TEACHER CERTIFICATION: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF CULTURAL VIEWS FROM PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOL POLICYMAKERS

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Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1996

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PRIVATE SCHOOL POLICYMAKERS

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to my committee members: Dr. Robert Nolan, Dr. Martin Burlingame, Dr. Ray Sanders and Dr. Gary Oakley for challenging me and causing me to grow not only in the process of this dissertation study but also during the class work leading to the culmination of this course of study.

I have appreciated having Dr. Nolan serve as the chairman and dissertation adviser for this study; he has provided meaningful guidance and has encouraged me to stay the course. I am also thankful for the insight gained into the characteristics of adults as learners from Dr. Nolan's expertise in the area of adult education. I thank Dr. Oakley for providing me with significant input, by challenging me through questioning, and by contributing beneficial suggestions through a valued review of the material presented. I appreciate Dr. Sanders' involvement on the committee for his positive encouragement, his perception, and his background in teacher preparation and teacher education. Dr. Burlingame was the first to spark my interest in qualitative study and the process of the long interview for which I am very thankful. He was highly willing to give suggestions in the development of the design and provide the time to review material and confer advice in the process. My sincere thanks to the entire committee for helping make this a considerably interesting and engaging research study for me.

I gratefully acknowledge the distinguished leaders in both the public and private school arena who were more than willing to give of their time by granting interviews for this research. The interviewees included: Dr. Marie Della Bella, Dr. Richard Ekdahl, Dr. Emily Feistritzer, Dr. Ollie Gibbs, Dr. Lynda Haynes, Dr. James Kelly, Sister Anne Leonard, Cindy Marose, Dr. Jean Miller, Dr. Clarence Oliver, Dr. Charles O'Malley, Dr. Don Petry, and Dr. Arthur Wise.

I am quite indebted to Dr. Don Petry who has been used in a formidable way to shape and mold my professional life. I am thankful to him for encouraging me to begin my quest to earn an advanced degree and for his continued inspiration during the years of this journey.

My appreciation is extended to my parents, Bruce and Gloria Hand, for their support and their interest in seeing me achieve this goal. Finally, I am most thankful to my wife, Katherine, and my two sons, Matthew and Micah, for their patience and understanding approval. Matthew and Micah have been very tolerant when at times Dad had to miss a soccer or basketball game due to doctoral course work. Katherine has been a principal motivator and contributed the frequently needed love and encouragement when there seemed to be no light at the end of the tunnel. I especially appreciated her enthusiastic interest in the work and study which I have been engaged in over the past five years - she truly has been a helpmate and a blessing from the Lord.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It has been estimated that curriculum, in terms of courses, influences the life of a student 10% while the teacher impacts a student 90% (Schindler & Pyle, 1979). The National Center for Education Statistics (1995) study reveals that most children's formal education takes place through interaction between the teacher and students in the classroom. It is through the educational and classroom process that the teacher plays a critical role in passing on knowledge and societal values. Because good teachers are central to high quality education, the state of the teaching profession and the credentialing of teachers is an ongoing concern to those who make educational policy and to those involved in the preparation of tomorrow's classroom teachers and the professional development of today's teachers.

The National Center for Education Statistics (1993) reported that in 1990-91 there were 2,900,000 teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools. More than 2,559,000 of the teachers were employed in public schools while there were over 356,000 teachers teaching in private schools. Almost all public school teachers had standard or advanced state certification in their main assignment field, contrasted to those teachers in private schools where just over half of the teachers held similar certification. The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) reported in *A Nation At Risk*

that not enough "academically able" students were being attracted to teaching as a career option; teacher preparation focused on educational methods at the expense of the subjects to be taught; teacher salaries were low; and teachers had little influence in decision making. Since *A Nation At Risk* was first published, the nation has been involved in school reform efforts that have included policies and practices designed to improve the quality of America's teaching force. Many of these policies have revolved around issues of teacher certification and have been designed solely for the purposes of public education and public school teachers. Little if any consideration has been given to the impact or consequences that these policies have on private education or on private school teachers. In many cases state certification policies not only have created challenges and conflicts for many private schools but have even served to create tension and alienate private schools from the state. Few considerations have been given to facilitating and accommodating the transition of teachers from public to private schools or the converse, private to public schools.

This research seeks to investigate the basic beliefs, assumptions and views regarding teacher qualifications and teacher certification from two educational cultures; public education and private education. By means of a naturalistic, qualitative study this investigation seeks to define the areas of commonality, determine the areas of conflict and identify possible areas of consensus regarding the policies for state teacher certification and the philosophy of private education concerning the credentialing of classroom teachers.

Background of the Problem

Individual state departments of public instruction have played an important part in the establishment of standards and requirements for teacher certification. However, many private schools do not require teachers to hold a state teaching certificate and even question the validity of the state serving as the credentialing agent. There are private school leaders who challenge whether or not state certification addresses teacher preparation issues and necessarily equates with quality education. Because of this reasoning, private school leaders question why they should be hindered from hiring an individual they deem qualified to teach in their school.

State departments of education have taken various positions of relationship with private schools. However, in many states private schools are not recognized by the state if their teachers are not state certified, even if the teachers are professionals holding teaching credentials from other states. Those private schools that hire teachers not holding state teaching certificates face challenges regarding teacher recruitment, utilizing student teachers as interns, and hiring entry year or resident teachers.

Challenges confront teachers who would like to exit the public school system and teach in private schools. Teachers from public education who choose to teach in private schools can lose many benefits accumulated in public education as well as have their years of service in private schools not count towards the total years of teaching experience when and if they should desire to return to the public system.

With teacher shortages forecasted for the next ten to twenty years, both public and private schools will be facing greater needs for teachers (Henry, 1994). Henry (1994)

cites Darling-Hammond to support the premise that schools will need two million new teachers over the next decade, and that many of the new teachers will not be equipped to educate children for the 21st century unless the profession is overhauled. Darling-Hammond presents the following statistics:

- 2.9 million teachers are now employed, but 3.3 million will be needed by the year 2002.
- Teachers are implored to meet higher standards, but more than 50,000 teachers enter the profession each year poorly prepared. They are hired with either emergency or temporary certification.
- The most severe shortage of prepared teachers is in the two areas where students are weakest and are at greatest risk: math and science.
- 15% or more of all schools and 23% of central city schools had vacancies, even two or three years ago that could not be filled by qualified teachers. (Henry, 1994, p. 1D)

Individuals in professions outside the teaching arena are currently looking at possible career transitions and would consider the possibility of a teaching career. However, they are hindered when faced with the challenges of the state teacher certificate requirements (Feistritzer, 1993).

The following summarizes some of the problems exasperated by public policies regarding teacher certification:

1. The validity of the state being the only credentialing agent for teachers.
2. Private school leaders feeling hindered from hiring individuals they deem qualified to teach.
3. Private schools unable to utilize student teachers as well as first year resident teachers.

4. The facilitating of public school teachers who would like to transition into private education without losing the benefits gained while teaching in public schools.
5. Teachers in private schools have not been allowed to count years of service in private schools toward the public school career ladder.
6. Schools unable to utilize professionals who wold like to teach in public or private school but do not hold certificates. This applies where there are shortages of teachers, especially in the areas of math and science.

These issues seem to indicate that there are two separate cultures which do to interface with each other (Snow, 1963). There appears to be two cultural perspectives regarding the issue of state teacher certification: (1) public school policymakers, and (2) private school policymakers. The state public policymakers maintain a strong stance regarding qualifying individuals to teach by way of certification, while private school policymakers question even the need for certification. The differences in these two cultural perspectives regarding teacher certification have created a conflict which needs to be addressed and resolved.

Statement of the Problem

The lack of understanding between public school policymakers and private school policymakers has created a controversy over the necessity of teachers who teach in private schools to hold and maintain a teaching certificate from the state. The limited insight each has of the other's cultural perspective has placed these two worlds on a collision course regarding the issue of state teacher certification. There appears to be two separate

cultures with a gulf of mutual misunderstanding between them. Snow (1963) described a conflict of culture between the scientific community and the literary community which can be liken to the gulf of misunderstanding addressed in this study:

> Two polar groups: . . . Between the two a gulf of mutual incomprehension--sometimes hostility and dislike, but most of all a lack of understanding. They have a curious distorted image of each other. Their attitudes are so different that, even on the level of emotion they can't find much common ground. (p. 11-12)

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research was to gain access to two cultures: 1) the culture of public education leaders and policymakers and 2) the culture of private school leaders and policymakers. The study of the two cultures was limited in scope, designed specifically to investigate the cultural perspectives of teacher certification. The rationale for accessing the two cultures was to discover the cultural categories and logic whereby each culture views teacher certification and then identify the themes of commonality and themes of differences between the two cultures.

Once cultural categories and themes of commonality and difference are discovered and identified this study could serve as a means to open dialogue between the two cultures of public and private school policymakers. A greater understanding of the two cultural perspectives of teacher certification could help resolve differences and thereby alleviate continued conflict and eliminate a collision course.

Research Method

McCracken's (1988) long, ethnographic interview was employed to gain access to public and private school cultures for the purpose of defining the construct by which each

culture perceives teacher certification. After conducting the interviews, categories were defined according to each culture's construct of the world of teacher certification. This then allowed for identifying the perspectives by which each culture constitutes credentialing a teacher for the classroom. Patterns of interrelationship between categories were drawn as to what implications the commonalities and conflicts could have on the policy development of teacher certification. The study concludes with additional questions for further research into the standard requirements for credentialing and the development of articulation agreements between public and private schools regarding transitioning teachers.

Assumptions of the Study

This study assumes a constructivist or naturalistic paradigm for guiding inquiry. The aim of this study is to understand the cultural constructs that public education policymakers and private school policymakers hold regarding teacher certification. It is assumed that policymakers from both cultures, public and private, are open to new interpretations as information and advancements are realized in the development and credentialing of teachers (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Denzin and Lincoln (1994) state that, "The criterion for progress is that over time, everyone formulates more informed and sophisticated constructions and becomes more aware of the content and meaning of competing constructions" (p. 113).

This study further assumes that the two cultures of public and private education consist of a knowledge base about which there is relative consensus or at the least there could be movement towards consensus regarding qualifying teachers for the classroom.

As a constructivist study it is believed that multiple "knowledges" can coexist between cultures and that the constructs of these cultures are subject to change and continuous revision when the cultures are brought into juxtaposition in a dialectical context (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

The assumption is that when the two competing cultures of public education and private education are observed, the categories and assumptions discovered would identify and describe how the individuals from each of the cultures construe the world of teacher certification. These categories and assumptions would then be analyzed for themes of commonality and themes of differences. This would indicate areas where the two cultures of public and private education could collaborate to achieve a working consensus and develop mutually benefiting articulation agreements regarding the recognition and certification of teachers.

Operational Definitions of the Study

The following are the operational definitions of terms used in the culture of teacher certification and in this qualitative long interview study. The terms defined in this chapter reflect the definitions found in the review of literature regarding teacher certification. Some of the terms used are value neutral and cross both cultures of public and private education. However, some of the terms are defined and used differently in the two cultures. While some terms are applicable in one culture, they are nonapplicable to the other. This listing also includes the names and acronyms of national organizations and consortiums involved at some level in the culture of teacher certification.

1. Teacher Certification: The process and means by which a state government ascertains that a person is ready to teach prior to allowing him or her to do so (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1992). Certification in most professions refers to the validation of a practitioner's knowledge by a professional body (Wise, Darling-Hammond, et al., 1987). The meaning of the word "certification," until the late 1980s was used somewhat interchangeably with the word "licensure," and even the word "accreditation." However, of late, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and the New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) have suggested a distinction in the terminology used in defining the credentialing of teachers. The word "certification" is now transitioning to describe an advanced professional level for those who already have been licensed to teach by the state (Buttery, 1994).

2. Licensure: The term "licensure" is used to describe state requirements for regulating the opportunities of individuals to teach in a given state; it refers to permission given by the state to practice teaching within that state (Wise, Darling-Hammond, et al., 1987). Licensing is one of the major forms of quality assurance for a profession (Wise, 1994). Licensure is now the term of choice used to describe those credentialed to teach at the starting level. Certification will require qualifications beyond those regulations mandated for license. Individual states have almost uniformly referred to certificates, as opposed to licenses, as the term to describe newly credentialed teachers. However, there is currently a transition of terminology promoted by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC).

3. Alternative Teacher Certification: The term used to refer to every avenue to becoming licensed to teach from emergency certification to very sophisticated and well-designed programs that address the professional preparation needs of the growing population of already degreed adults with considerable life experience who want to become teachers (Feistritzer & Chester, 1995).

4. Emergency Certification: Used in some states to qualify an individual to teach when a school district can show that no other qualified teacher can be found. State officials say emergency certification is seldom issued in metropolitan areas. It is usually used in isolated, remote areas. The certificate is usually valid only for the specific school and specific assignment for which it was issued (Feistritzer & Chester, 1995). Emergency certificates were first issued during World War II due to the amount of teachers involved in the war industries. Also a reduced number of students in teacher-preparation programs created a severe nationwide shortage of teachers (LaBue, 1960).

5. Profession: A calling requiring specialized knowledge and often long and intensive academic preparation (Webster, 1976). Stinnett (1968) lists the following characteristics or distinguishing marks to identify a profession. A profession:

- involves activities essentially intellectual
- commands a body of specialized knowledge
- requires extended professional (as contrasted with solely general) preparation
- demands continuous in-service growth
- affords a life career and permanent membership
- sets up its own standards
- exalts service above personal gain
- has a strong, closely knit, professional organization
- acceptance of personal responsibility and accountability by members, through adherence to a code of ethics
- dedication to the derivation of new knowledge
- aggressiveness in enforcing standards; a system of rewards—monetary and honorary (pp. 54, 66)

6. Public School: An educational institution established by state law, open to the children of all residents of a particular area, supported by public funds, supervised and managed by public officials, and whose purpose is to meet educational needs of students primarily in kindergarten through the twelfth grade (Ford, 1992).

7. Private School: A school offering a program of instruction which is not under the control of a local public school board, and which is managed and supported by individuals or a private organization. Some common names given to private schools include private, independent, parochial, Catholic, sectarian, nonpublic, church, Christian, fundamentalist, denominational, or religious (Ford, 1992).

8. Performance-Based Licensing or Performance-Based Certification: A system of high-quality assessments of teaching performance that novice teachers must pass in order to obtain a long-term teaching license (Murnane, 1991). Standards are identified and then described through an explanation of what teachers must know and do to satisfy the requirements at a high level. It includes the provision of a range of examples and case histories illustrating exemplary practice. The standards avoid being too general or so specific that they prescribe a single method of practice. Over the course of an academic year teacher candidates assemble a body of work that includes portfolios of sample student work, videotapes of teacher interaction with students, and written reflections on student progress and on the teacher's own instructional practice (Shapiro, 1995). Performance-based standards for the assessment and licensing of teachers places more emphasis on the abilities the teachers have developed than on the hours they have spent taking classes. One of the goals of performance-based licensing standards is that it should enable states to

permit greater innovation and diversity in how teacher-education programs operate by assessing their outcomes rather than their inputs or procedures (INTASC, 1992).

9. Internship or Resident Year: An integral component in the continuum of teacher education and a prerequisite for long-term licensure or certification. A candidate for internship or resident year must have completed all of the requirements for state licensure including graduation from an accredited program of teacher education and passing the state tests of reading, writing, mathematical skills, and subject-matter knowledge in the field of licensing. As in other professions, the intern or resident year provides the opportunity for a teacher to put theory into practice, to learn those aspects of the job that cannot be taught in the professional school classroom, and to practice complex decision making under the supervision of experienced practitioners (Wise, Darling-Hammond, et al., 1987).

10. National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS): A board established in 1987 to develop standards for advanced certification of educators in various fields in a manner similar to the medical model of board certification (Buttery, 1994). The mission of the National Board is to establish high and rigorous standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do. This is accomplished by developing a national voluntary system to assess and certify teachers who meet these standards and to advance related education reforms for the purpose of improving student learning in American schools (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1994).

11. Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC): An organization initiated by the Council of Chief State School Officers, established to facilitate states interested in restructuring beginning teacher licensing and to establish a

sense of induction into the teaching profession (Buttery, 1994). INTASC has crafted model standards for licensing new teachers. These standards have been drafted by representatives of the teaching profession along with personnel from 17 state educational agencies. These standards represent a common core of teaching knowledge and skills developed to be compatible with the advanced certification standards of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. The goal of INTASC is to create model standards for "Board-compatible" teacher licensing that can be reviewed by professional organizations and state agencies as a basis for their own standard-setting activities (INTASC, 1992).

12. American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE): A consortium of deans and directors from colleges of teacher education and preparation.

13. National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE): A national agency that has the sole responsibility for the national accreditation of college and university units for the preparation of teachers and other professional school personnel at the elementary, middle, and secondary levels. NCATE is recognized for this purpose by the U.S. Department of Education. The essential function of accreditation is to provide professional judgment of the quality of the education unit and to encourage continuous improvement of the unit. Accreditation is the process by which the profession of teaching declares its expectations for teacher education and applies these expectations to institutions that prepare members of the profession (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1995).

14. National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC): Established to assist individual states in developing essential standards

required for the initial professional license and entry into the teaching profession. NASDTEC has developed a set of outcome-based standards and portfolio assessment for elementary, middle grades and high school levels (Buttery, 1994).

Significance of the Study

As long as the teacher impacts the student's education in the classroom, there will be questions of what constitutes a good teacher and what credentials should be required of those who teach. As long as there are both public and private schools, there will be contention over who has the authority in developing the standards by which a teacher is prepared, licensed, or certified for a teaching position. This study was designed to define cultural categories and identify themes of commonality and themes of differences between the two cultures of public education and private education regarding teacher certification. This study can provide beneficial information to facilitate mutual understandings and alleviate tensions and conflicts between the two educational cultures. It could also prove to be useful data for evaluation regarding policy development and provide a knowledge base for collaboration between public and private policymakers for the future development of professional standards and certificate requirements for teachers involved in both cultural constructions. The resulting "thick" description of the study could be a source of information for future studies regarding teacher qualifications in both public and private education cultures.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I is an introduction to the background of the problem, which has been identified as the conflict between two cultures regarding teacher certification. One culture represents the state and public educational system, the other the construct of private schools. One culture has set and established policy and developed requirements for teacher certification, which in some cases has been in conflict with the assumptions of the other culture. Chapter I also includes the purpose of the study, which is to identify the commonalities, differences, and categories of consensus that could affect future research and policy development.

Chapter II is a review of the literature related to the history and the evolution of the teacher-certification concept as well as the educational literature related to the questions: What makes a good teacher and how does the teacher affect quality education? The literature review also includes the examination of literature regarding teacher certification designated from the two cultural perspectives: public education policy and private education practice and philosophy. The literature review also investigates the current considerations of education leaders regarding the development of the teaching profession and teacher certification in light of contemporary national school reforms, including alternative routes to certification and performance-based licensing.

Chapter III presents the method used to gain access to the cultural categories and assumptions of two distinct educational worlds: public education and private education. This chapter defines the qualitative study, in particular the "long interview," as a means of gaining access to the categories and assumptions of a culture. This method of research

allows the investigator into the mental world of the individual, to glimpse the categories and logic by which he or she sees that culture (McCracken, 1988).

McCracken's (1988) methods for conducting and gathering data from the qualitative long interview were used to interview eight professional educators involved in public education and five professional educators from the private school sector. This method allowed for identifying the cultural categories and logic by which each of the individuals interviewed regards the world of teacher certification.

Chapter IV is a presentation of the interview results and is designed to define the cultural categories discovered during the interview process. Cultural categories were matched with information from the literature review to further identify themes that were then analyzed. Once themes were organized, interrelationships were distinguished in order to introduce the theses regarding categories of commonality, conflict, and possible categories of consensus between state public education policies regarding teacher certification and those of the private school sector.

Chapter V contains the focus of the study and restates the themes developed from the cultural categories that were uncovered during the interviews. The cultural categories of the interview data became the analytic categories while concluding assumptions were formulated into scholarly conclusions. Conclusions were drawn regarding the implications for future policy development and further research into what constitutes a good teacher and what requisites should be required for teacher certification.

Chapter V includes a summary of the study and a statement of the conclusions, outlines recommendations for practice, provides recommendations for further research, and concludes with implications of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Individual states have been delegated with the responsibility of education within their borders. This responsibility has included identifying the qualifying standards for licensing or certifying teachers. In most states the certifying of teachers is a prerequisite for teaching in a public school, but not necessarily in a private school. In states where there is little or no regulation of private schools, private schools may choose to employ individuals who do not hold state teaching certificates. The practice of hiring non-degreed teachers as a policy has come into question due to the fact that there are educators who contend that states should require all teachers, whether in public or private education, to be prepared and licensed for teaching according to a single state standard (Lloyd, 1991). The concern of employing certified teachers versus noncertified teachers has not only been asked in relation to private schools but is asked also within the public school arena as teacher shortages have created the need for alternative methods of placing teachers in the classrooms. The issue of teacher certification first requires a look at the rationale for considering teaching as a profession and the need to maintain quality control over the process as is the common practice in other traditional professions. If teaching is to be

considered a profession, then the question is asked: Should all those who teach be required to hold a teacher's certificate, including those teaching in private schools?

Teacher licensing policies and practice have been a major point of discussion in education for many years. Discussion among educators revolves around what constitutes a "good teacher," what should be required for teacher preparation, what mandates should there be for certification requirements, and how do these relate to the establishment of teaching as a profession. Alternative methods to teacher certification and licensing policies have had and will continue to have an even greater impact on both private and public schools due to the predicted shortage of qualified teachers (Soltis, 1987) and the decline in the number of prospective teachers in undergraduate programs (Feistritzer, 1984). Alternative certification programs have proven to be one way of increasing the supply of qualified teachers. Alternative certificates could serve as a means for adults outside the teaching arena who are willing to make career transitions to teaching if there were feasible alternative certification programs available (MacDonald, Manning & Gable, 1994).

Teacher Certification Defined

LaBue (1960) defines teacher certification as serving two major purposes. The first is to assist in providing the best education possible for children. A teaching certificate is an attempt to guarantee that public school teachers are qualified to perform the duties of teaching. Certification is based on the assumption that the nature and quality of education is determined largely by the ability and preparation of the individuals seeking to become teachers. LaBue continues to explain that the certification process is a means for

improving classroom instruction and provides a method for states to bring about professional improvement among teachers. In addition, LaBue claims that certification provides a basis for the development of teacher education programs in colleges and universities, and to a degree, certification also gives an indication of the status and quality of educational leadership in a particular state.

The second purpose of certification identified by LaBue (1960) is that it is protective in nature. Certification serves as a protection to the teaching profession against unfair job competition from unethical, incompetent, or improperly prepared teachers. LaBue states: "Certification regulations and policies, properly formulated and applied, enhance the quality of American education and contribute to the building of a universally recognized teaching profession" (p. 48).

Kinney (1964) characterizes certification as "a process of legal sanction, authorizing the holder of a credential to perform specific services in the public schools of the state. Its widely accepted purpose is to establish and maintain standards for the preparation and employment of persons who teach or render certain nonteaching services in the schools" (p. 3). Kinney writes that any discussion of certification is assured of an attentive audience and that any proposal to revise teacher certification requirements will likely arouse both interest and opposition. Teachers, as well as the public, view certification as the primary safeguard for the quality of America's educational program. Kinney, in defining certification explains:

> The American public has always been concerned for the quality of its schools and of the teachers who staff the classrooms. They see in certification the guarantee that teachers and administrators are properly prepared, and that each is assigned to the duties that are appropriate to his preparation. Any apparent lack of scholarship or of professional competence, or any instance of inappropriate assignment of staff, is likely

> to create alarm and bring forth proposals for tightening of certification requirements. Thus certification is valued not only as a guarantee of quality, but as an instrument for direct action by the public when it undertakes to improve the educational program. (p. 4)

Others define teacher certification as a "bulwark of artificial requirements" created by the eduction profession to establish and maintain a monopoly for the teachers in the public schools. One of the common examples used to defend this point of view is to name some famous scholar, scientist, artist, or other professional who might have much to offer as a teacher but is excluded from the classroom because they cannot meet the unrealistic certification requirements (Kinney, 1964). Others criticize certification practices because of the limitations they impose on the implementation of recommendations for improving education. It is believed that there is a conspiracy entrenched behind certification involving the teacher preparation institutions and the state departments of education. Kinney gives an example of this view of certification as defined by one critic as:

> . . . one of the neatest bureaucratic machines ever created by any professional group in any country anywhere since the priesthood of ancient Egypt. In nearly every state today a teacher or principal cannot work in public schools without certification or license, which can be obtained only by taking courses under a faculty of education. (p. 5)

Ravitch (1985) points out:

> For years, critics of education have heaped scorn on schools of education and on the required education courses that prospective teachers must take. Thirty years ago, critics . . . charged that entry to the teaching profession was controlled by an 'interlocking directorate' made up of schools of education, bureaucrats in state education departments, and teacher associations, and the hurdles these groups erected (such as 'Mickey Mouse' courses in educational theory and methods) excluded talented people from the public schools. Since the early 1950s was a time of baby boom and teacher shortage, nothing much came of the grumbling, and the agencies of certification and accreditation are, if anything even more powerful today. (p. 94)

Historical Perspectives of Teacher Certification

An historical perspective of the development of the teacher certification programs in the United States provides the background for a review of the issues involved in state teacher-certification policies as contrasted to the policies of private school teacher employment. During the early days of this nation the colonial governments allowed private individuals and religious groups to establish schools of their own. This was due in part to the lack of tax support and to the wishes of numerous religious groups demanding freedom to educate children in their own way. Neither the federal government nor state government were involved in the supervision of the schools. These schools were built and financed by local churches (Pulliam, 1991). Teachers in these schools many times were itinerant teachers. Others were so called "indentured white servants," poor men or even criminals sent over from England and sold for a number of years of labor to pay for their passage and then hired out by their purchasers to conduct a school; the proceeds then went to the owners (Cubberley, 1919). Religious faith was of major concern in the qualifying of teachers in the church-related schools. In New England interviews were conducted by the local minister to see that they were "sound in the faith;" little else seemed to matter. In most cases, an examination to license or "allow" a person to teach was an informal procedure concerned with the candidate's moral character and religious orthodoxy rather than his or her intellectual or educational preparation (LaBue, 1960). In the parochial schools to the south there was a connection with a home church in continental Europe where the licensing of teachers frequently came from a church synod or a bishop in the homeland (Cubberley, 1919).

A modicum of learning was of course assumed on the part of the applicant, but this was not especially questioned. The great consideration was that the teacher should adhere closely to the tenets of the particular church and should abstain from attendance upon the services of any other church. For example, the Bishop of London issued the license to teach in schools under the direction of the English Church in the colonies. To hold such a license the applicant must conform to the Church liturgy and must have received the Sacrament in some Anglican church within a year. For attending any other form of worship the applicant was usually subject to imprisonment and disbarment from teaching. Such conditions illustrate the intense religious motive in all instruction. Had there not been churches to recruit for and a feeling of the deep importance of church membership, there would have been little need for schools. It was the one compelling motive of the time for maintaining them (Cubberley, 1919, p. 35).

Attempts at licensing teachers in the colonies met with little success. This was partially due to the variations in colonial circumstances and religious differences that complicated the licensing task. "In general, 'license' meant permission to teach and was not concerned with the determination of teacher competency as indicated by training or experience" (LaBue, 1960, p. 149). Cressman and Benda (1956) point out that in the earliest days of the development of the American public school system there were very few, if any, requirements for teachers actually set in the laws of the various states. These authors share that few people had any real vision of the future extent of public education and the great part the states would play in the control and direction of it. It was through the local community boards that requirements for teachers were set up locally. These requirements had largely to do with such matters as the ability to discipline, the possession

of sufficient knowledge to teach the fundamentals, and certain standards of character. These qualities were usually determined through simple interviews by a lay board, a few questions involving academics, and written recommendations of former employers (Cressman & Benda, 1956).

Private academies were not successful in training teachers and did not satisfy educational leaders such as Henry Barnard and Charles Brooks. Both of these individuals began to campaign for state normal schools for the education of future teachers (Pulliam, 1991). The training programs of the first normal schools were usually a year in duration. In Massachusetts, at the end of this preparation, a "certificate of qualification" was awarded to each of the students who completed the program successfully. Although the certificate was not a license in the legal sense, it was a forerunner of accepting college degrees as evidence for legal certification (LaBue, 1960). The first American state normal school began in 1839 in Lexington, Massachusetts, and by 1860 there were only twelve such schools in the states (Cubberley, 1919). Cubberley (1919) depicts the state of the teaching profession in the following description:

> Our best teachers were graduates of the academies and the rising high schools, and the masters in the larger cities of the East were nearly always well educated men, but the great mass of the teachers had little education beyond that of the schools they themselves taught. Terms were short, wages low and paid in part through 'boarding-around' arrangements, and professional standards, outside a few cities, were almost completely absent. In place of the written examination in many subjects or the professional training now quite generally demanded for the teacher's certificate, in the earlier period teachers were given a short personal examination 'in regard to moral character, learning, and ability to teach school.' Not being satisfied with such requirements, the cities were early permitted to conduct separate examinations for the teachers they employed. It was customary in rural districts to hold both a summer and a winter term, and to contract separately for each. Women frequently taught in the summer, but the teachers in the winter were practically always men.

> The cities then, as since, drew the best of the teachers, both in training and character. In the rural districts the teachers were men who worked on the farms or at day labor in the summer, and frequently left much to be desired. Contracts and rules of the time not infrequently required that the teacher conduct himself properly and 'refrain from all spirituous liquors while engaged in this school, and not to enter the school house when intoxicated, not to lose time through such intemperance.' On the contrary, many schoolmasters of the time were excellent drill masters and kind of heart, and well merited. . . . (pp. 242-243)

By 1860, the authority of certifying teachers had begun to change from the county to the authority of state officials. During the years following the Civil War there was a vast expansion at every level of American education. There was a rapid increase in elementary school enrollments as well as growth in secondary education. As a result of the rapid expansion of public education there was an increased effort to provide more and better schools for teacher education. This was reflected in the expansion of the normal school idea, the curricula and the establishment of teachers colleges, departments of education, and schools of education in colleges and universities. The increased concern with teacher certification was demonstrated in 1906 with the first comprehensive study of teacher certification reported in the *National Society for the Scientific Study of Education* (LaBue, 1960).

Teacher certification practices developed and expanded from 1860 to 1910 with growth in the power of state boards of education. There were a number of developments and trends in teacher certification, which included:

1. A gradual change in the authority for certification from local administrative units to the state level.
2. The appearance of graded certificates.
3. The issuance of life certificates.
4. The shifting of examinations for certificates from oral inquiry to locally prepared written examinations and finally to state-prepared examinations, locally administrated.

5. The beginning of change in the primary basis for certification from examinations in the direction of meeting certain degree and course requirements.
6. The appearance of differentiated or specialized certificates with statewide validity.
7. An initial interest in the reciprocal recognition of certificates on an interstate basis. (LaBue, 1960, p. 153)

After 1910, along with the continued growth in public education and the growing influence of state education departments, the history of improvement in teacher education and certification was found in the work of educational associations. These associations included the American Association of Teachers Colleges, which was organized in 1917 and merged with the National Council of State Normal School Presidents and Principals in 1925. The Department of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges then became a department of the National Education Association. In 1948, the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education and the National Association of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts merged with the American Association of Teachers Colleges to create the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). The AACTE, in 1954, turned its attention to issues related to improvement of standards for teacher education. It was also in 1954 that the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) began accrediting teacher-education institutions. In 1946, the National Education Association established the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS). The NCTEPS was charged with the responsibility of ". . . developing and carrying forward a continuing program for the profession, matters of recruitment, selection , preparation, and advancement of professional standards, including standards for institutions which prepare teachers" (LaBue, 1960, p. 166).

The Development of State Teacher Certification Programs

Goodlad (1990) writes that historically, the "gates" for those who had wanted to teach had been easy to open. These easy-swinging gates had created a problem of incompetent teachers, which were sometimes worse than other times, depending on the need to fill a classroom with a teacher. Goodlad shows that this was the case in Massachusetts during the 1830s due to an urgent need for more teachers; however, with the need came the pleas for state provisions for better teacher preparation.

The states had found themselves with a set of internally conflicting demands: Improve quality, but guarantee a body (a teacher) in every public school classroom. Periodic severe shortages of teachers were much more obvious and compelling than the need for higher quality—especially during such shortages, thus the states found it necessary to keep the gates unlatched.

The internal inconsistency involved in endeavoring to provide simultaneously some measure of quality assurance to the public and a teacher in every classroom shows up particularly in the state's confusion over certifying and licensing. For a host of reasons embedded primarily in the early history of American public schooling—no special requirements for teachers, even decades after specialized preparation, was offered. States moved slowly to establish anything resembling a license for teachers. It was believed that virtues such as piety and hard work were easily attested to in the community. Consequently, certification, when it came, was tied to a few common denominators in the preparation of curriculum, not to indicators of skills and knowledge possessed. These

curricular domains were increased and diversified over time, making it increasingly difficult for state officials to determine the range of acceptable options. Channels of communication designed to clarify the fit between certification requirements and teacher education curricula emerged naturally out of necessity (Goodlad, 1990, pp. 94-95).

For years a shortage of teachers created a reluctance to enforce general standards of certification. Many of the rural teachers were given certificates based on passing examinations or on one or two years of college. It was later that normal schools evolved into four-year colleges and that universities began to develop colleges of education. In 1920 there were 45 colleges for teachers, and by 1940 there were at least 160 colleges where students could earn a teaching degree. It was during the Depression years that the United States experienced its first oversupply of teachers. This condition gave rise to setting higher minimum standards for teachers. After World War II most of the teachers were prepared with a liberal college education that included specialized knowledge in the field to be taught. Professional courses of methods and psychology and practice teaching became a part of the college teacher-education curriculum (Pulliam, 1991).

It was as the United States moved into the twentieth century that the plan of centralizing the granting of teachers' certificates was given more and more into the hands of the individual state departments of education. At one time the responsibility for teacher licensing was left to the local or county school officials. It is now under state authority in every state (Office of Nonpublic Education U.S. Department of Education, 1995). The granting of a teacher license was done sometimes by mere suggestions to the local officers. In some cases licensing was done by following detailed instructions; later many states took over the full function of defining the requirements for and the granting of

teaching certificates. A teacher's certificate is a license to practice and since public school teachers are, to a considerable extent, employees of the state, there was much logic for the acceptance of the function of certification by this unit of the government (Cressman & Benda, 1956).

Ford (1992) identifies the purpose given in state statutes for requiring certification of teachers is generally couched in terms related to ensuring the competent education of the children of the state. He points out that not all states give a purpose. Florida, Montana, and Oklahoma are examples of states that specify in their statues why certification of teachers is necessary.

Florida's code has a separate section in its law to define the reasons it requires teacher certification for those who teach in the public schools. It states:

> The purpose of school personnel certification is to protect the educational interests of students, parents, and the public at large by assuring that teachers in this state are professionally qualified. In fulfillment of its duty to the citizens of this state, the Legislature has established certification requirements. . . . (Ford, 1992, p. 90)

Montana's statutes give two reasons for the establishment of the teacher-certification program: (a) "to provide quality education uniformly throughout the state," and (b) "to maintain appropriate professional standards" (Ford, 1992, p. 91).

Oklahoma's Legislature sees certification as evidence of a teacher's qualification to teach children in the state with children as the focus of attention, as found in Title 70, Article 6 of the Oklahoma Statutes Annotated:

> It is hereby declared to be the intent of the Legislature to establish qualification of teachers in the accredited schools of the state through licensing and certification requirements to ensure that the education of the children of Oklahoma will be provided by teacher of demonstrated ability. (Ford, 1992, p. 90)

Initiated in 1969, the Interstate Reciprocity Compact provides for graduates of approved teacher education programs in one of the participating states to be granted a teaching-certificate in another participating state. By 1986, 37 states had passed reciprocity legislation and 33 state superintendents had signed legal contracts to allow the granting of certificates and facilitate the movement of teachers across state lines ("Teacher Certification," 1986).

Kinney (1964) concludes that the state's interest in requiring certification of teachers is that the public views certifications an indispensable safeguard of quality education.

A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform

In 1981, Secretary of Education T. H. Bell created the National Commission on Excellence in Education to examine the quality of education in the United States and to make a report to the Nation. The Commission was created as a result of the Secretary's concern about the widespread public perception that something was seriously remiss in the educational system. When completed, the Commission's report, *A Nation at Risk (1984)*, ignited a major debate over excellence in education and set in motion policy- making decisions that have greatly impacted educational reform for the Nation. These reforms have included the issues of teacher preparation, training, development, and certification.

The Commission's charter was directed to pay particular attention to teenage youth by focusing on high school education. Selective attention was also given to the formative years spent in elementary schools, to higher education, and to vocational and technical programs. To do this, the Commission relied on several sources of information one of

which was the commissioning of experts to write papers on a variety of educational issues (*A Nation at Risk, 1984*). One of the papers commissioned was *Certification and Accreditation: Background, Issue Analysis, and Recommendations (1982).*

In this paper, Gardner and Palmer (1982) provide an analysis of issues concerning the certification of teachers and the accreditation and approval of teacher-education institutions in the United States. The paper clarifies generally accepted definitions of certification, licensure, and accreditation. It also gives a historical overview of the state's role in controlling licensure and the growth of the National Education Association (NEA) and the establishment of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Key issues regarding certification and accreditation are outlined in the paper with major strategies for improvement including the following:

1. certification based on approved programs or qualifying examinations
2. specific rules governing college programs and general certification
3. renewal of teaching licenses
4. incompetent teachers or low quality programs
5. rule-making process
6. attraction of more academically able students
7. social needs to recruit people from protected groups
8. five year or longer teacher education programs
9. teacher supply and demand
10. duplicate and redundant program review standards or procedures.

Gardner and Palmer (1982) report that the teacher-certification process tends to dictate the assignment of teachers in schools. Pointing out the requirements for

credentialing are so specific that the local administrators and school boards have little flexibility in assigning their teachers. "In effect the state licensing system does the assigning. While this provides the public assurance that a qualified person fills every position, it may create inefficiencies or unduly curtail a school curriculum" (p. 18).

Gardner and Palmer (1982) also point out that teacher certification is more akin to the civil service system rather than to professional licensure. "Far more than for other professions requiring state licensing, state control of certification in professional education has taken on what could be called a 'civil service' dimension rather than a 'professional' dimension" (p. 18). Gardner et al. explain that in other fields the profession is responsible for establishing and controlling the preparation of standards for that profession. Typically in other professions the colleges are responsible for developing training programs and a board of the profession reviews and accredits programs, screens candidates, and enforces the standards. Generally, the teacher certification procedure is different than that which is found in the fields of medicine, law, and pharmacy.

Professional licensure generally signifies that an individual has qualified to practice in a broad category of activities identified by such terms as "architecture" or "dentistry." However, in education, certification does not qualify an individual to teach in general, rather to teach just a certain subject or subjects to students of certain ages. This falls short of being a badge of membership in a profession. In addition, the state agency in charge of the certification process is not responsible to the profession. It is the state legislatures that are really in control of teacher certification although a state department of public instruction may be the agent that carries out the legislative mandates (Gardner et al., 1982).

> As a consequence of these factors, we believe that certification in professional education is more akin to the civil service system than it is to professional licensure. It is designed to establish and maintain standards for preparation and employment of public school personnel, not to screen candidates for admission to a profession. While it is easy to point out problems inevitably associated with state legislatures controlling the specifics of teacher certification, it must also be recognized that public education is a vital state function of great import for the citizens of any state. It is not something that legislators will ignore, particularly if the public perceives that teachers are ineffective or schools are not functioning well. (Gardner et al., 1982, p. 19)

Gardner and Palmer (1982) concluded:

> While statements of standards are essential to define the nature of the teaching field and the competencies desired, they do not in themselves assure a high level of performance by classroom teachers. They can be very helpful in eliminating obvious incompetence, and in some states changes are needed to assure that that occurs. On the other hand, increasingly detailed sets of qualifications for teaching appear to have little relationship to the quality of teaching. (p. 47)

> While we believe that changes in certification and accreditation processes alone will not make fundamental improvements in the quality of teachers and teacher education, alterations in these processes are necessary if movement is to be made toward the basic goals. (p. 47)

Gardner and Palmer (1982) made eight recommendations to the National Commission on Excellence in Education for the improvement of teacher certification and accreditation of teacher preparation programs. Three of the recommendations concerned accreditation while five involved issues of teacher certification. The following is a listing of those five recommendations regarding teacher certification:

> 1. The tendency in recent years to increase the specific course requirements that must be met by prospective teachers should be halted. General standards that require a reasonable level of academic accomplishment in both general education and pedagogy are needed to eliminate the incompetent. Beyond that there is no evidence that extremely elaborate and restrictive sets of requirements contribute to teacher effectiveness in the classroom.

> 2. Attention must be given to the identification of teacher competence and how it may be assessed. Evaluation specialists should be encouraged and supported in efforts to develop more appropriate and reliable assessment instruments and processes than now exist.

3. The states should seriously consider requiring an examination of all entry-level teachers, covering both their subject matter preparation and their principles of pedagogy. This examination should be normed on a national population so comparisons may be made between and among states. Such tests could be constructed by an individual state or the National Teacher Examination could be used.

4. The states should also consider seriously requiring an internship experience of at least one full year of teaching under the careful supervision of college supervisor and master teacher. Such a requirement is not likely to be effective unless the intern has time to learn (e.g., reduced teaching responsibilities), and provision for same should be included.

5. States should consider putting all certification under a "sunset" arrangement; that is, issue an initial certificate for a short period of time and, at the end of that period, issue a subsequent license only upon demonstration of competent teaching. (pp. 48-49)

Trends in Teacher Certification and the Development of a Profession

New trends in state licensing are taking place that will dramatically impact teacher certification programs as well as teacher preparation. Differences between state licensing systems have caused educators to question the quality assurance of teaching as a profession throughout the United States. A shortage of teachers has forced many states to seek alternative means by which to certify teachers and has caused questions as to whether these alternative routes are putting poorly prepared teachers into the classrooms. New methods of assessment and licensing are being developed that will profoundly change the way that teachers will be prepared. There will be changes in licensure standards that will change preparation standards and practices. Teacher licensing will increasingly focus on performance, causing the standards for teacher certificate requirements to change (Wise, 1994).

Wise (1994) points out that licensing is one of the major forms of quality assurance for a profession and that it is the official recognition by a state agency that an individual has met state requirements to practice a profession. Spurred by reports of how students in other countries are out performing the students in the United States, legislatures over the past decade have had teacher certification policy as a major agenda item. Wise (1994) states that many thought it would be a quick fix to improve education. They claimed that state licensing policies were, to a large extent, accommodating this view. Teacher licensing underwent a "first wave" of piecemeal and incremental reform efforts in the 1980s. Wise (1994) says it was during this time that over 1,000 pieces of state legislation were developed with only a fraction of those implemented. Forty-one states now require a test for initial licensure, and the majority of states have more specific standards than they did 15 years ago (Wise, 1994). Wise (1994) continues in his article:

> But the public and policy leaders realize that for all of these incremental efforts and separate pieces of legislation, there has not been much change in teaching and learning in that span of time. Some efforts have shown promise, but these have not been mainstreamed into the bureaucracy and so remain on the fringe. The licensing tests required are still tests of basic skills and general knowledge geared to minimums. And at last count, 42 states have developed alternative routes to licensure designed to circumvent the standards and admissions requirements that they do have. (p. 1)

The norms for teacher licensure that have guided educational practice are quickly being swept away with the tidal wave of change. Existing state regulations regarding teacher licensure have proved not to be adequate; this requires a majority of states to create emergency routes for gaining a license to teach in order to place teachers in areas experiencing shortages. Wise (1994) states that there are few defenders of state "certification." He also points out that it "has been mistakenly called" certification, as it is really a licensing system (Wise, 1994, p. 3). Buttery (1994) states that the term

"licensure" is the term of choice used for those teachers who are credentialed to teach at the starting level and that in terms of the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), "certification" will require qualifications beyond those regulations mandated for license. Most states have used the term certification rather than licensing to describe the credentialed teacher, however, there appears to be a transition in terminology to use licensing in terms of the state mandates and certification in terms of professional standards beyond state requirements (Buttery, 1994).

Goodlad (1990) states that the first step is to define the differences between the terms licensing, certifying, and accrediting. He believes that the public has a stake in all three. He contends that there is to be varying degrees of authority and responsibility over each. It is Goodlad's contention that the state and the general public have the paramount interest in licensing. Licensing denotes only minimum competency and is not an indicator or predictor of human behavior. Goodlad (1990) makes the distinction between licensing, certifying, and accrediting in the following:

> A license attests that someone meets standards designed to protect the public; a certificate attests to satisfactory completion of a preparation program; accreditation attests that a program meets conditions deemed necessary by the profession. The three together, attended to separately, provide the best assurance we now have that a teacher is competent. With these three sets of requirements met, certification by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards would provide the capstone. (p. 302)

Development of National Teacher Standards and Certification

Along with alternative or emergency certificates for placing teachers in the classroom, many educators are advocating the establishment of a national teacher credential as a path

for teacher licensing similar to that of other professions, such as attorneys, doctors and psychologists. In most of the professions there is a three-part system of induction into that arena: education, experience and examination. In these professions, individuals gain license to practice by first completing an accredited program of study, followed by extensive practice, followed by a rigorous examination to demonstrate competency (Wise, 1994). Wise (1994) promotes the establishment of teaching as a profession through the efforts of the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) with the components of portfolios, certification center assessment activities, and various types of essay examinations designed to demonstrate knowledge and skill. This would parallel the efforts of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), which was created by the Council of Chief State School Officers to establish a set of common licensing standards, design new methods of assessment, and increase professional support of new teachers (Wise, 1994).

In 1983, the report of the President's National Commision of Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk*, heightened public concern for initiating reforms in education. Three years later, the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, in its report, *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century*, called for the establishment of a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). The following year the NBPTS was created. The NBPTS is governed by a 63-member board representing the primary stakeholders in education. Teachers make up the majority of the board and NBTS is a private, nonprofit organization whose support comes from foundations, corporate grants, and federal funding (Baratz-Snowden, 1992). The mission of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards is to establish high and rigorous standards for what

accomplished teachers should know and be able to do, to develop and operate a national voluntary system to assess, and certify teachers who meet these standards (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1994).

The National Board believes that teaching is at the heart of education, and that the single most important action that the nation can take to improve schools is to strengthen teaching. NBPTS' goal then is a national certification system that reliably identifies teachers who meet high and rigorous standards. Unlike physicians, architiects, or accountants, teachers have not codified the knowledge, skills, and characteristics that define accomplished teaching practice. Consequently, there are misconceptions about what constitutes good teaching (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1994). The National Board presents this statement:

> Offered on a voluntary basis, National Board Certification of experienced teachers intended to complement, not replace, state systems of mandatory licensure for beginning teachers. State licensing systems set entry level standards to protect the public interest and to assure that a teacher will do no harm. Professional certification takes the next step to provide assurance of high-quality practice. (p. 2)

The National Board will verify accomplished teaching. Each state, school district, and school will decide how best to capitalize on National Board Certification as it designs instructional arrangements to promote student learning and support professional practice. While conferring National Board Certifciation on individual teachers will be a decision taken on a case-by-case basis, these singular transactions will have a profound cumulative impact on American education (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1994, p. 2).

Another trend that has developed within the past few years to keep teachers current in the profession is the move away from lifetime certificates and to require professional

development plans to maintain a valid license. The vast majority of states no longer grant licenses for life (Burke, 1994). Burke shares that a recent survey conducted by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) identified only five states that still grant lifetime licenses (NASDTEC, 1994). Most states are now requiring regular renewals with some measure of professional growth or development as a criterion for the renewal of the teaching certificate. Burke points out that this has helped to establish the position that teachers must be life-long learners. He claims that what is needed in the future is a strategic plan for growth activities to be related to the schools' and the teachers' needs, and he believes that the state licensing program can and should play a part in this in the future.

Burke (1994) believes that since all teachers will be continuous learners in the future, not only by choice but also by state requirement, it would be advantageous to work with teacher preparation institutions and professional associations to map out potential career plans and paths for the in-service teaching profession. He proposes several ways to complete this:

1. Expanded Career Paths
   We know that teachers will be going back to school. Why don't we design appropriate alternative career paths for them to follow?

2. Meeting State or National Initiatives
   If we want teachers to be current in the latest state or national initiatives, why not require and reward growth experiences in these areas?

3. Remedial Growth Plans
   If teaching deficiencies are identified, why not tie licensing to the successful completion of a growth plan to overcome the deficiencies? (Burke, 1994, pp. 16-17)

Minnesota's Future Teacher Standards

In a desire to increase the quality of teachers and assist in the transformation of teaching as a profession, the Minnesota Board of Teaching selected the RAND Center for the Study of the Teaching Profession to assist in the development of a new design for the evaluating of teaching skills of beginning teachers. In the RAND report, "Licensing Teachers—Design for Teaching Profession" (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1987), argument is made for the transformation of teaching into a profession similar to other occupations. The primary rationale given was the need to establish quality control over a service provided to a client who inevitably knew less than the provider. The report stated that it is relatively easy to assess basic skills and academic knowledge, but evaluating teaching skills is a far more complex and less understood endeavor. The RAND report presented a new approach to appraise the performance of teachers and adapted a design for teacher licensing from that of other professions (Wise, et al., 1987).

The RAND report also gave an overview of the requirements for licensing in other professions such as medicine, law, architecture, and engineering to give support for a more professionalization of the teaching field. The report points out that the professions have created an arrangement with states in which they have been granted the right and the obligation to control the quality of their members. These measures have helped to assure the public and the other professionals that members are qualified to practice and should be licensed to practice (Wise, et al., 1987). In addressing the issue of professional licensing the report stated, "The basis for professionalism is a guarantee to the public that all entrants to the profession have adequately mastered the basic knowledge and skills needed

to perform responsibly before they are licensed to practice independently" (Wise, et al., 1987, p. vi).

The Task Force on Teacher Education for Minnesota's Future developed a set of standards to guide teacher education and the licensing system. The Task Force listed three main areas for the attributes of effective teachers. These included:

> . . . the dispositions that beginning teachers should have; the set of teaching skills they should have, including the ability to make complex, elaborate, and multiple decisions; and the knowledge they must have. . . . In addition, there is a growing consensus that teachers should be liberally educated and that they should have a major in the subject that they will teach. . . . Furthermore, prospective teachers should know about human development, the psychology of learning, and pedagogy. (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1987, p. ix)

Improving Teacher Education: The Holmes Group Reports

Realizing the need for reforming teacher education and the restructuring of the teaching profession many reports have been written. Three such studies have been produced by the Holmes Group. The Holmes Group is a consortium of nearly 100 education deans and chief academic officers from major American research universities committed to making programs of teacher preparation more rigorous and more connected to liberal arts education, to research on learning and teaching, and to wise practice in teacher education (Holmes, 1990). The Holmes Group was incorporated in 1986 to "enhance the quality of schooling, through research and development and the preparation of career professionals in teaching" (Holmes, 1990, p. vii). To promote a vision of improving schools through schools of education and supporting the rising concept of

teaching as a profession, the Holmes Group has released three reports over the past 10 years:

1. *Tomorrow's Teachers* (Holmes, 1986)
2. *Tomorrow's Schools* (Holmes, 1990)
3. *Tomorrow's Schools of Education* (Holmes, 1995)

The First Report: *Tomorrow's Teachers*

The first Holmes Group Report, *Tomorrow's Teachers* (Holmes, 1986), along with the Carnegie Foundation's report, *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century: The Report of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession* (Carnegie, 1986) address the issue of creating higher standards for the development of teaching as a profession as well as improving career opportunities through differentiated staffing. *Tomorrow's Teachers* (1986) states that the traditions, norms of preparation, and conditions of work in schools have severely hindered efforts to improve the quality of teaching and that teaching's traditional career structure has become increasingly dysfunctional in the face of social and demographic realities. The report concludes that there must be a change in the quality of teaching and teacher education (Soltis, 1987).

Soltis (1987) reports that there are two main themes that run throughout *Tomorrow's Teachers*. He points out that the reform of teacher education and of the teaching profession means focusing on teaching and taking seriously two assumptions:

> . . . first, that the best educator is one who is best educated, and second, that the real professional is one who is permitted and encouraged to use expert knowledge and skill autonomously in the intelligent and responsible delivery of high-level services. (p. 1)

Sedlak (1987) notes that the Holmes Group in *Tomorrow's Teachers* showed that there is a need for change in the career structure of recruitment, preparation, and retention of teachers. He writes:

> Employment options for women and minorities have expanded dramatically over the past twenty years. Coupled with increasing stress on the job and a decline in real purchasing power, such opportunities accelerated the defection of competent teachers from the profession and discouraged many promising prospective teachers from ever entering it. The imminent shortage of qualified teachers makes our response to the problems of recruitment, preparation, induction, and retention more critical than at any point in our nation's history. For the first time, the desirability of a teaching career will be tested in an open labor market. If we respond as we have in the past by relying on emergency certificates and spurious credentials, unprecedented numbers of incompetent teachers will be hired. Circumstances will keep them in the classroom. Their abilities and posture toward professional responsibility will shape the norms and effects of teaching for years to come.
>
> Based on this understanding of the problems associated with the prevailing career structure in teaching, the Holmes Group endorses the concept of differentiated staffing in order to improve the quality, engagement, and commitment of the teaching force. To attract, prepare, and retain a truly competent teaching force, intellectually capable adults must have more flexible access to the classroom. We must counteract the confining role definition for teachers that discourages many effective practitioners from remaining in their classrooms. (pp. 6-7)

Tomorrow's Teachers (1986) stated that to improve teaching's attraction and retention, it would require a differentiated professional teaching force able to respond to the opportunities provided by a staged career that would make and reward formal distinctions about responsibilities and degrees of autonomy. The report suggests that differentiating the teaching career would be advantageous to individuals, public schools, and professional schools of education. The proposal of a differentiated profession would be built on three distinctive groups of practitioners:

1. Instructors: would be a bright, well-educated group of adults interested in teaching a specific subject without making a career commitment to teaching. Because of their limited exposure to professional knowledge, instructors would be helped and supervised.

2. Professional Teacher: would be adults who want to invest fully in a teaching career. These professional teachers would constitute the profession's backbone, deserve working conditions that support sustained success. Unlike instructors, professional teacher would be certified as fully autonomous practitioners, entitled to exercise classroom duties without supervision. They would be specialists in both subject matter and pedagogy.

3. Career Professionals: would be teachers who would appreciate and benefit from alternatives to their work directly with children. Interested more broadly in educational policy and improvement, they would like to collaborate with other adults on problems related to school effectiveness. These career professionals would play a key role in revitalizing the teaching profession (Soltis, 1987).

In reviewing the first Holmes Group Report, Sedlak (1987) shares that teaching and teacher education have an obligation to avoid the pitfalls of credentialism. He states that education must resist the temptation to enrich itself as other occupations have done by offering mediocre performance behind a facade of higher credentials. "We cannot pretend that raising credential standards for teachers is the same as improving teaching" (Sedlak, 1987, p. 14). Sedlak believes that there are several forms of irresponsible credentialism of which the teaching profession must be aware. One he calls *pseudo-credentialism*: bestowing credentials regardless of demonstrated ability. Because of state-imposed

continuing certification requirements, teachers simply add courses without rethinking the value of such courses. Regardless of the form is takes, pseudo-credentialism is a powerful weapon in the arsenal of opportunistic professionalization and must be challenged. However, Sedlak warns that just because there is an abuse this should not lead to the rejection of professional education and certification. He states that we cannot replace them with the assumption that those who know something can automatically teach. Sedlak (1987) points out that:

> Opening the entitlement to teach to the open market—one response to the disenchantment with the abuse of existing credentials—would not solve the problem of teacher quality. Indeed, as noted above, deregulation, as this strategy is called would aggravate the learning difficulties of many children. (p. 14)

Key factors of the report have been analyzed by Feinberg (cited in Soltis, 1987) in regard to the development of teaching as a profession. He relates that the Holmes Group has proposed the abolishment of the undergraduate teacher education programs, to require all future teachers to have a liberal arts major and to reestablish teacher education as a graduate program. The report also attempts to counter the view that anyone who knows a subject well can teach it; the report points to the special needs of high-risk populations of students and argues that proficiency in the theory and skills of pedagogy are necessary components of teacher education.

The Second Report: *Tomorrow's Schools*

The Holmes Group, as a consortium of teacher education schools, has encouraged schools of education to set up professional-development sites as has the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (Bradley, 1995; Richardson, 1995).

The concept of professional-development sites is to improve teacher training and to develop collaborations between universities and local schools. These professional-development sites would then certify those individuals who meet the competencies outlined for meeting the standards of the teaching profession. NCATE plans to establish the standards for these sites. The standards would be used to evaluate the professional-development schools operated by institutions seeking accreditation (Richardson, 1995).

The Holmes Group addressed the issues of professional-development schools in their second report *Tomorrow's Schools: Principles for the Design of Professional Development Schools* (Holmes, 1990). The report calls for such schools to:

- focus on teaching and learning for deep understanding for all children.
- create learning communities for teachers, students, parents, and staff members.
- value continuous learning on the part of everyone working with students.
- support research conducted by teachers and professors working as partners.
- garner organizational support for the professional-development schools as a new institution. (Bradley, 1995, p. 8)

In defining *Professional Development Schools* the Holmes Group explains that it does not mean just a laboratory school for university research, nor a demonstration school. It also does not mean just a clinical setting for preparing student and intern teachers. Rather, the Holmes Group means all of these together: ". . . a school for the development of novice professionals, for continuing development of experienced professionals, and for the research and development of the teaching profession" (Holmes, 1990, p. 1).

Tomorrow's Teachers outlines that to become an accomplished professional teacher requires a combination of systematic training, formal socialization, an updating of the knowledge of subjects taught, attending more closely to the students, developing new

methods for teacher repertoire, and the extension of the teachers influence beyond the bounds of the classroom. Part of the Professional Development School is continued learning of the experienced teacher along with interaction with other colleagues who are contributing to the profession. The Professional Development School is to contribute to the ongoing professional education of experienced teachers. The report points out that no one can begin to master the complexities of school teaching in the brief space of an initial preparation program (Holmes, 1990).

The Third Report: *Tomorrow's Schools of Education*

In its third report, *Tomorrow's Schools of Education*, the Holmes Group (1995) argues that for the development of professional teachers, education schools should provide a "common core" of knowledge to both entry-level and advanced students. The report continues, "almost everyone who goes to work in public education should be prepared to teach and—with few exceptions—should launch their careers as teachers working directly with children" (Bradley, 1995, p 8). There would be some exceptions such as the school nurse or central-office accountants for example. The report identifies the "core knowledge base" to include studies of human development, how young people learn, subject matter and pedagogy, instructional management, inquiry, reflection, research and development, and collaboration in support of young people's learning (Holmes, 1995).

Tomorrow's Schools of Education (1995) calls for at least one professional-development school with each educational school. This professional-development school would then be evaluated with a set of standards developed by the school and the

university. The standards should draw on the findings of other organizations, such as the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

Highlights form the new Holmes Report (1995), *Tomorrow's Schools of Education*, include the following goals for the future schools of education, a vision the Holmes Group calls "a crusade in quest of exemplary practice":

- Make education schools accountable to the profession and the public.
- Make research, development, and demonstration of high-quality learning in real schools a primary mission of education schools.
- Strive toward higher standards in partnerships with professional groups.
- Prepare educators to work together on behalf of children.
- Make education schools better places for professional study and learning.
- Correct loss of focus and program proliferation to focus on developing educators who work with young people.
- Assist state policymakers to promote rigorous standards for educators, including licensure, hiring, certification, and professional development. (Bradley, 1995, p. 8)

Teacher Certification Related to America 2000 and Goals 2000

In 1989 the nation's governors met at what was to be called the Charlottesville Education Summit, which resulted in the drafting of the National Education Goals. These six goals were described as the priorities for public schools to achieve by the year 2000. These goals became the foundation on which the Bush administration developed its strategy to "reinvent" America's schools. This program under the Bush presidency was given the title "America 2000." However, as originally written, the goals did not include a distinct role for higher education nor did they acknowledge the importance of teachers to the success of the goals. Policymakers began to address the omission and proposed an additional goal that called for teachers to "have access to programs for the continued

improvement of their professional skills and the opportunity to acquire such knowledge and skills needed to instruct and prepare all American students for the next century" (Foxwell, 1993).

Since the first stages of America 2000, later redefined as Goals 2000 under the Clinton administration, trends in teacher certification and preparation reveal a move to help define the teaching profession not only on a state level but also on a national level. How will this happen? Wise (1994) proposed that Goals 2000 encourages dramatic changes in the structure of teacher preparation programs and schools of education. As accreditation, licensing, and advanced certification standards are developed to be compatible with one another, a new view of preparation and professional development is emerging (Wise, 1994, p. 10).

Abdal-Haqq (1992) states that since at least the mid-1970s, a number of proposals for improving American public education have included a call for professionalizing teaching and elevating teaching to the status of a "true" profession. In 1976 the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education predicted that teaching can and will self-actualize into a profession and urged professional and organizational effort in that direction. The federal government is helping to shape the movement to develop rigorous content, performance, and delivery standards through legislation, such as Goals 2000: Educate America Act, and through financial support of standards development projects. There are other influential organizations involved in standards development including professional associations, such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, and the National Council for the Accreditation of

Teacher Education. To acquire a broad base of support for their efforts, most of the major standards development projects have attempted to involve significant stakeholders in U.S. education, including teachers. Teacher involvement in professional standards development has included:

1. authoring standards;
2. serving as field test subjects;
3. translating content standards into classroom lessons;
4. initiating standards-setting projects; and
5. monitoring and assessing standards-setting efforts. (Abdal-Haqq, 1992)

Alternative Teacher Certification and Career Transition

As there are new thoughts on improved and increased standards for the teaching profession and teaching certification programs, there is also a trend toward looking at alternative certification programs. The United States Department of Education (1991) has defined "alternative certification" as programs designed to facilitate the entry of college graduates with appropriate subject-matter expertise into classroom teaching and administrative positions in the schools. Alternative certification programs differ from state to state but the overall intent is to offer other avenues to teacher certification by reducing the time and expense required by the state education agencies for the fulfillment of certification requirements (Darling-Hammond, 1990).

The issue of alternative certification programs has been prompted by the ever-growing shortage of teachers for our nation's schools. The reasons behind alternative certification programs include the need for mathematics, science, special education, and minority teachers (U. S. Department of Education, 1991), to provide opportunities for

college graduates to begin careers in teaching without completing extended teacher certification programs (Fenstermacher, 1990), and to tap into new pools of prospective teachers to help meet the need of the increasing school-age population of learners (Darling-Hammond, 1990). Colleges and universities across the nation are exploring ways of establishing alternative certification programs to attract qualified adults into the education profession (MacDonald, Manning & Gable, 1994).

MacDonald, Manning, and Gable (1994) point out that there are adults who would seek career transitions as professional teachers, provided effective programs for alternative certification were offered. They give the example of the Military Career Transition Program at Old Dominion University as an innovative teacher education program that certifies adults leaving the military and seeking a career transition in teaching (MacDonald, et al., 1994). MacDonald et al. explains that the NCTP program design is a collaborative effort between the military education offices, university departments, school districts, and the Virginia State Department of Education.

MacDonald et al. (1994) admits that the challenges associated with the development of alternative certification programs can be many and varied. The article points out that Dill (1990), an advocate of alternative certification, acknowledges that the concept lacks widespread support even though it addresses many challenges in education today. Dill also states that alternative certification programs often need to address the realities associated with adult learners who have been out of school for a number of years. Some of the challenges faced with adult learners include the need to be convinced of their need to learn appropriate motivation and discipline techniques. Along with age, adults also

have career experiences and may face difficulties coping with the idea of being a "novice" again and may project a false sense of confidence (Shannon, 1990).

The Regulatory Context of Teacher Licensure and Certification

Goodlad (1994) expresses his opinion, similar to that of the Holmes Group, by stating that there needs to be a differentiation between teachers being licensed and teachers being certified. He states that there is a need for both, licensing, which would be the states' responsibility and certification, which would come from the schools that prepare teachers. Goodlad believes that states have been overly intrusive in regard to specifications that drive teacher education programs. He outlines three negative consequences of the states' involvement:

> First, this intrusiveness has caused some strong universities to be wary about continued or new involvement with an enterprise so closely monitored by the state. Second, it has added to the academic attractiveness for professors of education to move out of curricular prescriptions for teacher education to programs of less controlled graduate teaching. Third, the fact of curricular prescriptions accompanied by the vagaries of change in requirements has discouraged professors from devoting time and energy to fundamental change. These combined consequences conspire to drive quality down, and they have been exacerbated by the extent to which the need for an adequate supply of teachers, together with the never-ending interest in preparing them cheaply, opens the door to low-quality alternatives. (Goodlad, 1994, p. 64)

To rectify all of this, Goodlad (1994) suggests three critical focal points. One, he states that there needs to be exemplary programs in schools of education or centers of pedagogy. Completion from these programs would lead to degrees and certification; however, they would not provide a license to teach. Second, the licensing process would be the state's prerogative. Goodlad points out that at one time the certificate and a license

were considered one and the same—hence the emergence of what has come to be called "state certification." Goodlad states that the unfortunate reason these two were joined together was that much of the curriculum completed was prescribed by the state.

The major issue Goodlad (1994) points to is that states may not be willing to give up their role in curricular prescription. Instead he suggests that states may continue to add to their control by requiring prescribed outcomes. Goodlad believes that if the states move in the direction of outcome measures while retaining curricular control, they will add to the consequences of a dead-end street of state prescription and mandates for teacher education curricula. The question, then, is how should the states be involved? Goodlad posits that they have the right to issue a license as a measure of protection for the public, such as in checking for criminal records. He points out that in the fields of law and medicine, the states control licensing and could do so for those who are certified to be a teacher from a school of education. However, certifying teachers requires developing valid measures of teaching ability that are more complicated than licensing and involves more than most policymakers believe; it requires considerable bureaucracy for maintaining and revising the program, which is very costly for the states.

Goodlad's (1994) third focal point is accreditation. Teacher education programs have much to gain by going through an accreditation process that presents the interests of the public, teacher candidates, teacher-education settings, and the teaching profession in general. Goodlad believes that the states should not relinquish their role as an active player in accreditation and a major authority in seeing to it that teacher-education programs have conditions in place that give one confidence in the certificates granted by the centers for teacher education. Goodlad concludes that states would do best by

accepting certificates of completion as a prerequisite for seeking to meet the states' licensing requirements.

Lessons from Other Professions

Sikula and Roth (1984) write that the improvement of schooling in this country ultimately depends on improving the preparation and certification of school personnel, including improving the regulations and procedures establishing teaching as a profession. Wise and Darling Hammond et al. (1987), state that the argument for the professional-ization of teaching is similar to the arguments that led to the transformation of other occupations, such as medicine or law, into the professions. The primary rationale is the need for quality control over a process in which a service is provided to a client who inevitably knows less than the provider.

However, Haberman (1986) argues that the lessons drawn from other professions cannot be equated with those of other professions. Haberman states that when drawing lessons for teaching from other professions we must take into account the conditions under which those professions are practiced. Teaching is not like practicing medicine; "educators are choking on the medical analogy" (p. 719).

The difference between education and medicine as a professional model are articulated by Haberman:

> When teachers are able to incorporate, earn unlimited annual incomes, decide who they will treat, deal only with those who voluntarily seek their help, work with clients one at a time, bill insurance companies for their services, be evaluated in terms of process rather than outcomes, choose whether to proactive independently or with others, and hire lawyers to protect them from malpractice suits—only then will medicine be the most appropriate model for the teaching profession. Educators do not have to look to medicine to know that selecting better students, improving the

> training of those students, and having graduates practice in up-to-date situations as professional decision makers will improve the teaching profession and its image. The most valuable lessons that the teaching profession can learn will be drawn from analyses of many professions, especially those that are practiced under conditions similar to those of teaching. (p. 719)

Wise and Darling-Hammond et al. (1987) argue that a profession creates an arrangement with the states they have sought and been granted the right and the obligation to control the quality of those involved in that profession. These measures assure the public and others in the profession that new members are qualified to practice and should be licensed to practice. "The basis for professionalism is a guarantee to the public that all entrants to the profession have adequately mastered the basic knowledge and skills needed to perform responsibly before they are licensed to practice independently" (Wise & Darling-Hammond, et al., 1987, p. vi).

Public and Private School Staffing

Statistical Profiles

The National Center for Education Statistics reveals that in 1990-91 there were approximately 2,900,000 teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools in the United States. A breakdown of those figures shows that there were 2,559,000 public schools teachers and 356,000 private school teachers. Public school teachers are more likely than their private school counterparts to have earned an advanced degree, and on the average, public school teachers have more teaching experience than those in the private schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993).

The National Center for Education Statistics found that in 1990-91 almost all of the public school teachers held either regular or advanced teaching certificates in their main

teaching assignment, as is documented in Table 1. Table 1 also shows that over one-half of all the private school teachers had regular or advanced certificates in their main area of assignment and that over one-third were not certified at all. The profile also shows that there are differences in certification types among kinds of private schools depending on the school's affiliation, whether it be Catholic, conservative Christian, or nonsectarian. Generally, the requirements for certification vary, and these differences were reflected in state-by-state comparisons (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993).

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOL TEACHERS BY TYPE OF CERTIFICATION: 1990-91

	Advanced	Regular	Probation	Temporary	None
Public School Teachers	14.9	76.5	2.6	3.5	2.5
Private School Teachers	6.3	51.2	2.3	4.5	35.6

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1990-91*, 1993, National Center for Educational Statistics, Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Education.

Choy and Bobbit, et al. (1993) state that it is impossible to capture the essential characteristics of "good teachers." Certain measurable teaching characteristics are commonly associated with the quality of experiences a teacher brings to a classroom. These include collegiate and professional degrees, certification, and prior years of

teaching. Certification plays less of a role in the hiring of teachers in the private schools than it does in the public schools. In 1990-91, 64.6 percent of private school teachers were certified in their main assignment field, compared to 97.5 percent of the public school teachers (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993). Many private school boards and administrators view the preparation represented by the teacher certification process as only a limited picture of a candidate's potential to teach, whereas the public has supported state requirements for the certification of public school teachers. However, many aspiring teachers find teaching at private schools an attractive alternative to their perceptions of a narrowly focused teacher-certification process (Choy & Bobbit, et.al., 1993).

Although it is generally assumed that all teachers should be college graduates, many private schools place less importance on college degrees as a criterion for hiring teachers than do public schools. As shown in Table 2, there were almost no public school teachers without a bachelor's degree—0.7 percent. This is contrasted to the teachers teaching in private schools without a bachelor's degree, which was at 6.4 percent. Table 2 also shows that 68.4 percent of private school teachers held no more than a bachelor's degree, whereas nearly half, 47.4 percent of the public school teachers in 1990-91, held some advanced degree. There is a substantial variation among the types of private schools in their acceptance of teachers without bachelor's or advanced degrees. In 1990 conservative Christian and other religiously oriented unaffiliated schools had over 13 percent of teachers without degrees, while Catholic schools showed 2.4 percent non-degreed teachers, and nonsectarian schools had an average just over 4 percent (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1993).

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS AND DEGREES HELD: 1990-91

	<BA	BA	MA	Ed. Spec.	DR
Public School Teachers	0.7	51.9	42.1	4.6	0.8
Private School Teachers	6.4	61.9	27.0	2.9	1.8
Catholic	2.6	65.1	28.5	2.7	1.1
Other Religions	12.0	61.1	23.0	2.6	1.4
Nonsectarian	3.7	58.0	30.1	4.6	3.6

Source: *Private Schools in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1990-91*, 1995 National Center for Educational Statistics, Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Education.

Private Schools and the Challenges of State Teacher Certification

Many private school leaders face challenges in requiring the teachers they hire to hold and maintain state teacher licensure or certification. Their thoughts regarding certification of teachers is rooted in the belief that their schools' freedom to select, develop, and release teachers on their merits is defined in the nature of their schools as free, private enterprise entities. They believe that they are qualified to respond to the educational concerns of students and parents. They also believe that they should be able to determine the qualification of those they place in their school classrooms (Lloyd, 1991).

Private schools contend that private education existed before public education was established in the United States and clearly before state teacher certification was a part of the educational profession. Many private school administrators claim that this longevity and the free-market concept allows them the freedom to maintain a teaching staff policy that does not necessarily require that all teachers hold state teacher certificates (Lloyd, 1991). However, Lloyd (1991) points out that there is no pure free market in the business of schooling. The Supreme Court has guaranteed the right of parents to send their children to private schools while at the same time has acknowledged the right of states to reasonably regulate schools, and to supervise and examine their teachers, as well as their pupils (Pierce v. Society of Sisters, 1925). "The obligation of states to protect children and ensure their education is well established in law and practice" (Lloyd, 1991, p. 452).

Lloyd (1991) points out that private schools will submit to safety, health, and pupil attendance regulations, but they draw the line at teacher licensure requirements, grounding their arguments in the First Amendment. Over the past century, states have invented so many different policies that they have lost the power to convince private school leadership of the value of certification. Some states require all private school teachers to hold state licenses; others states have no requirement of teachers in private schools. Some states require private school teachers to be certified if the school receives public money or if the school would like to be state accredited. Lloyd (1991) states that these two issues of money and accreditation effectively force teacher licensure on many private schools.

Private School Hopes and Fears

The licensure laws in almost all the states are currently in flux for both public and private school teachers. The changes now taking place tend to encourage private school educators with hopes for more flexible policies in certification, while at the same time creating fear of more stringent controls on teacher certification (Lloyd, 1991). Some states have created more flexible policies to respond to new directives, while other states that appear to be the strictest on paper may make little or no efforts to enforce their regulations or may invoke them only when they receive complaints. Some states may exempt parochial school teachers or teachers of religion from mandatory licensure. There are still other states that may accept other assurances of teacher qualities, such as the accreditation of a private school by a reputable regional or private accrediting association. There are states that have developed alternative routes to teacher licensure so much like those by which private school teachers have prepared themselves that it seems senseless to hold those teachers to the letter of licensure law (Lloyd, 1991).

The dilemma for private school educators is that the changes and "new definitions" definitions of the teaching profession and requirements for teacher certification have already been central to much of the private school teaching practices. In private education the teachers have been major actors in school-based management helping to make key decisions concerning curriculum, schedules, student grouping, and parent relations. Private school teachers have assisted in financial planning and work as colleagues with their principals in hiring and evaluating their peers. They also have helped in choosing textbooks or even writing their own (Lloyd, 1991). "They are professionals; not just

followers-of-directions, and they should be judged primarily by their results, not by their ability to follow teacher-proof pedagogical routines. Here is a vision of the professional teacher that private school people can readily accept" (Lloyd, 1991, p. 453). However, the challenge comes when public school teachers assert these new responsibilities and rights by seeking to write them into state licensure laws. As public school teachers gain confidence and power, reinforced by the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), many public school teachers contend that what is required for them in the state laws should be required of all teachers (Lloyd, 1991).

Do More Requirements Produce Better Teachers?

To add prestige and raise the profession's standards, many university teacher educators assert that a true professional needs lengthy training, encompassing a B.A. in the liberal arts, and a master's degree in education. Private school leaders do not necessarily agree with this "more-is-better" approach, considering it to be wasteful and self-serving because private schools must constantly be trimming their costs to their clientele. Private school teachers also distrust the traditional teacher preparation programs. However, it is argued that private school teachers tend not to have noticed that the knowledge base of pedagogy has expanded in significant ways, as research has revealed key areas in improved classroom management, learning, and ways to meet the diverse needs of students (Lloyd, 1991). Moreover, state-approved, teacher-preparation programs present challenges for evangelical Christians because courses are filled with a philosophy that is contradictory to Christian values. Also private school leaders contend that there is no empirical data to demonstrate a correlation between educational outcomes

and a teacher's adherence to licensure rules as was attested to by a Michigan state education expert during the Sheridan Road, Michigan State Supreme Court case (Lloyd, 1991).

Yet another argument given against state teacher licensing by some of the conservative Christian school leaders is that their schools are a part of the over-all church ministry and therefore the teachers in their schools are ministers just like the preacher or pastor and should never be subject to state licensure. Charles O'Malley (1994), former Director for Private School Relations in the U.S. Department of Education under President Reagan has stated:

> I've worked for over 25 years to obtain choice for parents, and to retain the 'independence' of private education. Despite all of the requirement cited previously, they still have considerable autonomy. I believe they can retain what they have as long as we can keep the legislation clean from certification requirements (we were able to do so during the mark-ups and committee hearings held in conjunction with the Reagan tuition tax credit proposal in the early 1980's). That was the issue in Nebraska and that will continue to be the issue as long as Christian school leaders maintain their teachers are ministers, and therefore not subject to teacher certification. That is the issue over which the holy wars will be fought. (p. 7)

Gardner Dunnan, the president of the New York Association of Independent Schools (NYAIS) and Fred Calder, NYAIS's executive director believe that the teacher unions are pushing advanced state licensure. They are not opposed totally to voluntary advanced licensure; however, they have expressed concern that the unions have "been in bed" with the powerful teacher education interests who supply the market for basic teacher credentials. Calder stated, "If they can force the nonpublic schools into the advanced credential mode, they might hope to bring our teachers closer to becoming unionized. And we would resist mandatory licensing to the end" (Lloyd, 1991, p. 463).

The Option of Alternative Certification for Private School Teachers

Educators in both the public and private school arenas have realized that there are some areas of commonalty in addressing the concerns faced in state teacher certification. Educators realize that excellent teaching is two things combined. One, teaching demands broad and deep knowledge, including subject matter knowledge from which the teacher can draw in making decisions regarding curriculum and address student needs. Second, it is now recognized that the "wisdom of practice" comes from practicing, that neither the public nor private schools hold a monopoly on the ideal setting for such practicing and that good teaching practice can be both nurtured and assessed (Lloyd, 1991).

Lloyd (1991) shows that these two views have converged with the results of a growing number of alternative certification programs. Some states are now granting provisional licensure for unusually, well-qualified recruits and even full licensure to teaching candidates experienced in other professions and to teachers with private school experience. Surveys conducted by the National Center for Education Information (NCEI) showed that there were 40 states implementing alternative routes for teacher certification in 1992. Analyses of these alternate-route programs revealed that there was a growing pool of adults wanting to become licensed to teach who already had at least a bachelor's degree and who had considerable life experience and success in other careers (Feistritzer, 1993). Bradley (1992) reported that in a survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Education in conjunction with NCEI, it was found that despite an expressed interest in teaching, nearly two-thirds of the survey respondents had not applied for a teaching

position within the past five years. The reason given by 24 percent of the respondents was that they had decided to stay in their current job. Thirty-four percent said they did not want to go back to college to take the requisite courses to meet the state teaching credential requirements, and they could not find or get into an alternative certification program (Bradley, 1992).

Feistritzer (1993) reports that a growing number of governors, state commissioners of education, deans of education, and other political and educational leaders are in favor of some type of alternative certification program. Surveys conducted by NCEI in 1987 and 1988 showed that 85 percent of school board presidents, 82 percent of superintendents, 77 percent of public school principals, and 88 percent of private school principals were in favor of alternative teacher certification to give individuals the opportunity to teach who already had at least a bachelor's degree in a field other than education. The 1990 NCEI survey of teachers showed that 56 percent of public school teachers and 68 percent of teachers in private schools agreed that recruiting adults who have experience in careers other than teaching would improve the educational system in America (Feistritzer, 1993).

Summary

Individual state departments of public instruction have played an important part in the establishment of standards and requirements for teacher certification. However, many private schools do not require teachers to hold a state teaching certificate and have challenged the validity of state certification. Private school leadership questions whether or not state licensure addresses teacher preparation issues and whether or not state licensure necessarily equates with quality education. Some of the conservative Christian

school leaders are convinced that teachers in their schools should not be required to be state licensed because they are considered ministers involved as employees of the church. Christian school educators have also expressed concern that teacher preparation programs leading to teacher certification require courses to be taken that present a philosophy contrary to Christian values. Other private school leaders feel it is their right to maintain their independence as private schools coming from a long historical heritage, and as free enterprise organizations, they should have the right to establish teacher qualifications without state control. Some private school leaders are not totally opposed to teacher licensure; but have concerns that if nonpublic schools are forced into credentialing their teachers it might lead to unionization of their faculties.

Perhaps the most significant issues resulting in a review of the literature of state teacher certification and the challenges faced by private schools regarding the certification of their teachers is that currently the licensure requirements are in a phase of transition for both public and private schools. There are also new directions for teacher- preparation programs and the practice of teaching is giving new definition for teaching as a profession. Many educators are advocating national teaching certificates through the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards as a means in the establishment of teaching as a true profession.

Alternative means of bringing individuals into the teaching profession has become a growing phenomenon in this country. There are more and more institutions of higher education, school districts, and state departments of education that have developed programs for adults who already have a bachelor's degree in a field other than education and who would like to be licensed to teach (Feistritzer, 1993). Stevens and Dial (1993)

state that because university certification programs have been unable to fill every teaching position in our schools with qualified and certified teachers, alternative approaches to certification have been relied on by more and more school districts. The development of alternative teacher certification has created hope for private school leaders believing that alternative routes might help avoid some of the challenges private school teachers have faced.

Feistritzer (1984) summed up the certification issue as follows:

> The certification of classroom teachers in the U.S. is a mess. Each state makes its own rules concerning who can be certified and what they can be certified to teach. The numbers of different types of certificates and what is required to get one within a state, much less nationwide, are staggering. Florida, for example, is set up to certify 410 academic and vocational areas for its school personnel. (p. 36)

Conclusion

Education in America is involved in rapid change. Changes in teaching, teacher preparation, and the development of standards for teacher qualifications play a major role in the efforts to improve the quality of education in the United States. Both public and private schools are taking a look at teacher certification and the conditions for qualifying teachers for the classroom.

Public school educators are promoting increased efforts to create national teaching standards to raise the consciousness and level of teaching to a profession. Most educators agree that, at minimum, teachers must hold at least a Bachelor's degree and that a national teacher certificate program would provide direction toward maintaining teaching as one of the professions. A major plus with a national teacher certificate program is that it would help eliminate the difficulties involved with the inconsistencies in state teacher licensing

from state to state. A national teacher certificate would facilitate the transition of teachers when they move from one state to the other. These changes have ramifications for college and university schools of education in that teacher preparation programs will need to adapt to meet the needs of national standards as well as alternative certification programs.

Dial and Stevens (1993) state that three conclusions can be made in a review of the history of American education and certification:

1. Teacher education has not been respected.
2. Policies on teacher education and certification follow the supply and demand for teachers.
3. There has been no consistency between states, or within states, regarding policies of teacher education and certification. (p. 12)

LaBue (1960) quotes Stinnett from a 1953 NCTEPS Conference identifying seven key challenges with teacher certification. After 42 years, it is interesting to note the problems and concerns expressed in this review of literature, and with all the activity for national school reform, the challenges and questions of today still remain the same. The following are the problems Stinnett identified:

1. What is the most effective, most democratic plan for continual study, revision, and refinement of certification requirements within states? What segments of the profession and the public should be represented in the process? How can a fair balance in representation of appropriate interests be achieved?

2. Are emergency certificates under any conditions professionally defensible? If so, under what conditions? If the profession is to acquiesce in the issuance of such certificates, what safeguards should be enforced?

3. What is the proper role in the certification process of institutions that prepare teachers? Should legal prescriptions be such as to unduly inhibit colleges and universities in preparing teachers in their own individual way, to experiment, and to pursue frontier practices?

4. Who shall be required to hold certificates issued by the respective sates? Shall such legal control be exercised only over teachers in publicly supported institutions? Does the state have a legal and moral responsibility to set up such standards that will ensure every child, regardless of the school he or she attends, at least a minimum quality of education?

5. What are valid bases for the issuance of certificates? Can we assume without question that the present basis for certification—completion of required formal preparation as measured in courses and degrees—is the best possible? What are some possible alternative bases?

6. What kind and how many certificates should be issued?

7. How can a national plan of reciprocity in certification be achieved? (p. 172)

In conclusion, LaBue (1960) cites Morrison regarding the resolution of the teacher certification issue:

> Advancing public and professional welfare through . . . the improvement of certification will require long hard service by people with vision, courage, and a willingness to sacrifice for the good of children and the profession. Progress will not be made by the scared or the selfish. There is a great opportunity to build on the work of devoted pioneers who for years have clung to certification as a means of keeping our schools in the hands of professional teachers. (p. 172)

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to gain access to two cultural views in education regarding teacher certification and to identify the prerequisites espoused by both groups in qualifying teachers for the classroom. The rationale for approaching the two cultures was to determine the cultural categories of commonality, identify the differences between cultural categories, and delineate the possible categories of consensus whereby each culture could come to mutual agreement regarding teacher certification policies. The two cultures chosen for this research were (a) the culture of public education leaders and policymakers and (b) the culture of private school leaders and policymakers.

The following chapter includes an introduction to qualitative research and a description of the methodology used in the design of the study. It outlines the method used to gather the data; it addresses how the data was reported; it describes how the data was analyzed and interpreted, and then it explains how the final themes and conclusions were secured.

A Qualitative Approach

Qualitative research methods have become increasingly important techniques of inquiry for those involved in the field of education. There is an array of methods included under the qualitative umbrella (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). However, the approaches vary depending on which one the investigator chooses to use to interact with the culture and how the data is to be gathered and documented.

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) provide a definition for qualitative research with an explanation for the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research with the following statement:

> The word qualitative implies an emphasis on process and meanings that are not rigorously examined, or measured (if measured at all), in terms of quantity, amount, intensity, or frequency. Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Such researchers emphasize the value-laden nature of inquiry. They seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. In contrast, quantitative studies emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. Inquiry is purported to be within a value-free framework. (p. 4)

Merriam (1988) identifies data as ". . . nothing more than ordinary bits and pieces of information found in the environment" (p. 67). Data conveyed through words are labeled "qualitative," while data presented in numerical form are "quantitative." The long interview, as used in this study, makes extensive use of qualitative data. "Qualitative data consist of detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions and observed behaviors; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts; and excerpts or entire passages from documents, correspondence, records and case histories" (Patton, quoted in Merriam,

1988, pp. 67-68). The descriptions, quotations, and excerpts are "raw data from the empirical world, . . . data which provide depth and detail" (p. 68).

Merriam (1988) explains that the depth and detail of qualitative data can be obtained by "getting close," physically and psychologically, to the phenomenon being studied. Lofland describes the qualitative study as:

> The commitment to get close, to be factual, descriptive and quotive, constitutes a significant commitment to represent the participants in their own terms. . . . A major methodological consequence of these commitments is that the qualitative study of people *in situ* is a process of discovery. It is of necessity a process of learning what is happening. . . . It is the observer's task to find out what is fundamental or central to the people or world under observation. (Lofland, 1971, p. 4)

Marshall and Rossman (1995), point out that qualitative research assumes that a systematic approach to inquiry is done in a natural setting rather than in the artificial constraints of an experimental design. The qualitative research strategy is to gather data from a culture to determine how the participants of that culture view their world and then determine how that data can most beneficially be analyzed.

Strengths of Qualitative Data

The major strength of qualitative data are that the data focus on naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings so that we have a strong handle on what "real life" is like. Qualitative data also give a richness and holism, a strong potential for revealing complexity; such data provide "thick descriptions" that are vivid, nested in a real context, and have a ring of truth that has a strong impact on the reader (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Securing the rich description of the social world for the qualitative researcher is considered of great value. The value is found in capturing the individual's point of view. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) point out that both qualitative and quantitative researchers are concerned about the individual's point of view. However, qualitative investigators think they can get closer to the subject's perspective through detailed interviewing and observation. It is argued that quantitative researchers seldom are able to capture the subject's perspective because they have to rely on more remote, inferential empirical materials.

Other strengths of the qualitative study, as found in the long interview, are that the design is flexible, continuous, and iterative. Adjusting the design as the study progresses is a normal part of the flexibility of the design. As the researcher learns the culture of the subject, the researcher may want to modify what is being studied, rethink the design or the pattern of questioning, or even rethink the questions. The continuous nature of qualitative interviewing means the questioning may be redesigned throughout the project. The design remains flexible throughout the study because the researcher works out questions to examine new ideas and themes emerging during the interviews. The ease of redesign encourages the researcher to truly hear the meaning of what the interviewees say without discarding pieces that don't fit the initial conception of the research problem (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

The qualitative interview design is iterative, meaning that the researcher repeats the basic process of gathering information, analyzing it, winnowing it, and testing it until the researcher has a clear, convincing view of the culture being studied. The iterative design comes to an end when the information being gathered supports a small number of

integrated themes and each additional interview would not add any more ideas or categories to the themes being questioned; at this point the researcher has theoretically reached the point of "saturation" (Rubin & Rubin 1995).

The Long Interview

There are different categories of qualitative research methods. Jacob (1987) has categorized educational qualitative research into six major domains, one of which this research study exemplifies. It is the *cognitive anthropology* domain design. Marshall and Rossman (1995), state that "The cognitive anthropologists assume that participants' perspectives are organized into cognitive or semantic schemata-categories of meaning that are systematically related to one another" (p. 2). Using this method, data are gathered through in-depth interviewing and then analyzed qualitatively to identify domains of understanding. One method of conducting an in-depth interview is the use of the "long interview."

To gather data in an in-depth interview, McCracken's (1988) methods of the qualitative long interview were employed for this study. McCracken (1988) defines the long interview as:

> . . . one of the most powerful methods in the qualitative armory. For certain descriptive and analytic purposes, no instrument of inquiry is more revealing. The method can take us into the mental world of the individual, to glimpse the categories and logic by which he or she sees the world. It can also take us into the life world of the individual, to see the content and pattern of daily experience. The long interview gives us the opportunity to step into the mind of another person, to see and experience the world as they do themselves. (p. 9)

The long interview is a qualitative design that gives the investigator a highly efficient, productive, "streamlined" instrument of inquiry. The long interview is a

sharply focused, rapid, highly intensive interview process that seeks to diminish the indeterminacy and redundancy that is found in other unstructured research procedures. It allows the researcher to achieve crucial qualitative objectives within a manageable methodological context without the common requirements of extensive time allotment and the invasion of the subject's privacy (McCracken, 1988). The long interview was used in this research to allow for capturing the data needed for penetrating qualitative analysis without participant observation, unobtrusive observation, or prolonged contact. "It allows, in other words, to achieve crucial qualitative objectives within a manageable methodological context" (McCracken, 1988, p. 11). "McCracken promotes the long interview as the method of choice when cultural categories, assumptions, and themes are objects of investigation, and when total immersion in the studied scene is impractical or impossible" (McCracken, 1988, p. 5).

The qualitative long interview requires four major steps in the method of inquiry into a culture:

1. The first step of the long qualitative interview begins with an exhaustive review of the literature. A good literature review has many obvious virtues. It enables the investigator to define problems and assess data. The second purpose of the literature review is to aid in the construction of the interview questionnaire. The review begins to establish the domain the interview will explore. The good literature review is a critical process that makes the investigator the master, not the captive of previous scholarship.

2. The second step of the qualitative circle consists in the review of cultural categories. This is where the investigator begins the process of using the self as an

instrument of inquiry. The object of this step is to give the investigator a more detailed, systematic appreciation of his or her personal experience with the topic of interest. The interviewer examines cultural categories and their interrelationship, preparing the templates with which he or she will seek out "matches" in the interview data. The second step of the "four-step" method seeks, then, to engage the investigator in two processes: familiarization and defamiliarization.

3. Before the interview can begin, the questionnaire must be formalized. The first begins with the recognition that the first object of the qualitative interview is to allow respondents to tell their own story in their own terms. Once the questionnaire is complete, the interview may begin in earnest.

4. In sum, the final step of the long qualitative interview calls for the careful verbatim transcription of interview data. Working with the data in this form, the investigator undertakes five stages of analysis. The first of these locates the investigator securely in the fine details of the interview, while the last advances him or her to general scholarly conclusions (McCracken, 1988, pp. 29-48).

Limitations of the Method

As a qualitative research design, the "truth value" of the study is established by defining and addressing the following limitations:

- Investigator Bias - One of the compelling concerns in conducting the long interview is the relationship between the researcher and his or her own culture. The intimate acquaintance with one's own culture can create as much "blindness" as insight. It can prevent the investigator form seeing cultural

assumptions and practices (McCracken, 1988). For this reason, Burlingame (classroom communication, Spring 1995) recommends that the investigator write a "memo" to himself or herself reflecting their own cultural categories, assumptions and experiences before beginning the literature review and the interview process. The memo serves as a template against which the investigator can use as a reference to identify possible preconceived ideas and assumptions that can create a treacherous sense of familiarity and bias (see Appendix A for memo).

- Selection - McCracken (1988) states that those individuals selected to be interviewed are not a "sample," and that selection for the long interview should not be governed by sampling rules. Respondents are purposely chosen because of their knowledge of the topic and involvement in the culture being studied. For purposes of this study thirteen individuals were purposely selected to be interviewed because of their involvement in policy development and knowledge of teacher certification issues.
- Instrumentation - The investigator conducting the study serves as a kind of "instrument" in the collection and analysis of data (McCracken, 1988). The interviews are to reflect the respondents' view of their culture without the creation of the researcher's biases or prejudices (Marshall & Rossman, 1995).
- The Questionnaire - The questions used in the questionnaire are at the discretion of the researcher and are to ensure that the respondent is free to reveal how he or she sees the world. The questionnaire also ensures that the investigator covers all the terrain in the same order for each respondent interviewed and

establishes channels for the direction and scope of the discourse. It is important that the use of the questionnaire does not preempt the "opened-ended" nature of the qualitative interview but allows for the opportunity to explore unstructured responses (McCracken, 1988).

- Investigator/Respondent Relationship - One of the important differences between quantitative studies and the qualitative long interview is that the long interview requires a more complex relationship between the investigator and the respondent. The investigator must take care to develop a good rapport and some kind of "connection" with the respondent. One of the challenges is developing a good rapport without an "over rapport" where the respondent may prove to be over helpful by stating what he or she thinks the investigator wants to hear (McCracken, 1988).
- Anonymity - McCracken (1988) believes that when the interview is conducted with anonymity, the respondent is afforded the opportunity to be more candid in responding to the questions. For the purposes of this research the individuals were asked before the interviews if they would give permission to be quoted or cited by name and position in the written report. This research was purposefully designed to identify the respondents by name because of the professional qualifications and prominent positions each interviewee holds. Because of the notoriety of the individuals selected it was considered to be of substantial value to acknowledge and attribute the comments and quotations of those individuals considered to be the leaders in teacher credentialing policy development and implementation.

- Data Analysis - As the investigator must use the "self" as an instrument, so the investigator must use self for the data collection and analysis to define categories and themes. The researcher must read the transcriptions of the interviews with a very careful eye as to what is in the data and what the data "sets off" in the researcher's self (McCracken, 1988). McCracken (1988) points out that, "carefully monitored, the associational activity of the self will deliver insights into the nature of the data. This 'intuition,' as it is sometimes called, is indeed the most powerful (if not obscure) of the analytic devices at our disposal " (p. 44-45). The investigator uses matches from the literature and culture review to analyze data from the interviews, using them as templates with which to systematically identify themes and synthesize "conclusions" ready for academic presentation (McCracken, 1988).
- Validity and Reliability - There is perhaps no issue more challenged than that of the assurance of validity and reliability of the qualitative study. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) state that "there is need to reconstruct understandings, wherein the traditional positivist criterion of internal and external validity are replaced by the terms trustworthiness and authenticity" (p. 100). Reliability as defined in quantitative research refers to the extent to which findings can be replicated. If the study were to be repeated would it yield the same results? However, in the qualitative study reliability is not based on replication. Merriam (1988) cites, "since the term reliability in the traditional sense seems to be something of a misfit when applied to qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288) suggest thinking about the 'dependability' or 'consistency' of the results obtained

from the data" (p. 172). That is to say that given the data collected, the results make sense and they are consistent and dependable.

Methodology Definitions

1. Culture: The resources or the material, the codes, and frames that people use in building and articulating their own world views, their attitudes to life and social status (Alasuutari, 1995). For purposes of this research, culture involves the norms, belief systems, values, cognitive structures and meanings of those involved in education.

2. Naturalistic Inquiry: An alternative paradigm for research that assumes there are multiple constructed realities that can be studied only in a holistic manner, that inquiry into these multiple realities will result in divergent information; however, some level of understanding can be achieved (Lincoln & Guba, 1995).

3. Trustworthiness: The determination that the findings of a naturalistic inquiry are authentic and reliable. The four major elements of trustworthiness include: credibility (truth value), transferability (applicability), dependability (consistency), and confirmability (neutrality) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

4. Credibility: The assurance that the finding and interpretations of the inquiry are perceived as accurate by the human subjects of the inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

5. Transferability: A condition that must be assessed in each instance where transfer of findings is proposed. The applicability of a working hypothesis developed in one context to another context is a direct function of the congruence between the two contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

6. Dependability: The establishment, through an inquiry audit, that the processes by which the research was conducted are consistent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

7. Confirmability: The assurance, through an inquiry audit, that the results of the research can be traced to their sources and supported by the inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

8. Thick Description: The depth, detail, and richness that a researcher seeks in interviews. Thick description, as found in the interviewee's firsthand experience, forms the material that researchers gather up, synthesize, and analyze as part of hearing the meaning of data. Together the researcher and the interviewee decide what issues to explore and suggest what remains to be said. This works to provide the "thick description" that builds toward an overall picture of the culture being studied (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

Instrumentation

In conducting the qualitative long interview, the investigator serves as a kind of "instrument" for the collection and the analysis of data. McCracken (1988) explains that this metaphor is a useful one because it emphasizes that the investigator cannot fulfill qualitative research objectives without using a broad range of his or her experience, imagination, and intellect in ways that are various and unpredictable. Merriam (1988) states:

> . . . the importance of the researcher in qualitative case study cannot be overemphasized. The researcher is the *primary instrument* of data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, the researcher, rather than through some inanimate inventory, questionnaire, or machine. (p. 19)

For purposes of this study, the researcher served as the investigator in a naturalistic paradigm and was the primary instrument for the data collection and analysis. It was realized that his experiences, beliefs, biases, assumptions, and expertise were a part of the process. McCracken (1988) points out that it is precisely because the researcher works in his own culture that he is able to make the long interview do such a powerful work.

The researcher for this study has been involved in private elementary and/or secondary education for the past twenty years. He has served in various capacities in the private educational field, including classroom teacher, assistant principal, principal and associate director for a national, private-school, professional-service organization as well as serve as the director for the International Christian Accrediting Association. The researcher has been certified as a teacher in several states and has held an administrator's certificate with the Association of Christian Schools International, an international private school accrediting and teacher and/or administrator certification agency. Due to challenges encountered in obtaining and hiring teachers for the private school, understanding the challenges teachers were having in transferring state to state, and acknowledging the changing climate in teacher certification has led the researcher to the question of what are the commonalities and differences between the state teacher certification policies and the policies or requirements for teachers found in the private school sector. The research question then expanded to identify possible areas of consensus between the two cultural constructs.

Using "self" as instrument, it was realized that is was the researcher's responsibility to define his personal experiences, beliefs, biases, and assumptions and that he needed to

ensure that these did not unduly influence the direction or results of the research study. Before beginning the review of the literature the researcher wrote a "memo" to himself (see Appendix A for memo) as recommended by Burlingame (personal communication, spring 1995). The memo provided the opportunity to reflect on his own cultural concepts, assumptions, and experiences regarding teacher certification. It then served to reveal the researcher's biases and to be used as a template against which he was able to reference. The memo identified possible preconceived ideas and assumptions and manufactured the "distance" necessary to create a critical awareness of matters that could blind the researcher to what needed to be seen in each of the cultures (McCracken, 1988).

The researcher served as the primary instrument by first conducting an exhaustive review of the literature. This review enabled him to define problems and identify cultural categories. The literature review also became an aid in the construction of the questionnaire, which was used to establish an inventory of the categories and relationships investigated during the interviews.

The questionnaire was designed to allow respondents to tell their story in their own terms and to gain access to the cultural categories and assumptions according to which the interviewees construe the world of teacher certification (McCracken, 1988). The structure of the questionnaire included an introductory, biographic question regarding the respondents' educational and professional background and the original six "grand-tour" questions. The format and presentation of the questions during the interviews were critical to obtaining quality data. Delso (1993) stated that the questions should not lead the respondent toward a desired answer otherwise the data may be contaminated

and bias the results of the study. The first protocol of interview questions for this study on teacher certification included the following:

1. Would you please give a brief summary of your educational and professional background and tell what brought you to your present position?
2. Do your [schools] or [organization] require teachers to be certified?
3. What does teacher certification mean?
4. How do teachers become certified?
5. What does teacher certification do or not do for educational practice?
6. What would you do to make the certification program better?
7. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about teacher certification? (See Appendix B for the original questionnaire.)

After the first three interviews it was realized that several categories where appearing in the responses given by the interviewees that had not been included in the first protocol. These categories necessitated the addition of four questions that were then added to the interview questionnaire. They included:

1. What is teacher licensure?
2. What is alternative teacher certification?
3. What is emergency teacher certification?
4. Who should certify teachers? (See Appendix C for the revised questionnaire.)

The "self as instrument" is used in qualitative inquiry to identify the cultural categories; however, McCracken (1988) notes that the deep and long-lived familiarity with the culture under study has the potential of dulling the investigator's powers of observation and analysis. But it also has the advantage of giving the investigator an

extraordinarily intimate acquaintance with the object of the study. "This acquaintance gives the investigator a fineness of touch and delicacy of insight that few ethnographers working in other cultures can hope to develop. This is an exceptional analytic advantage and the long qualitative interview must be prepared to harness it as fully as possible" (McCracken, 1988, p. 32).

Selection

By using the qualitative long interview, the selection of the respondents determines the "adequacy" and "appropriateness" of the data. McCracken (1988) states that the first principle in selection for the long interview is that "less is more." It is more important to work longer, and with greater care, with a few people than more superficially with many. McCracken suggests that for many research projects, eight subjects would be perfectly sufficient. It is important to remember that the selection of respondents is not chosen to represent some part of the larger world. "It offers, instead, an opportunity to glimpse the complicated character, organization, and logic of culture" (p. 17).

Choosing respondents occurs purposefully, rather than by some form of random selection from a purposefully chosen population (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). McCracken (1988) points out that the respondents are not a "sample" and that their selection should not be governed by sampling rules. For the long interview, the "appropriateness" and "adequacy" of the research is dependent upon the purposive selection of the interviewees.

> Adequacy refers to the amount of data collected, rather than to the number of subjects. Adequacy is attained when sufficient data have been collected so that saturation occurs, and variation is both accounted for and understood.

> Appropriateness refers to the selection of information according to the theoretical needs of the study and the emerging model. (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 230)

In conducting the long interview the issue is not one of generalizability but rather one of access. McCracken defines selection by providing the following explanation:

> The purpose of the qualitative interview is not to discover how many, and what kinds of, people share a certain characteristic. It is to gain access to the cultural categories and assumptions according to which one culture construes the world. How many and what kinds of people hold these categories and assumptions is not, in fact, the compelling issue. It is the categories and assumptions, not those who hold them, that matter. (p. 17)

In conducting this study the researcher wanted to interview key leaders and policymakers from two fields of education: (a) the public school arena represented by the state and national figures, and (b) the regional and national private school leaders. The individuals who were interviewed were purposefully chosen because of their knowledge of the requirements for teacher certification or for their involvement in developing new standards and policies for credentialing teachers. The researcher also sought to use a selection strategy of seeking diametrically opposing positions regarding requirements for qualifying, licensing, and certifying individuals for the classroom. This was done deliberately to create a contrast in the respondent pool to permit a broader view of teacher certification. The original number of respondents chosen for the study was to have been ten; however, with the iterative nature of the design it was determined that adequacy and saturation of the culture would not be obtained unless the cultural perspective of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, and the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium were represented. The research concluded the interview process with the cultural views of 13 respondents.

McCracken (1988) highly recommends that the interviews be conducted in such a manner as to preserve the privacy and maintain the anonymity of the individuals interviewed. McCracken suggests a few rules of thumb: (a) the respondents should be perfect strangers, (b) unknown to the interviewer, and (c) they should have a special knowledge of the topic under study. Most importantly, the selection of individuals to interview is an opportunity to manufacture distance, which is the opportunity for the investigator to see the familiar data in unfamiliar ways. For purposes of this study, the researcher felt that the data, which would be collected in the course of the interviews, would be of considerable value. However, the researcher did not want to lose the opportunity to acknowledge and attribute important statements to the prominent professionals that would be interviewed. It was determined that this could be done without maintaining the anonymity of the respondents and yet at the same time create the desired distance needed to see the familiar in unfamiliar ways. Because of the notoriety and positions of the those interviewed, the respondents were asked to give written permission for the interviews to be tape-recorded and transcribed with the understanding that they would be identified by position and name and possibly quoted in the final written report. (See Appendix D for a model of the interview design.)

Interviewees

The following individuals were purposefully selected to be interviewed:

Representing Public Education Policymakers:

- Dr. Marie Della Bella, School Approval Consultant
  Bureau of Professional Development and Certification
  Connecticut State Department of Education
  Hartford, CT

- Dr. Emily Feistritzer, Founder and President
  National Center for Education Information (NCEI)
  Washington, DC

- Dr. Lynda Haynes, Senior Division Director
  Division of Educator Preparation and Certification
  Texas Education Agency
  Austin, TX

- Dr. James Kelly, President
  National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS)
  Washington, DC

- Cindy Marose, Director
  Professional Standards
  Professional Standards Office
  Oklahoma State Department of Education
  Oklahoma City, OK

- Dr. Jean Miller, Director
  Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium
  Council of Chief State School Officers
  Washington, DC

- Dr. Clarence Oliver, Dean of the School of Education
  Oral Roberts University, Tulsa, OK
  Superintendent, Broken Arrow Public Schools (1974-1994)
  Assistant Superintendent, Broken Arrow Public Schools (1962-1974)
  Broken Arrow, OK

- Dr. Arthur E. Wise, President
  National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
  Washington, D.C.

Representing Private Education Policymakers:

- Dr. Richard Ekdahl, Executive Director
  Independent Schools Association of the Southwest (ISAS)
  Tulsa, OK

- Dr. Ollie Gibbs, Director Academic Affairs
  Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI)
  Colorado Springs, CO

- Sister Anne Leonard, Director of Education and Superintendent of Schools
  Archdiocese of Oklahoma City
  Oklahoma Catholic Schools Accreditation Association (OCSAA)
  Oklahoma City, OK

- Dr. Charles O'Malley, Executive Director
  National Council for Private School Accreditation (NCPSA)
  Washington, D.C.
  Former Director, Office of Nonpublic Education, U.S. Department of Education
  Washington, D.C.

- Dr. Don Petry, Founder and President
  Teled, International
  Chesapeake, VA

(See Appendix E for research interviewees including a complete listing of addresses, telephone numbers, and fax numbers.)

Procedures

McCracken (1988) outlines a four-step method for developing the procedures in conducting a qualitative long interview. The following are the successive steps in this research process:

1. review of analytic categories and interview design
2. review of cultural categories and interview design
3. interview procedure and the discovery of cultural categories
4. interview analysis and the discovery of analytical categories (p. 29)

The first step in this research was an extensive review of the literature found in Chapter II of this study. The literature review was used for three primary purposes. First, it helped define the problem and provided the concepts on which the precepts of teacher certification function. Second, the literature review provided a means for the investigator to assess data from the culture and to sharpen his understanding of teacher certification. It also served as a way to manufacture distance between the investigator,

the interviewer, and the respondents. McCracken (1988) communicates that the investigator who is well versed in the literature will then have a set of expectations that the data can defy. Delso (1993) relates:

> When the respondents describe data not mentioned in the literature, known as counter expectational data, the interviewer may probe the line of inquiry to obtain a better understanding of the respondent's view of the world. This counter expectational data is the essence of long interview analysis and is used to take issue with the theories presented in one's field of research. (p. 67)

Thirdly, the literature review was an aid in the construction of the interview questionnaire and provided ample considerations for the formulation of grand-tour questions and prompting strategies.

In sum, the first step of the four-step method of inquiry offers both a review and a "deconstruction" of the scholarly literature. It establishes a first survey of the ground upon which the interview will be conducted. It establishes an inventory of the categories and relationships that the interview must investigate (McCracken, 1988, pp. 31-32).

Once the literature review was completed, the researcher began to use "self" as the instrument of inquiry. McCracken (1988) states that the purpose of this step is to give the investigator a more detailed and systematic appreciation of his or her personal experience with the topic. The researcher began by taking an inventory and examining his associations, life experiences, and assumptions that had surrounded him regarding the topic of teacher certification. By combining the review of literature and a review of his own cultural categories, the researcher was able to develop the questionnaire. This then prepared the investigator for "rummaging" through data examining their cultural categories and interrelationships and seeking out matches in the interview data.

McCracken (1988) states, "The investigator listens to the self in order to listen to the respondent" (p. 33).

The next phase of the study was conducting the actual interviews. The selected individuals were contacted first by telephone to see if they would grant an interview. Once the individuals agreed to the interview a written memo of confirmation was mailed or faxed to their office. (See Appendix F and G for confirmation memo and thank-you letter.) Each individual who was asked to be interviewed was more than willing to grant the interview. (See Appendixes D and H for consent and agreement form and visual model.)

Locations for interviews included the following: Tulsa, Oklahoma; Santa Fe, New Mexico; Hartford, Connecticut; Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; Austin, Texas; Alexandria, Virginia; Detroit, Michigan; Colorado Springs, Colorado; and Washington, District of Columbia. The interviews ranged anywhere from 40 minutes to two hours in length. Each interview was recorded on cassette tape with the full knowledge and signed permission of the respondent.

During the course of the interviews it was found that opening with a few minutes of idle chatter helped to set the stage and demonstrate that the researcher, as the interviewer, was accepting of the respondent and that the interview was nonthreatening. Once a good rapport had been established, the researcher would begin by asking the first of the grand-tour questions in a very inquisitive and curious manner, even to the point of appearing dumb. Burlingame (personal communication, spring 1995) stated, "During the interviews it is important for the investigator to 'play dumb' and to 'look dumb' in order to appear uninformed." McCracken (1988) states that the tone used to present the initial

grand-tour question to the respondent is critical in establishing the relationship during the interview. It is better to appear slightly dim and too agreeable than to give any sign of a critical or sardonic attitude. During the course of the interviews all of the respondents freely engaged in conversation and were, in fact, very open and willing to share their cultural perspectives and opinions regarding teacher certification.

During the process of conducting a long interview, McCracken (1988) writes that the researcher must remember that the objective of the interview is not to teach the respondent or inform them of inadequacies and misconceptions. Rather the interview simply seeks to record the respondent's beliefs and attitudes related to the topic being questioned. Capturing data of this nature requires patience and care in the listening process by the interviewer. The interviewer must listen for many other things, including forced impressions, topic avoidance, deliberate distortion, misunderstandings, and incomprehension, taking, in each case, the necessary remedy to deal with the problem. The listening process is frequently considered to be extraordinarily draining.

The investigator must be aware when a respondent is deliberately avoiding a topic and employ a polite strategy to see whether the topic can be approached in terms of another, less threatening way. If the investigator insists on taking advantage of inadvertent testimony or becoming critical of the responses, the respondent is likely to respond by refusing any further intimacy. It is essential to permit the respondent to follow his or her own lead, to give him or her plenty of room to talk, and go wherever the respondent wishes (McCracken, 1988). Finally, McCracken (1988) states:

> . . . the interviewer must listen for implications and assumptions that will not come to the surface of the conversation by themselves and think of ways of unearthing them. Some important data will never appear as such. The careful listener must be listening not only for what exists in the interview but also what this material points to in the mind of the respondent. This is one of the most difficult strategies to formalize, for it comes usually in the form of an intuition. (p. 40)

Data Analysis

The fourth phase of the long interview research is the analysis of the qualitative data and is perhaps the most demanding aspect of the qualitative research process (Miles & Huberman, 1994). For purposes of this research the interviews were all recorded on tape and verbatim transcripts of the interview testimonies were created. All of the transcripts were prepared by a professional secretary. McCracken (1988) states that when an investigator transcribes their own interviews they invite not only frustration but also a familiarity with the data that does not serve the final process of analysis. The transcriber was supervised to ensure that the transcripts were indeed "verbatim" records and not excerpted or summarized versions of the original tapes. Transcriptions were word processed and saved to disks on WordPerfect V3.1 for Macintosh as well as hard copies of each interview printed for file copies.

"The object of analysis is to determine the categories, relationships, and assumptions that informs the respondent's view of the world in general and the topic in particular " (McCracken, 1988, p. 42). McCracken explains that in the analysis stage the investigator has come to a sense of what the literature says ought to be there, a sense of how the topic is perceived in his or her own experiences, and a sense of what took place in the interview itself. Combining these components, the investigator is prepared to use

all of the material as a guide to what exists in the culture, but they must also be prepared to ignore all of this material to see what none of it anticipated. For the power of discovery, which is inherent in the long interview, to be fully implemented, the investigator must be prepared to systematically reconstruct a view of the world that may have no relation to his or her own view or the one recorded in the literature (McCracken, 1988).

To analyze the data, McCracken's (1988) five stages of the analysis process were employed. To ensure the accuracy of the data, the transcribed manuscripts of the interviews were compared to the tapes. An outline of the topics and categories discussed in each of the interviews was developed from the transcriptions. After several reviews of the transcriptions, data that was obviously unrelated to teacher certification was edited from the outlines. The researcher then proceeded by creating a master outline to organize all the key information to identify the broad cultural categories from each of the two cultures, one for the public school sector and one for the private school sector. Each of the two master outlines was then organized into a logical flow of progression to present the cultural categories in an orderly manner. Themes from each of the cultures were then identified and organized into a hierarchic of importance and evaluated for their interrelationships. It was at this point that the cultural categories of commonality and the categories of differences were clearly identified. This final stage was used to take the themes from each culture and synthesize the data to determine how themes could be brought together into conclusions. It is at this fifth stage that McCracken (1988) states:

> . . . one is no longer talking about the particulars of individual lives but about the general properties of thought and action within the community or group under study. Furthermore, one is no longer talking about the world as the respondent sees it. One is now talking about the world as it appears to the analyst from the special analytic perspective of the social sciences. Fully possessed of general and abstract properties, the investigator's observations are now "conclusions" and ready for academic presentation. (p. 46)

Computer files of the interview transcriptions were used to record and maintain the data gathered from the interviews. Using the WordPerfect V3.1 software for Macintosh allowed for the creation of files for the two different cultures studied. Utilizing the "searching-for-text" commands provided the ability to edit the transcriptions by blocking, cutting, copying, deleting, and pasting to create new files for the outlines of cultural categories as well as files of themes and quotations from the respondents. Using the analytic categories discovered and identified, "tree diagrams" were then designed to depict the hierarchy and relationship of the categories to the themes used to describe the two cultures (Burlingame, 1995). While reviewing the transcriptions, outstanding quotes regarding the categories were noted and copied from the interviews to be used in describing the categories in the final write-up of the study.

After applying the five-stage analysis, the written report of the study was created. Chapters IV and V of this study are the results of the interviews and the analysis. Chapter V provides the overview of the interviews explaining what cultural categories and themes were identified and what the commonalities and differences between the two cultures of public and private education were discovered. It also suggests possible categories of consensus between public education policies and the private sector regarding teacher certification policies. Chapter V concludes with the focus of the study and restates the themes developed from the interviews. It contains comments,

conclusions, implications, and suggestions. Burlingame (1995) states that the long interview leaves more questions than it answers because by design it is to describe a culture, and produces a series of anomalies which can be followed up by quantitative studies. Burlingame also points out that the long interview generates four main outcomes which include the following:

1. Defining and identifying categories to be used in future qualitative studies,
2. Uncovering other subculture groups within the culture being studied,
3. The power of changing beliefs, and
4. Verifying what existing literature reveals about the cultural categories and/or discovering new categories and themes not previously identified.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to discover the categories and logic by which two cultures, one of public school policymakers and one of private school policymakers, see the world of teacher certification. Once the themes of commonality and differences were discovered and identified a greater understanding of one another's culture construct of teacher certification could lead to dialogue between the two cultures thereby eliminating conflict. This chapter is the presentation of the qualitative data collected during the course of the research from interviews conducted with representatives from each of the two cultures. McCracken's "long interview" was employed to provide the means of stepping into the minds of public and private school policymakers to see and experience the world of teacher certification as they see it themselves (McCracken, 1988).

In this chapter the investigator employed the categories from the academic literature review found in Chapter II. These were then used as a means to search out and identify the categories and themes found in the interview to decide if there were matches. It is through these matches that themes emerged. As the themes emerged, decisions were made as to their interrelation. The themes were then reviewed to see

how they could be brought together into "conclusion," ready for academic presentation (McCracken, 1988).

This chapter consists of the following: (a) the findings and quotes from those leaders and policymakers representing the private school community, (b) the findings and quotes from the leaders and policymakers involved in the public school arena, (c) an analysis of the two cultures represented by the structuring of "tree diagrams" illustrating the hierarchy of cultural categories, themes, and concepts (Weitzman and Miles, 1995), and (d) a summary of the findings.

Cultural Views of Private School Leaders and Policymakers

Five educational leaders and policymakers representing the private school sector in the United States were interviewed with the intent of gaining insight into how they view the issue of teacher certification. Upon review of the transcriptions from each of the private school respondents there were clearly three distinct "subcultures" within the private school leadership. McLaughlin, O'Donnell, Ries, and Broughman, (1995) state that private schools can be broadly divided into two classifications: those who are religiously oriented and those who are not (nonsectarian). However, they further differentiate "religious" by those who are Catholic and those classified as conservative Christian. These three broad classifications, nonsectarian, Catholic, and conservative Christian can then be broken down further into a 9-category typology developed by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) (McLaughlin et al., 1995). The

NCES study found that the three major categories of private schools were represented by those from (a) the independent schools, (b) conservative Christian schools, and (c) Catholic schools. McLaughlin et al. (1995), to show one of the distinctions between the groups, reported that the average tuition in 1991 for these three different private school groups ranged from $7,317 for the independent schools, to $2,061 for the Catholic schools and $2,037 for the Christian schools.

Private School Leaders and Policymakers Define Teacher Certification

To allow the respondents to articulate their cultural views regarding teacher certification, nondirective questions aptly named "grand-tour" questions (McCracken, 1988) were asked. The first grand-tour question asked was "What does teacher certification mean?" The answer to this question provides an understanding of how private school leaders define the term "certification." The following are some of the private school leaders' responses:

> It means that a teacher has to go through some sort of formalized training with an educational background. . . . It also means that some type of peer or superior type of peer or superior review process is set in place wherein somebody is looking at the credentials of a teacher, the paper credentials, more so than the particular characteristics of the particular teacher and passing judgement on whether that teacher is qualified to teach in a particular school. . . . But a certificate really is nothing more than an official document saying that so-and-so has accomplished so many hours of course work and has spent [*sic*] some type of an internship that it doesn't automatically mean that individual is a good teacher. (O'Malley, 1995)

> Teacher certification means a bureaucratic process whereby state departments of education and colleges of education develop what is really an 'unholy' alliance. So one pats the back of the other and the alliance really becomes self-serving. And that, in the worst extreme, is what it is all about, I think. That is not to say that I don't appreciate the fact that for example TEA with a thousand school districts, it's got to make some sort of judgements you know on whether the people working in

> the districts are good or not. And this is a way to do it. I'm not sure it's the best way but at least it's a way to try to develop accountability for your employees. (Ekdahl, 1995)
>
> Certification is a validation. . . . Certification is a validation that the teacher has met the academic, the professional requirements to be in the classroom. That's really the way we look at it. I think that in a number of places around the country, certification is looked at in the sense of licensure and that's legitimate but it is what we feel is the simplest way to validate that folks that are in the classroom meet the general, professional requirements that it takes to be a teacher. (Gibbs, 1995)
>
> Teacher certification literally means a process by which the competencies and to some extent even the quantifiable preparation of a teacher can be validated. Even though we may not be assured of success for a teacher just because they have a degree, just because they have certain experiences, there is no guarantee that that's going to make them a great teacher. However, . . . we do know that teachers who do not have such experiences have less likelihood of being successful. So there is a need for teachers to have some type of preparation in order to prepare themselves for the classroom. So teacher certification to us means a process of validation that teachers are at least quantitatively and hopefully qualitatively prepared to be in the classroom and certification documents that process of making that judgement. (Petry, 1995)

The private school leaders define teacher certification in several ways. They define it as a paper credential that passes judgment on whether or not a teacher is qualified to teach, or as a bureaucratic process to benefit the state departments of education and the colleges of education, or as a process to validate the academic and professional courses and preparation that individuals have had to qualify them to teach in the classroom. There was an understanding that certification should validate competencies, but it is believed that teacher certification as presented by the state departments of education does not provide the quality assurance implied by the word "certification."

When questioned about the distinction between certification and licensing, most of the private school leaders stated that the two words were used interchangeably and generally meant the same thing. It was pointed out that the two words are used to mean the same thing depending on how the state or state department of education involved

defines and uses the words. Some states use the word "license" to mean the same thing other states mean when they use the word "certification." Gibbs, (1995) however, pointed out a strong difference between certification and licensure:

> Well, I know that there are parts of the country in which a certificate, for all practical purposes is a license to teach. I don't know how you can get around that. When I think of licensure though, I think of it beyond meeting professional standards; I think of it in the sense of doing background checks and you're making sure you're a moral person and we do all of those sorts of things here. I really don't like to view a certificate as a license. I think that demeans the profession and certainly demeans the academic credibility of the individual.
>
> Certification in some ways could be compared to a license but I hesitate to use it in that regard because it might be misinterpreted as being just something for the public sector. (Petry, 1995)

Themes from the Private School Leaders

In analyzing the transcriptions from the private school leaders, six major themes were identified as the overriding indicators of the cultural perspectives by which the issue of teacher certification is viewed. The interviewer listened and looked for implications and assumptions that were obvious as well as for those which were underneath the surface in order to discover the themes. The six themes identified include: (a) values, (b) assumptions, (c) conflicts, (d) perceptions, (e) structures, and (f) expectations.

Once the themes were determined, the object of the analysis was to identify the categories, terms, relationships, and assumptions that informed the respondents' views of the topic—teacher certification. Using the six main themes, the researcher then proceeded to create a master outline to organize all the key information to identify the broad categories used as nodes (Weitzman & Miles, 1995) to branch down from the themes. Working with a hierarchically structured tree of categories (or nodes) forced the

researcher to think about the relationship among the categories. With the themes used as the root word, "tree diagrams" representing the categorical hierarchy of the cultural view of teacher certification were constructed. The results of the overall hierarchy-tree concept for teacher certification as perceived by the private school leaders and policymakers are shown in Figure 1.

Values

Values play an important role in the cultural perspectives of all those interviewed from the private school sector (see Figure 2. Tree Diagram of private school "Values"). The theme of values was identified primarily by respondents expressing the importance of maintaining the individual mission of the school or philosophy of the school's sponsoring organization. All five of the private school respondents noted that standards set by the state for teacher certification at times conflicted with the philosophy of the schools they represented. The religious school leaders expressed their concern of the state stepping into their mission:

> As far as religious schools are concerned it's a matter of mission,. . . My understanding, particularly the evangelical and fundamental Christian schools look upon their teachers as ministers and that their schools are integral parts of the church's ministry and the teacher-minister fulfills a dual role there. Therefore, in their minds, the state should not be put in the position to license a minister to teach a religious or moral education to children [in their Christian school]. (O'Malley, 1995)

> . . . I would hope that as we articulated our mission and our philosophy, our expectations of a good teacher and the relationship that we would hope would exist between a teacher, a student and the parents, that there would be a collaboration and acceptance of our requirements. . . . We don't have the same sense of what our expectations are in the school. I think we have a sense of a clear mission and philosophy. (Leonard, pp. 1995)

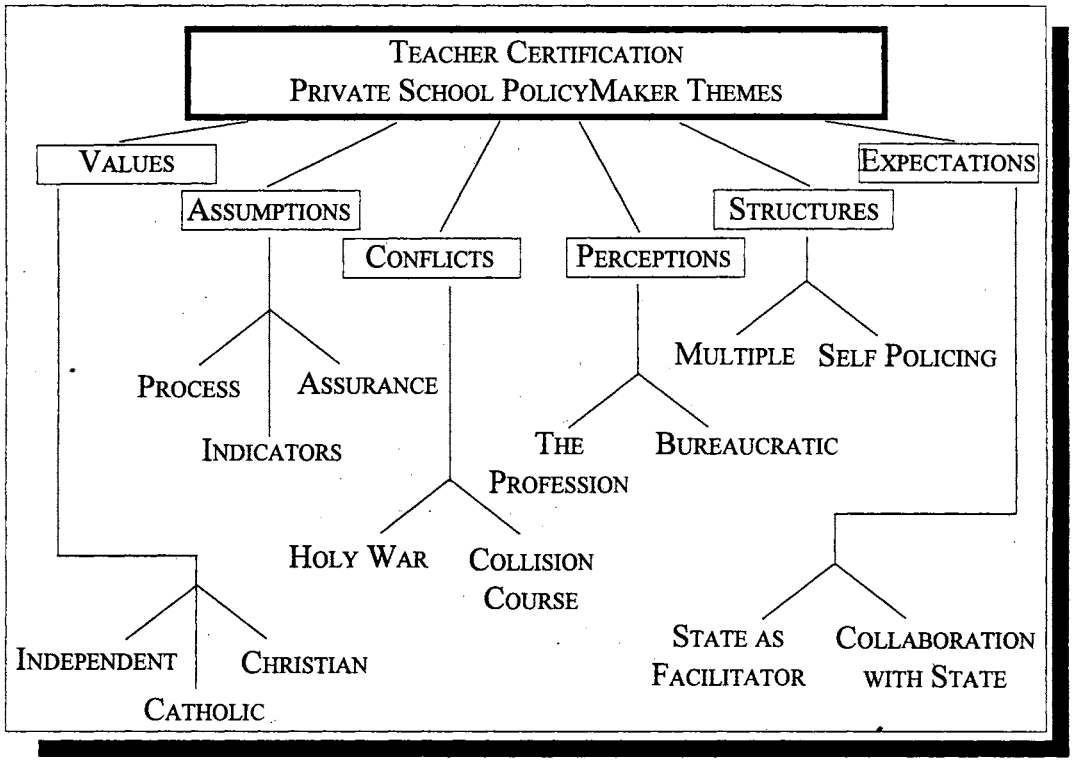

Figure 1. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of the Six Cultural Themes and Major Categories Identified by Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

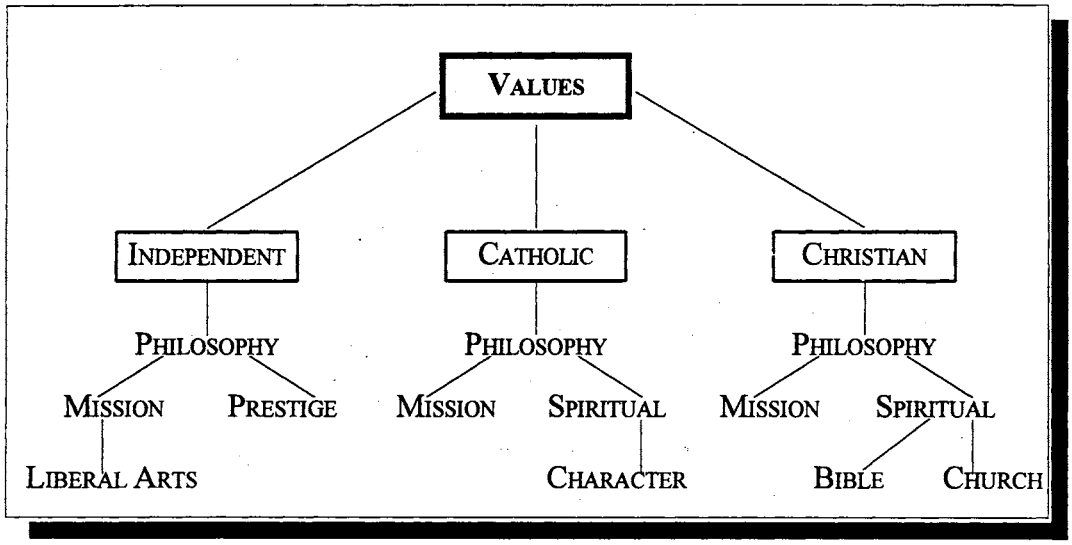

Figure 2. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Values" Identified by Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

> We felt that one of the major lacking issues in certification for our schools is to address the philosophical and the biblical requirements. Teaching in a Christian school is not just an academic endeavor. It is a spiritual endeavor. And there is a philosophical position and in the integration of God's Word with each of the various areas of teaching . . . because our focus is on the philosophical and the biblical. (Gibbs, 1995)

For those involved in the Catholic and the Christian schools the philosophy involves the mission and purpose of the school's existence, which includes developing character in students, maintaining and strengthening the church, and Bible training. Leonard (1995) expressed it this way:

> We have clear values we want everybody to buy into. If you come to the school, these are the values, and everybody's got them. It doesn't mean you have to be Catholic to teach there but you have to be Christian or you have to be able to say, 'Well, yes, I accept it and I won't negate these and I will work with everybody else to further them.' I think that's what's real critical.

The independent schools also feel that philosophy and mission play an important role in the issue of teacher certification; however, their mission places primary emphasis on providing a strong academic liberals arts education. The religious school leaders also identified strong academics as part of their mission, but it was secondary to spiritual and moral development.

In order to fulfill a strong academic and liberal arts mission, independent schools feel they want teachers strong in their discipline or majors in their field. They believe it provides the prestige which is an outgrowth of the philosophy of the school.

> Well, I think the prime example that is used is probably within the independent school community more so than within the religious school community. A number of prestigious independent schools prefer to get perhaps retired college presidents to go into their classrooms and teach physics or chemistry or philosophy or poetry or whatever the subject matter might be. But generally speaking, those college professors are not eligible at the time of their retirement to teach in a public school. They don't hold the necessary education hours. They don't have the necessary paper requirements that would allow them to teach legally in a public school. But

> the independent school people thrive on those types of teachers and they would prefer to hire that type of person that is knowledgeable in subject matter and then find them some type of peer guidance, enabling them to become the purveyors of that knowledge. (O'Malley, 1995)

> We do feel however, very, very smugly, that people exposed to education departments in the upper school level are at a disadvantage. We want liberal arts majors. If we want a science teacher, we want a science major—a college science major. (Ekdahl, 1995)

Assumptions

By describing what teacher certification means, the private school respondents began to provide insight into how they believe the process of teacher certification takes place, what the indicators are for evaluating teachers, and what assurances teacher certification provides. These categories then became the "assumptions" by which they view teacher certification (see Figure 3. Tree Diagram of private school 'Assumptions').

The process of teacher certification was described as one that should be voluntary, as differentiated from licensure, which would be considered mandatory. It was described as a process of validation both quantitatively and qualitatively and as a process of accountability for both the individual being certified and the agency doing the certification:

> . . . we have an obligation to the academic world to demonstrate that we are professionally prepared to be in the place of teaching children in the schools. (Gibbs, 1995)

> Well, I believe that the agency or group to which the school organization is accountable should be the ones doing the certification. I think that organization that does the certification has to submit itself in one way or another to the public welfare or the welfare of its constituency. That it in fact can facilitate and prove that its standards, its purposes and its programs are really meeting

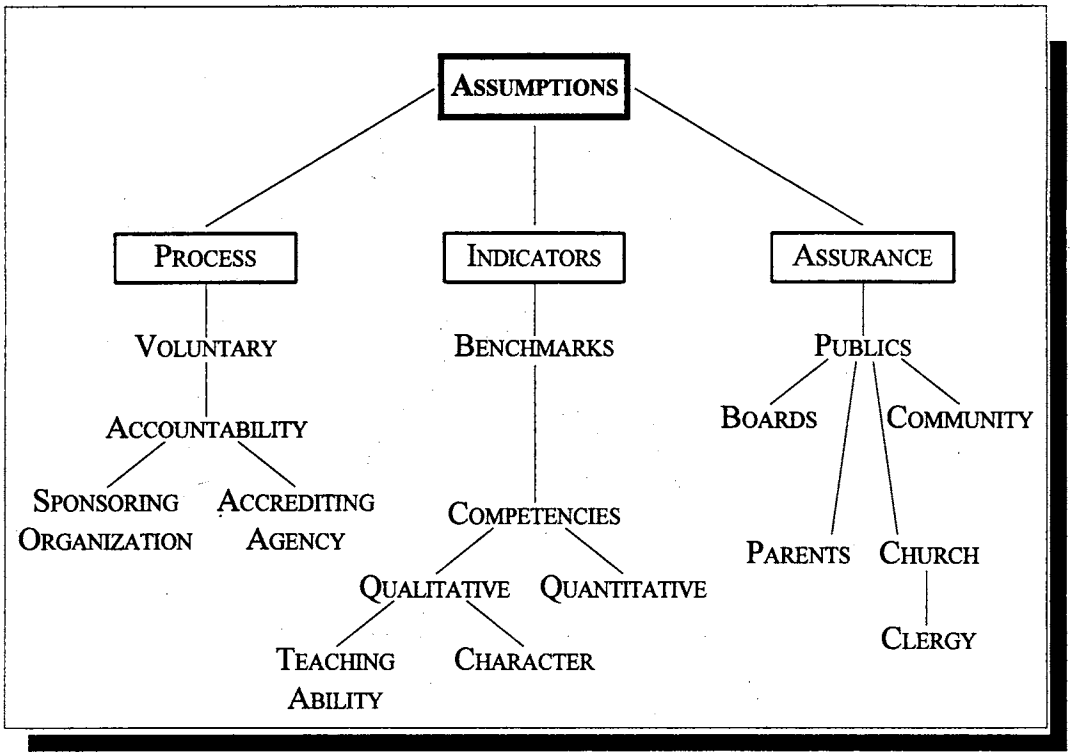

Figure 3. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Assumptions" Identified by Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

> the needs that ought to be met. If they can't do that they probably have no business being in the certification business. I think that is true of a state as well, not just individual organizations. But I think that the organization that ultimately supervises or accredits schools are the ones who should be doing the certifying. . . . Certification, I believe, should be done by the organization to which the schools are accountable. (Petry, 1995)

The assumptions include indicators of what teacher certification should do, such as provide benchmarks of quality, define competencies both qualitative and quantitative, and indicate the ability of the teacher as well as the character of the teacher.

> We do this with certificates. There is a recognition that there is a level attained or an achievement attained or some benchmark established to evaluate a person's experiences and or preparation. So certification provides others some documentation and validations of that credibility or that expectation. Without it we probably would have more problems and certainly less of a standard. Maybe even less competence, less ability for people to fulfil their jobs if we didn't have a certification process. (Petry, 1995)

The private school leaders seemed to be in agreement that the indicators of competencies, quality, ability, and character were all important issues for a certification process. Many of the respondents, however gave more negative comments with their views of the indicators:

> Well, I think the more important question there is what it does not do. It does not assure that the person going into the classroom is going to be a good teacher, is going to be a good person, a good role model for the students and is going to be able to provide the instructional knowledge necessary for that student to learn. (O'Malley, 1995)

> . . . certification means that the individual is a teacher, regardless of the individual's capabilities of knowledge or lack of knowledge. (O'Malley, 1995)

> In the first place, certification has nothing to do with the quality of a teacher and that is a red herring argument. That is, if you are trying to suggest that certification is the [guarantee] because it isn't. (Ekdahl, 1995)

> Well, I feel that it's divorced from good educational practices. I feel it's jumping through hoops. (Leonard, 1995)

> What it does from a negative perspective I think are two things. First of all, it is assumed, even sadly among a lot of educators, that a person who is certified is a good teacher and that is not true. Holding a license, so to speak, does not make you competent. It means you've gone through the hoops. But it doesn't mean you're good at what you do. . . . Certificates can give you that false sense of security that you really are competent and in reality you may not be. (Gibbs, 1995)

Along with the category of indicators, the private school leaders also noted that certification should provide an assurance of the teachers' preparations, qualifications, character, and competencies to the publics served by the schools:

> I think what it does is that it communicates to the academic community, to the parent constituency, to the community at large that I have prepared myself academically, professionally to teach your children. . . . We have an obligation to the academic world to demonstrate that we are professionally prepared to be in the place of teaching children in schools. (Gibbs, p. 1995)

> It's an assurance document as it were to the general public or others that somehow this person has gone through an evaluation. Their credentials have been documented and their credibility has been established. Now that is an assumption based on external factors that may or may not be true but at least that is an assumption in our society. (Petry, 1995)

> Our rationale is very much the same as each state asking for some type of documentation regarding the qualifications of the teacher. The parents do need some [assurance]. Whether they pick up a book called Consumer Guide and are looking for somebody to [say] that the Westinghouse refrigerator is good. They need something to say that the teachers that come into my school system, working with my kids are good people and that they're qualified to teach may kids and that they have at least a college education and they have some training in how to teach. . . . It does give schools, public and private, something upon which to hang their hat. (O'Malley, 1995)

> It might suggest that there is some credibility with the public because someone has this, in quotes, certification or license or whatever you want to call it. (Leonard, 1995)

Conflicts

Conflicts with teacher certification, as related to state certification, were identified as a theme by the private school respondents. One of the chief concerns points back to the foundational issues of philosophy and mission. These conflicts are created because of the different philosophical bases and different missions between public and private education. Private school leaders felt that at times certification requirements from the state departments of education force private schools to compromise their philosophy, convictions, and/or mission. Some states at times have even been hostile toward private schools by enforcing required state certification of all teachers, both public and private (see Figure 4, Tree Diagram of private school 'Conflicts').

O'Malley shares about his involvement during the early 1980s in the notorious Nebraska case in which the state forced the closing of a small church school in Louisville, Nebraska and placed the pastor, Edward Sullivan, in jail for refusing to have his teachers state certified. At that time, in Nebraska, the state law regarding compulsory attendance indicated that for a school to be in compliance with the state compulsory attendance law it had to be state approved. In order to receive state approval, all teachers were required to hold state certification. If the schools did not employ state certified teachers, they were not approved and the children attending those schools were considered truant (O'Malley, 1995).

In 1982, O'Malley was with the U.S. Department of Education and was called to Nebraska to try and help resolve the conflict. O'Malley has labeled this the "holy war"

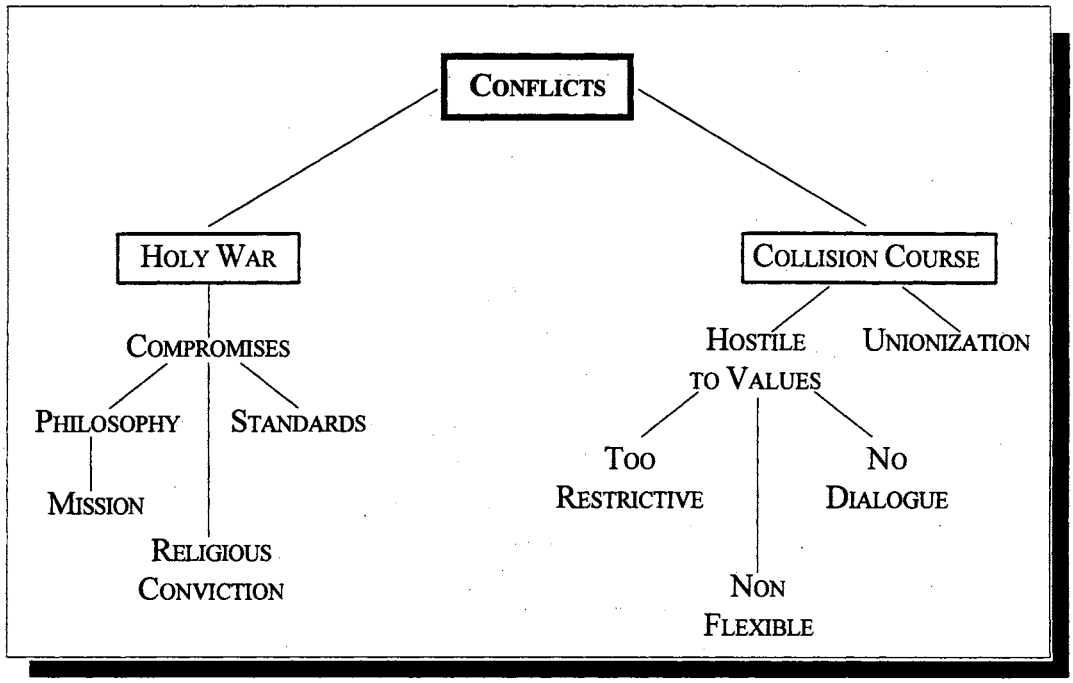

Figure 4. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Conflicts" Identified by the Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

regarding teacher certification. The U.S. Department of Education, under President Reagan and the Secretary of Education Terrell Bell, tried to unofficially mediate the situation. After meeting with the private school leadership in Nebraska, a couple of suggestions were made to resolve the situation. Most of the private school leadership received the ideas, however Sullivan did not want to do any compromising. The issue was the teacher certification, which was the key to school approval and compulsory attendance (O'Malley, 1995).

O'Malley (1995) explained why the private schools, especially the Christian schools, considered this a battle for their religious convictions and considered this hostility toward private education:

> About that time the new Governor, the incumbent had lost to Bob Kerry, who is now a U.S. Senator from Nebraska. Kerry became governor and part of his campaign was against the Christian schools. Very, very vocal in opposition to allowing Sullivan to continue his operation. But after he got in office, the issue remained hot and he appointed his chief advisor, a Robert Crosby or Cosby to establish a blue ribbon panel. Crosby put up this blue ribbon panel and they did some investigating and came back with the findings that Sullivan and the Christian schools were being persecuted unjustly by the state. So Kerry, to his credit, swung completely around, pushed legislation through—it's a unicameral legislature in Nebraska. It went through the first time which would have allowed the state or the school district to test the children and if they scored at or near the national norms, that the school would be exempt form the state teacher certification requirements, which was all the Christian schools wanted. The state legislature balked the second go-round and Kerry threatened to pull back the state appropriations bill for education. That got their attention and they passed it. The bill went to the, or the law went to the State Department of Education who was instructed to develop reasonable regulations. . . . The State Department came out with some pretty stringent requirements or regulations. . . . They went to the Governor and the Governor told the State Department of Education that they wouldn't be getting next years money unless they went back to the drawing board. . . . To my knowledge, the program is still working well. I haven't heard any complaints about it, but it scared a lot of people. (1995)

This case and other situations in different states give background why private school leaders perceive a holy war or a "collision course" with state teacher certification. Gibbs stated, "Why move down a road that you know you could have a strong collision in a few years (1995)"?

Another category in which the respondents expressed the possibility of conflict was that of hostility from the state. State departments of education really do not see the need to dialogue with private education leaders regarding issues and requirements of teacher certification, and states have become nonflexible in their standards and have become too restrictive.

> I have tried in the probably dozen of years that I have been doing this to establish a relationship with certification departments and if I could speak frankly, that just isn't going to happen. Certification programs are very territorial and states don't even cooperate very well with each other, let alone cooperate with independent, private school groups. (Gibbs, 1995)

> . . . the State Department came out with some pretty stringent requirements or regulations . . . and . . . the Nebraska Catholic Conference and Nebraska CAPE even thought they were being too stringent. (O'Malley, 1995)

> And so I will look at it that way because sometimes it is very difficult to go through the loops and hoops that a particular state might want you to do when it has nothing to do with good teaching and learning. . . . In places where I've been, usually that standards for state certification seem to be fairly flexible, somewhat flexible. There was room for options and state certification seemed to be easier to acquire than in Oklahoma; I get a sense in Oklahoma that the certification is more determined more by the colleges and universities and the requirements keep changing and this is what I have found difficult to work with. . . . I feel that it's divorced from good educational practices. (Leonard, 1995)

> But every time that I see national organizations or groups attempt to wrestle with this challenge, they become more specific, they become more prescriptive, they add more courses and it becomes more and more confining rather than liberating. Even to the point to where it you look back at my educational preparation, you would find such redundancy because of the extreme number of education courses I had to take to meet certification and qualifications for graduation. . . . I think there needs to be a whole new packaging . . . and become far more flexible. . . . (Petry, 1995)

An additional concern relating to the collision-course concept is that of the issue of teacher certification leading to the National Education Association (NEA) and to the unionization of private school teachers. O'Malley voices this concern by sharing about the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act HR 6:

> There are twenty-five to thirty references in state plans, local plans, indicators, etc., wherein the state and the school district would be getting more federal money if they could show an increase in the numbers of teachers certificated—if they tighten up their certification process. Again I believe that is a move that is very strongly influenced by the teachers' union. . . . If a state needs to show an increase in the numbers of teachers state certificated, and if a state already requires its public teachers to be state certificated, the only way they're going to show an increase in certification is to change the existing state law and start mandating that private school teachers be state certificated. That's if they want to get the added federal money. What that does—well it could do a couple of things. One is it could create a 'holy war' like we did have in Nebraska, or it could bring more possible members into the teachers' union because once they are certificated they've taken a step in that direction. . . . It also puts more people through the colleges of education which I think can be at times hostile to the promotion of religious or moral values - family values. Depending upon the institution and the faculty. (O'Malley, 1995)

Perceptions

The private school leaders and policymakers identified cultural categories that identified the theme "perceptions." Perceptions of teacher certification give insight into what concepts or preconceived notions the private school leaders have of the topic. Many of the perceptions focus more on negative connotations. The leaders spoke of teacher certification as a bureaucratic process and a paper credential that has become too stringent and controlled by the state departments of education in collusion with the college and university departments of education (see Figure 5, Tree Diagram of private school 'Perceptions').

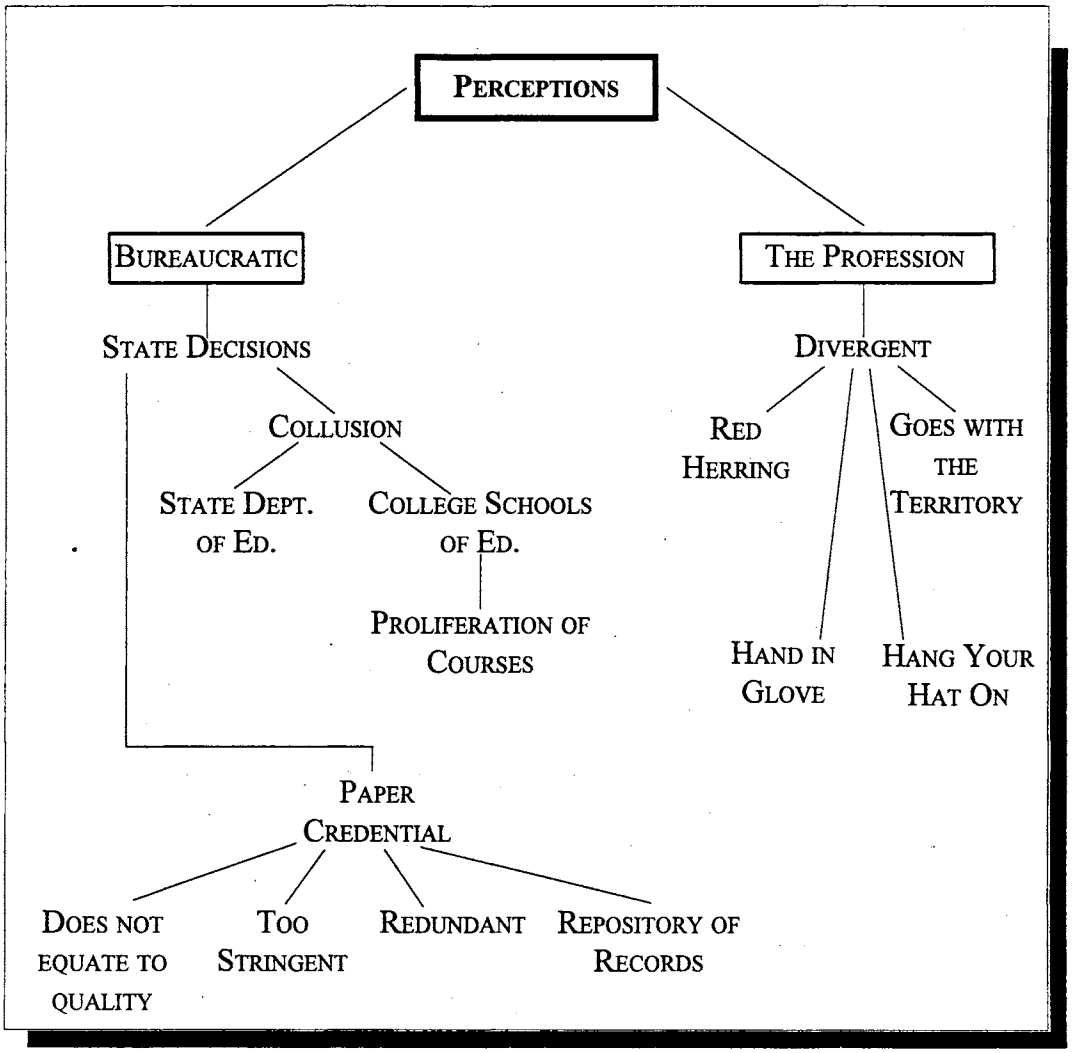

Figure 5. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Perceptions" Identified by the Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

The independent schools seem to express the strongest perception of teacher certification as being a bureaucratic process:

> It means a bureaucratic process whereby state departments of education and colleges of education develop what is really an unholy alliance. So one pats the back of the other and it is really self serving . . . nothing more than what I originally said about the collusion between state departments and colleges of education. And so we need this paper exercise? I want to also say though that certification is different from education. The certification of teachers is simply paperwork. Bureaucratic paperwork. . . . In other words, the thing has been watered down because of bureaucratic compliance and because of the proliferation of courses within education departments. It's really meaningless. (Ekdahl, 1995).

> Credentialism is misunderstood. Credentialism is supposed to mean that one. . . it's supposed to be that assurance and it isn't. And I think that's the problem with certification. It's not an assurance that anybody is any good. . . . the only thing it really does mean is that someone has passed through the paper requirements and that has nothing to do with what one does in a classroom. (Ekdahl, 1995)

There were also positive perceptions of teacher certification in terms of validating quality and the development of the teaching profession:

> So teacher certification to us means a process of validation that teachers are at least quantitatively and hopefully qualitatively prepared to be in the classroom and certification documents that process of making that judgement. (Petry, 1995)

> That's why we encourage our folks to get state certification. Because we feel like it is really a hand in glove in fulfilling the professional and general education requirements. (Gibbs, 1995)

There was a very interesting perception articulated about the equating of teacher certification to that of certification in other professions such for doctors or attorneys:

> It's a red herring. And the reason it is, is that there is a determined body of knowledge that a physician must acquire. It has been determined by whatever his specialties. That there has been so much work done in the specialty that there is

> actual knowledge about, for example an eye and how it functions and this and that. And a lawyer, there are historical court cases which create a case history where he can be quizzed on that. The problem with education is that although there is much knowledge right now about how the brain works than there was in the past, there is still no determination, no agreed upon function about how education takes place and since you can't agree upon how it takes place, how can you certify those who are going to teach it. Who are going to be teachers? And on top of that, we have no determination in this society of what it means to be educated. And since you have no idea what it means to be educated, how can you quiz those who are going to educate or help educate? What I perceive as an educated person, is [directly] different from what, for example, my son-in-law perceives as an educated person. And we would have incredibly different requirements because of our perceptions of society and what it all means. (Ekdahl, 1995)

Structures

The interviews with the private school leaders and policymakers revealed three divergent structures within the private school sector: (a) independent schools, (b) Catholic schools, and (c) Christian schools. Using "structure" as the root theme, it became obvious that private school leaders had their own ideas, methods, and suggestions for certifying teachers. The private school leaders talked about the development of their own teacher training programs, some referred to their schools' accrediting agencies as having developed teacher certification programs designed for private school teachers, and others spoke of the school administrator or principal as being the individual who verified the quality of a teacher to their publics (see Figure 6, Tree diagram of private school structures). O'Malley refers to the divergences of structure within the private schools:

> There seems to be a divergence on the value of teacher certification in private education, the totality of private education . . . a substantial number of independent school administrators and administrators from church related school organizations feel pretty strongly that the teacher certification programs may not be exactly what their schools are looking for. (1995)

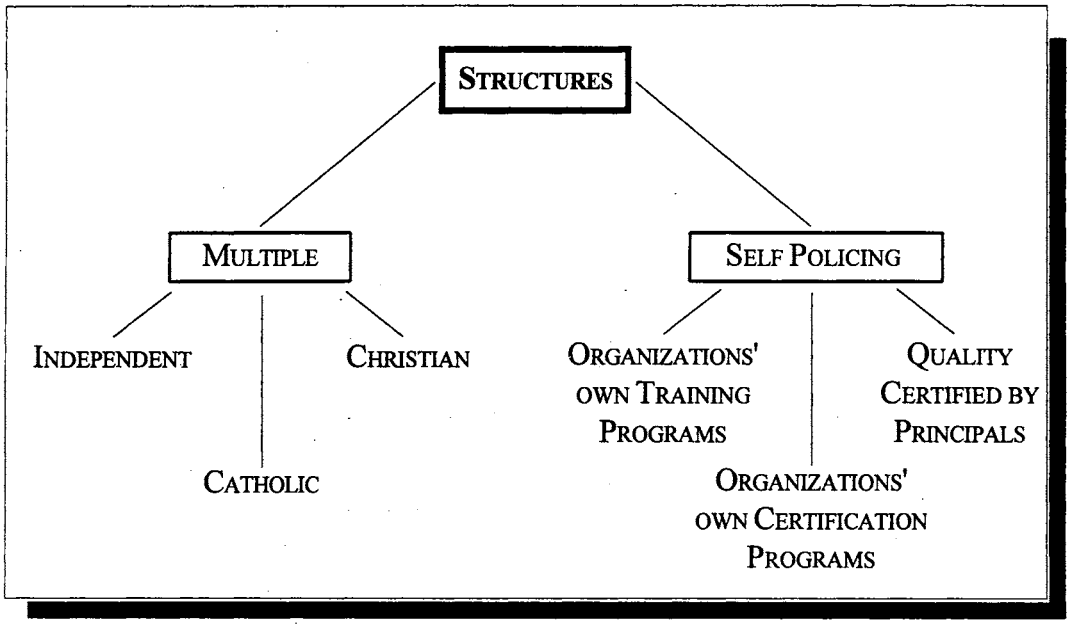

Figure 6. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Structures" Identified by Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

> The private school was developing their own teacher certification process, master plans, inservice plans, staff development plans. All of which were recognized by the state department of education. In other words, it was complete self-policing. . . The private schools can set up their own staff development programs, what they want their teachers to get points towards their certification. (O'Malley, 1995)

> We work with a group of beginning teachers every year, first year teachers. And one of the things we show them is a tape . . . on how to teach . . . . We have a three, four day event in October in which we, they have to come to us in Dallas and we start off discussing learning styles. . . . Brand new teachers . . . almost none of them would have certificates. (Ekdahl, 1995)

> Now these people had a liberal arts degree so they did not have . . . no one had an education degree because Notre Dame does not offer an education degree. . . . They came to our schools so we set up a very strict routine for supervision. Like ten ongoing formation expectations. They were monitored. They had someone who walked with them all year long and incorporated them into the school community and so on. And after the end of the first year they went back to Notre Dame. They reflected on their experience, they helped one another and they had an additional set of courses. Another four courses or whatever and now they're back in our schools again and they have projects they're completing which involves looking at what is a good teacher. What do you need to do to be a good teacher, reflecting on your experience. Part research, part practical experience . . . and they did not have one education course in their college. . . . I mean it's like "Teach America" but it's for our schools. (Leonard, 1995)

> If they choose to be an accredited school, which is one of the services we provide, then the teacher certification is one of the standards in order for the school to maintain ACSI accreditation. . . . I have 13,600 people in the certification program at one level or another. (Gibbs, 1995)

> See, I'm not convinced that . . . there should be any certification . . . because we have to trust in the head of the school to know who is a good teacher and who is not. . . . he's got his own board and he's got his public he's got to answer to. (Ekdahl, 1995)

Expectations

The theme "expectations" explains the way private school leaders and policymakers would like to see teacher certification worked out and implemented. The respondents seem to indicate a desire to develop a more cooperative relationship, to collaborate, with

the state departments of education. In some ways they would like to see the state be a facilitator by providing some services and helpful guides to validating the quality of an individual for the classroom without becoming too restrictive. These leaders would also like to see the states allow more diversity, permit variations and be more flexible (see Figure 7, Tree Diagram of private school 'Expectations').

> Since that time, a number of states have picked up on what was called the 'Florida Model' where the state and the private school leadership started working toward some type of agreement. Setting up meetings between the State Department of Education and private school leadership, developing a self-policing process and just keeping the, just having a mechanism for communication. . . . And as a result we haven't had those 'holy wars' (O'Malley, 1995).

> . . . it's from our diversity that we're able to do more . . . therefore, I think even our evaluation systems ought to allow for more variations and more variability than what have been typically done in the past . . . and become far more flexible. . . . (Petry, 1995)

> So I think we need to build and work with the state. I think we need to try to do that first and foremost but if there would be some allowances so that they would recognize what we're doing that's credible and then we would accept the courses from the colleges and universities that would be credible as far as we're concerned . . . that there would be a collaboration and acceptance of our requirements and that we would be able to work out jointly what we would see as necessary and good and proper. (Leonard, 1995)

As a private school leader and policymakers, Gibbs (1995) shares an expectation of what he sees in the future for private educators as well as what his expectations are for working with states:

> Maybe just a couple of observation if I would do that. One of the reasons in addition to the reason I have given as to why we as an organization encourage our folks to get certification is we see in the future a continuing demand for accountability and we, as an organization do not desire to be confrontational with government, and we feel that rather than states or local communities moving away

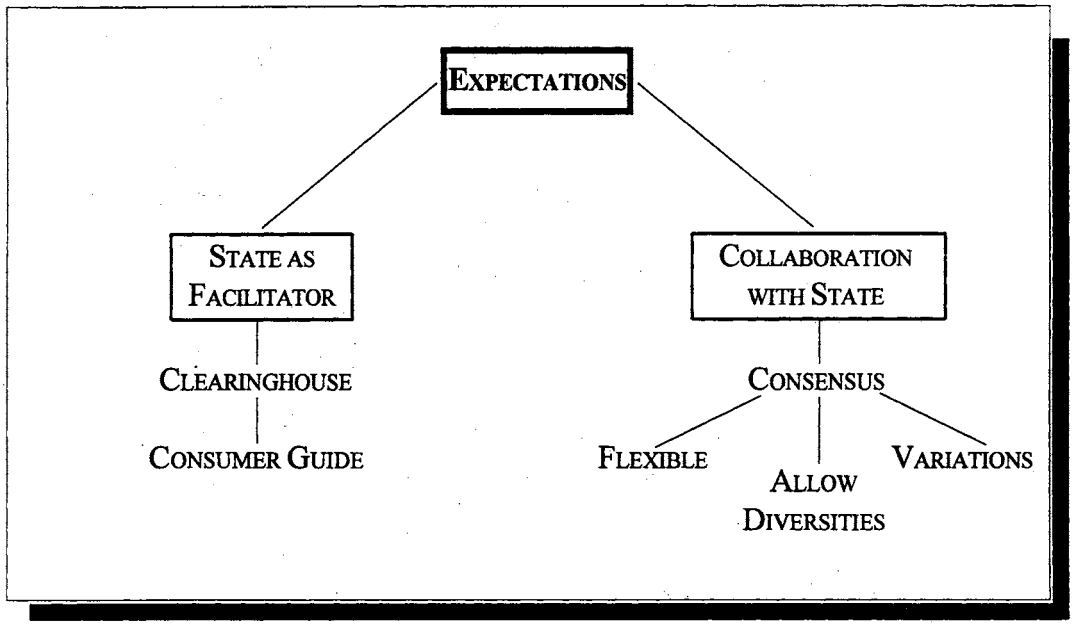

Figure 7. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Expectations" Identified by Private School Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

> from certification, we sense there will be an increasing demand for them. And so we again tell our folks, not just for the issue of testimony to the community, but also as we try to predict where our country is going. . . . this is a strong message we send to our colleges, our member college, that they ought to look seriously at preparing folks that will meet state certification requirements. Why move down a road that you know you could have a strong collision in a few years? And that's what we sense, at least at this point. We sense we could be on a collision course. A lot of our schools, if they don't take more seriously the fact that accountability is a major issue in education. And that comes in personal certification accountability and we ought to be gearing up for that.

A Summary of the Cultural Views of Private School Leaders and Policymakers

A cultural view of teacher certification from private school leaders and policymakers reveals three distinct subcultures within the private school community: (a) independent schools, (b) Catholic schools, and (b) Christian schools. These subcultures break down even further within each of the private school groups. The subcultures evidence a divergence of thought pertaining to the need and value of certification in private education, however by discovering categories and determining that there was a relationship among the categories, six major themes were identified. These six themes suggest an interrelationship within the three distinct subcultures of private education. Using the themes, categories and the literature review as a guide, the transcriptions yielded access to the way private school leaders construct the world of teacher certification.

The private school leaders define teacher certification in several ways. Some define teacher certification as a validation process. They believe that it should be a process by which teacher preparation and competencies assure the schools and the public

that a teacher is qualified to be in the classroom. However, the private school leaders' view of state certification is that it provides a false sense of security because it does not provide that quality assurance implied by the word certification. Others define it as a paper credential which passes judgment on whether a teacher is qualified to teach, and they define it as a bureaucratic process to benefit the state departments of education in collusion with the colleges of education.

When asked the distinction between licensing and certification, most private school leaders thought the words were use interchangeably; some states use the word certification while others use the word license. One leader noted, however, that the term licensure was demeaning and that certification stood for a higher professional standard. Licensing is thought to be something to be used for the public sector. Petry (1995) made this analogy when making the distinction between licensure and certification:

> . . . you just have some permit, a drivers permit, kind of an introductory kind of license, if you will, to begin, but that you don't really receive certification or permanent certification until you have fulfilled certain requirements and that the results are observable that really show that you are a good teacher.

One of the major themes identified, was the theme of "values." Values, involve the very heart of the private schools, which define their philosophies and missions. The religious school leaders demonstrated their concern that the states have had a tendency to over reach and step into the philosophy and mission of their schools by the requirements they set. At times states have even become hostile toward private schools which have created what has been termed "holy wars." The leaders of the Catholic and Christian schools define their philosophy and mission as being one of not just an academic endeavor but a spiritual endeavor also. As a matter of prestige and to fulfill

their mission of a strong academic and liberal arts program, the independent schools maintain a philosophy which includes the desire to hire individuals who are highly qualified in their major field and who may not necessarily hold a state certificate. The independent school leaders and policymakers expressed the strongest sentiments against state certification because they want to maintain the freedom to hire whomever they deem qualified to teach the students in their schools.

It has been stated that credentialism is misunderstood. Credentialism is supposed to be an assurance of professional preparation and quality competencies, as well as an assurance that the individual is a good teacher in the classroom. It is believed that the states have made it a paper credential with stringent requirements and regulations that have created a proliferation of college courses. These requirements do not document that the individual is a good teacher and do not provide the necessary guarantee to change the general public's perception.

However, even with some of the negative perceptions of teacher certification, such as bureaucracy or the conflicts with the state departments of education and concerns of collusion with the college departments of education, there are also positive perceptions. The private school leaders do see the need for a validation process to prepare an individual, both quantitatively and qualitatively, to be in a classroom. The challenge facing private school leaders is who should be doing that validation. Some private school leaders indicated that it should be the accrediting agencies the schools are accountable to and that in turn the states would recognize the private school accrediting agencies.

All of the private school leaders indicated they either had their own teacher certification program in place or their organizations provided ongoing teacher development and in-service training for their schools' new and current teachers. Some of the private school leaders believe that certification is important for assurance to the publics they serve and that it is a "hand in glove," the fulfilling of the professional and general education requirements.

Generally, the private school leadership has expectations of collaborating with the states in terms of teacher certification. They see in the future there is going to be more and more of a demand for accountability, and they do not want to be confrontational with the government. The leaders want to build a relationship with the states to facilitate the recognition of their credibility and to work out jointly what requirements would be necessary to avoid a collision course or a holy war. The desire is that the states would enter into a dialogue and develop the mechanism for communication. The private school leaders would also like to see the states allow more diversity, permit variations, and become more flexible.

Petry (1995) provides a concise glimpse of the categories and logic by which private school leaders and policymakers see the topic of teacher certification:

> Without it we probably would have more problems and certainly less of a standard. Maybe even less competence, less ability for people to fulfil their jobs if we didn't have a certification process. At the same time we have to evaluate whose certification process, whose values, whose process, whose credibility. It's at that point where I think we can begin to differentiate concerning who needs to make those judgments, who needs to say that. And in a society such as this we always are looking at the ultimate outcome or fruit and that in itself is probably the best indicator as to whether those who are contributing to a learning process are in fact capable of making meaningful contributions—such as teachers. In that, that process should be documented by some type of certificate. Some kind of piece paper, some kind of a review, some kind of a degree. But in this case we are

> talking about a credential called certification which is built upon the validation of all those kinds of expectations that we have for teachers. . . . I think that certification is the process of validating the competencies of individuals who take those very responsible positions.

Cultural Views of Public Education

Leaders and Policymakers

In conducting this study, eight key leaders and policymakers representing the state and national public education arena were interviewed to gain an understanding of their views concerning teacher certification. The interviewees included three individuals from different state departments of education; those involved at the state level in professional development, teacher preparation and certification, and professional standards development. One of the respondents had been a public school administrator and a superintendent of public education for 30-plus years and currently serves in a university as the dean of the school of education. There were four individuals on the national level who provided their cultural perspectives of teacher certification. They represented the National Center for Education Information (NCEI), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Each of the respondents has been actively involved in state and national educational reforms concerning teacher preparation, teacher improvement, and teacher certification.

Themes from Public School Policymakers

In analyzing the transcriptions from the public school policymakers, five major themes were identified as the primary understandings by which the culture of teacher certification is identified. Just as was done with the private school policymakers, the researcher listened and looked for the implications and assumptions by which public policymakers viewed the world of teacher certification. Five major themes were then named after identifying the categories discovered in the review of the transcriptions. The five themes named include: (a) distinctives, (b) process, (c) paradigms, (d) the profession, and (e) perspectives. The results of the over all hierarchy tree concept for teacher certification as perceived by the public education policymakers are shown in Figure 8.

Public School Leaders and Policymakers Define Teacher Certification

When asked to explain what teacher certification means, the national public school policymakers and one of the state leaders wanted to first make a clear distinction between the word "certification" and the word "licensure." As they articulated their views, it became apparent that defining the two terms, certification and licensure, was one of the major themes that would be used to gain insight into the cultural perspective of teacher certification as seen by the public school policymakers. However, it was also found that not all state public school leaders had an understanding of the distinctives that appear to be evolving in the culture.

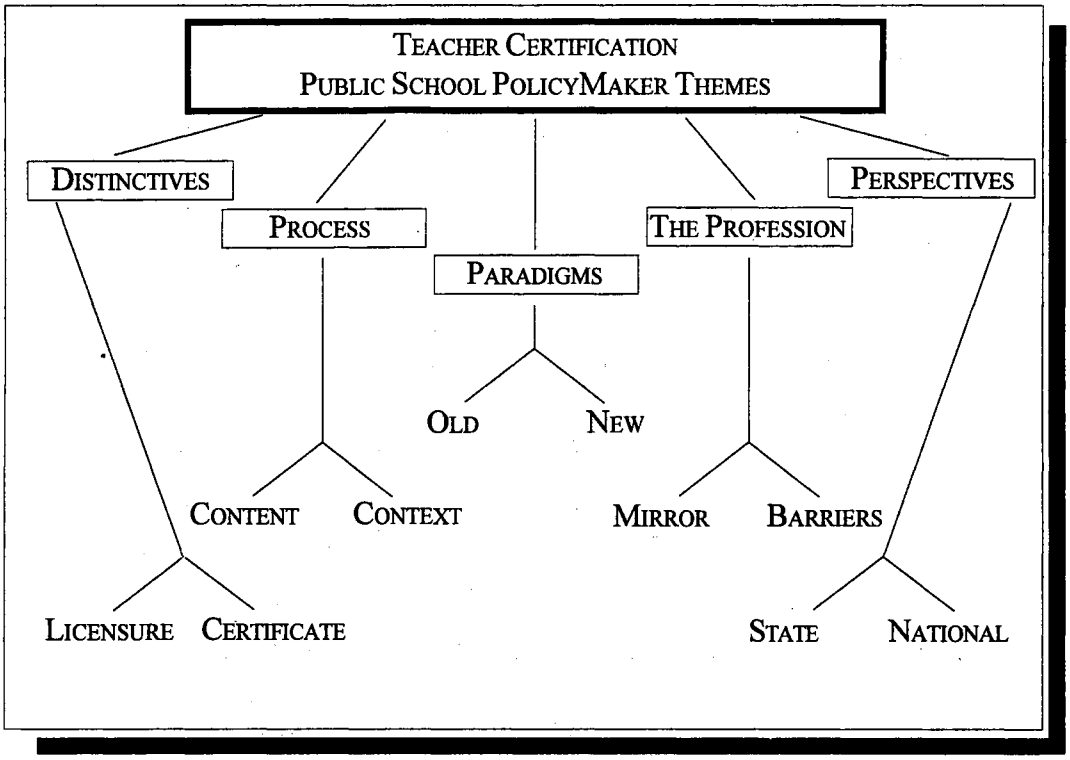

Figure 8. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of the Five Cultural Themes and Major Categories Identified by Public Education Leaders and Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

The hermeneutics of teacher certification became the first major theme developed from the categories discovered in public education policymakers' cultural views of teacher certification. The interpretation of the meaning of the word "certification" lead to the root word "distinctives" because a clear distinction was made between the two terms, certification and licensure (see Figure 9, Tree Diagram of public school 'Distinctives').

Wise points out that the way teacher certification is currently used is a misnomer and that there is a change taking place in the use of the two words, certification and licensure:

> Well, actually I believe that teacher certification as it is currently used is something of a misnomer. It is actually a process that is more usually known as licensing and represents a grant by the state to an individual of the license to practice a particular profession, in this case, teaching. So I think that the term certification is misused in this field and, in fact there is a gradual shift in a use of the nomenclature. More and more states are beginning to use the term license. (p. 2)

Other public school leaders expressed a difference between the two terms:

> Well, . . . I'm sure you've run into the relatively new debate about the difference between teacher licensing and teacher certification and that's a legitimate distinction. (Feistritzer, p. 5)

> We're trying to get the field to begin to make that distinction. Because the label that has been put on everything is certification. The state gives you a certificate to teach da-da-da-da, and what we're trying to do is say what the state will be doing is licensing you to teach and that certification is what the profession does to recognize outstanding ability. (Miller, p. 7)

> What certification means to me is evolving into our new Certification Board which I hope to influence teacher certification in this state, is moving to defining criteria for professional teacher. We will be licensing teachers as well as certifying teachers. (Haynes, p. 12)

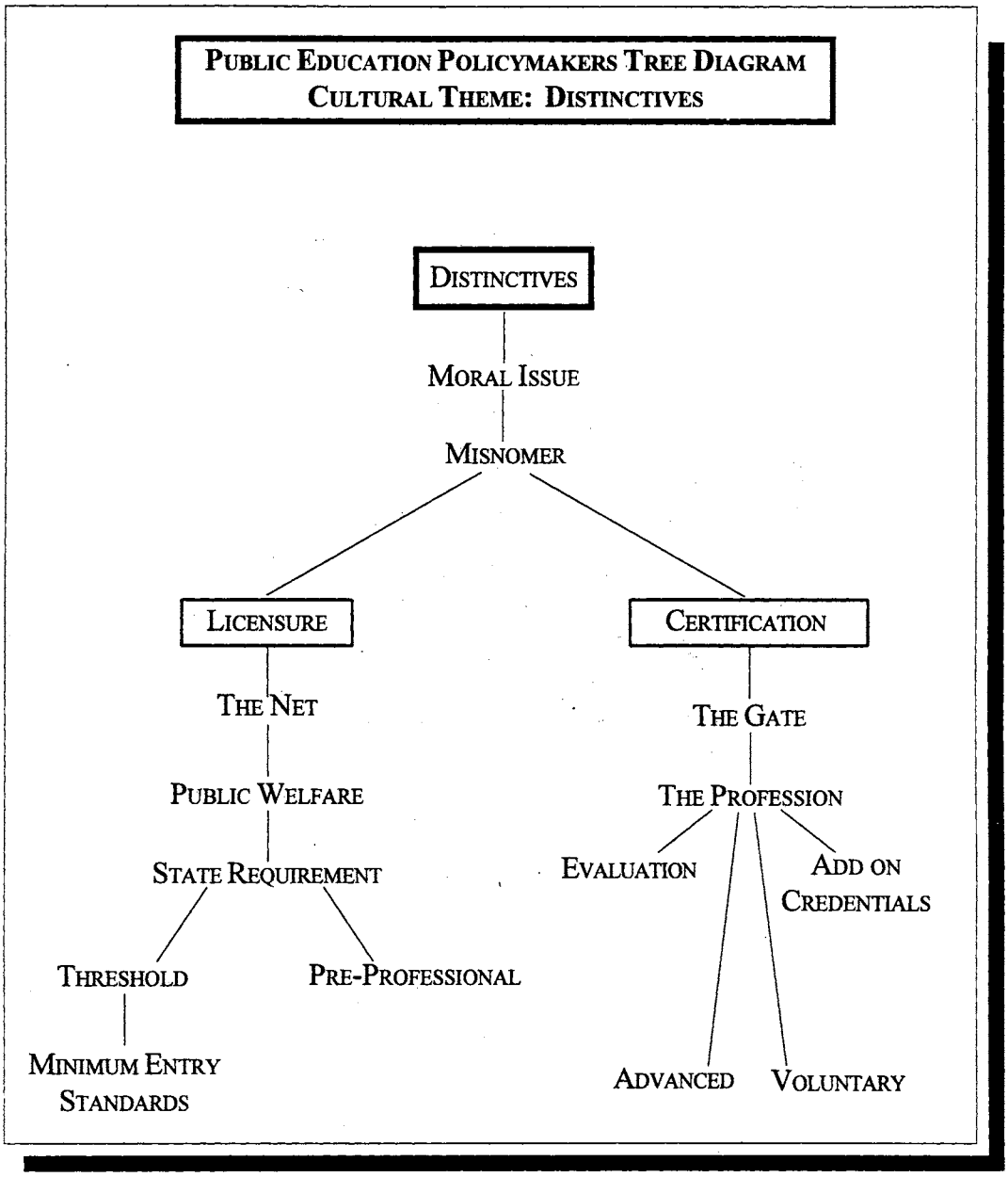

Figure 9. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Distinctives" Identified by Policy Education Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

Distinctives

To make the distinction between licensure and certification, the public school policymakers defined both terms. When describing the use of the word licensing, the following terms and categories were found to be used: state requirements, public welfare, threshold requirements, and minimum-entry standards. The following are some of the statements regarding licensing:

> Well, licensing refers more to the legal aspect of it. You know, like you can't teach in any state in this nation without a license to teach in that state. Legally you can't. (Feistritzer, p. 5)

> I believe the intent . . . is to focus on the state, authoritative actions by state governments in determining who may teach within the state. Which, in most professions, would be called licensure and which we call licensure and which I believe a lot of people are going to start to call licensure. But in the teaching field, up to now, back from the turn of the century, the reform movements and early civil service initiatives in government in general and in teaching in the early twenties, the term teacher certification came to be used to describe the actions of the state governments to establish the entry standards for teaching or the entry process. And so, teacher certification prior to the advent of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, the term teacher certification has meant actions by state government using their authority, to establish a process or threshold or entry standard of some kind to determine who may teach in the state, what they have to do in order to get permission to teach in a state and a whole series of legislative regulatory actions by state government associated with essentially a licensure function. (Kelly, 1995)

The term "certification" was identified as something that is taking on new meaning, different from using the word interchangeably with the word "licensure" as has been done in many states. Some public policymakers are still found to be co-mingling the two terms. The following are some of the responses given when asked what the distinction is between certification and licensing:

> Nothing . . . we call what teachers need in order to teach a Professional Certificate. You're licensed by the state to teach but we don't call it a license as such. (Della Bella, 1995)

> . . . certifying teachers, that's different than licensing teachers. . . . Now, we did see when we were doing the alternative teacher certification update this year that there were states that, what we do is send them what we've printed last year and have them make changes. And it was interesting that a couple of states that everywhere that certification was written wrote in "licensing." So they have changed the name of their offices of their credentialing division to licensing and not certification. . . . (Feistritzer, 1995)

Wise (1995) states that certification is a misnomer in the way it is used. He states:

> . . . I believe that teacher certification as it is currently used is something of a misnomer. It is actually a process that is more usually known as licensing and represents a grant by the state to an individual of the license to practice a particular profession. In this case teaching. So I think that the term certification is misused in this field. And in fact there is a gradual shift in use of the nomenclature. More and more states are beginning to use the term license.

However, those public policymakers who make the strong distinction between licensure and certification identify the following categories in their description of certification: a moral issue, the gate, an entrance to the profession, voluntary advanced standards, add on credentials, and professional evaluation (see Figure 9. Tree diagram of public policymakers distinctives). The following comments reflect these categories:

> And so then it [teacher certification] becomes kind of, for those who believe, a moral issue. Do you allow anyone who simply asserts that they wish to be a teacher to be a teacher? And it all then rest entirely on whether you believe there's special knowledge and wisdom requisite to teaching. (Wise, 1995)

> . . . certification is just a minimum requirement for entry into the profession. (Della Bella, 1995)

> . . . the term certification came to be used to describe the actions of the state governments to establish the entry standards for teaching, or the entry process. And so teacher certifi-ation, prior to the advent of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, the term teacher certification has meant . . . a process or threshold or entry standard of some kind. . . . (Kelly, 1995)

> All of that distinguishes the National Board's voluntary national assessment program [teacher certification] from the state licensure programs. (Kelly, 1995)
>
> But, I repeat and emphasize that our program [national teacher certification] is aimed at a particular niche which is: advanced, voluntary, advanced professional certification. And not the authoritative action of states to license teachers. (Kelly, 1995)
>
> . . . because you can't teach in the state, by law, without having a license to teach in the state. Now that's different they say, than certification which people are now associating with sort of added on credentials. (Feistritzer, 1995)
>
> That is what this state has to do in terms of issuing an initial license which leads to a professional certificate. (Haynes, 1995)
>
> Well, if you take the definition of certification differently, the way I was describing it earlier, it would be any kind of a private organization from within the profession, like the National Board, if that continues. It should be the profession itself recognizing the expertise [professional evaluation] of that particular practitioner. (Miller, 1995)

Wise, makes the distinction very clear when defining both licensing and certification:

> Licensing occurs early on. It used to be right at the point of starting to teach. It's kind of moving out right now to a year or two beyond the beginning of the teaching career. The system of certification that is being established is based upon a conception of more highly accomplished teaching. Rather than beginning teacher skills. So licensing attends to beginning teacher skills where as certification attends to more accomplished teaching practice. So that's the difference. I mean, it isn't the assessment systems. They should probably share a lot of characteristics in common. It's just that there are different levels of expectations that one has of a beginning teacher versus [one] who has mastered, more nearly mastered the skills associated with highly accomplished teaching.

Process

A review of the cultural categories revealed the process to teacher certification as a theme identified by the public school policymakers. Public policymakers felt it important that teacher certification be a process to assure the public and peers that the children are being taught by qualified individuals. This process of assurance is the means by which an

individual then is given access to the entrance or the gateway to public recognition. The process is broken down into two main categories. The first is content. This includes the competencies, knowledge base, and course work an individual has had to qualify for the right to teach. The second is the context, which involves the where and how of the process (see Figure 10, Tree Diagram of public policy 'Process').

The following statements reflect the category "assurance," defined as important to the public and peer educators:

> Certification generally provides an assurance to the employer, the administrator, the Board of Education, that the teacher is prepared to teach the particular subject for which they're being employed to teach. Secondly, it lets the patrons in a school district know that the teacher has met certain competencies. . . . For the peers with whom they're working it also provides the assurance that they have a person who has had training comparable to the other teachers joining their faculty. (Oliver, 1995)

> . . . society feels some compulsion to assure that helpless clients are served by people who know what they are doing. . . . What it is supposed to do is to provide public assurance that an individual has what it takes to represent himself or herself as a member of that profession and also therefor to be able to serve clients. (Wise, 1995)

> From the state's perspective, certification serves as a tool to give some assurances that the people who are interested with what we all think is a very important task of educating children, that they have some common training and background and that they have passed the series of tests. . . . It basically gives assurances that people have a degree of training that the public can feel good about. (Della Bella, 1995)

The process was defined as consisting of the content required to qualify a teacher for certification. The categories included in the content area are the competencies and knowledge base of the individual and the process of gaining that knowledge base. Competencies and knowledge involve the educational background and academic course

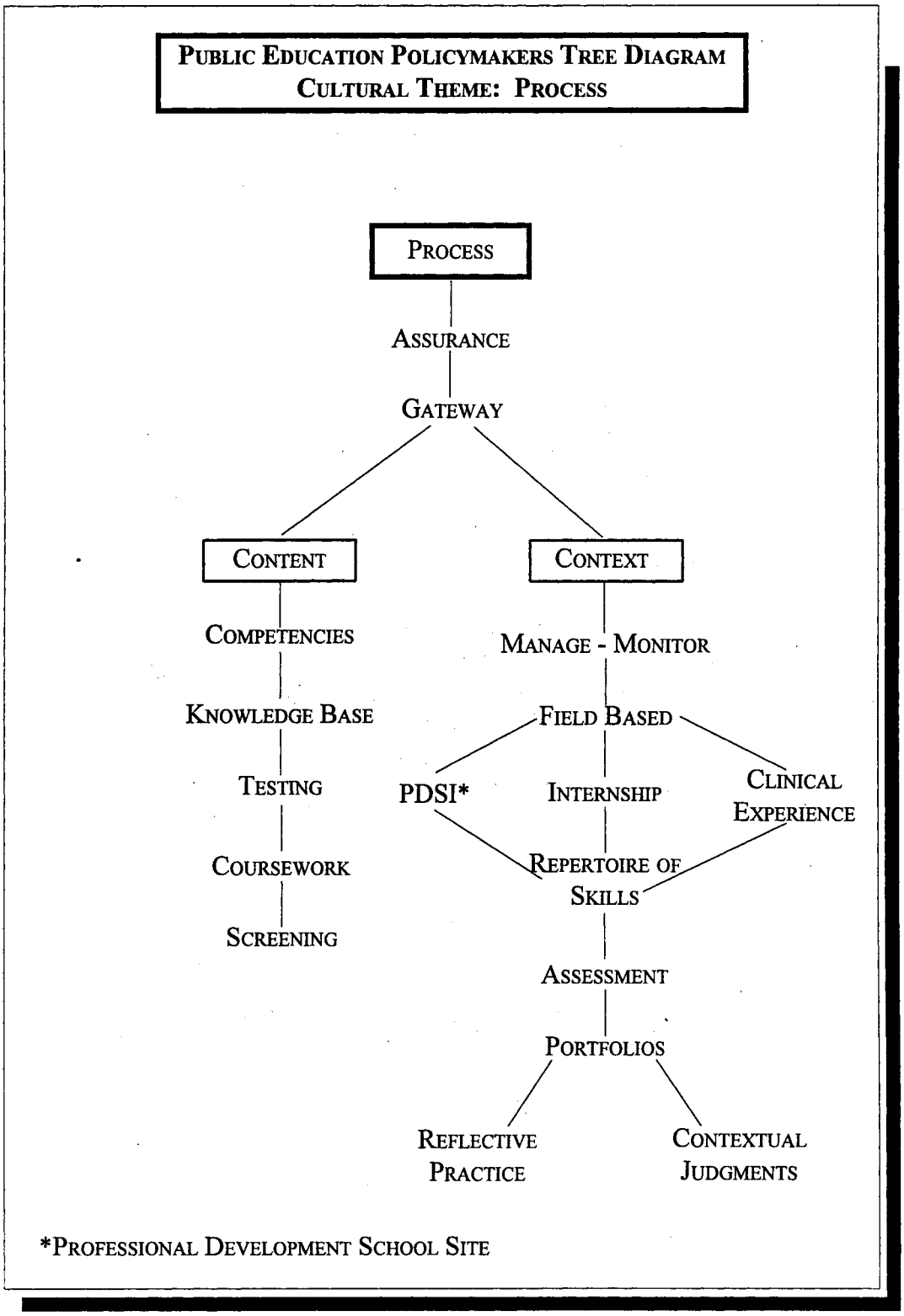

Figure 10. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Process" as Identified by Public Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

work of individuals and includes evaluation through testing and screening. The following statements give insight into the content process:

> So it comes back to the whole issue of the content. . . . Which is from the standpoint of starting with the content. What is it every teacher should know and be able to do? What's the best way to insure that that person know and is able to do those things? Once you go through that content and the process for reaching that content, then they're certified. (Feistritzer, 1995)

> You then have to take a test called content. And this content test is in the area that you're going to teach in. So if you're going to teach in art you take the art content. It you do not pass those tests you don't get your initial certification. (Della Bella, 1995)

> . . . to figure out a way to get away from course counting for preparation programs which is what they do now. (Miller, 1995)

> . . . we have to have a system in place whereby we screen people . . . entering the profession . . . we're weeding out in the profession. . . . Probably the entrance requirement keeps a lot of people from thinking that this is what they want to do and thinking that the profession is attractive and just not being able to hack it. (Della Bella, 1995)

The context of the process in teacher certification was described in terms of the categories of "managing and monitoring" the field-based experience. Field-based experience was defined as having clinical experiences involving internships with a repertoire of skills evaluated through portfolio assessments leading to reflective practice and teachers who make contextual judgments. The public policymakers described the contextual process in the following statements:

> We are interested in the advanced professional certification of accomplished teachers . . . managers and monitors of student learning. Emphasizing that the name of this game is helping students learn, not the gyrations of more and more acrobatic performances from active teaching unless it helps students learn . . . we have chosen . . . a proposition, 'manage and monitor student learning' to try to turn the pedagogy question on its head by focusing on whether the students are learning. (Kelly, 1995)

> . . . then a year of on the job training basically . . . called different things, internships generally. Where the candidate for certification actually is teaching but usually with a mentor teacher, or a master teacher or whatever you want to call them. . . . but I think the most pedantic way of putting it is on the job training . . . the real world situation of teaching. (Feistritzer, 1995)

> . . . that specifies what competencies a person should have in order to enter the field of teaching and they have to demonstrate that through a portfolio process or through an interview process or through a transcript process or a combination of those in order to gain access to residency program where they can prove themselves as a teacher . . . and a minimum one year residency which is modeled a little bit after the medical residency concept. . . . So the new teacher preparation programs seem to be leaning more and more toward expanding the field-experience design, which then would be a better predictor of what success might occur. (Oliver, 1995)

> The assessment process for the National Board Certification essentially is a one year long process. . . . The teacher will show and actually preserve in her, what we call portfolio, which is all submitted to us, evidence of student learning. . . . Trying to encourage the value of reflection, self criticism, self improvement, analysis of results . . . teacher's reflection . . . . Treating the teacher as a professional who can draw on a repertoire of skills, approaches, techniques. (Kelly, 1955)

> That's called the portfolio process . . . the idea of reflection. . . . It is contextual. . . The intent here is to draw teachers' judgments into the process. (Kelly, 1995)

Wise (1995) describes the process of teacher certification as a process of "anointing." "It has essentially been a series of prescribed processes that one goes through in order to get anointed. . . " (Kelly, p. 10).

Paradigms

Public education policymakers described the culture of teacher certification in terms of the theme of two paradigms (see Figure 11, Tree Diagram of public policy 'Paradigms'). The old paradigm is one that reflects teacher certification as something bureaucratic and governmentally regulated and controlled. The categories of bureaucracy are identified as the state departments of education, the state legislatures,

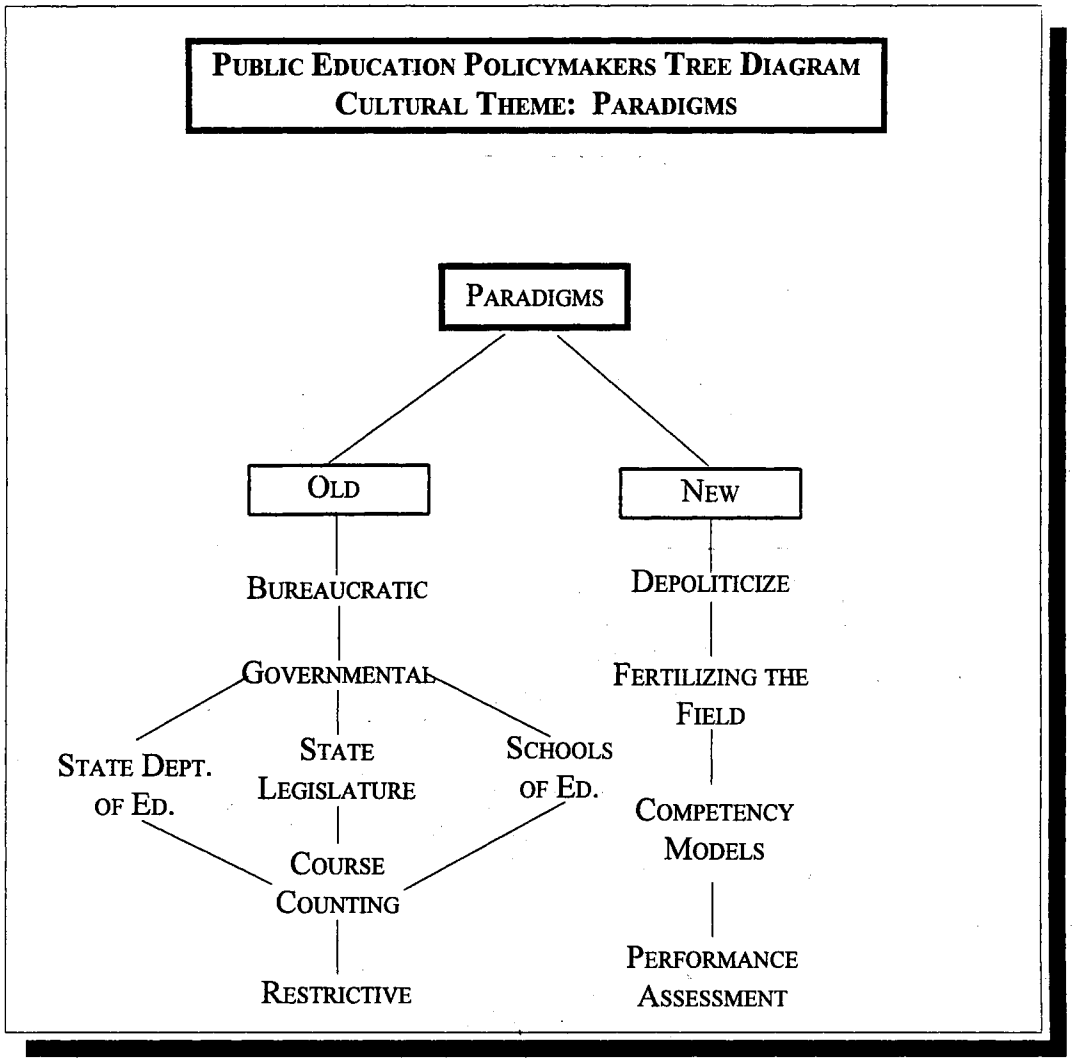

Figure 11. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of "Paradigms" as Identified by Public Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

and the college schools of education. The old paradigm is defined as being restrictive and concerned with course counting. The new paradigm is described as being a new system of certifying teachers by depoliticizing the process, fertilizing the field by placing interns in residency programs, and basing the standards on competency models with performance based assessment.

The old paradigm of teacher certification is explained by the interviewees with the following responses:

> . . . it's a very political environment. Public schools are very political and you've got all the paperwork you have to do, all the hoops you have to jump through . . . now private schools do not have those problems because [they] don't have that layered bureaucracy. (Feistritzer, 1995)

> And like I said we have a book that is over 200 pages in length outlining in excruciating detail how many hours you have to have in a secondary field as well as how many hours you have to have in your elementary certification. (Haynes, 1995)

> And we've lost it, I think, as a country. It's just become bureaucratized. I mean, schools are structured to accommodate the bureaucracy not to accommodate the child. (Miller, 1995)

The respondents representing the state departments of education indicated that teacher certification in many cases had become a system of counting courses, that core of teaching courses some people define as educational "Mickey Mouse" courses (Della Bella, 1995). They also stated that teacher certification had become too prescriptive and restrictive as the following respondent indicates:

> What the Centers for Professional Development and Technology allow our institutions to do is get out of the prescriptive and restrictive regulations of the state level and allow them to put together what they consider the most optimum program. (Haynes, 1995)

The public education policymakers described a new paradigm of teacher certification. The new paradigm is described as one that is less bureaucratic and

depoliticized. It is a paradigm structured with competency-based standards and performance-based assessment. The new model includes an intern or residency year before certification is granted. The field-based experience has been expanded to include collaboration between the intern, the school of education or professional school development sites, and the resident school. This experience of collaboration has been called "fertilizing the field" (Miller, 1995).

The following statements help define the new paradigm:

> No bureaucrat sits in isolation and decides, and writes the standards up and then they're sent out. Certainly the constituencies, the teacher associations, the business community, they're all very much involved in setting standards. (Della Bella, 1995)

> We have tried to focus this conversation on teaching and we have, by doing that, depoliticized the whole process. This is not teachers versus school boards. This is not local versus state. This is not private versus public. This is about eight-year-olds and their learning and how teachers can coach now and facilitate that learning process. (Kelly, 1995)

> They're different. Yes, but the entry standards are different and the program standards are different. There's really a great deal more flexibility . . . we changed the statutory law, we added a section allowing the State Board for Educator Certification to allow for flexible internships to meet the needs of students. (Haynes, 1995)

> My role now is certification and we're charged with developing competencies for a competency based system and we have to have general competencies in place . . . and full competencies for the specific areas . . . we're about to get into that pretty quick right now. In fact, I've ordered model competencies from NCATE and NASTEC and INTASC. (Marose, 1995)

> The trend in this state and other states now is to move toward one of competency more than just courses. And that competency can be obtained either by attending courses or by life experiences or by other methods. (Oliver, 1995)

> . . . we're developing a performance assessment which teachers will go through if they want to seek it. It's voluntary of course it they want to seek it, if they can do it . . . based on the premise that there is a knowledge base underlying how children grow and develop and learn and how they can be helped to learn through a process

> called teaching. And then a performance assessment system that is credible and regarded as fair. . . . (Kelly, 1995)
>
> So that's where we see it 'fertilizing the field.' It's using the best of everybody in the field for purposes of making a public statement that we are blessing these people to go into our classrooms and think that they are competent. (Miller, 1995)

The Profession

The public education policymakers identified the theme of teaching as a profession. The analogy was given to that of being a "mirror"—a mirror of the medical profession with its practices of internship, the residency program, the setting of standards by the profession itself, peer evaluation, and the authority of the profession to maintain autonomous government. The respondents also likened teaching to the professions of architects, accountants, and attorneys. However, at the same time, it was acknowledged that there are issues that make teaching different from other professions and that there are barriers to the advancement of teaching as a profession (see Figure 12, Tree Diagram of public education policy 'The Profession').

These statements provide an understanding of how public policymakers see "The Profession" as a theme in describing teacher certification:

> This change in teaching mirrors the same sort of system that exists in other professions. (Wise, 1995)
>
> Well, the states license in all areas. Every profession is licensed by the state. Doctors, lawyers, beauticians, architects and I see no difference here. The state is carrying out its minimum responsibilities for assuring public safety, or public welfare. . . . And I don't believe that teaching should be in a different position from any other profession in that regard. (Wise, 1995)

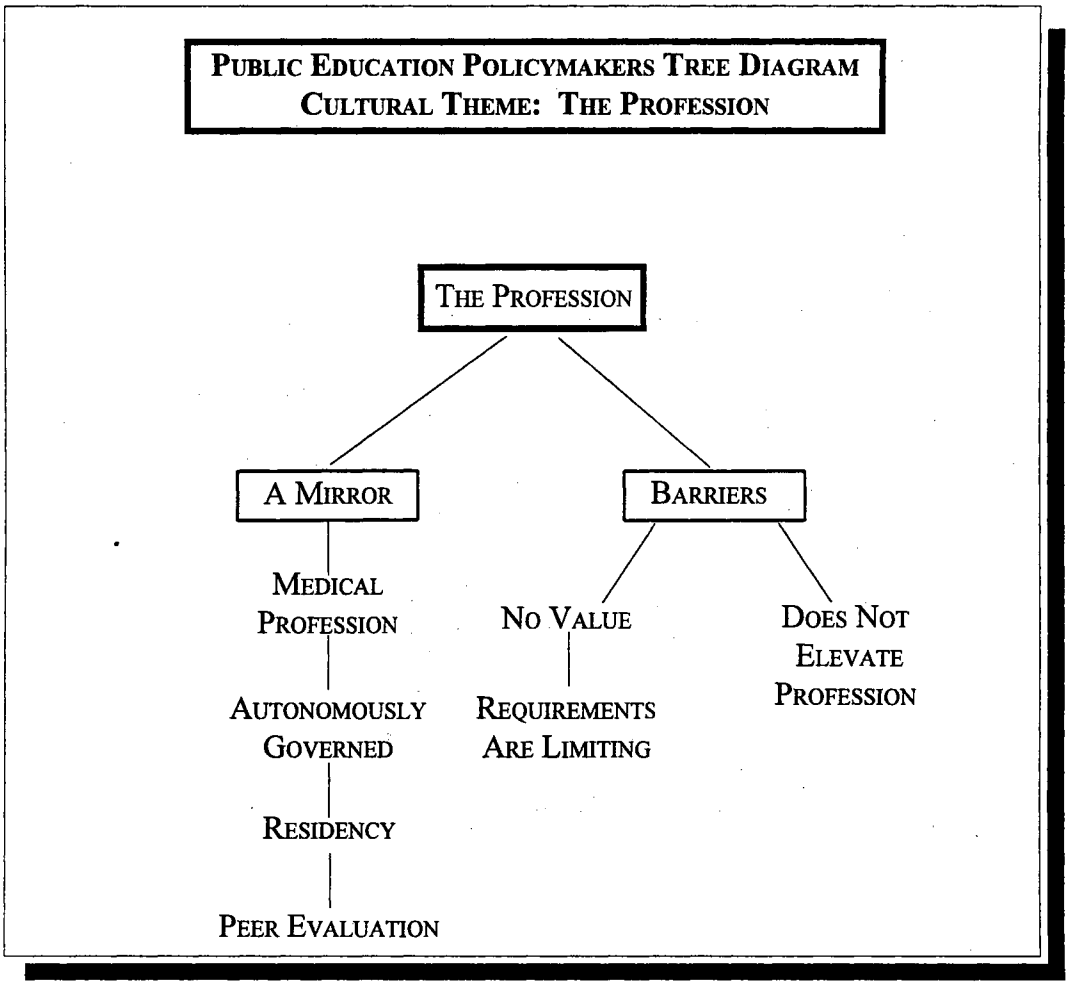

Figure 12. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of the "Profession" as Identified by Public Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

> . . . a professional body is a body which is a voluntary association of members of a profession. It is non-governmental. It represents in one way or another the coming together of members of a profession, in this case teaching, to establish a certification system. But other professions have them as well. Typically these certification bodies are themselves creatures of other organizations which are representative of a particular profession. (Wise, 1995)

> . . . through our assessment process we offer the means of improving teaching. . . . They're going to focus on the individual students and they're going to try to write up what the student learning situation is, what the problem is, and what they tried to do about it. . . . To use the medical analogy, on the health of her patients and what they could do to make the history of the patient and what the diagnosis was, and what the prescription was and then track to see whether the patient got healthy. (Kelly, 1995)

> And a minimum one year residency which is modeled a little bit after the medical residency concept permits them to be eligible for the licensure. (Oliver, 1995)

> . . . we are not a governmental agency. . . . We're analogous to the CPA program in accounting or to the medical, or in effect the advanced medical specialty boards. In relation to the MD which in most states is the licensure threshold for medicine. (Kelly, 1995)

> This is one of the areas that he felt like if you're going to raise the standard of the teaching profession, that the teaching profession should be governed by the teaching profession in an autonomous manner. (Haynes, 1995)

Several challenges were presented with regard to teaching certification as it relates to the theme of "barriers." These barriers include limiting the access to the profession by becoming too prescriptive with entry standards and the inability to elevate teaching to a profession in the eyes of the public. The postulate is presented as to whether or not teaching should even be equated to a metaphor of being similar to other professions.

> And that seems to be something that is gaining support by the teacher peer group and they feel that they are better at monitoring the profession if they as a group say these are competencies that we think we have and others must have to enter the profession. The danger that has to be watched is that it doesn't become a process where an organization, association or professional group of some kind tries to limit access to the profession or limit numbers by simply putting up barriers. They need to be really legitimate competencies rather than barriers. (Oliver, 1995)

> What certification does not do is, or has not been able to do, I guess in this state is to assist in the elevation of teaching as a profession. . . . I don't think that the community sees teachers in the same light and I don't know if we'd want to be seen in the same light as lawyers or doctors or any other profession. (Haynes, 1995)

Perspectives

When looking at the culture of teacher certification from the view of public policymakers two categories were identified under the theme "perspectives," one category representing the state department of education policymakers and the other representing national policymakers. An analysis of the transcriptions revealed three national organizations that are collaborating to elevate teaching as a profession by creating professional standards and by establishing a national certification program: the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). One of the national organizations, the National Center for Education Information (NCEI) was not as positive concerning a national certification program but recommended the development of more alternative means for teacher certification. The three states represented in the interviews expressed the cultural view of teacher certification as one that is evolving and incorporating elements of professional competency standards while also working with alternative certification programs (see Figure 13, Tree Diagram of public education policymakers 'Perspectives').

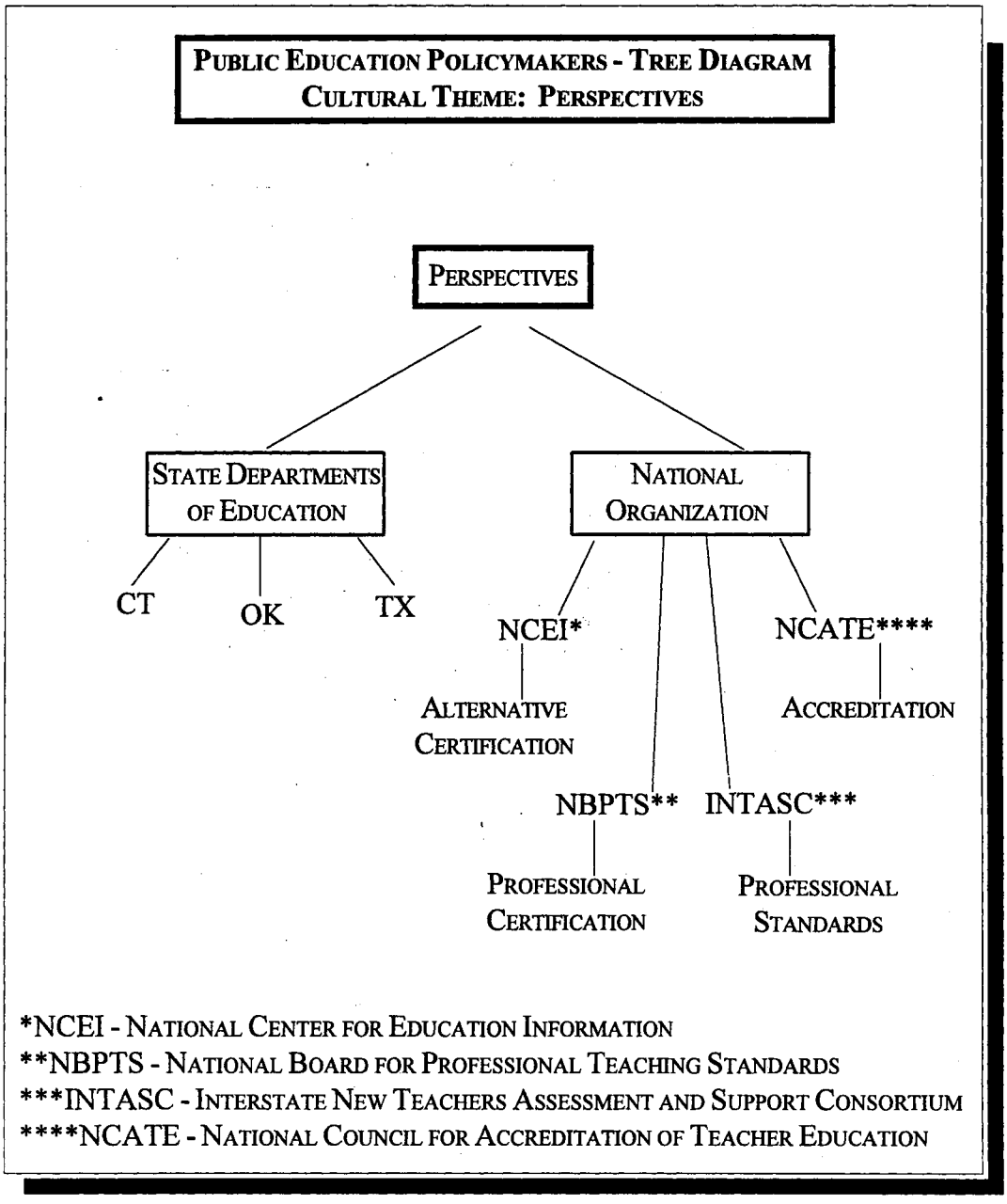

Figure 13. Hierarchy Tree Diagram of 'Perspectives' as Identified by Public Policymakers Regarding the Cultural View of Teacher Certification

Summary of Findings

Summary of Private School Policymakers' Cultural Views

An analysis of the findings of the interviews conducted with representatives of private school leaders and policymakers revealed six themes that allow for an understanding of the cultural categories whereby private school policymakers construe the world of teacher certification. The six themes identified were (a) values, (b) assumptions, (c) conflicts, (d) perceptions, (e) structures, and (f) expectations.

One of the major themes articulated by the private school policymakers was that of "values." Values play an important part in defining the philosophy and mission of the private schools. The private schools were categorized into three groupings: the independent schools, the Catholic schools, and the Christian schools, each defining their set of values and philosophical positions. Private school policymakers spoke of their concerns for maintaining the philosophy and mission of their schools. This concern defined the theme "conflicts." Private school policymakers have experienced what was termed a "holy war" with public policymakers regarding teacher certification. It is perceived that public policy regarding teacher certification will lead to compromises of the values, the philosophy, the mission, the religious convictions, and the standards of private education. There is concern that private education may be on a collision course with states that appear to be too restrictive, nonflexible, and even hostile to their philosophy. There was concern expressed that public policymakers are not aware of the plight of private school teachers and the challenges faced regarding teacher certification.

Also concern was expressed about the lack of dialogue between the public and private school policymakers.

In explaining teacher certification, the private school policymakers interpret certification as being a bureaucracy controlled by the state departments of education in collusion with the college schools of education. It is believed that teacher certification as defined by public policymakers and currently applied is a paper credential that does not equate to quality education and is too restrictive and nonflexible.

Private school policymakers assumed that teacher certification is a process whereby an individual assures the different publics served that they have the competencies both qualitative and quantitative to teach in a classroom. Most of the private school leaders did not make a distinction between certification and licensing, most believed the two words are used interchangeably and mean the same thing. It is believed that private school teacher certification should be facilitated by the agency to which the private school is accountable, such as the sponsoring organization or the school's accrediting agency. It was revealed that all of the private school organizations were self-policing. They are conducting training programs for new teachers and professional development programs for experienced teachers. Some of the private school organizations have their own formal teacher certification programs, which are recognized by some states.

When articulating their views of teaching as a profession, private school policymakers were divergent in their thinking. The independent school leaders feel that equating teaching as a profession to other professions such as the medical field is nothing more than a red herring used by the public school policymakers and that a teacher certificate from the state is not a necessity. Other private school leaders see teaching

likened to other professions and see a teaching certificate as something that goes with the territory. These private school leaders are not opposed to state teacher certification, provided the requirements leading to that certification will not compromise their values. Most of the private school policymakers would like dialogue with the public education policymakers to determine if more flexibility and variations could be allowed and common understandings achieved.

Summary of Public Education Policymakers' Cultural Views

Perspectives of teacher certification from the leaders and policymakers in public education were obtained from two categories: those involved with state departments of education and those involved with national organizations. Five main themes were discovered in an analytic review of the interviews conducted with public education policymakers concerning the cultural perspective of teacher certification. The five themes included: (a) distinctives, (b) process, (c) paradigms, (d) the profession, and (e) perspectives.

All of the public education policymakers made a distinction when referring to teacher certification and teacher licensure. It became clear that a new paradigm was evolving regarding this issue of teacher certification. Certification has been the word used by most states to qualify a teacher for the classroom; however, many times the term "certification" has been used interchangeably with the word "licensure." Both state and national policymakers acknowledged this as a misnomer and stated that current reforms

in public education were addressing this issue by creating new structures and definitions for both terms.

Licensure is evolving into what states will grant as documenting the minimum standards and qualifications individuals must have to enter the classroom as teachers; it will no longer be call certification. Licensure will be granted after completion of the required course work, meeting competency-based standards, testing, and a field-based experience of at least a one-year residency program at an approved or accredited school. Certification is evolving into an advanced, voluntary program designed after models from other professions such as the medical profession. Certification is based on experience in the profession and involves advanced standards of reflection, self-criticism, self-improvement, and an analysis of results that leads to a focus on a repertoire of skills, approaches, and techniques. Certification models are being developed in individual states as well as the development of a national model, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

Public policymakers described two paradigms of teacher certification; one is the old paradigm where certification is bureaucratic, state and government controlled involving counting courses and restrictive. The new paradigm reflects a depoliticized model in which standards are based on teacher competencies and evaluated by performance assessment. The new paradigm includes "fertilizing the field," which is a stronger clinical-based experience including collaboration with a resident teacher, a professional development school site, and other peer educators.

The intent in teacher certification is to strengthen teaching as a profession, thereby improving teaching and student learning. Public policymakers see the new paradigm of

teacher certification as a mirror—a mirror reflecting the process whereby individuals are qualified to enter into a profession as is done in the medical field. Teacher certification is based on the analogy of the medical field in that it is the profession that sets the entry standards, the profession that governs itself, the profession that has an entry-level or residency program, and is the profession in which individuals are evaluated by peers. Public policymakers see teacher certification as the gateway that permits an individual into the profession.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to gain access to the cultural views of teacher certification from public education policymakers and private school policymakers to foster a greater awareness and understanding, and to open dialogue between the two cultures, in order to avoid a collision course. The rationale for observing the two cultures was to discover the cultural assumptions, categories, and themes whereby each culture construes the world of teacher certification.

Chapter V presents a summary of the findings, and outlines conclusions identifying cultural categories of commonality and cultural categories of differences between the public education policymakers and private school policymakers. Recommendations of possible themes for dialogue and collaboration between the two cultures regarding teacher certification are presented. Chapter V concludes with recommendations for further research and implications of the study.

Summary

Attempts to license or certify teachers early in the history of American education met with little success. This was partially due to the variations in colonial circumstances and religious differences complicating the licensing task. In general, "license" meant permission to teach and it had nothing to do with teacher competency, training, or experience (LaBue, 1960). There were few, if any, requirements for teachers in the earliest days of American public schools, because there was no real vision for public education or teaching as a profession. Requirements for teachers were based on the ability to discipline, the ability to teach the fundamentals, and the maintaining of certain standards of character rather than the competency to teach (Cressman & Benda, 1956). The review of literature revealed that the concept of qualifying individuals to teach in the schools grew and developed as public education grew and state education departments were established. Licensing or certifying individuals evolved as a need to maintain consistency and provide some measure of quality assurance to the public (LaBue, 1960). Goodlad (1990) pointed out that historically, the gates for those who wanted to teach were easy to open.

Certification and Licensure Defined

Public policymakers, as well as private school policymakers, believe the issue of qualifying individuals for the classroom is a major concern and the topic of teacher licensure and certification is still evolving. Education in America is currently involved in paramount educational reforms and restructuring. Changes in teaching, teacher

preparation, and the development of standards for teacher qualifications play a major role in the efforts to improve the quality of education in the United Sates. Both public and private school leaders shared that they are taking a new look at teacher certification and the conditions for qualifying teachers for the classroom. Wise (1994) writes that new trends in state licensing are taking place that will dramatically impact teacher certification programs as well as teacher preparation programs. Differences between state licensing systems have caused educators to question the quality assurance of teaching as a profession.

The review of literature shows that there is a current trend to define teacher licensing and teacher certification as two separate means of qualifying teachers for the profession. Both Goodlad (1994) and the Holmes Group (1986) say there is a difference between teachers being licensed and teachers being certified. Goodlad states that there is a need for both licensing, which is the states' responsibility, and certification, which would be given by the profession itself or by the schools that prepare teachers.

The national public education policymakers interviewed also pointed out in their definition of teacher certification that there is a distinction now being made between licensure and certification. During the interview, Feistritzer (1995) stated that when looking at the culture of teacher certification one runs into a relatively new debate about the difference between teacher licensing and teacher certification, which is a legitimate distinction. Feistritzer shared that licensing refers more to the legal aspect, while certification is now associated with "add on" credentials. Wise (1995), in his interview stated that teacher certification as it is currently being used is something of a misnomer.

What is now called certification by many is really known as a license, which is granted by the state. Wise (1995, np) defined certification in the following:

> . . . certification is a process. Generally operating under the color of a professional body which processes is [sic] carried out by that professional body to determine whether individuals meet a standard of accomplishment of competence that results in their being given a certificate. So the certificate is a certification, if you will, that an individual has attained certain standards set by the profession itself.

State public policymakers in education were aware of the terminology and the distinctions being made between licensing and certification. However, there appeared to be some confusion and misunderstanding as to how the two words were being distinguished by national public policymakers. Haynes (1995) said that certification was evolving but also states that, ". . . teacher certification means, . . . that you have a beginning license to practice your profession." Most of the state public policymakers were still using the two words interchangeably even though they were aware that the definition of both licensure and certification were evolving with new understandings. Goodlad (1994) points out that at one time the certificate and a license were considered one and the same, hence the emergence of what has come to be called the "state certificate." Goodlad states that the unfortunate reason these two, licensing and certification, were joined together was that much of the curriculum completed was prescribed by the state.

Private school policymakers did not appear to be aware of the distinction being made between licensure and certification. The private school leaders tended to believe both terms were used synonymously and certification or licensing was a bureaucratic process of the state. One private school leader, however, had a different understanding as he expressed the distinction between the two words: "I really don't like to view a

certificate as a license. I think that demeans the profession and certainly demeans the academic credibility of the individual" (Gibbs, 1995).

Both public and private school policymakers claim that the process of teacher certification has become bureaucratic, restrictive, redundant, and nonflexible. Goodlad (1994) points this out by saying that the individual states may not be willing to give up their role in curricular prescription. Instead, states may continue to add to their control by requiring more prescribed outcomes.

Interviews with public and private school policymakers and the literature review both confirm that licensure is evolving into what states will grant as documenting the minimum standards and qualifications individuals must have to enter the classroom as teachers, and that it will no longer be called certification. Certification is evolving into an advanced, voluntary program designed after models from other professions such as the medical profession. Certification will be based on experience in the profession and will involve advanced standards of reflection, self-criticism, self-improvement, and an analysis of results that will lead to a focus on a repertoire of skills, approaches, and techniques. Certification will be granted from within the profession rather than from the states. States will be issuing the license to teach. Buttery (1994) stated that the term "licensure" is the term of choice used for those teachers who are credentialed to teach at the starting level and that in terms of the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards, "certification" will require qualifications beyond those regulations mandated for license.

The Development of the Profession

Public policymakers pointed out that states license in all areas and that every profession is licensed by the state. The state is carrying out its minimum responsibilities for ensuring public safety and public welfare. The profession has, however, advanced through the process of certification. The public education leaders interviewed stated that certification is for the advanced, accomplished teachers to instill in our culture the value of teaching as a profession. The literature review indicated that teacher reform includes the restructuring of the teaching profession to elevate it to a higher level of standards and accountability. Soltis (1987) points this out by stating that the reform of teacher education and of the teaching profession means focusing on teaching and taking seriously the assumptions that the best educators are the ones who are well educated and that the true professional is one who is permitted and encouraged to deliver high-level services. Abdal-Haqq (1992) stated that a number of proposals for improving American public education have included a call for professionalizing teaching and elevating teaching to the status of a "true" profession. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education predicted that teaching would self-actualize into a profession and urged professional and organizational effort in that direction (Abdal-Haqq, 1992).

It was noted in the literature review and by the public policymakers that the profession would be advanced through the process of certification as it is the profession itself that would recognize the expertise of the practitioners—the teachers.

The intent of teacher certification as defined in the review of the literature and the interviews conducted with public school policymakers is to strengthen the teaching

profession and improve teaching and student learning. Teacher certification is likened to a mirror—a mirror reflecting the process of qualifying individuals for a profession such as is done in the field of medicine. Teacher certification is based on the analogy of the medical field in that it is the profession that sets the entry standards, the profession that governs itself, the profession that has an entry-level or residency program, and the profession in which individuals are evaluated by peers. Both the literature and the public policymakers described teacher certification as the "gateway" into the profession.

In contrast to teacher certification being a means of elevating teaching as a profession and likening teaching to other professions, there were individuals as presented in the literature review who do not agree with this analogy. Gardner and Palmer (1982) point out that teacher certification is more akin to the civil service system rather than to a professional certification. "Far more than for other professions requiring state licensing, state control of certification in professional education has taken on what could be called a 'civil service' dimension rather than a 'professional' dimension" (p. 18). It is explained that in other fields the profession is responsible for establishing and controlling the preparation of standards for that profession. Typically in other professions the colleges are responsible for developing training programs, and a board of the profession reviews and accredits programs, screens candidates, and enforces the standards. Generally, the teacher certification procedure is different than that which is found in the fields of medicine, law, and pharmacy. Haberman (1986) states it this way:

> When teachers are able to incorporate, earn unlimited annual incomes, decide whom they will treat, deal only with those who voluntarily seek their help, work with clients one at a time, bill insurance companies for their services, be evaluated in terms of process rather than outcomes, choose whether to practice independently or with

> others, and hire lawyers to protect them from malpractice suits—only then will medicine be the most appropriate model for the teaching profession. (p. 719)

One of the private school leaders interviewed also disagreed with the argument that certification played a role in elevating the profession. It was stated this way:

> It's a red herring. And the reason it is, is that there is a determined body of knowledge that a physician must acquire. . . . The problem with education is that although there is much knowledge right now about how the brain works than there was in the past, there is still no determination, no agreed upon function about how education takes place. And since you can't agree upon how it takes place, how can you certify those who are going to teach it. Who are going to be teachers. And on top of that, we have no determination in this society of what it means to be educated. . . . and we would have incredibly different requirements because of our perception of society and what it all means. (Ekdahl, 1995)

Kelly (1995) would not agree, he believes that teaching can and should raise to a level equated to other professions and that there is a knowledge base for teaching. He states that:

> . . . we do have a vision of teaching that says teaching exists, that here is a knowledge base, that you can measure it and that teachers who have it, deserve professional respect. . . . a way that liberates practitioners and teachers and community in general from the vision that teaching . . . basically can't be defined. . . . that there is a knowledge base of teaching . . . What teachers should and be able to do!

Perceptions of Teacher Certification

In the review of literature, Kinney (1964) stated that the state's interest in requiring certification of teachers is that the public views certification as an indispensable safeguard of quality education. The perceptions found in the literature and the interviews with both public and private school policymakers relate the same theme: Teacher certification is the assurance and validation to the publics served that individuals are qualified to teach students. Private school policymakers assumed that teacher

certification is a process whereby an individual assures the public served that they have the competencies, both qualitative and quantitative, as well as preparation and character to teach in the classroom. It was also pointed out that private school teachers have an obligation to the academic world to demonstrate that teachers are professionally prepared to be in the place of teaching children in schools (Gibbs, 1995).

Public policymakers felt it important that teacher certification be a process to assure the public and peers that children are being taught by qualified individuals. This process of assurance is the means by which an individual is given access to the entrance or the gateway to public recognition. Wise (1995), when interviewed put it this way:

> . . . society feels some compulsion to assure that helpless clients are served by people who know what they are doing. . . . What it is supposed to do is to provide public assurance that an individual has what it takes to represent himself or herself as a member of that profession and also therefore to be able to serve clients.

However, it was unanimous in the literature and in the interviews that teacher certification was not a guarantee of the quality of the classroom teaching. O'Malley (1995) in his interview stated that certification does not ensure that the person going into the classroom is going to be a good teacher, is going to be a good person, is going to be a good role model for the students, or is going to be able to provide the instructional knowledge necessary for the student to learn. Gibbs (1995) pointed out that certificates can give a false sense of security to both the public and the individual certified that they are competent for the classroom, when in reality they may not be. Marose (1995) explained it in the following statement:

> I think that it does guarantee that certain academic and nonacademic requirements are met. The focus is really more on pre-service. What it doesn't guarantee is the quality of job performance.

Challenges for Private School Teacher Certification

The literature points out that many private school leaders have challenges in requiring teachers they hire to hold and maintain state teacher licensure or certification. Thoughts conveyed in the literature review are that private school leaders believe certification of teachers is rooted in the belief that they should have the right to select, develop, and release teachers on the merits that their schools are free, private enterprises. They also believe that they should be able to determine the qualifications of those they place in their school classrooms (Lloyd, 1991). Lloyd points out that many private school administrators claim that this longevity and the free-market concept allows them the freedom to maintain a teaching staff policy that does not necessarily require all teachers to hold certificates. While this was the theme discovered in the literature, this was not necessary the overriding theme discovered in interviewing the private school policymakers. It was found that religious private schools, both Catholic and Christian, were not as negative or opposed to state certification as the literature review seemed to indicate.

The independent, private school leadership, however, took a much stronger position against mandated state teacher certification. The independent, private school policymakers feel that they want teachers in their schools who are highly qualified in their major field of study. As was stated in the interview with Ekdahl, "We want liberal arts majors. If we want a science teacher, we want a science major. A college science major" (1995). Independent school leaders also believed that the state departments are in collusion with the colleges of education over the requirements for teacher certification

and so certification is a paper exercise. Not that colleges of education don't have something to teach to perspective teachers, but states are more concerned with hours of credit than with the intellectual stimulation of continuing education, so teacher certification has become an anti-intellectual exercise.

The challenge presented in the interviews with the private school policymakers revolves around the theme of "values." All of those interviewed in private education pointed out that at times the standards set by the state policymakers for teacher certification conflict with the philosophy of the private schools. Both religious and independent school leadership shared that maintaining their sense of mission and purpose without compromising was of great value. Most private school policymakers agreed that teacher certification is desirable, but felt that the state departments of education needed to be more sensitive to the needs of private schools. It was felt that many times the state makes policies regarding teacher certification without any thought to the impact it will have on the private school teachers. The Catholics shared that they have worked with the states and that many of their teachers were and are certified by the state. However, many Catholic schools have run into challenges within the past few years as states have been mandating new requirements that have created problems for the Catholic schools in hiring or maintaining teachers with teaching certificates. Sister Leonard (1995), when interviewed, stated that, "the state is creating more and more hoops that have nothing to do with good teaching."

Lloyd (1991) perhaps sums up best the challenges faced and the results of those challenges in regard to the collision course:

> Where private schools have lost the argument, their teachers often feel limited in their professional practice and growth by orders from above. Yet in states where private schools have won, their teachers also bear consequences. In return for their freedom, they have distanced themselves from their public school colleagues. Rarely can they move from private to public school teaching, because state licensing agencies find them unqualified. Teachers on each side of this divided profession have tended to insist on their own definition of professional practice—to resent rather than to learn from each other's success. (1995)

Collaboration

It was pointed out in both the literature review and the interviews that there have been conflicts and challenges between private education and state departments of education regarding the issue of teacher certification labeled as the "holy war." Lloyd (1991) calls it a "collision course" between the private schools and the states over the issue of teacher certification, however, the interviews with the private school policymakers revealed that there is perhaps a new paradigm emerging in the private school leadership in regard to teacher certification. Gibbs (1995) gave indication of this in the following comment:

> . . . we as an organization encourage our folks to get certification . . . we see in the future a continuing demand for accountability and we, as an organization, do not desire to be confrontational with government and we feel that rather than states or local communities moving away from certification, we sense there will be an increasing demand for them. And so we again tell our folks, not just for the issue of testimony to the community, but also we try to predict where our country is going. . . . this is a strong message we send to our colleges, our member colleges, that they ought to look seriously at preparing folks that will meet state certification requirements. Why move down a road that you know you could have a strong collision in a few years?

Private school policymakers shared that they would like to have a more open relation with the state departments of education to avoid any future "holy wars" or "collisions." However, it was expressed that in many cases there was not open dialogue

because public policymakers saw no need to interact with the private school leadership. Public policymakers feel that in most states private schools are free to operate without any intervention from the state; so why have concerns over teacher certification issues? It is not realized, as articulated by the private school leadership, that states do not recognize years of teaching in private schools as years of experience for public school, career-ladder placement or teacher retirement. Also, private schools cannot have student teachers or interns in their schools if they are seeking state certification. There is a gap in communication between the state policymakers and the private school policymakers. Most private school policymakers stated that they would desire to have a working relationship with the states to collaborate for the purpose of determining if there would be areas of flexibility and options for less stringent requirements and if there would be consideration given to philosophical positions in the interpretation of standards for private school teacher certification. Leonard (1995) states it this way:

> So I think we need to build and work with the state. I think we need to try to do that first and foremost but if there would be some allowances so that they would recognize what we're doing that's credible and then they would accept the courses from the colleges and universities that would be credible as far as we're concerned . . . that there would be a collaboration and acceptance of our requirements and that we would be able to work out jointly what we would see as necessary and good and proper. (1995)

O'Malley (1995) points out that where states have chosen to work with the private schools concerning teacher certification, such as in the state of Florida, then the holy wars have not reoccurred. Florida has allowed private schools to develop their own teacher certification process, master plans, inservice plans, and staff development plans. "In other words, it was complete self-policing" (O'Malley, 1995).

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to take a look at teacher certification from two cultural perspectives: one of the public school policymakers and the other of the private school policymakers. By interviewing individuals from each cultural perspective the investigator was able to gain insight into assumptions, beliefs, and experiences to see how each understands the social and cultural issue of teacher certification.

A review of the transcriptions from 13 interviews showed that in many ways teacher certification was perceived and understood in the same way by both private and public school policymakers. There were differences, such as who should be doing the certification and who should develop the standards. Perhaps the most defining difference was in the articulation of values. The private school policymakers have a strong philosophical base that is defined in their mission and purposes. They feel that they are "keepers of the gate" to see that their values and philosophy are not compromised by state mandates through teacher certification. The public policymakers did not mention philosophy or mission for their schools, but rather they emphasized the value factor of loyalty and purpose for the teaching profession. There was one strong theme that ran through the literature as well as the interviews. It was the theme of assurance. Teacher certification is an assurance to parents, employers, and peer educators that the teacher is prepared to teach, that a competent person is working with the children in the classroom. This assurance, metaphorically speaking, is then guarded and protected by a "gate". That gate is teacher certification. The gate providing the assurance to parents,

administrators, and to other teachers that children are guarded and protected from unqualified teachers is the gate called teacher certification.

The "gateway" has its own guards, the means to protect the general public to make sure that no hirelings bypass the gate or try to get public recognition without going through the proper gate. This metaphor was used by the public policymakers; the following statement provides the analogy:

> . . . it's almost like a gateway, like a gate keeper to the profession. . . certification is just the ticket in the door . (Della Bella, 1995)

Teacher certification by the state is likened unto a gate, a gate that permits passage into the profession, thereby giving the public assurance and granting the individual teacher the public and peer recognition desired (see Figure 14, Keepers of the Gate).

Figure 14, "Keepers of the Gate," provides a visual view of the paths that can be taken for entry into the recognized profession of teaching. The figure shows that the main entryway into the profession is through the gateway of state teacher certification. The figure gives a visual view that private school teachers cannot create their own gateway into the profession; it is blocked. Private school teachers must go through the gate. The gate of state teacher certification which is the gateway to the profession. Other options include going through a state-recognized, private-school accrediting agency, or if teaching in an accredited school, going through the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. Figure 14 attempts to illustrate that entry into the teaching profession is currently through the gateway of state certification or could include the choice of going through the gateway of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

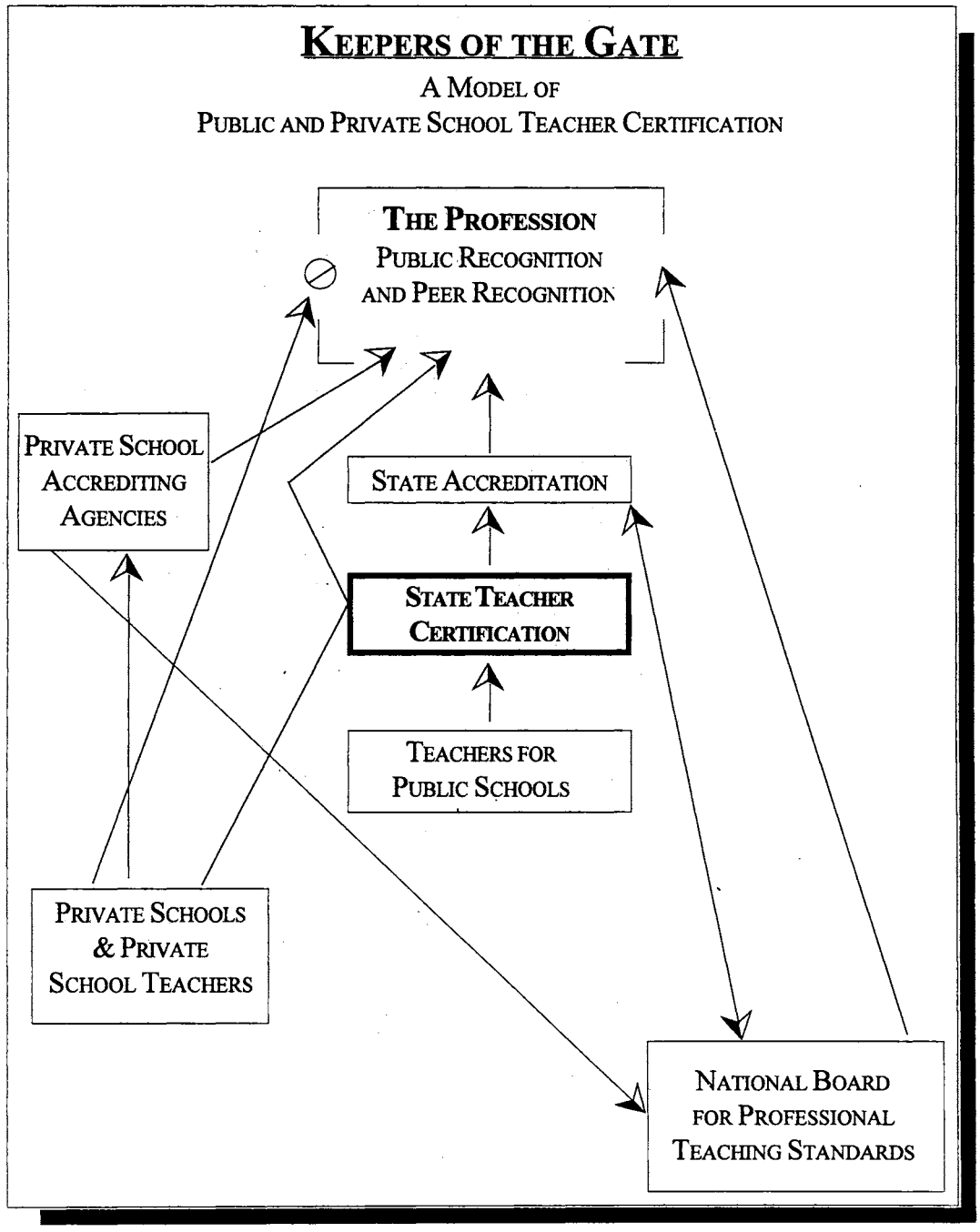

Figure 14. 'Keepers of the Gate,' A Model Depicting Pathways for Public And Private School Teachers to Receive Certification and Public Recognition—a Gateway into the Teaching Profession

This study has been concerned with the conflict between two cultures regarding teacher certification, however it was also discovered during the course of the study that there are conflicts between and within the subcultures in each of the two groups. One discovery was the difference of thoughts between and within the three subcultural groups of the private school policymakers; the Catholic school leaders, the Christian school leaders, and the independent school leaders. Even though there has been a strong stand for protecting their values in all three groups, there is a growing division as to what approach should be taken in requiring certification of teachers in the private schools. Some of the Catholic and Christian school leaders are leaning toward state certification for their teachers provided they are able to have dialogue with state policymakers. The independent school leaders on the other hand continue to take a strong stand against requiring their teachers to hold state teacher certificates. It is their opinion that the independent school headmasters and headmistresses are more than able to determine the quality of individuals they hire to teach in their schools without being bound by state teacher certification requirements.

The interviews revealed what was labeled as the "holy war" between private school policymakers and public school policymakers. However, this study may foreshadow yet another conflict which in the years to come may prove to be an even greater conflict or a "war of rights." This war of rights is within the culture of the public policymakers and includes on one side, state policymakers and teacher educators from schools of education in battle against those on the other side who are defining and shaping a national teacher certification agenda. Not all state policymakers and higher education leaders are excited about restructuring teacher certification under a plan in which the states only grant

licenses to teach while an outside agency would grant a so called higher level of teacher approval--the professional teaching certificate. This issue has and will continue to create a controversy as to who has the right to redefine certification and who has the right to determine that the states will merely grant a license to teach while a national organization will issue teacher certification.

Recommendations

Many times the qualitative long interview study by its interactive nature creates more questions than it answers (Burlingame, 1995). This is the case with this look at the cultural perspectives of teacher certification. Recommendations for further study, which are an outgrowth of topics discovered and questions unanswered by this research, could lead to future studies including:

1. the effectiveness of alternative teacher certification,
2. additional qualitative subcultural subgroup studies,
3. quantitative studies within and between public and private school cultures,
4. qualitative and quantitative studies of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards,
5. comparative and contrasting studies of teaching as a profession to other professions,
6. studies into the standards for determining teacher competencies, and
7. policy development related to accrediting associations and educational reform.

One of the teacher-certification categories appearing in literature, as well as several of the state policymakers' interviews, was the concept of alternative teacher certification. Much has been written about alternative certification and many states now have this process in place. Further studies should be conducted to determine the effectiveness of such programs and to gain an understanding of the rationale behind the concept.

This study into the culture of teacher certification could be broken down further into additional subcultural groups with qualitative studies conducted within each of those subcultures to gain further insight into their perceptions of teacher certification. As Lofland (1971, p. 2) has stated: "As knowledge of the existence of other people's worlds increases, one's ignorance is correspondingly increased. For each world known about is another world that one does not know, but which one may want or need to know."

Subculture groups could include the variations between and within the private school culture. There are distinct conflicts and challenges regarding teacher education and certification between and even within the Catholic, Christian and independent school subculture.

Perhaps a timely study of significance would be a long interview study with the subculture groups found in the public school policymakers' culture. A qualitative study of the cultural perspectives within and between the subcultural groups of the public school policymakers regarding the debate over the paradigm shift in state teacher certification to state licensure and the establishment of a national professional teacher certificate would reveal whether or not there is an impending "war of rights" developing within the public education culture over who has the right to certify teachers.

Quantitative studies need to be conducted to determine the teacher effectiveness both within and between the two cultures of public and private education. Questions arise about the value a teaching certificate has on the academic progress of the students. Such questions will have to be answered through quantitative studies.

Since the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) is relatively new, both qualitative and quantitative studies should be conducted with the teachers who have been involved in the National Board certificate program. To gain insight into their cultural perspective of the process of National Certification, an interesting study would be to interview those teachers who have applied to the Board but did not achieve National Certification.

More work needs to be done comparing and contrasting the teaching profession with that of other professions. Qualitative studies of the other professions with those of the teaching profession could provide valuable insight into the analogy of equating teaching to the other professions.

Teacher certification issues have revolved around the development of standards and competencies. Further studies into the development of standards and the determination of teaching competencies would give direction to future policies regarding teacher certification. Another area that would provide direction for policy development for teacher certification would be to study the accrediting associations and their development and involvement in national educational reforms.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TEACHER CERTIFICATION MEMORANDUM

MEMO TO AUTHOR

MEMORANDUM

From: David B. Hand

Subject: Teacher Certification

Date: June 5, 1995

This memo is a reflection of my personal conceptions, assumptions and experiences concerning the subject of teacher certification. It is to be a record of my preconceived notions of teacher certification and serve as a template against which to reference personal biases and to help manufacture distance in the data analysis process of the research study.

Personal History

- Oklahoma Standard Teaching Certificate: 1973-78
- Wyoming Teaching Certificate: 1974-77
- California Teaching Certificate: 1978-83
- Colorado Teaching Certificate: 1982-92
- Administrator's Certificate - Association of Christian Schools International: 1983-92

memo continued

Personal Definition

Certification is required by the state to validate that an individual has received a bachelors degree in education. State certification is a requirement to teach in a public school and is granted by the State Department of Education.

Personal Conceptions

• States have made it more and more difficult to obtain a certificate. The process has become bureaucratically controlled.

• Requirements included taking the required college courses, which many times have no relation to the real life situation of the classroom.

• To renew a certificate requires taking more of the same education courses that add no real value to what the teacher is doing. They are many times taught by professors who have never had elementary/secondary classroom experience or if they have they are out-dated.

• Certification can only be achieved by conducting student teaching the entry year teaching in a state accredited school.

memo continued

• Most states now require prospective teachers to pass a test before they can be certified.

• States equate school accreditation with teacher certification.

• Certification is not reflective of teacher performance in the classroom.

• Certification does not make a person a good teacher.

• Parents don't know what certification and accreditation mean. Most parents equate teacher certification to an assurance of the quality of the teacher.

• Certification standards are set by the state colleges of education in conjunction with the State Department of Education and are influenced by the agenda of the regional accrediting associations and by the NEA.

• State teacher certification is equal to licensing.

• State teacher certification is indoctrination in secular humanism and postmodernism. This is achieved through requiring some of the state mandated postsecondary education courses.

• Certification is linked to unionization through the NEA and the state education associations.

memo continued

Personal Challenges

• I have been unable to obtain or renew a state certificate without taking more college education courses, even though I had over nine years of teaching and administration experience in private schools and had earned a master degree in education.

• I have had students from colleges who would like to have completed their student teaching or entry year at the private school where I was the administrator but could not do so because it was not accredited by the state. (The school was accredited, however, by a nationally recognized private accrediting association.)

• I believe that there are "hidden agendas" behind some of the required standards for teacher certification orchestrated by the NEA and other interest groups.

• State Departments of Education have not wanted to have any dialogue or collaborative efforts with the private school leaders.

Personal Thought

• Could not the states recognize other credible accreditation and certification agencies to validate teacher qualifications to grant teacher credentials?

APPENDIX B

ORIGINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

INTERVIEW #_____

DATE:_____

PLACE INTERVIEWED:_____

TIME: START:_____ END:_____

ASSESSMENT OF RAPPORT: LO 1 2 3 4 5 HI

TAPE #_____ BEGIN:_____ END:_____

NAME OF INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWED:_____

ORGANIZATION:_____

POSITION:_____

- BIOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

Description of educational background.

Major:

Degrees:

Outline of vocational and professional background.

- LONG INTERVIEW QUESTIONS / TEACHER CERTIFICATION

1. Do your [schools] or [organization] require teachers to be certified?
2. What does teacher certification mean?
3. How do teachers become certified?
4. What does teacher certification do or not do for educational practice?
5. How would you modify the teacher certification program?
6. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about teacher certification?

APPENDIX C

REVISED QUESTIONNAIRE

INTERVIEW #_____

DATE:_____

PLACE INTERVIEWED:_____

TIME: START:_____ END:_____

ASSESSMENT OF RAPPORT: LO 1 2 3 4 5 HI

TAPE #_____ BEGIN:_____ END:_____

NAME OF INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWED:_____

ORGANIZATION:_____

POSITION:_____

- BIOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

Description of educational background.

Major:

Degrees:

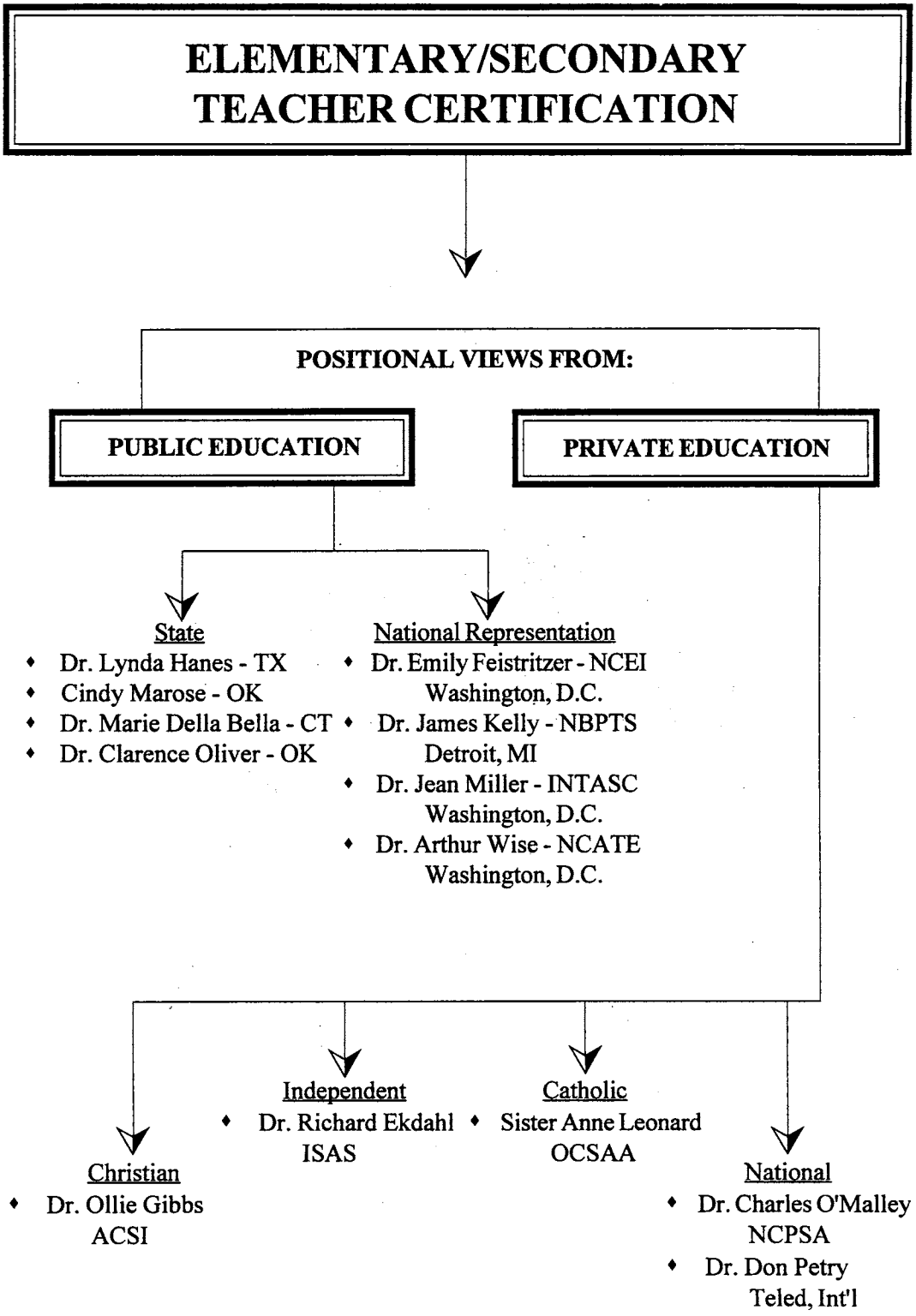
Outline of vocational and professional background.

- LONG INTERVIEW QUESTIONS / TEACHER CERTIFICATION

1. Do your [schools] or [organization] require teachers to be certified?
2. What does teacher certification mean?
3. What does teacher licensure mean?
4. How do teachers become certified?
5. What is alternative teacher certification?
6. What is emergency teacher certification?
7. What does teacher certification do or not do for educational practice?
8. How would you modify the teacher certification program?
9. Who should certify teachers?
10. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about teacher certification?

APPENDIX D

MODEL OF INTERVIEW DESIGN


ELEMENTARY/SECONDARY TEACHER CERTIFICATION
POSITIONAL VIEWS FROM:
PUBLIC EDUCATION
PRIVATE EDUCATION
State
Dr. Lynda Hanes - TX
Cindy Marose - OK
Dr. Marie Della Bella - CT
Dr. Clarence Oliver - OK
National Representation
Dr. Emily Feistritzer - NCEI Washington, D.C.
Dr. James Kelly - NBPTS Detroit, MI
Dr. Jean Miller - INTASC Washington, D.C.
Dr. Arthur Wise - NCATE Washington, D.C.
Christian
Dr. Ollie Gibbs ACSI
Independent
Dr. Richard Ekdahl ISAS
Catholic
Sister Anne Leonard OCSAA
National
Dr. Charles O'Malley NCPSA
Dr. Don Petry Teled, Int'l

APPENDIX E

RESEARCH INTERVIEWEES

RESEARCH INTERVIEWEES - TEACHER CERTIFICATION

1. **Dr. Marie Della Bella**, School Approval Consultant
   Bureau of Professional Development and Certification
   Connecticut State Department of Education
   165 Capitol Avenue
   Hartford, CT 06106
   Phone: (203) 566-3593
   FAX: (203) 566-3426

2. **Dr. Richard Ekdahl**, Executive Director
   Independent Schools Association of the Southwest (ISAS)
   PO Box 52297
   Tulsa, OK 74152-0297
   Phone: (918) 749-5927
   FAX: (918) 749-5937

3. **Dr. Emily Feistritzer**, Founder and President
   National Center for Education Information (NCEI)
   #4 N. Camino Don Carlos
   Santa Fe, NM 87501
   Phone: (505) 820-2856
   FAX: (505) 820-2859

4. **Dr. Ollie Gibbs**, Director Academic Affairs
   Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI)
   PO Box 35097
   731 Chapel Hills Drive
   Colorado Springs, CO 80935-3509
   Phone: (719) 528-6906
   FAX: (719) 531-0631

5. **Dr. Lynda Haynes**, Sr. Division Director
   Division of Educator Preparation and Certification
   Texas Education Agency
   1701 N. Congress Avenue
   Austin, TX 78701
   Phone: (512) 475-3136
   FAX: (512) 463-6299

RESEARCH INTERVIEWEES - TEACHER CERTIFICATION (cont.)

6. **Dr. James Kelly**, President
National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS)
300 River Place
Suite #3600
Detroit, MI 48207
Phone: (313) 259-0830
FAX: (313) 259-0973

7. **Sister Anne Leonard**, Director of Education and Superintendent of Schools
Archdiocese of Oklahoma City
Oklahoma Catholic Schools Accreditation Association (OCSAA)
PO Box 32180
7501 Northwest Expressway
Oklahoma City, OK 73123
Phone: (405) 721-4202
FAX: (405) 721-5210

8. **Cindy Marose**, Director
Professional Standards
Professional Standards Office, Room #211
Oklahoma State Department of Education
2500 N. Lincoln
Oklahoma City, OK 73105-4599
Phone: (405) 521-2300
FAX: (405) 521-6205

9. **Dr. Jean Miller**, Director
Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) - Director
Council of Chief State School Officers
One Massachusetts Ave., NW, Ste. 700
Washington, D.C. 20001-1431
Phone: (202) 408-5505
FAX: (202) 789-1792

RESEARCH INTERVIEWEES - TEACHER CERTIFICATION (cont.)

10. **Dr. Clarence Oliver**, Dean
Oral Roberts University School of Education
Oral Roberts University
7777 S. Lewis Avenue
Tulsa, OK 74171
Phone: (918) 495-7084
FAX: (918) 495-6033

11. **Dr. Charles O'Malley**, Executive Director
National Council for Private School Accreditation (NCPSA)
601 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW Ste. 900
Washington, D.C. 20004
Phone: (410) 349-0139
FAX: (410) 349-0140

12. **Dr. Don Petry**, Founder and President
Teled, Interanational
1401 Greenbrier Parkway, Ste. 370
Chesapeake, VA 23320
Phone: (804) 420-4680
FAX: (804) 523-8906

13. **Dr. Arthur Wise**, President
National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE)
2010 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Ste. 500
Washington, D.C. 20036-1023
Phone: (202) 466-7496
FAX: (202) 296-6620

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW CONFIRMATION MEMO

M E M O R A N D U M

To: _____

From: David B. Hand

Date: _____, 1995

Subject: **Research Interview**

Thank you for your willingness to assist me by granting an interview. This memo is to confirm my earlier phone conversation with you regarding an appointment.

The interview will be part of my dissertation research. My topic has to do with teacher certification and issues of conflict and commonality with state teacher certification and private school requirements.

The interview will take approximately one hour. I appreciate the giving of your time.

Interview scheduled for:

Date: _____
Time: _____
Location: _____
City, State: _____

I look forward to meeting with you.

Thanks!

DBH:jtf

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW THANK YOU LETTER

[DATE]

[NAME]
[ORGANIZATION]
[ADDRESS]
[CITY, STATE ZIP]

Dear _____:

I enjoyed having the opportunity to visit with you in _____ last week and sincerely appreciate the time you gave me.

I want to thank you for allowing me to interview you and obtain your thoughts regarding teacher certification. Your background in education and professional involvement in both public and private school education will prove to be invaluable as I synthesize the information for my dissertation.

I've benefited from the interview and have gained many insights from you and your experience.

Sincere Thanks,

David B. Hand

DBH:jtf

APPENDIX H

INTERVIEW CONSENT AND AGREEMENT FORM

CONSENT AND AGREEMENT FORM
TO CONDUCT RESEARCH INTERVIEW

General Information

You have been asked by a graduate student of Oklahoma State University working on a dissertation to be interviewed about your views concerning teacher certification.

The interview serves two purposes:

1. Information collected in the interview will be used by the student interviewer to prepare a dissertation about teacher certification.
2. Information collected by the student may be used in scholarly publications of the student and/or the dissertation adviser.

The interview should last from one to one and one-half hours and will be recorded. The questions asked have been developed by the graduate student. All subjects will be asked the same general questions and their interviews will be tape recorded. The student will type transcripts of the interview for analysis. The dissertation adviser may review these transcripts.

Individuals interviewed maybe identified and referenced in discussions and in written materials dealing with the interview and the research topic.

No interview will be accepted or used by the student unless this consent form has been signed by all parties. The form will be filed and retained for at least two years by the dissertation adviser.

Subject Understanding

- I understand that participation in this interview is voluntary and that there is no penalty for refusal to participate.

- I understand that I may refuse to answer any question or withdraw from the interview at any time.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying the dissertation advisor.
- I understand that the interview will be conducted according to commonly accepted research procedures and that information taken from the interview will be recorded and transcribed.
- To assure the integrity of the transcription and to validate my responses to the interview questions I understand that the tape recordings will be preserved for a period of at least two years before being destroyed.
- I also understand that I may be identified and cited in written form.

I understand the interview will not cover topics that could reasonably place the subject at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subject's financial standing or employability or deal with sensitive aspects of the subject's own behavior such as illegal conduct, drug use, sexual behavior, or use of alcohol.

I may contact the dissertation adviser, Dr. Robert E. Nolan, Occupational and Adult Education, 414 Classroom Building, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078; (405) 744-6275, should I wish further information about the research. I also may contact Jennifer Moore, University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078; (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand this consent form. I understand that I may be identified, referred to by title and name and cited in written form. I sign this form freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

DATE:_____ TIME:_____ (A.M./P.M.)

SIGNED:_____

(Signature of Subject)

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject before requesting the subject to sign it and provided the subject with a copy of this form.

DATE:_____TIME:_____(A.M./P.M.)

SIGNED:_____

(Signature of Student)

I agree to abide by the language and the intent of this consent form.

DATE:_____

SIGNED:_____

(Signature of Dissertation Adviser)

APPENDIX I

IRB APPROVAL FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 09-02-95 **IRB#:** ED-96-017

Proposal Title: COMMONALITIES, CONFLICTS, AND COMPROMISES BETWEEN STATE TEACHER CERTIFICATION POLICIES AND PRIVATE SCHOOL TEACHER QUALIFICATION POLICIES

Principal Investigator(s): Robert E. Nolan, David B. Hand

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature: _____ Date: September 11, 1995
Chair of Institutional Review Board

VITA 2

David B. Hand

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: TEACHER CERTIFICATION: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF CULTURAL VIEWS FROM PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOL POLICYMAKERS

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born 1951, Colorado Springs, Colorado, son of Bruce and Gloria Hand. Wife, Katherine, two sons, Matthew and Micah.

Education: Attended Western Wyoming Community College, Rock Springs, Wyoming, 1969-70; received Bachelor of Arts degree in education from Oral Roberts University, Tulsa, Oklahoma, June 1973; began graduate work toward Master of Science degree at the University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, Colorado, 1981 and Grace Theological Seminary, Winona Lake, Indiana, 1983; completed Master of Education degree at Oral Roberts University, May 1985; completed requirements for Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, May 1996.

Professional Experience: Private school teacher, 1976-79; private school principal/administrator, 1979-87; member of the Oral Roberts University Educational Fellowship Board of Trustees, 1983 to the present; Associate Director of the Oral Roberts University Educational Fellowship, 1987 to the present; Director of the International Christian Accrediting Association, 1987 to the present; adjunct professor with the Oral Roberts University Graduate School of Education and School of Lifelong Education; chairman of visiting accreditation teams; conducted and organized National and International professional development seminars and workshops; President of the National Council for Private School Accreditation, 1996-98.

Professional Memberships: Phi Delta Kappa, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Omicron Tau Theta Phi Chapter