willingness, and early experiences kept them engaged in teacher preparation, but it was their perspective on the importance of public schools that got them involved initially.

**Institutional Barriers to Historian Engagement in Teacher Preparation**

Colleges and universities are not designed for internal collaboration. Departmental silos, hierarchical structures, and the traditional promotion and tenure process are just a few factors that serve as barriers to collaboration (Doz, 1996; Kezar, 2005; Senge, 1990). In the case of NSU, SSU, and WSU, the barriers to collaboration
were reduced to the point where historians, as well as other A&S faculty members, were highly engaged in teacher preparation. Informants from the teacher preparation programs at each institution made it clear that other A&S departments were engaged in their programs. When discussing the barriers to collaboration, all of the informants offered factors that either prevent other historians from being engaged or prevent the currently engaged historians from being more involved. The deans of education also discussed factors that prevent other A&S faculty members from being engaged in teacher preparation.

The greatest barrier preventing historians from being more involved in teacher preparation is the lack of tangible rewards. As Kezar (2005) identified in her study of highly collaborative universities, rewards are essential to supporting internal collaboration between schools and departments within a university. She highlights promotion and tenure, financial incentives (including course reductions, travel awards, and the allocation of teaching assistants), and making intrinsic rewards visible to faculty as potential ways of promoting internal collaboration. In this study, all of the historians gained an intrinsic reward from their work with teacher preparation programs; however, those personal and professional benefits are only realized once the historian was engaged in the process and are not supported or made visible by the university.

Another barrier that prevents historians from being engaged in teacher preparation is the time commitment that is required for the work. While professor West does not spend as much time now as he did during the 2010-11 academic year, professors North and South spend upwards of 10 hours a week working with prospective teachers and teacher preparation planning and administration. As Helen South admitted, “that is time
that I could have been working on my book.” To ask additional historians to dedicate upwards of 10 hours to work outside of their department is an enormous barrier to engaging more faculty members in teacher preparation initiatives.

In the case of SSU and WSU, there were no rewards to South’s and West’s engagement in teacher preparation. Their work with future teachers or the teacher education program does not factor into their quest to reach full professor, and they have not received financial compensation for their collaborative work. They experience intrinsic rewards, but those rewards were not marketed to South and West prior to their work with teacher preparation. Both historians believed that working with teacher preparation programs was their professional duty as historians, and they collaborated with their college of education regardless of the lack of rewards.

In the case of NSU, North has experienced a series of rewards for his engagement in teacher preparation. When he initially got involved in the Leadership Associates Program, North was recruited by the current dean of education and the potential intrinsic rewards were made known to him. Based on the dean’s sales pitch, he decided to get involved with that program and got increasingly engaged in teacher preparation as a result. As the history department chair, North continued to be involved with the teacher preparation program by teaching a course dedicated to prospective history teachers in addition to conducting outreach programs with local schools. Under the old promotion and tenure policy, North was able to use his work with teacher preparation and local schools to be promoted to the rank of full professor. Since taking the administrative position in the college of education, North receives some financial compensation for his time and receives money to attend various teacher education conferences throughout the
year. He is also offered course buyouts but has recently refused them since he enjoys teaching so much. North’s position within the university and his high level of engagement allow him to receive rewards that other A&S faculty members engaged in teacher preparation do not receive. North was also quick to mention that this work helped him be promoted to full professor, but that system is no longer in effect. Under NSU’s new system, faculty members count work with teacher preparation as service, which is not highly valued by NSU when compared to research and teaching.

With the exception of rewards, all of the eight characteristics essential to collaboration were evident at SSU and WSU. Once involved in teacher preparation, South and West received substantial personal and professional benefits; however, those benefits were not supported or promoted by the university and were derived from the historians’ willingness to participate despite not being rewarded for their work. Each informant at SSU and WSU mentioned rewards as a strategy their institution should implement when promoting A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation. Historians and teacher educators both recommended financial compensation or valuing the work in promotion and tenure decisions as ways to decrease the institutional barriers to collaboration.

The barriers for professors North, South, and West were quite substantial and yet they overcame them in order to work with the teacher preparation program and prospective teachers at their institutions. Their personal desire allowed them to disregard the barriers to collaboration and dedicate time and energy to working with the college of education. Given that the three historians investigated are the only members of their departments that are highly engaged in teacher preparation, it can be assumed that the
remaining historians in each department either lack the desire to collaborate or experience barriers to collaboration that impede any desire they have to work with the teacher preparation programs.

**Personal and Professional Benefits of Historian Engagement in Teacher Preparation**

The personal and professional benefits derived from being engaged in teacher preparation maintain the historians’ desire to continue collaborating with their college of education. Because their work with teacher preparation is not mandated by anyone at their institution, it is essential that the historians experience benefits of the work so they do not simply stop their involvement. Because each historian was selected for this study based on his or her work with teacher preparation and desire to continue the work, each historian was able to articulate the benefits of his or her work, rather than focus on the negative perspectives of the work. The following section compares the personal and professional benefits of historians’ engagement across the three institutions.

*Personal Benefits of Historian Engagement.* When asked about the personal benefits of being involved in teacher preparation and local schools, historians had a difficult time separating their personal benefits from the professional benefits because the two are so intertwined for them. Professors South and West had difficulty articulating the personal benefits of their engagement; rather, they focused on the professional effects. Some of the professional benefits from their work, such as increased job satisfaction, have more of an impact on their personal lives compared to other professional benefits, such as increasing the quality of their instruction.

In the case of NSU, North had no problems articulating the personal benefits of his collaboration with teacher preparation and local schools. For him, this work has
changed his parenting and his ability to help family members with various educational issues. His work with prospective teachers, current teachers, and local schools provides North with a perspective that he would not have otherwise had if he were not highly engaged with the college of education.

Important to note is the lack of personal benefits that South and West have derived from their work with teacher preparation. Besides having difficulty separating personal and professional benefits, both historians talked only about the professional and did not offer up benefits that could be classified as strictly personal. Based on their experiences compared to North, the lack of personal benefits can be attributed to two factors: (1) lack of personal connection with local schools and (2) lack of time spent in local schools. Professor North’s extended family lived in the surrounding communities of NSU and his daughter had already successfully graduated from the local schools and has recently enrolled in graduate school. In the case of professors South and West, they have had limited personal connections to the local schools. South does not have any children and did not discuss any family in the local schools. West has a daughter, but she is still a year removed from entering the public school system. Also, West’s family is on the East Coast, so her work with prospective and current teachers at WSU has no impact on her immediate and extended family. Another attributing factor is the nature of North’s engagement compared to South’s and West’s work. North has been working in local high schools for close to a decade. He has created high school curricula, helped start a charter school, and constantly serves as a guest lecturer at local schools. In the case of South and West, their work is confined to their university campuses. South worked with the state licensure panel, but it is more difficult to envision how that work has the potential to
directly affect local schools. West worked with current teachers through the TAH grants; however, that work was all conducted on WSU’s campus. Neither South nor West has had the opportunity to spend time in local schools, which could contribute to the lack of personal benefits derived from their work on campus.

*Professional Benefits of Engagement.* There were two common professional benefits that the historians experienced at each of the three institutions: (1) increased job satisfaction, and (2) improved quality of their instruction. Each of the historians experienced feelings of validation, appreciation, and knowing that he or she is having a greater impact on students than a traditional history professor. Professors South and West spoke at length about having an impact on prospective teachers and their future students. Both acknowledged that their history departments do not produce many future historians but rather their students will pursue careers in many different fields. Teaching prospective teachers and making important teacher-preparation curricular decisions allows South and West to affect history students who will continue to work in the discipline. Professor North experienced similar feelings about his increased level of job satisfaction due to his work with the college of education and local schools. What distinguishes North from the other historians is his work in the local schools, so he has the chance to continue working with NSU teacher graduates as well as history teachers and administrators from other institutions. The faculty, administration, and students at the schools he works with provide him constant appreciation and validation that he would otherwise not experience. School-based personnel appreciate North’s work, and they are not shy about showing their gratitude.
Each historian also discussed his or her improved level of instruction due to the work with the college of education. Each mentioned a new focus on student learning that was directly caused by his or her work with prospective teachers and teacher educators. Through an analysis of each historian’s syllabi and an observation of West, it was clear that their courses focus on students’ acquisition of historical thinking skills rather than the memorization of people, dates, and events. In addition to a focus on student learning, historians have also acquired new instructional techniques from working with teacher educators and reading educational literature. All three historians spoke highly of social studies educators, such as Stanford University’s Sam Wineburg and University of Ottawa’s Stéphane Lévesque, and the impact that their work has on their own ideas about how to teach history.

Another professional benefit to historians’ engagement in teacher preparation is the potential to have higher quality students at the university because of higher quality teachers that they help prepare. All three historians provide value to the teacher preparation programs at their institutions, which are all known for producing high quality teacher candidates. By producing high quality teachers who are employed within the surrounding communities, there is a potential for those teacher candidates to positively impact student achievement in their schools leading to better candidates for their respective universities. Working under that assumption, it is fair to say that NSU, SSU, and WSU would all get higher quality applicants and better incoming freshman due to the effective teachers that their institutions produced. Specific to history, if NSU, SSU, and WSU are producing phenomenal history teachers who are teaching historical thinking skills and preparing their students for college, the history departments at all three
universities would have higher quality students in their general education programs or introductory-level courses. Having higher quality students in each of their classrooms, in addition to the other departments on campus, is a potential professional benefit and highlights the potential value that they provide to the community and university.

**Value of Historian Engagement in Teacher Preparation**

According to Senge (1990), internal collaboration in higher education has the potential to increase effectiveness and meet challenges within the university. Although no research has been conducted about the value that A&S faculty members provide to teacher preparation programs, the content knowledge and expertise that they bring to teacher education is a valuable resource that is bound to provide value. As a secondary research question, the study sought to identify the differences between historians’ perceived value compared to how others perceive historians’ value to teacher preparation. As expected, historians downplayed their importance while their department chairs and teacher educators discussed their value at length. The colleges of education are actively recruiting A&S faculty members to be involved with teacher preparation, so there is an assumed value embedded in their recruiting efforts.

*Self-Perceived Value of Historian Engagement.* When asked about the value that they provide to teacher candidates and preparation programs, historians minimized their impact on prospective teachers. All three historians talked about their impact on teacher preparation curricula but made no mention of their impact on prospective teachers. North and West discussed the value of providing a “different voice” in the discussion of teacher education. Both North and West teach prospective history teachers, but they view themselves as providing more value at the program level. South discussed her work with
the social studies education program redesign but was unimpressed with her work. Without any frame of reference, she was under the impression that all social studies education programs looked like the one she helped create.

South was the only historian that believed she was providing value to the social studies teacher candidates. As she mentioned, “I hope that I’m helping them have a better conceptual handle on history and how it is created and not just a collection of miscellaneous facts that you memorize.” All three viewed themselves as better teachers since being involved in teacher preparation, but only South saw her improved teaching impacting future history teachers.

An explanation for having low self-perceived value is the nature of the historians’ positions. The historians only see prospective teachers at the universities and never get the opportunity to observe their teaching in a clinical experience. Professor North sees NSU graduates at local schools but does not have the opportunity to see them teach. If the historians had the opportunity to observe the teacher candidates and see the knowledge and skills they helped impart put to use in class, perhaps they could see the value that they provide to the teacher candidates.

Value of Historians According to Teacher Educators and Historians. Teacher educators and history department chairs had different perceptions of the value added that historians provide to the teacher candidates and preparation programs. The history department chairs at SSU and WSU appreciated the work that South and West were conducting with the teacher preparation programs. They were thankful that the historians were getting involved because someone in their department had to and they believed that South and West were doing a great job. SSU and WSU have substantial doctoral
programs in history and hundreds of undergraduates majoring in their department. While social studies education is important to them, it is not a priority, so the department chairs were thankful that South and West were stepping up for the department. North’s role in teacher preparation is in a different capacity than South’s and West’s. His department chair was not too impressed with his work and at one point said, “I’m not even sure what he does over in the college of education.”

On the other hand, the teacher educators highly valued the work of Professors North, South, and West. Dana Neal, the dean of education at NSU, credits North with getting so many other A&S faculty members involved in teacher preparation. As a full professor, North models engagement in teacher preparation, which benefits recruitment of other A&S faculty members. North is a well-respected faculty member on campus and, as Dana phrased it, “People listen to him.” Shawn Simms, the social studies coordinator at SSU, has the opportunity to teach social studies to students who have completed the two-course sequence taught by Helen South. Simms shared the value that South provides to future history teachers:

My current group of students is the first to complete the two-course sequence. I see a marked difference, perhaps for two reasons: one, Helen is a pretty tough grader and she weeds out some of the people [who] normally may get to me. They are also better prepared for the assignments that I require in methods. We did our first assignment and I sent Helen an e-mail about their lesson plans. They were very, very good, and it’s because they had the exposure in Helen’s classes.
Summary

There were similarities among the institutional factors that promote and prohibit historians’ engagement in teacher preparation. Regardless of the barriers, personal factors enabled historians to be actively involved in collaboration with the college of education. For example, Professor North has arguably the least amount of support from his department, but since he is a full professor and does not care about his department chair’s view of the work, he is the most engaged historian among the three. In the case of Professor West, the integrated structure that enabled him to become engaged in teacher preparation is the same structure that is currently preventing him from being more involved than he currently is. In the case of Professor South, there seems to be a perfect combination of institutional support and personal desire to work with prospective history teachers.

The following chapter discusses the implications that this research has on colleges and universities that seek to engage more A&S faculty members in teacher preparation. The chapter also includes implications for history departments and historians as they wrestle with their role in preparing future history teachers. The concluding chapter also includes implications for future research.
Chapter 6: Conclusions and Implications for Colleges, Universities, Teacher Preparation Programs, History Departments, and Future Research

Introduction

Just as James Bryant Conant advocated in his “Truce Among Educators” address (The Harvard Crimson, 1944), the universities in this study have implemented an “all university approach” to preparing teachers. As Lindley Stiles argued at the Bowling Green Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards in 1957, “the education of teachers is properly the responsibility of the entire institution.” Stiles continued that “the education of teachers is too important….to be left to the sole jurisdiction of any single group – whether it be composed of professors of education – or of liberal arts professors.” (Stiles, 1958). The historians were selected for this study because of their high levels of engagement in teacher preparation and because of their collaboration with the colleges of education at their institution. Upon selection, they were studied to gain a better understanding of the factors that promote an all-university approach to teacher preparation. This study confirms previous research (Kezar, 2005; Kezar & Lester, 2007) that identifies institutional characteristics that seem to promote internal collaboration at colleges and universities; however, in contrast to previous research findings which seem to suggest that an array of characteristics must be present to achieve collaboration, all of the characteristics were not evident at any of the three institutions. This study also found that there are personal, professional, and institutional benefits associated with historians’ engagement in teacher preparation. This chapter identifies the factors that promoted historian engagement across all three institutions studied. It also suggests some implications that this study has for teacher
preparation programs, history departments, and university administrations as they attempt to promote internal collaboration within universities and, more specifically, arts and sciences (A&S) faculty and historian engagement in teacher preparation. This chapter concludes with insights and implications for future research.

Factors That Support Historian Engagement in Teacher Preparation

In this study, the historians were selected for their engagement in the teacher preparation program at their institution. It was important to determine both the institutional factors that promote their work with teacher preparation as well as those factors that seem to restrict or limit such collaboration. The study identifies a number of factors that constrain or limit such participation; but the study also finds that those factors were minimal because the historians in the study were able to overcome them. It is the institutional factors that promote engagement that are the most important findings of this study. In addition to its goal of understanding the institutional factors that promote engagement with teacher preparation, the study was also designed to gain a better understanding of the benefits associated with historians’ work in preparing future teachers. Ultimately, the personal, professional, and institutional benefits of historian engagement are those factors that are identified and provide a basis for future collaboration or engagement. The following section describes the factors that support historian engagement with teacher preparation across the three institutions.

Commitment from College of Education to Engage A&S Faculty Members in Teacher Preparation. The colleges of education at Northern State University (NSU), Southern State University (SSU), and Western State University (WSU) all desired the engagement of A&S faculty in their teacher preparation programs. Although the National
Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) standards require A&S departments to be involved in such programs, the colleges of education at the three institutions appeared to go above and beyond the minimum requirement set forth by the accreditation body. The commitment of these education schools to identifying, seeking out, and involving A&S faculty was also evident because the history department was not the only A&S department engaged in teacher preparation. In the case of NSU, its membership in the National Network for Education Renewal (NNER) requires A&S faculty to be engaged in working with local schools and the teacher preparation program. The external pressures that come with NNER membership along with unwavering support from the dean of education gave Howard the opportunity to be highly engaged in teacher preparation. NSU also established the Center for Instruction and Learning, which enabled Howard and other A&S faculty members to be involved and engaged in teacher preparation policy making. The NSU college of education has renewed its membership with NNER every year since it joined in 1985 and, therefore, it annually renews its commitment to engage A&S faculty members in teacher preparation at NSU.

After a less-than-stellar NCATE visit, SSU responded with the creation of the Education Council. Rather than involve A&S faculty at a superficial level, the Education Council enables A&S faculty to make program and policy decisions regarding the teacher preparation program. In addition to creating the Education Council, the college of education’s administration decided to seek a historian to represent SSU at the state licensure panel rather than send a teacher educator with limited background in social studies. SSU’s college of education’s commitment to engaging A&S faculty members in
teacher preparation not only led to Helen’s involvement in preparing future history teachers, but also kept her engaged.

WSU recently underwent a redesign of all of its teacher preparation programs, and engaging A&S faculty members was essential to the process. According to the associate dean, A&S faculty members in each department were recruited to participate in the curriculum redesign. Course syllabi and sequences could have been redesigned without the help of A&S faculty, but the college of education valued their input. During the redesign process, Hank was engaged in creating the new two-course sequence of social studies methods that is currently being taught by Susan Weber, the social studies coordinator. Hank did not actively seek to be engaged in teacher preparation; however, he would have never been involved without the college of education’s commitment to have A&S faculty involvement.

One factor that cannot be lost in this discussion is the fact that all three institutions were originated as normal schools or teachers colleges. Less than 75 years ago, all three institutions’ primary responsibility was to prepare teachers, which helps to explain their continuing emphasis on teacher education as an all-university pursuit. When asked if A&S faculty involvement in teacher preparation was a priority, the deans at each of the three institutions affirmed that it was a priority and mentioned their university’s normal school roots as one of reasons for the emphasis on inter-disciplinary collaboration. Whether this will continue is uncertain because in the case of NSU, university leadership is now trying to disassociate the institution from their normal school roots and place a much heavier emphasis on faculty research and publication. Historians at SSU and WSU, institutions both classified as research universities by the Carnegie
Foundation, seemed to embrace their normal school roots and accept the charge of preparing large numbers of high quality teachers each year. Considering the history of each university, it is fair to assume that the normal school tradition is a factor that has led to support for A&S faculty involvement in teacher preparation from both university and departmental leadership.

*Perceived Support from University and Department Leadership.* The historians engaged in teacher preparation all believe they had support from their department chair, college dean, provost, or university president. In some cases, the history department chair voiced his or her support for the work in interviews and said he or she believed that the provost and university president supported the work as well. In all cases, the deans of the three colleges of education believed that the provost and university president supported the work of A&S faculty members in teacher preparation. In some cases, university mission statements and documents supported the notion that A&S faculty members are encouraged to work with faculty members from other departments, namely faculty members in the college of education. The promotion and tenure documents from each institution supported the work by counting it toward their “service” commitment to the university.

In the case of NSU, Howard holds a joint-appointment in the history department and the college of education. While his department chair did not support his work in the college of education this was inconsequential because of Howard’s status within the university and the fact that he was a full professor. The support that mattered to Howard was the support from the provost and university president. According to Howard, he has their full support as he works with the college of education. He also signs a yearly
memorandum of understanding with the college of education, so he is contractually bound to be engaged in the teacher preparation program. The historians at SSU and WSU are not full professors, nor are they contractually bound to collaborate with the college of education, so support from university and departmental leadership was more important for them.

At SSU, Helen perceived support from her department chair and the university administration. SSU’s mission includes a commitment to interdisciplinary collaboration, and Helen believes that the provost and university president support her work, as well. Chris Simpson, the history department chair, spoke highly of Helen’s work and said he appreciates all the work she does with the teacher preparation program. His background working with teacher preparation at a previous institution provided him with an appreciation of the value that historians can provide to a social studies education program.

According to news reports and informants, WSU’s president is deeply connected to the surrounding community and understands that improving local schools is an essential element to improving the local community. The dean of education noted that the university president supports the initiatives set forth by the college of education, the most recent plan being the teacher preparation redesign. The history department chair—a former teacher—is “very interested in the work of the college of education,” and he supports historian engagement in teacher preparation and wants to increase the current level of involvement.

**Historians’ Commitment to Improving the Quality of Public Schools and History Education.** The historians have diverse backgrounds and reasons for their involvement
with preparing teachers. One historian (Hank) was a former high school history teacher, which factored in his decision to engage in teacher preparation. One historian (Helen) had a transformational experience as a graduate student that illustrated the value of interdisciplinary collaboration, which was a leading factor in her decision to engage in teacher preparation. Another historian (Howard) seemingly had no interest in working with local schools or teacher preparation until the dean of education asked if he wanted to get involved in a program that ultimately led to a dual appointment in history and education. Each historian had a different story regarding their decision to collaborate with the college of education, but the one constant was their commitment and desire to improve the quality of public schools and the teaching of history in those schools. Their commitment and desire to positively influence schools and history education led them to be involved in teacher preparation in order to produce more effective history teachers.

**Implications for Colleges and Universities**

In this study, the colleges of education sought the involvement and engagement of historians in their teacher preparation programs. When colleges of education desire the input, involvement, and engagement of A&S faculty members, such as historians, there are institutional and personal factors that need to be present for the collaboration to occur. This study identifies several common institutional and personal factors that can help teacher educators engage A&S faculty in their teacher preparation programs. In addition to uncovering the factors that promote collaboration, this study also identified personal and professional benefits of being engaged with teacher education, which could help teacher educators and history department chairs recruit historians to help prepare future teachers. In addition to assisting teacher preparation programs and promoting history
departments’ engagement in teacher preparation at their institution, this study has the potential to inform university administrations as they seek to promote internal collaboration, specifically A&S faculty members’ involvement in teacher preparation at their respective institutions. The following section identifies the implications that the study could potentially have on teacher preparation programs seeking to engage A&S faculty members in teacher education, history departments seeking to be more involved in teacher preparation, and university administrators seeking to promote internal collaboration at their institutions.

Teacher Preparation Programs. If teacher preparation programs want to engage A&S faculty members in their programs, they must make it a priority and provide learning opportunities and structures that support A&S involvement. In this study, the college of education at each university sought the involvement of historians for a variety of reasons; the history department at each institution did not need such engagement and, therefore, did not reach out to the teacher preparation programs. In all three cases, the history departments’ mission statements do not mention teacher education or preparing future history teachers, whereas all of the colleges of education identify teacher preparation in their mission statements. The divide between the purposes and goals of the two academic units underscores the importance of teacher preparation initiating the collaboration and recruiting A&S faculty members to be involved.

Essential to recruiting A&S faculty members is to illustrate the potential personal and professional benefits that they will experience when engaging in teacher preparation. In this study, all three historians experienced several personal and professional benefits from their work with the teacher preparation programs at their institution, such as
increased levels of job satisfaction and improved quality of instruction. Historians at NSU and SSU described their experiences with teacher preparation as “career changing” and “transformational.” While Hank at WSU was less engaged than Howard and Helen at NSU and SSU, he still described his experience with teacher preparation as “valuable” and “enjoyable.” If teacher preparation programs are going to engage A&S faculty members, they must actively recruit and be able to provide the faculty with potential benefits associated with the work. Finding an A&S faculty member who can share with other faculty his or her positive experiences in a teacher preparation program would help recruit A&S faculty to the program at higher rates.

*History Departments.* As evidenced by the historians at NSU, SSU, and WSU, historian involvement and engagement is a time-consuming endeavor. With minimal impact on promotion and tenure, there is the possibility that working with teacher preparation programs can actually take time away from a historian’s quest to gain tenure or promotion. That said, informants to this study indicated that there are multiple personal, professional, and institutional benefits to be derived from historians’ work with teacher preparation. If a history department were seeking a historian to represent the department’s interests in teacher preparation, it would be wise to identify a historian who is tenured and has a commitment to improving public schools and the teaching of history in those schools. If a historian does not share the vision that the college of education has for its teacher preparation program, collaboration may be more difficult to achieve.

Many of the informants also mentioned relationships and personalities as being a factor that can promote or inhibit collaboration between the A&S faculty members and the college of education. When recruiting historians to participate in teacher preparation, it is
important to target faculty members who have personalities that are conducive to interdisciplinary collaboration.

*University Administration.* Kezar (2005) identified a set of essential elements for internal collaboration on the university campus; however, the historians in this study were engaged in teacher preparation absent all of the eight essential elements. All three historians believed that it was part of their responsibility as a historian and faculty member to work with the teacher preparation program at their institution. Given the personal stories of professors North, South, and West, there would have been engagement with the teacher education absent any incentives or support. Such support or incentives might have intensified or added to the engagement, but in all three cases there was a determination, once the opportunity was identified, for these three faculty members to become involved. Given the barriers to engagement, specifically existing promotion and tenure policies at all three institutions, the college of education at each institution would have difficulty finding replacements for North, South, and West if they decided to stop their engagement with teacher preparation or to leave the university all together.

If university administrators seek to promote internal collaboration, specifically A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation, they should consider each of the elements identified by Kezar and propose strategies to fulfill each of them. Despite the fact that university leaders uniformly promote the idea of collaboration across the campus, the fulfillment of that intent is difficult to realize. In all three cases, reconsideration of promotion and tenure policies that put a premium on cross-campus collaboration or engagement in teacher education has eluded institutional leaders. Summoning faculty leadership across the campus to rewrite promotion and tenure
policies to advantage collaboration and participation in teacher education as an all-university responsibility, is not something that has occurred. Informants at NSU, SSU, and WSU all identified the need for rewards to encourage A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation. While rewards would encourage A&S faculty engagement, historians at SSU and WSU collaborate with the college of education without any substantial reward for their work. In those cases, the other elements essential for collaboration, such as integrating structures and sense of priority, compensated for the lack of rewards. Overall, university administrators need to be aware of the essential elements for internal collaboration and attempt to create those elements within the university. While some institutions may be able to promote internal collaboration without providing rewards, most will require some form of reward to achieve faculty involvement. When faced with faculty members unwilling to collaborate with other departments and colleges within the university, all of the informants to the study suggested that rewards would help promote collaboration. University and department leaders, especially leaders in the college of education, are fortunate that these three historians are so engaged with teacher preparation. Without the capacity to provide tangible rewards for such work, they should be concerned that finding other A&S faculty to become involved will be more and more difficult. In an era when there are more and more expectations for all faculty with increased teaching loads and more research demands, simply reaching-out will be more and more challenging. There is need for university presidents to publically commit to the all-university responsibility for teacher education, to push aggressively on faculty governance to ensure that appropriate attention in promotion and tenure policies be given to collaboration and partnership, and to allocate resources, even in a time of scarcity, for
ensuring that A&S faculty and faculty in teacher education work together to prepare a new generation of teachers.

**Implications for Future Research**

The conceptual framework generated by this study provides insight into future research endeavors. This study identified three historians who were engaged in teacher preparation; however, the framework generated can be applied to numerous settings within a college or university. The study can be applied to different A&S departments or A&S faculty members who are not engaged in teacher preparation or it can be extended to further investigate the benefits associated with A&S faculty engagement with teacher preparation programs.

The conceptual framework can be applied to all A&S faculty members engaged in teacher preparation, rather than focusing only on historians. Future research should investigate the institutional and personal factors that promote A&S faculty engagement in teacher preparation and compare them across disciplines. A case study of one institution with several A&S faculty members in different departments engaged in teacher preparation could be investigated to provide additional understanding of the institutional and personal factors that promote engagement.

The identification of faculty members who are engaged in interdisciplinary collaboration deemphasizes the barriers to collaboration because the barriers were low enough to be overcome by the college of education and the historian in each case. Research could be conducted on A&S faculty members who are not engaged in teacher preparation to determine the barriers to their involvement. Surveys could also be administered to determine the barriers that prevent faculty members on a particular
campus from being engaged in teacher preparation. Surveys or case studies could be implemented on one campus or multiple campuses to make comparisons across different departments and institutions.

This study uncovered the benefits that historians experience from their work with teacher preparation, which could be a focus for further study. Future research could follow a faculty member or multiple faculty members to document their process from being uninvolved to being engaged in teacher preparation. A longitudinal study could be designed to measure faculty members’ teaching performance, job satisfaction, and dispositions to determine how engagement in teacher preparation has impacted faculty members’ personal and professional lives.

This study relied on faculty members’ memory of their personal and professional lives before their collaboration with teacher preparation. A more accurate understanding of the benefits associated with engaging in teacher preparation could be obtained by investigating faculty members’ lives throughout the process of being uninvolved to being engaged. A study that incorporated student performance and evaluations before and after A&S faculty engagement with teacher preparation would provide a more accurate understanding of the effects that the work has on faculty members’ instructional practice.

Given that each site had so many supporting factors to promote internal collaboration, it is interesting that in all three cases only one historian was identified as being significantly engaged in teacher preparation. A follow-up study that would provide value would be to interview and observe the other members of the history department at each of these institutions to gain an understanding of why they are not involved in teacher preparation. It can be assumed that they are involved in other university collaborative
endeavors, such as working with the department of religious studies, or working with external organizations, such as community groups or local museums. There are factors that support internal and external collaboration so it would be valuable to understand other historians’ work and their rationale for being involved with other departments or organizations and not the teacher preparation program. A study that investigates historians within each department that are not engaged with teacher preparation would also help uncover the perceived barriers to collaboration with teacher education and the college of education that persist within universities.

The literature review and conceptual model identified barriers to internal collaboration but does not address the potential differences in the barriers that prevent collaboration with the college of education compared to other colleges and departments within the university. Stemming from this research, any investigation of the barriers to collaboration would need to make the distinction between barriers to collaborate with the college of education compared to other colleges and departments within the university. While it can be argued that work with other colleges and departments within a university may be more valued and/or rewarded, and that this is the reason for less involvement with teacher preparation, we do not have the evidence to make such a claim.

**Conclusion**

This study has examined the institutional and personal factors that promote historians’ engagement in teacher preparation. It employed a multiple case study design using Kezar’s (2005) essential elements for internal collaboration to shape data collection, analysis, and reporting. Each of the three institutions studied had a confluence of factors that enabled historians to make the decision to collaborate with the college of
education and engage in teacher preparation at their institution. In all the cases, the college of education sought the engagement from the A&S faculty members and was supported by the university administration. While there are institutional factors that support the work of historians, it was ultimately the historians’ commitment to improving public schools and history education that led to their engagement in teacher preparation. Historians also experienced increased levels of job satisfaction and perceived improvements to their instructional practices. Overall, the institutional factors supported historians’ engagement in teacher preparation, but it was the historians’ perspectives on education and history education along with the benefits derived from their work that led to their engagement in teacher preparation.
Appendix A

Consent Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Title</th>
<th>Historians’ Role in Teacher Education: Personal and Institutional Factors that Lead to Their Engagement in Preparing Future Teachers of Their Discipline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of the Study</td>
<td>This research is being conducted by Dr. David Imig and Eric C. Watts at the University of Maryland, College Park. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you are either a historian involved in teacher education or a teacher educator or administrator in the teacher preparation program with knowledge of the factors that promote and/or prohibit historians’ involvement in preparing teachers. The purpose of this research project is to gain a better understanding of the personal and institutional factors that lead historians to become involved in preparing future teachers of their discipline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures</td>
<td>The procedures involve a one to two-hour interview that discusses the phenomenon of arts and sciences faculty involvement in teacher education, specifically the involvement of historians in preparing teachers. Interviews will be audio taped for later transcription. The procedures also include the collection of public and internal documents that provide insight into the phenomenon of historians’ involvement in teacher education. When applicable, participants will be asked to share documents that could provide information regarding the factors that promote and prohibit historians’ involvement in teacher education. When applicable, historians will be observed participating in the preparation of future history teachers. Potential observable activities include planning meetings, advising meetings, a course dedicated to or geared towards teacher candidates and taught by a historian, and the observation process of a social studies teacher candidate by a historian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential Risks and Discomforts</td>
<td>To historians: A risk of your participation is the potential impact your comments have on your promotion, tenure, and working environment. When discussing institutional factors that impact your involvement in teacher education, you might be critical of your institution and/or supervisors and colleagues. To ensure that those risks are not realized, your confidentiality will be made by using pseudonyms for each institution and participants. Since the sample size is small, institution pseudonyms and descriptions will have to be made to ensure that the college or university cannot be identified by any of the participants.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Potential Benefits**

There will be no direct benefits for your participation. However, possible benefits include the opportunity to share your experiences with the greater teacher education population. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of the phenomenon of historians’ involvement in preparing future teachers of their discipline.

**Confidentiality**

Any potential loss of confidentiality will be minimized by the use of pseudonyms throughout the data collection, data analysis, and reporting phases of the research.

All data will be stored in password protected files and electronic and hard copy materials will be destroyed five years after the conclusion of the study.

If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. Your information may be shared with representatives of the University of Maryland, College Park or governmental authorities if you or someone else is in danger or if we are required to do so by law.

This research project involves making audiotapes of you. The audiotapes will be transcribed and sent back to you to check for accuracy. Digital audio files will only be available to the investigators and will be stored in a password protected folder. Digital audio files will be destroyed upon completion of the research project and the transcriptions will be destroyed along with other electronic and hard copy files.

____ I agree to be audiotaped during my participation in this study.

____ I do not agree to be audiotaped during my participation in this study.
<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Medical Treatment</strong></th>
<th><em>The University of Maryland does not provide any medical, hospitalization or other insurance for participants in this research study, nor will the University of Maryland provide any medical treatment or compensation for any injury sustained as a result of participation in this research study, except as required by law.</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Right to Withdraw and Questions** | *Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.*

*If you decide to stop taking part in the study, if you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or if you need to report an injury related to the research, please contact the investigators*

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| **Participant Rights** | *If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact:*

University of Maryland College Park  
Institutional Review Board Office  
1204 Marie Mount  
College Park, Maryland, 20742  
E-mail: irb@umd.edu  
Telephone: 301-405-0678

*This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.* |
**Statement of Consent**

Your signature indicates that you are at least 18 years of age; you have read this consent form or have had it read to you; your questions have been answered to your satisfaction and you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. You will receive a copy of this signed consent form.

*If you agree to participate, please sign your name below.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Signature and Date</strong></th>
<th><strong>PARTICIPANT NAME</strong> [Please Print]</th>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>DATE</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Interview Protocols

I. Interview Questions for Historian Involved with Teacher Education (Semi-structured Interview)

1. Describe your involvement in the teacher education program at this institution, as well as previous institutions.

2. What personal factors led to your involvement in teacher preparation?
   ***Potential follow-up questions
   - Do you have any experience working in P-12 schools?
   - Has anyone in your family been a teacher?
   - Do you enjoy working with pre-service teachers?
   - How long do you foresee yourself working with pre-service teachers? Why?

3. What institutional factors led to your involvement in teacher preparation?
   ***Potential follow-up questions
   - Who initiated your involvement in teacher education?
   - Do you have the support from your department chair?
   - What do your colleagues think about your involvement in teacher education?

4. Have you experienced any institutional barriers that have restricted your involvement in teacher education? If so, please describe those barriers and your reaction to them.

5. How have you benefited personally from your involvement in preparing future history teachers?

6. How have you benefited professionally from your involvement in preparing future history teachers?

7. What value do you provide to future history teachers? What are the consequences of historians, like yourself, not being engaged in teacher preparation at your institution?

Task oriented and scenario questions

8. If you were asked by the university president and provost for advice on ways to promote arts and sciences faculty involvement in teacher education, what advice would you give them?

9. If you received full support from your administration and were offered a dual appointment in the college of education, would you accept the position? If so, what would be the personal and professional benefits from accepting the new position in the college of education? If not, what are the personal and professional reasons for declining the position?
10. If you had the opportunity to trade one of the history courses that you teach for a course offered within the college of education, would you accept the opportunity? Why or why not?

11. The social studies teacher preparation program in currently centered in the college of education. What would your thoughts be if the provost was planning to house the program in the history department? Would you embrace the new program or would you prefer that it stay in the college of education?

II. Interview Questions for Social Studies Educator and/or Social Studies Program Coordinator (Semi-structured Interview)

1. Describe the involvement of historians in the teacher education program at this institution.
   ***Potential follow-up question
   - How does the involvement of historians compare to other institutions that you have worked at or with?

2. What was the impetus for the historian’s involvement in teacher education? Who initiated the historians’ involvement in teacher education?

3. What is the school of education doing to promote the involvement of A&S faculty, specifically historians, in teacher education?

4. How has the involvement of historians impacted the quality of your pre-service teachers?

Task oriented and scenario questions

5. If you were asked by the university president and provost for advice on ways to promote arts and sciences faculty involvement in teacher education, what advice would you give them?

6. If the historian at your institution stopped being involved in teacher education, what would the consequences be for social studies teacher candidates? Do you think there are other historians willing to take his/her place?

7. The social studies teacher preparation program in currently centered in the college of education. What would your thoughts be if the provost was planning to house the program in the history department? Would you embrace the new program or would you prefer that it stay in the college of education?

III. Interview Questions for Education Deans and Teacher Educators (Semi-structured Interview)
1. Is inter-disciplinary collaboration a priority at this institution? If so, what is the rationale for inter-disciplinary collaboration? If not, what is the rationale against inter-disciplinary collaboration?

***Potential follow-up question
- To what extent does inter-disciplinary collaboration occur at your institution?
- How is that priority conveyed to the faculty?

2. To your knowledge, describe the involvement of historians in the teacher education program at this institution.

3. What benefits do you anticipate and/or experience from inter-disciplinary collaboration, specifically A&S involvement in teacher education?

4. What is being done at this institution to promote inter-disciplinary collaboration, specifically A&S involvement in teacher education?

5. What barriers exist that prohibit A&S faculty members, specifically historians, from being involved in teacher education?

Task oriented and scenario questions

6. If you were asked by the university president and provost for advice on ways to promote arts and sciences faculty involvement in teacher education, what advice would you give them?

7. If all of the A&S faculty members engaged in teacher education decided to stop participating or left the university, how would you recruit A&S faculty to take their place?

8. The social studies teacher preparation program in currently centered in the college of education. What would your thoughts be if the provost was planning to house the program in the history department? Would you embrace the new program or would you prefer that it stay in the college of education?

IV. Interview Questions for History Department Chair (Semi-structured Interview)

1. Describe the level of involvement that the historians in your department have with teacher preparation.

***Potential follow-up questions
- Why do you think there is not more involvement in teacher education within your department?
- For those historians that are involved in teacher preparation within your department, why do you believe they get involved while others do not?

2. How do you envision the role of historians in preparing social studies teachers?
3. What are the costs and benefits of historians in your department being involved in teacher preparation?

4. What are the incentives for historians in your department to become engaged in teacher preparation?

**Task oriented and scenario questions**

5. If you were asked by the university president and provost for advice on ways to promote arts and sciences faculty involvement in teacher education, what advice would you give them?

6. The social studies teacher preparation program in currently centered in the college of education. What would your thoughts be if the provost was planning to house the program in the history department? Would you embrace the new program or would you prefer that it stay in the college of education?
Appendix C

Observation Protocol

Name of Institution: ____________________________

Setting of Observation: __________________________

Date: __________________________

Description of Observation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rubric (RQ)</th>
<th>Descriptive Notes</th>
<th>Reflections (thoughts, ideas, questions for follow-up, etc.)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ 1: Personal and institutional factors leading to engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td>RQ 2: Personal and institutional barriers that limit engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td>RQ 3: Historian benefits from engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td>RQ 4: Perceived value of historians engagement in teacher preparation</td>
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<tr>
<td>(include any value of A&amp;S faculty)</td>
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References


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