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Stressed Out: Federal Education Policy, Teacher Stress, and Classroom Instruction Orientation

By

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Doctor of Philosophy

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Stressed Out: Federal Education Policy, Teacher Stress, and Classroom Instruction Orientation

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A.M., Brown University, 2008

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An abstract of
A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of
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Abstract

Stressed Out: Federal Education Policy, Teacher Stress, and Classroom Instruction Orientation
By Brandi Hinnant-Crawford

Educational policy has reflected the understanding that good teachers are essential to an educated populace, and the most important factor in a classroom to affect student achievement is the teacher. Despite the government's recognition of the need for teachers, there has been a failure to acknowledge the expertise of teachers when deciding and implementing policies for education (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Hargreaves, 1996; Olson, 2002). Teachers are constantly asked to implement educational policies they did not create nor endorse causing cognitive dissonance and affecting their motivation (Ball, 2003; Kelchtermans, 2005). Utilizing Social Cognitive Theory as a theoretical lens, this study sought to uncover the effects of education policy (environment) on teacher stress (affective characteristic) and teacher instructional practices (behavior). This study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of their knowledge of federal education policy, specifically key elements of IDEA, ESEA, Common Core, and RT3? From what sources is that knowledge derived?
2. Is teacher perceived knowledge/consciousness of education policies related to teacher stress?
3. Is teacher perceived knowledge/consciousness of policies related to classroom instruction (goal structures)? Does stress have any mediating effects on the relationship between teacher perceived policy knowledge and classroom instruction?
4. What are teachers' perceptions about their ability to influence education policy? How does knowledge of education policy (or lack thereof) affect teachers' perceptions about their ability to influence education policy?

Utilizing mixed methods, in a sequential explanatory design, 264 teachers in two districts in a southeastern metropolitan area were surveyed. Following the survey, interviews were held collecting qualitative responses from 7 teachers.

Findings reveal consciousness of No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top lead to performance oriented teaching, whereas Common Core and IDEA lead to mastery oriented teaching behaviors. Furthermore, while consciousness of policies does not affect stress level, one's belief in their ability to influence policy decreases stress as well as increased knowledge about education policy. Recommendations for increasing mastery oriented teaching are presented as well as suggestions for increasing policy knowledge.

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None of us got where we are solely by pulling ourselves up by our bootstraps. We got here because somebody - a parent, a teacher, an Ivy League crony or a few nuns - bent down and helped us pick up our boots.
Thurgood Marshall

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Friends are as companions on a journey, who ought to aid each other to persevere . . .
Pythagoras

To my friends: Dr. Crystal Sanders, Tarnisha Daniels-Casley, Dominic Harris, Dr. Beryl Bray, Joscelyne Wilson, Erin Woodom-Coleman, Dr. Courtney Simmons, Danielle Brockington, Cheron Coleman, Keri Edwards, Tequilla Barrett, Onize Aiyede, Tereba Ransome, Candace Stokes, Ashley Weaver, Ashley Johnson, Pamela Denton, Jasmine Davis, Roger Keyes, Andre Jones, Bryant Kennedy, Omar Taylor, Espoinisa Eatmon, James Barnes, Jaranda Barnes, Jermaine Hemby, Demetrius Daniels, Sharelle Barber, The Belchers, the Flournoys—the smiles you bring in stressful times are what helped me to keep going. Thank you.

If relatives help each other, what evil can hurt them?
Ethiopian Proverb

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I am not a great career woman, but what greater career could one wish than to be an inspiration to her pupils?
Anna Easter Brown, Founder of Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority, Inc.

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We who believe in freedom cannot rest, we who believe in freedom cannot rest until it comes. . .
Not needing to clutch for power, not needing the light just to shine on me. I need to be just one in the number as we stand against tyranny.
"Ella's Song" Sweet Honey and the Rock

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Lead me, guide me along the way. For if you lead me, I cannot stray.
Doris Akers, African American Gospel Composer

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You see, at the end of the day, my most important title is still 'mom-in-chief.' My [children] are still the heart of my heart and the center of my world.
Michelle Obama

To my children: Elizabeth Freedom, Elijah Justice, Cameron James, and Kiera Renee Crawford—you all are my inheritance and the reason what I do is important. I love you more than ∞^{∞}. Mommy believes in fighting for education because I believe every child has the potential to be great and do great things for our society. I look at you all and see future theologians, teachers, scientists and medical doctors—and attempt to raise you so you have the choice. But I do not believe choices should be limited to children who have parents as educated and well informed as yours are. All children should have the tools necessary to choose the path that is right for them. Thank you for understanding why I had to read articles when you wanted Fairy Tales and write chapters when you wanted to finger paint. You will always be my first priority, but thank you for understanding I also have a responsibility.

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It is from the concerted effort of all of those listed above that this work has been produced. May it be a catalyst to improve education for our children.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to TDB, CJC, and others our current education system has failed. It is the researcher's sincere prayer that works like these inform our practices so the outcomes for EFC, EJC, DAO, and DJO will be drastically different than those who came before them.

Figures, Tables, and Diagrams

Figures

Tables

Path Analysis Diagrams

Chapter 1 **Introduction: Stressed Out**

When the Coleman Report was released in 1966, there were questions about the relationship between school characteristics and student achievement. The question was raised about whether or not inferior facilities actually matter for student outcomes. Still in the wake of Brown and a few years removed from the Jim Crow separate but equal doctrine, the report wanted to see how differential school resources affected student achievement. After discussing the negligent impact of school facilities on achievement the report asserted clearly: "The quality of teachers shows a stronger relationship to pupil achievement" (1966, p.22). Thirty years later in 1996, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future explained that the teacher was the most important resource in the classroom. The literature on the importance of good teachers on student outcomes is voluminous. Studies have found that high quality teachers, usually defined as those who are certified and have degrees in the subject matter they teach, are positively and significantly correlated with higher student outcomes (Darling-Hammond, 1999). Furthermore, it has been found that a series of good teachers can give a child a boost, whereas a series of bad teachers can be difficult to recover from over time (Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Rivers & Sanders, 2002). The necessity of good teachers has become a common sense knowledge among the general public, depicted humorously in popular media such as Waiting for Superman and illustrated within the parental network of referrals for Ms. X and Mr. Y.

Members of the general public are not the only ones who acknowledge the significance of having good teachers; educational policy has reflected the understanding that good teachers are essential to an educated populace. This clear recognition of the need for high quality teachers is evident in both No Child Left Behind (2002) and the Higher Education Act (2008). The "highly qualified teacher" provision is one of the most lauded and often controversial parts of NCLB. Knowing the sorting of teachers in the United States usually leaves poor, students of color with

the least qualified teacher, this provision of the law sought to have a highly qualified teacher in every classroom. While NCLB discussed teacher quality as a staffing and school level issue, the Higher Education Act looked at it from a preparation standpoint. Explicating the purpose of TITLE II in the Act was to:

> The purposes of this part are to—
>
> (1) improve student achievement;
>
> (2) improve the quality of prospective and new teachers by improving the preparation of prospective teachers and enhancing professional development activities for new teachers;
>
> (3) hold teacher preparation programs at institutions of higher education accountable for preparing highly qualified teachers; and
>
> (4) recruit highly qualified individuals, including minorities and individuals from other occupations, into the teaching force.

Every college, school, or division of education in the United States that prepares teachers submits a Title II report annually to illustrate their compliance with the mandates in this Act. These two federal policies, along with countless state and local policies illustrate the awareness of the critical need for good teachers.

Despite the government's recognition of the need for teachers, there has been a multi-angled attack on teachers. The trite saying "those who can do, those who can't teach" is ostensibly contradictory to the common sense knowledge that good teachers make a big difference; yet, it seems the current society is subscribing to both ideas. Diane Ravitch explains quite clearly that:

> Teacher-bashing has become the motif of the day. It is usually cloaked in some high-minded rhetoric that pretends to praise teachers. Say the bashers: We need great teachers; great teachers can solve all our problems; great teachers can close the achievement gap; if

> you don't have great teachers, you are doomed; blah, blah, blah. What they really mean—read between the lines—is that they think most of the teachers we now have are no good. (2009, para. 1)

Darling-Hammond discusses the way the profession is being attacked. Teachers are not recognized as professionals and the numerous alternative certification routes sometimes give the signal that anyone can teach.

Since the common school movement, there has been a failure to acknowledge the expertise of teachers when deciding and implementing policies for education. Journalist Mary Abigail Dodge argued in 1880, "teachers ought to run schools exactly as doctors run a hospital" (Tyack, 1974, p.82) a sentiment that is echoed 120 years later as Olson argues, "such a need to consult those who do the work can be seen dramatically in the case of nurses, who, in Canada at least, are now being recognized as sources of important information for purposes of assessing how hospitals work . . .Teachers, like nurses, know what it is to make the system work under conditions of duress" (2002, p. 129-130). However, unlike those working in the medical profession, teachers are often not consulted in the development of the very policies that they are expected to implement. Furthermore, teachers are forced to make sense of the policies handed-down to them. Spillane explains: "policy implementation is much like the telephone game: the player at the start of the line tells a story to the next person in line. . . the story is morphed as it moves from player to player," and the unfortunate truth is teachers are sometimes the last person in line to receive the message (2004, p.8).

Therefore, teachers are constantly asked to implement educational policies they did not create nor endorse causing cognitive dissonance and affecting their motivation. Darling-Hammond illustrates the top-down approach to educational policy in which teachers are the conduits of implementation when they have often received the least amount of information. She

explicates that erroneously, "policy makers often behave as though the policy process is virtually complete when a new law has been passed and the writing of regulations and guidelines has been completed" (1990, p. 342). Keltchterman (2005) refers to the state teachers face where there is incongruence between policy demands and personal beliefs as "vulnerability." In the current context, teachers are being inundated with swiftly changing policy demands. Ball (2003) discusses the stresses of policies on teachers as their ability to deal with the terrors of "performativity." He explicates:

> Increasingly, the day-to-day practice is flooded with a baffling array of figures, indicators, comparisons and forms of competition. Within all this, the contentment's of stability are increasingly elusive, purposes are made contradictory, motivations become blurred and self-worth is uncertain. . . . Are we[teachers] doing this because it is important, because we believe in it, because it is worthwhile? Or is it being done ultimately because it will be measured or compared?

With the standards movement, new effectiveness measures from Race to the Top, and the general devaluing of teaching as a profession, the policy environment has consequences for the motivation of teachers. While it is obvious policy may have effects on teacher emotions, less research has explored the effects of policies on teacher stress and classroom behavior.

This study seeks to understand the interaction between educational policy and teacher motivation. Specifically, this research aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of their knowledge of federal education policy, specifically key elements of IDEA, ESEA, Common Core, and RT3? From what sources is that knowledge derived? Are teachers given the space to discuss new policies?

2. Is teacher perceived knowledge/consciousness of education policies related to teacher stress?
3. Is teacher perceived knowledge/ consciousness of policies related to classroom instruction (goal structures)? Does stress have any mediating effects on the relationship between teacher perceived policy knowledge and classroom instruction?
4. What are teachers' perceptions about their ability to influence education policy? How does knowledge of education policy (or lack thereof) affect teachers' perceptions about their ability to influence education policy?

Chapter 2 **Literature Review**

Definitions: Educational Policy

Prior to laying out the research design, I must begin by defining what I mean by educational policy. Educational policy is a very broad term that can include a number of mandates from federal legislation to mandates from a school principal. The policies in place for schools govern everything from finances to student assignment to curriculum content. For the purpose of this study, education policy refers to four specific federal policies and movements. The federal policies analyzed in this study include the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Race to the Top Grant Competition, and the Common Core Standards Movement.

Elementary and Secondary Education Act (NCLB)

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed in 1965 and was a part of the Great Society programs initiated by President Lyndon B. Johnson. The most important and well known title in this piece of legislation is Title I, which provides aid to schools that educate financially disadvantaged students. The ESEA has been reauthorized every five to seven years since 1965, taking a series of names such as Goals 2000 (1994), No Child Left Behind (2002),

and since ESEA failed to be reauthorized, the Obama administration put forth A Blueprint for Reform in 2010. Each reauthorization offers a different interpretation of the federal government's role in the oversight of education in the United States. When NCLB passed, the "Act sought to shift the federal education policy from its historic emphasis on redistributing money and regulating how money was spent to a focus on the performance of students, schools, and districts" (Hess & Petrilli, 2007, p. 27). NCLB put forth the goal of universal proficiency in math and science by the 2013-2014 school year. To obtain this universal proficiency the act required highly qualified teachers be placed in each classroom, regular measurement of student achievement in core subjects, disaggregation of student achievement data by subgroups, and various forms of sanctions for schools that did not meet their annual proficiency targets (AYP). The Blueprint for Education Reform (2010) loosened some of the strict clauses in No Child Left Behind. Realizing universal proficiency was unlikely by 2013-2014 school year, the Blueprint sets the current policy stage where most states have applied for and received waivers from No Child Left Behind. Two of the primary foci in the Blueprint are ensuring students are college and career ready and the creation of great teachers and leaders. The college and career readiness aspect of the reauthorization looks closely at high standards. The great teachers and leaders aspect encourages states to develop measures of teacher and leader effectiveness by examining their effect on student outcomes. This study will look at No Child Left Behind and The Blueprint for Reform.

Individual with Disabilities Education Act

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act is a reauthorization of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. The law "both outlaws discrimination and guarantees educational services" for students with disabilities (Yudoff et al., 2002, p. 703). The law requires students with disabilities have an individualized education program (IEP) and that their parents are included in the design of that program. IDEA also mandates that students are placed in the

least-restrictive environment, which is often conflated with the practice of mainstreaming. IDEA is criticized as being a law that has an "excessive focus on process over substance" (Bagenstos, 2009, p.122). This is due in part to the Board of Education vs. Rowley case of 1982 when the Justice Rehnquist explained in the decision that "full participation of concerned parties throughout the development of the IEP, as well as the requirements that state and local plans be submitted to the Commissioner for approval, demonstrate the legislative conviction that adequate compliance with the procedures prescribed would in most cases assure much if not all of what Congress wished in the way of substantive content in an IEP" (Yudoff et al., 2002, p. 706).

Common Core State Standards Initiative

Unlike the other three aspects of educational policy this study will explore, the Common Core Standards is a movement and not attached to federal legislation. While it has been endorsed by US Department of Education in subtle ways such as having "developing and adopting a common set of standards is included among the criteria in the scoring rubric used to grant awards in the Race to the Top Competition" this movement is led by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Chief State School Officers (Porter, McMaken, Hwang, & Yang, 2011, p. 103). The Common Core standards were developed as an attempt "to establish consensus on the expectations for student knowledge and skills that should be developed in Grades K-12" (Porter et. al, 2011, p.103). The standards set forth focus on the content of material and not pedagogical practices to teach the material. The Common Core Standards are currently outlined for English/Language Arts and Mathematics. In math, the standards are said to focus more on depth than breadth that is seen in current state standards. Currently, 45 states and 3 territories have adopted the Common Core Standards including the state in which this study takes place (corestandards.org, 2012).

Race to the Top (RT3)

Race to the Top is a federal grant competition that allows states to apply for federal money to implement educational reforms. Race to the Top (sometimes seen as RTT, RT3) "was a part of $100 billion in education funds included in the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (AARA) of 2009" (McGuinn, 2010, p.2). McGuinn identifies three elements that underlie the philosophy driving Race to the Top "shifting the federal role from a focus on means to a focus on ends. . . . shifting from sanctions (sticks) to incentives (carrots) as a way of motivating state reform, and shifting the Department of Education away from being a compliance-monitoring organization to being focused on capacity building and innovation (2010, p. 3). Unlike traditional federal educational funding such as Title I of ESEA, RT3 grants are competitive. States apply and are scored on 6 categories: state success factors, standards and assessments, longitudinal data systems to support instruction, great teachers and leaders, failing school turnaround, and a general category. The general category includes STEM initiatives and the support of charter schools (McGuinn, 2010, p.4). While RT3 attempts to inspire policy innovation in a number of areas, one of the most salient is the emphasis on teacher accountability and linking teacher effectiveness to student achievement.

While educational policy includes a great deal more than federal policy and these four aspects of federal policy, for the scope of this study, these are the policies that will be examined.

Theoretical Framework

Research has found that over one-third of teachers describe their jobs as highly stressful (Boyle et al., 1995). Stress in teaching is a reality that cannot be avoided nor overlooked. However, a great deal of research on teacher stress questions the causes of stress or the psychological outcomes it has on teachers (such as burnout). The literature stops short of placing teacher stress in a context where the causes are examined in conjunction with the effects that is has on behavior, particularly classroom instruction. To understand the complex relationships

between the policy environment, teacher stress, and teacher behavior this research utilizes Social Cognitive Theory.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) describes human behavior by positing "people are neither driven by inner forces nor automatically shaped and controlled by external stimuli. Rather, human functioning is explained in terms of a model of triadic reciprocality in which behavior, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants of each other" (Bandura, 1986, p.18). Bandura depicts the bidirectional forces in triadic-reciprociality with a triangular figure, in which each point represents the following: cognitive/affective dimensions of a person, their environment, and their behavior; each point is connected with a double-headed arrow. While SCT espouses reciprocal relationships between these three dimensions, he explicates the bidirectional nature does not indicate equivalent strength in influence.

Critical to understanding SCT, is understanding two of the underlying premises of the theory, agency and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a mechanism for human agency. Self-efficacy is defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). On the other hand, agency is defined as "to influence intentionally one's functioning and life circumstances" (Bandura, 2002). Both agency and self-efficacy are critical in understanding how teachers respond to their environment. Teachers receive messages from education policy that can affect their motivation (affective) and hence performance (behavior) in the classroom.

SCT discusses stress in relationship to self-efficacy. SCT, "views stress reactions primarily in terms of a low sense of efficacy to exercise control over aversive threats and taxing environmental demands" (1997, p. 262). Moreover, Bandura explains that "self-efficacy to fulfill occupational demands" is directly correlated with work related stress and the physical health. Teachers, arguably, have little control over the policies that govern their day to day existence in school. This lack of control could lead to stress. However, efficacy to influence said policies

would in theory diminish that stress.

The triadic recpricality in social cognitive theory allows not only the examination between the environment and stress, but also the relationships between each of those and teacher behaviors. Agency, the intentional action that results from affective and environmental influences, is often neglected in the study of teacher stress. The primary outcome studied in teacher stress literature is burnout (which is another affective state rather than a behavior); but stress also affects behavior. A great deal of literature has discusses the phenomenon of "teaching to the test," a practice that has developed due to the demands on teachers to produce high scores. In 2006, Meece, Anderman and Anderman presented concerns about how the current policy environment would affect teaching practices:

> For motivation researchers, the major concern is the impact of testing and accountability on teacher and students on the motivational climate on classrooms and schools. Although public scrutiny of test scores may motivate teachers and students to work harder. . . research on classroom goal structures suggest that a focus on testing and evaluation can lead to a performance orientation[1] in classrooms and schools (2006, p. 498).

As expressed above, policy may have effects on teacher motivation; and teacher motivation and behavior definitely has effects on student motivation and behavior. As depicted below, this study utilizes tradiac reciporcality as a lens as it seeks to uncover the triadic relationship that governs teachers behaviors, with a keen understanding that teacher behaviors have a direct effect on student environments which in turn influence student affective and behavioral outcomes as well.

[1] Goal orientations are explained in detail in the methods section, where instruments measuring goal orientations are described.

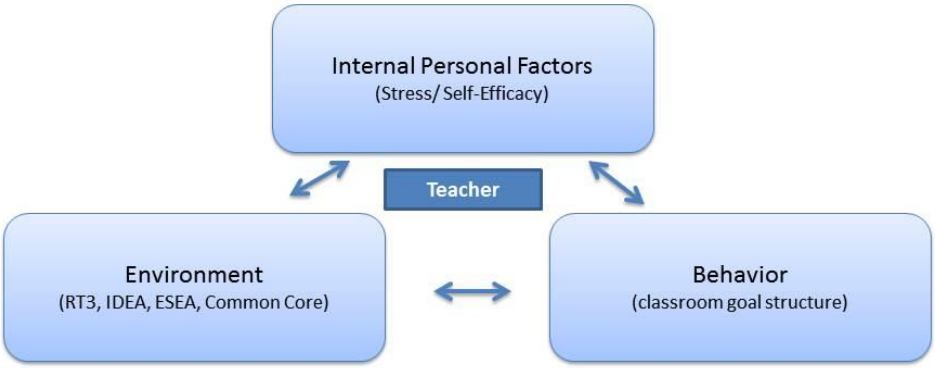


Figure 2-1: Triadic Reciprocality

Climate Change: Educational Policy and Teachers

The scholarly literature on education policy and teachers is a vast and diverse body of work, most of which is theoretical in orientation or narrowly focused on the implementation of instructional policy. Empirical studies on the relationship between education policy, teacher emotions, and teacher classroom behavior are few. Because this study seeks to understand the relationship between educational policy, teacher stress, and classroom instruction, this literature review includes research done in educational policy, particularly educational change literature, as well as literature from sociology and psychology. It begins by overviewing general educational policy structure within the context of the United States, where teachers have fit within that structure, and how their positions have changed with changing political tides. There are three waves of educational policy implementation literature. The first wave, which begins after the passage of the Great Society programs looks at policy design. The second wave looks at implementation, whether or not a policy can be implemented. The third wave looks at the complexities involved in implementation. The implementation literature included here comes from the second and third waves, focusing only on implementation studies that include teachers as major agents in implementation. The review includes theoretical implementation works highlighting major theories utilized to describe teacher interaction with education policy. Finally, the review concludes with an exhaustive examination of the literature that combines educational

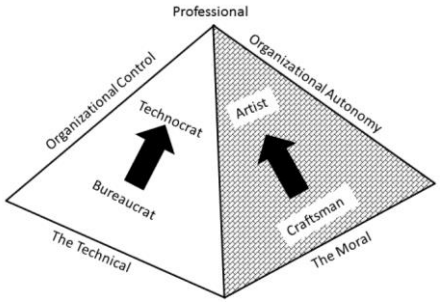
policy and teacher emotions, highlighting literature that explores teacher stress and examines teacher behavior as an outcome.

In summation, this review argues the policy structure in the United States was designed to minimize the influence of teachers; however, teachers have been able to exert immeasurable power during the implementation phase until recently. Currently, new accountability policies are undermining teachers' micropolitical actions[2] during policy implementation and we need to understand how this removal of power affects teachers affectively as well as their classroom behavior (instruction).

Reigning Down from on High: The Hierarchy in US Education Policy

Education policy, like all policy in the United States operates under a federalist system. Education was not a right guaranteed in the US Constitution and has been housed under the 10th Amendment as up to the discretion of the states. Cohen and Spillane explain "the US political system was specifically designed to frustrate central power. Authority in education was divided among state, local, and federal governments" (1992, p. 5). While the general layout of the policy landscape is unavoidable, some argue this decentralization and fragmentation lead to, "what might be called the 50/14,000/130,000 problem in American education reform—we have fifty different state education systems that collectively contain approximately 14,000 school districts and almost 130,000 schools." (McGuinn, 2010, p. 2). The educational system is considered fractured, though new federal policies are attempting to make it a more unilateral system.

Figure 2-2: Technical and Moral View of Teachers



[2] Micropolitical actions are defined by Keltcherman and Ballet (2002) "as those actions aimed at establishing, safeguarding, or restoring the desired working conditions"(p.756).

Cuban (1988) argues throughout history (particularly since the creation of public schools in the United States) there have been two prototypes of teachers (see figure 2-2), defined in essence by what educational leaders and policy makers deem is needed from the teaching force in a particular moment. These two archetypes, the moral teacher and the technical teacher reappear at different moments seemingly in response to policy demands. He describes the technical teacher as one who "matches the needs of large organizations impelled to provide standardized services to many students" (p.3). The technical teacher emerges as a result of late 19th and early 20th century reforms during the initial shift to more centralized education. Tyack explains:

> In attempting to systematize urban schools, the superintendents of the latter half of the nineteenth century sought to transform structures and decision making processes in education. From classroom to central office they tried to create new controls over pupils, teachers, principals, and other subordinate members of the school hierarchy. . . . directives flowed from the top down, reports emanated from the bottom, and each step of the educational process was carefully prescribed by professional educators. (1974, p.40)

Teachers at the time of this early reform movement, were not well educated, often only having a high school education, and some could argue needed the guidance from the hierarchical structure (Tyack, 1974). This re-vamping of the educational structure, from local, usually site based control, to a more centralized, managerial structure is called scientific management. The goal was to run schools like factories, "like the manager of a cotton mill, the superintendent of schools could supervise employees, keep the entire enterprise technically up to date, and monitor the uniformity and quality of the product" in this case education (Tyack, 1974). The adoption of scientific management as a protocol for running schools in the 19th century lead to "excluding community members and teachers from decision making" (Darling-Hammond, 1997, p.43). However, as the reform pendulum vacillated from ideas such as site-based management to centralized control and back again, the teacher type of teacher required changed. As Horace

Mann advocated for educational professionals as teachers, and as Dewey discussed the need for curricular flexibility, including teacher inclusion of child interest into the subject matter, the moral teacher reappears as in demand for by educational leaders.

Autonomy in the teaching profession has played its role throughout history as well. It is in the autonomous classroom where the moral teacher emerges. Autonomy was not always a policy directive, but sometimes taken advantage of in the absence of extensive oversight. While most literature on management and reform look primarily at mainstream (white) schools, African American schools often enjoyed a certain amount of autonomy because they were not a priority of school officials, as Baker (2006) explains "school officials didn't care if children attended school, but African American teachers went out and found the school age children no matter how big that classes got" (p.1). Siddle-Walker corroborates the sentiment of autonomy in the segregated setting, espousing, "the segregated school is most often compared with a 'family' where teachers and principal, with parent like authority, exercised almost complete autonomy in shaping student learning" (1996, p.3). This autonomy experienced in African American schools partnered with the institutional care exemplifies the moral prototype of teaching. Cuban defines the moral teacher as one for which, "teaching is a moral activity that requires skills, knowledge, critical judgment, and an eye cocked on imagining what each person can become" (1988, p. 4). African American teachers teaching during segregation often looked at their profession as an opportunity to improve the conditions of the race, and most wholeheartedly subscribed to the goal of racial uplift through teaching (Juergensen, 2013).

Cuban argues the advent of publicizing individual school test scores in the late 1960s lead to another swing in the direction of the technocrat teacher. A Nation at Risk in 1983 further concealed the fate of the teacher that was now in demand. Darling-Hammond (1997) argues effects from the reform efforts of the initial vacillation are still evident in the educational structure today. For over a century, there has been a quest for teacher-proof curricula that would

provide equal opportunities for pupils regardless of the classroom assignment. The goal, while laudable on some accounts, is believed to retard the skills that well-trained, expert teachers possess, or the capabilities of the moral teacher (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Delpit, 2003).

Managing teachers has been a policy goal for quite a long time. Instead of being seen as a valuable resource in the design of educational policy, more often than not reformers discuss teacher beliefs and knowledge as aspects that need to be managed by the reform (Darling-Hammon, 1990; Olson, 2002; Van Veen & Sleegers, 2006). While teachers are expected to be the ground level implementers of educational policy, teachers are rarely consulted in the design or roll-out of such policies (Olson, 2002; Van Veen & Sleegers, 2006). Olson argues teachers should be consulted prior to the launch of various reforms. He explicates teachers possess critical knowledge that is essential in any reform and "what teachers take to be their task, and why they see it in the way they do, is often ignored—and teacher capacity is often underestimated in school reform" (Olson, 2002, p. 131).

In addition to not making use of teacher knowledge in designing policy, teachers are often the last to know about new policies and receive the least amount of information (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Spillane, 2004). Spillane (2004) uses the metaphor of the telephone game (in which one person whispers a story to another and by the time the story gets to the last person it's completely different) in describing how knowledge of education policy flows from the top-down; Darling-Hammond (1990) states teachers receive policy messages through a filter. The findings in Desimone's (2006) research on teachers, principals, and district personnel interpretations of standards-based reform illustrate the dissonance between policy understandings on one level as compared to another (teachers interpret different than principals, and so on.) In each of these cases, the policy message received by teachers could be best described as miscommunication or misinterpretation.

In addition to ambiguous or erroneous policy messages, teachers often receive minimal amounts of information. Lasky (2005), whose work is examined in greater detail later in the review, found teachers in her study to be unclear on the general aims of the reform. Likewise, Darling-Hammond found mathematics teachers in California during a new curricular rollout to understand the changes in terms of, "a 'statement' (which one teacher had read and other has not), and its transmission to them occurred when they were handed new textbooks" (1990, p.342). Schmidt and Datnow's (2005) longitudinal case studies of teachers' responses to comprehensive school reform in California and Florida found that teacher's inability to accurately describe the reforms or its goals illustrate the daunting task of sense-making that comes from top-down reform efforts.

History has created a "grammar" for educational policy (Tyack & Tobin, 1994). The top-down structure was put in place a century ago, and continues to be a stable in the policy landscape. While the idea of the moral teacher permeates popular culture images of teachers and remains the output goal of colleges of education, the policy context has called for the technical teacher- who operates with minimal autonomy and provides a standardized service. The technical teachers simply follows operatives from the top. Teachers are rarely consulted in the design of educational policy nor are they the primary recipients of detailed information when policies are passed. The NEA's statement addressed to Arne Duncan about Race to the Top illustrates dismay of teachers after the policy has been put in place:

> Up to this point, the NEA has been a vocal supporter of the Obama Administration's plans to transform public education by being "tight" on goals, but "looser" in how you achieve them . . . Given the details of the July Race to the Top grant proposal, NEA must now ask: Where did that commitment to local communities go? The details of RTT proposal do not seem to square with the Administration's earlier philosophy. . . . now seems to be tight on goals and tight on the means, with prescriptions that are not well-

> grounded in the knowledge from practice and are unlikely to meet the goals. We find this top-down approach disturbing; we have been down that road before. . . (2008, p. 2)

While some scholars argue the problematic nature of policy grammar, others illustrate the ability of some teachers to work within the grammar and utilize poetic license when needed.

Dancing in the Reign: Teacher Power in a Top-Down Structure

While the system was designed to be hierarchical in nature, as evidenced by the historical script, scholars have acknowledged the myriad ways that bottom maintains power over the top. Antithetical to the general discourse around top-down policy, there is a body of work that discusses the unique power of teachers within the policy structure. Grossman contends "educational change literature largely conceptualizes school-based educators' power embedded in the loose coupling that has existed between classroom practice and school reform (2010, p. 657). Croll and associates discuss four models for teacher interaction with education policy: teachers as partners, teachers as implementers, teachers as opponents, and teachers as policy makers in practice. In each of their classifications teachers have some involvement on how policy plays out on the ground, even if they did not have a say so in the development of the policy.

Teachers are often described as "street-level bureaucrats" in implementation literature when discussing their interaction with policy (Lipsky, 1971; McLaughlin, 1987; Anagostopolous, 2004). The term originated in the work of Lipsky, where he defines these workers as "street level bureaucrats-- those government workers who directly interact with citizens in the regular course of their jobs; whose work within the bureaucratic structure permits them wide latitude in job performance; and whose impact on the lives of citizens is extensive" (1971, p.393). Street-level bureaucrats are also characterized as having to complete complex tasks with limited resources (Lipsky, 1971). Wide-latitude within the existing structure is the concept that points to the teacher's great deal of autonomy when he/she is in his/her personal classroom. As Croll et al.

(1994) explicate in their fourth categorization, teachers as policy makers in practice, “the inevitable process of rationing and prioritising, and the practical routines which accomplish these, means that professionals become effectively makers of policy as well as implementers of policy. In this model, the policy making role occurs not from choice, but from the nature of teaching as an activity" (p. 342). While this is an accurate depiction the decision making involved in teaching, teachers as policy makers in practice is an inadequate model, and indeed not an ideal model, of the way teachers should interact with policy.

Croll and associates (1994) also discuss teachers as implementers or opponents to policy. Darling-Hammond problematizes the idea of teachers as simply implementers of educational policy, “education policy in the country has started from the assumption that what teachers know and think is of little consequence . . . the teacher is viewed as a conduit for instructional policy, but not as an actor” (1990, p. 345). Consequently, Darling-Hammond (1990) explains, this understanding on the side of policy makers has lead them to endorse control mechanisms for teachers instead of investing in professional development and teacher education. Failure for teachers to implement policy is not always a sign of opposition. McLaughlin explains that "teachers, for example, often were diagnosed as 'resistant to change,' or just simply lazy when the ignored or subverted curricular innovations. Second generation [policy] analysts, however, recognized teachers' responses to planned change efforts may instead represent best efforts to do their job and to provide the best they can for the youngsters in their classrooms." (1987, p. 174). This idea resonates with Lipsky’s original conception of street-level bureaucrats who are simply doing the best they can with what they have. Others have argued when teacher behavior does not match that of policy mandates it is simply due to cognitive dissonance. Spillane utilizes a cognitive approach and explicates non-compliance as a result of human sense-making, where individuals have different interpretations of the same mandates.

Scholars utilizing organizational theory explain the power of teachers over the top-down policies in terms of the relationship being "loosely coupled" (Coburn, 2004; Grossman, 2010; Meyers & Rowan, 1977). Meyers and Rowan define the idea of loose coupling:

> Institutionalized products, services, techniques, policies, and programs function as powerful myths, and many organizations adopt them ceremonially. But conformity to institutionalized rules often conflicts sharply with efficiency criteria . . .To maintain ceremonial conformity, organizations that reflect institutional rules tend to buffer their formal structures from the uncertainties of technical activities by becoming loosely coupled, building gaps between their formal structures and actual work activities (1977, p.341).

The idea loose coupling points to a subtle way of pretending in the workforce. Teachers pretend to be in compliance with a policy they do not agree with, but actually may behave in ways that ignore the policy or even contradict it. Coburn gives an example of "loose coupling" in her analysis of teacher responses to reading curriculum reform in California. One teacher, she explains, placed a district rubric on the wall in her classroom but did not utilize it in her actual assessment of student work (Coburn, 2004). Coburn extends the understanding of teacher responses to policy mandates. In her case study of three teachers, she created a typology of five teacher responses to policy mandates: rejection, decoupling/symbolic response, parallel structures, assimilation, and accommodation. While decoupling (loose coupling) is what is pervasive in the literature, she found behaviors consistent with symbolic changes only 7% of the time.

While the theoretical lenses of street-level bureaucrats and coupling aid in the understanding of teachers working with constrained political parameters, there are several limitations to empirical studies dealing with teachers and policy implementation. To a great

extent, the work of Coburn (2004), Spillane (2000), and Darling-Hammond (1999) look only at instructional policy. While instructional policies do have direct impact on teachers, the absence of scholarly literature that looks at the interaction of policies beyond instruction and their effects on teachers is baffling. Most policies concerning education effect teachers, but the lack of scholarship concerning policies outside instruction, leave us to wonder how these policies affect teachers.

Whether being described in terms of street-level bureaucrats or coupling, a great deal of literature speaks to the phenomenon that teachers have the power to close their doors[3] and do their own thing despite the policy agenda. The classroom is a space that is, or once was, highly autonomous and somewhat buffered from the educational policy that rolls down from on high.

Stuck in the Mud: Teachers Limited Autonomy Post Standards-Based Reform

Current waves of educational policy de-professionalize the teaching force, minimizing the autonomy once experienced by closing the classroom door. Since A Nation at Risk emerged in 1983, there has been a shift in educational policy from equity to accountability. Standards-based reform, reform efforts that emphasize curricular standards and accountability, have made it difficult for teachers to maintain the buffer between classroom instruction and educational policy, "tight[ly] coupling" practice and policy (Grossman, 2004, p. 680). Testing policies, which are inexpensive, easy to implement and quite pervasive (Debard & Kubow, 2002), cannot be avoided even by teachers who do not endorse standardized testing as a valid instructional technique.

In the era of accountability the role teachers play has changed. Valli and Beuse (2007) argue the work required of teachers has "increased, intensified, and expanded" in the wake of No Child Left Behind. Their study of elementary teachers over a four year period shows an increase

[3] Closing one's door is seen as a micropolitical action, in which the teacher carries out his or her own agenda in the classroom behind closed doors, despite the policies of the larger school building.

in actual job tasks from data analysis to curriculum alignment to working with ESOL students (that may have been left to ESOL teachers if not for the disaggregation by subgroup). Lasky's study of secondary teachers also found an increase in tasks though the tasks were different. Ball clarifies, "there is an increase in the technical elements of teachers' work and a reduction in the professional" (1993, p. 106). Mathison and Freeman further explain that the task of teaching itself, has not changed, "although the work teachers essentially do (e.g., teaching the curriculum and assessing student progress) has not changed, the presence of high stakes testing has altered the nature of this work and has radically changed teachers' roles and relationships to others in the workplace" (2006, p.44). Within standards-based reform, curriculum and instruction are often prescript—teachers are given pacing guides and students benchmark exams. Instructional innovation often gives way to what Valli and Beuse's (2007) teachers call "drive-by teaching" as they rush through the required standards (p.545). Other researchers show the standards environment has encouraged an alignment of classroom instruction to test content, or "teaching to the test" (Aganostopoulous, 2003; Debard & Kubow, 2002). [Add example from Dark Side of School Reform]

The roles of teachers have changed in the age of accountability; and with changing expectations one must expect reactions from teachers. In their study of role changes, Valli and Beuse found that, "teachers' roles changed as AYP expectation grew, particularly in schools where student populations had the greatest needs for academic growth. Teachers were swept up in a flow of mandates that consumed their thinking, their energy, and for some, even their love of teaching" (2007, p. 545). In a single case study of teachers in a low-income elementary school where pupils dealt with issues including abuse and drug dependency among other uncontrollable external factors, Webb (2006) found that teachers questioned their professional knowledge because of external policy constraints. In a laudatory tone, Webb, declares the "participants were accountable to students" (p.10) but explains that "participants 'brokered' instructional policies

(altered, modified, resisted) to better align students' experiences with curricular and instructional expectations. However, such a coping strategy created additional stressors when participants wrestled with the accuracy and legitimacy of their professional diagnoses" (p.9). One teacher Webb quotes discusses her deviation from the mathematics curriculum because she had to make sure everyone was on board before proceeding. She was also aware that choosing to wait before moving on could have negative consequences. While these examples may not be the case for all teachers, reactions are to be expected in the midst of policy change. In attempting to understand the multiple effects of policy, one cannot neglect to consider the reactions of teachers. Mathison and Freeman (2006) explain that "outcomes based accountability [ie: standards based reform] is the establishment of externally formulated goals with content standards and a strict accountability system" that utilizes high stakes test and a form of evaluation (p.49). Moreover, Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989) explicate that stress-inducing workplaces "rely on external and controlling mechanisms, such as task contingent rewards, surveillance, evaluation, and threats of punishment" (Mathison & Freeman, 2006, p.48). The definition of outcomes based accountability juxtaposed to the description of a stress-inducing workplace make the two sound like one in the same. The limited autonomy in the standards based reform environment could very well lead to an increase in stress.

Cloudy Days: Psychological Impact of Educational Policy on Teachers

Teaching as a profession is wrought with emotions. While affectivity is often at the forefront of work in educational psychology, in educational policy it remains on the perimeter. Nias (1996) gives three primary reasons for teachers' work being highly charged in terms of emotions: teachers work with people, they invest their "selves" in their work, and they invest a great deal in teaching. As individuals like Spillane discuss the cognitive sense-making teachers utilize in policy implementation, they cannot neglect to deal with emotions because "emotions are rooted in cognition" (Nias, 1996, p. 293).

Emotions are the outcome of cognition, relational experiences, and motivational appraisals. According to Lazarus (1991), emotions rise out of three types of experiences, relational—dependent upon person-environment interaction, motivational—reaction to one's current status in relation to their goals, and cognitive—based on some knowledge one possesses. Emotions are defined as "complex social structures and meanings that define what is harmful or beneficial and, therefore, require judgment, the ability to learn from experience and the ability to distinguish subtle differences that signify different consequences for well-being" (Lazarus, 1991, p.821). In Lazarus's theory of emotions, emotions are not simply reactionary, but a vital aspect of human cognitive functioning. His emphasis on the relationship between person and environment is the reason the study of emotions is essential to understanding teachers and policy. Educational policy is a critical piece of the environment in which teachers must act.

The literature on teacher emotions in the context of educational change is largely qualitative, relying heavily on narrative inquiry (Hargreaves, 2005; Keltcherman, 1996; Keltcherman, 2005; Nias, 2005; VanVeen & Sleeger, 2006) with one utilizing mixed methods (Lasky, 2005). One of the assets of this research base is that clear examples of teacher emotions in various stages of policy implementation are illustrated in great detail. While each of the studies has a different context: Dutch (Van Veen & Sleeger, 2006), Canadian (Lasky, 2005; Haregraves, 2005), United States (Coburn, 2004; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005) and a different theoretical framework: cognitive social-psychological (Van Veen & Sleeger, 2006), socio-cultural (Lasky, 2005), sociological theory (Schmidt & Datnow, 2005), and institutional theory (Coburn, 2004) the findings amongst them are not very distinct. In terms of policy eliciting emotions, scholars agree when reforms are congruent with teachers beliefs they experience less anxiety and are more likely to be compliant whereas when new policies are incongruent with their beliefs negative emotions are more likely to arise (Coburn, 2004; Lasky, 2005; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005; van den Berg, 2002). For example, van den Berg (2002) discusses Martin and

Maurice in the context of an instructional reform where teachers are asked to give students more autonomy in the learning process. Martin, who was described as "seeing his primary task as providing each student the chance to develop his or her learning capacities to the maximum and instilling the independence necessary to succeed in society" had no qualms about the new policy encouraging student autonomy (p.578). However, Maurice, who was described as seeing, "his primary task as one of imparting subject knowledge" in the context of the policy change, "viewed himself as functioning less well, which leads to frustration and dissatisfaction" (p.578). Hargraves (2005) who looks at career stages in the context of educational change, points to a cohort effect, newer teachers are more likely to be accepting of reforms, whereas more seasoned teachers are less likely to be accepting of new changes. Hargraves also found teachers who insulated themselves from various reforms by closing the classroom door, tended to be happier and to stay in the profession longer.

Several scholars discuss vulnerability in the profession of teaching. When Nias speaks about "self" investment she discusses the merging of personal and professional identity that happens in teaching, so a threat to the professional is also a threat to the personal. The intertwining of personal and professional selves in teaching cause teaching to be an occupation that causes a certain amount of vulnerability. Keltchermans describes vulnerability in terms of teachers feeling "powerless, threatened, and questioned by others . . . not being in full control of processes and tasks they felt responsible for" (2005, p. 997). Lasky extends this definition of vulnerability saying it is also the condition in which teachers, "feel they are being 'forced' to act in ways that are inconsistent with their core beliefs and values" (2005, p.901). Lasky's participants illustrated this vulnerability in the midst of Canadian Secondary School Reform (SSR) by explicating feelings of guilt and frustration, "because they saw themselves as less effective teachers . . . [they] believed their classroom teaching was being compromised because they were learning the new curriculum" (2005, p.911). Keltcherman disagrees with Lasky's

interpretation of vulnerability as an emotion; he explains "vulnerability is not an emotion but a structural condition teachers (or educators in general) find themselves in" (2005, p.998). He goes on to explain vulnerability is not necessarily negative, but the persistence of a lack of control. He gives the example that teachers never have full control over the learning enterprise because students also play a role in their learning. This line of reasoning would make teachers highly vulnerable with regards to educational policy, as their control—even micropolitical control, is diminished in the current policy context.

Attacks on the profession can also lead to vulnerability. In Lasky's mixed-method study of secondary school reform in Canada, she found teachers were not in agreement with statements discussing their professionalism in the midst of reform. More specifically, they disagreed with the five items that composed the professionalism portion of her scale: that they understood the aims of the reform, their primary subject is valued, they experienced increased professionalism, they feel empowered, and the reform is consistent with their views. In the midst of reform, all of these works find emotions to be present as teachers make sense of what the reforms mean for their day-to-day work.

Certain types of emotions can be described as stress. Teacher stress is defined by Kyriacou as "the experience by a teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration, or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher. . . stress as a negative emotional experience [can be] triggered by the teacher's perception that their work situation constituted a threat to their self-esteem or well-being" (2001, p.28). The literature on teacher stress, while it is a specific subset of emotions, is largely quantitative, with researchers attempting to quantify the stress and determine what factors contribute to that stress (Boyle et al., 1995; Dworkin, 1997; Dworkin et al., 2003;Klassen, 2010; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Surprisingly, the literature on stress, a particular subset of emotions, and the literature on teacher emotions do not speak to each other. While each body will refer to the other in literature reviews,

rarely does one make reference to the other during discussion. The disjointed nature of the two bodies of work needs reconciliation. Blasé (1986) is the exception to this general quantitative trend in teacher stress literature; Blasé created a Teacher Stress Inventory that was qualitative in nature: asking teachers to list sources of stress, and write about their feelings when encountering the source, and their mechanisms for coping. Keltcherman also heavily refers to Blasé. While most quantitative indicators of teacher stress include a factor or multiple factors looking at student behavior, in the narrative accounts of teacher emotions, "negative feelings appear when they talk about their colleagues, the structures of schooling or the effect of changing educational policies upon them" (Nias, 1996, p. 297). Quantitative instruments, limited by nature in what they are allowed to capture, are missing a critical piece in understanding elements of the job that may lead to teacher stress. In a similar vein, the qualitative nature of teacher emotion studies have not been able to capture general trends of emotional reactions to different types of educational policies.

Dworkin's (1997 and 2003) work discusses multiple ways of interpreting teacher stress and its effects. In his work, the outcome of uncontrolled stress in burnout. He retorts the psychological view of burnout looks at the individuals inability to cope with stress and the sociological view of burnout examines the "organizational and bureaucratic settings that create burnout" (1997, p. 463). For an exhaustive review on the psychological view of burnout, see the work of Mei Lin Chang (2009, 2012). This work examines stress from a sociological perspective, seeking to uncover what is in the environment that may contribute to the stress. Dworkin and associates (2003) explored the relationship between a democratic school environment (where teachers are included in the decision making process), teacher burnout, and endorsement of student-centered instruction. They found more democratic environments did lower the incidence of teacher burnout, but a teacher's participation in a democratic school did not necessarily lead to a more democratic classroom as was hypothesized. Contrary to this finding, Van Veen and

Sleeger (2006) found teachers who had teacher-centered pedagogical orientations saw their work narrowly in terms of teaching the curriculum, whereas student-centered pedagogical orientations defined their work "in terms of not only teaching but also the broader organizational aspects of the school" (p. 107).

Policies that extend beyond what takes place in the school are known to have an effect on teaching practices and teacher stress levels. Grant and Hill (2006) created a framework for understanding the risks related student-centered teaching in a test-driven society. They explained quite frankly:

> Another reality often faced in student-centered learning relates to the assessment structure. The extra effort teachers put forth to employ student-centered pedagogy may not be rewarded. Standardized test scores may not change' or worse, they could go down. Standardized tests cover a broader scope of curricular content and may not be sensitive enough to reflect the more thorough in-depth study of specific subjects often associated with student centered strategies, such as project-based learning and problem-based learning (2006, p.31).

While teacher affectivity is important in and of itself, because stress can lead to burnout and turnover, even in work on teacher emotions we cannot lose sight of student outcomes. While it is beyond the scope of research in many of the studies reviewed here; it is critical for us to continue the narrative and discover what the teacher does in response to the stress. Simply understanding methods of coping for individual stress is inadequate; the research community and education community writ large needs to understand how policy affects stress and in turn how stress affects instruction.

Chapter 3 **Methodology**

Context

In 2012, Georgia, like many states in the United States, received a waiver allowing the state department of education to deviate from the mandates in No Child Left Behind. However, in their application for the waiver, they had to lay out a system of accountability that would be in place if their waiver was approved. The new system of accountability, which replaced AYP with the College and Career Readiness Index, and the promises made in the Race to the Top Grant application make up part of the policy context for this study.

The participants in this study come from two districts in Georgia. Both Artis County and Wooten County[4] were districts included in the original Race to the Top application to pilot new policies before statewide adoption. Artis County Public Schools has approximately 95,000 students enrolled in 136 schools. Of those 95,000 students, 89% are students of color, 70% are free or reduced lunch eligible and 11% are English Language Learners. As a system, Artis County Public Schools did not meet AYP 2010-2011 school year. Wooten County Public Schools has approximately 41,000 students enrolled in 50 schools. Of those students enrolled, 60% are students of color, 47% are eligible for free or reduced lunch and 3% of students are English Language Learners. Wooten County Public Schools did not make AYP in the 2010-2011 school year.

Sampling

To assess the myriad relationships between policy, stress, and behavior, research was conducted at several schools during the Spring of 2013 in two districts outside a large urban area. This setting was ripe for investigating relationship between policy and motivation because the state has just been awarded Race to the Top (RT3) funding and has recently adopted the national

[4] Artis County and Wooten County are pseudonyms for the actual school systems.

Common Core curriculum. Both districts were county wide districts. Being on the fringe of an urban center that has systematically done away with public housing, the suburban communities surrounding the center are shifting demographically.

In each district, principals were asked if their teachers could be surveyed. Every principal in both districts was sent an invitation. If a principal consented to having his or her teachers participate, an email was sent to the total teaching population of the school asking them to participate in the online survey (email addresses were obtained from the schools' websites). To aid in recruitment of teachers, participants were entered in to a drawing to win one of five gift cards to School Box (classroom supply store) in the following amounts: 1 for $100.00, 2 for 50.00, and 4 for $25.00. The researcher attended faculty meetings at several schools in both counties to encourage participation.

All in all, 30 principals from the two districts consented to having their teachers participate, 21 from Artis County and 9 from Wooten County. The 30 schools yielded a survey sample of 264 teachers. Artis County teachers accounted for 66% of all respondents and Wooten County teachers accounted for the remaining 34 percent. Of the teachers included, 86% were female, 14% were male, 57.6% were white, 34.5% were African American, 3% were Hispanic, and 2% were Asian. The majority of the respondents were elementary or high school teachers, with 41% teaching pre-kindergarten through fifth grade, 46% teaching high school, and 13 percent teaching middle-grades. Most of the participants completed traditional educator preparation programs, though 12 percent were alternatively certified through programs such as Teach for America. Most participants had advanced degrees, with 77% having a master's degree or higher. The response rate varied greatly by school, with a range of 1.3% to 50%. Response rates were higher for schools where the researcher was able to attend a faculty meeting to announce the upcoming survey (22% and above). The total response rate for all the schools in the

study was 15.91% (it should be noted, seven schools had a single respondent, if those schools were removed, overall response rate would be 19.05%).

The initial sampling procedure used for the focus group was stratified random sampling, consisting of teachers who were considered to have low policy knowledge, high policy knowledge, low educational policy influence efficacy, high educational policy influence efficacy, and differing levels of stress. Based on the surveys, eight groups were created. Of those eight groups, all survey participants who stated they would be interested in participating in a focus group had an equal chance of being sent an invitation. Due to scheduling hassles and low responses, an invitation to participate went to all survey respondents who said they would participate in a follow up group interview. While the initial research design wanted to utilize focus groups, on several focus group occasions only one participant who confirmed participation actually came. It was in the midst of the study the researcher decided to add interviews as a form of data collection. The same protocol, found in Appendix B, was utilized for interviews and focus groups.

Because of the nature of the topics that were discussed, focus groups and interviews were held outside of school hours. Most interviews were conducted at a coffee house near the participants' schools. Four coffee houses were used, 1 in Wooten County and 3 in Artis County. Each interviewee received a $15.00 gift card honorarium for participation (which they did not know about until after the interview was completed) in addition to the beverage and pastry of their choice. There were a total of five interviews and one focus group. The sole focus group consisted on two participants, and while two is considered an extremely small focus group, "small groups are more useful when the researcher desires a clear sense of each participant's reaction to a topic simple because they give each participant more time to talk" (Morgan, 1997, p.42). During the focus group and interviews, teachers were asked to select their own pseudonym which

they utilized throughout the discussion; the pseudonym was recorded in transcription and is what is used in this work. Their pseudonym was also tied to their survey responses.

Instrumentation

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, this study examined the environment, personal factors and behaviors of teachers. The survey instrument utilized in this study contains a number of established scales as well as two researcher constructed scales. The established scales look at instructional practices, teacher efficacy, and teacher stress. The rationale and reliability for each scale that was included is below. One of the researcher scales, Knowledge of Educational Policy (KEP) is a simple rating scale where teachers rate how much they know about different aspects of current educational policy. Because it depicts the current policies at play, it is context specific. Others wanting to use the scale may need to add or delete policies that are not relevant to their context. The other researcher constructed scale, Educational Policy Influence Efficacy, is an efficacy scale. The researcher constructed scales were validated as the first part of the data analysis.

Measuring Environmental Influences

Because this is a cross-sectional study and not a longitudinal analysis, I was not able to observe the changes in motivation over time and see how they differ before and after the implementation of various federal policies. To understand the extent to which policy permeates a teacher's conscience, I utilized their perception of their knowledge about educational policy and how often they think about policies as a proxy. The knowledge of educational policy (KEP) scale is an 18-item scale that asks teachers to rate on a scale from one to six how much they know about different aspects of federal policies. The policies assessed in the scale are the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (NLCB, Blueprint for Reform), IDEA, and RT3. While each of

these policies is spelled out by name, the scale also asks about key components of each policy; for example, while IDEA is an item stem, so is Individualized Education Program (IEP). Likewise, the Consciousness of Education Policy asked the frequency teachers think about different aspects of federal education policies during the course of a week. (See Appendix A).

Measuring Personal/Psychological Factors

Teachers' psychological beliefs have been measured extensively in educational psychology literature. There are many scales attempting to capture certain affective measures of teachers, particularly when it comes to teacher efficacy and teacher stress.

Teacher Sense of Efficacy. While none of the research questions in this study examine teacher efficacy as an outcome variable, this scale is included because research has documented its relationship to teacher stress. Failing to control for teacher efficacy (or lack thereof) may lead to inappropriate interpretations of the relationships of other variables to teacher stress. It is difficult to decide which teacher efficacy scale to utilize amongst the myriad versions. The Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale, by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy was found to have three dimensions: efficacy in engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, and efficacy in classroom management. This instrument uses one dimension of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, efficacy in classroom management, because it focuses more on beliefs about the ability to execute behaviors in the classroom (whereas Bandura's is much broader) and it only examines self-efficacy beliefs (whereas Gibson and Dembo also examine outcome expectancies). There are two forms of this scale, this instrument utilizes the short form (which contains 12 items instead of 24) which has an alpha of .90. This instrument uses four items measuring classroom management efficacy and excludes the other eight because another scale in the instrument captures those domains.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale. The literature explains that the intensification of teaching is more evident in schools with high needs populations and therefore the stress may be greater as well. Just as teaching efficacy is an important predictor of stress, efficacy in the ability to teach diverse populations is critical if working in a high-needs school. An abridged version of the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self Efficacy Scale (CRTSE) is also included on the instrument (Siwatu, 2007). The original 40 item scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .96. The one factor scale factor loadings from .39 to .79. To minimize the number of items, I am only including items with a factor loading of .70 or higher. This reduces the scale to 14 items. While the CRTSE scale is obviously appropriate in urban settings, it is a more robust scale, in that culturally responsive pedagogy is not practices that are exclusively beneficial to high-needs students, but to invoke the language of Ladson-Billings, culturally responsive pedagogy is "just good teaching" and beneficial to all students (1995).

Educational Policy Influence Efficacy scale . The final efficacy scale to be utilized in this study is the Educational Policy Influence Efficacy scale. Some of the items on this scale resemble the efficacy to influence decision making dimension of the Bandura teacher efficacy scale. This scale was designed to elicit responses teacher beliefs about their confidence in their ability to influence education policy. Items were designed to capture teacher beliefs about three types of behaviors: adoptive/adaptive behaviors, micropolitical behaviors, and overtly political behaviors. Adaptive behaviors do not challenge current policies, but illustrate compliance. While one may consider this entire factor as counter to educational policy influence, compliance when one supports a policy is a way of supporting that policy. Micropolitical behaviors undermine policy changes and try to uphold the status quo. Overtly political behaviors are actions directed at changing the policy. After validation, this scale was utilized as the outcome variable explored in research question four and a mediating/predictor variable in question three.

As there are many scales for teacher efficacy, there are also many scales for teacher stress. However, most scales try to determine the sources of teacher stress instead of the degree or magnitude of teacher stress. For instance, a great deal of research makes use of the five factor scale created and validated by Boyle and associates (1995). Boyle et al. created the 20 item scale from the 51 sources of teacher stress reported in the work of Kyriacou and Sutcliffe. The five factors that emerged from their EFA and were confirmed in their CFA are: workload, student misbehavior, professional recognition needs, time/resource difficulties, poor colleague relations. This scale is at the end of the instrument, in the optional section. The scale was modified to include potential stressors identified in the literature not originally included in the scale (ie: working with ELL students, performance pay, learning a new curriculum, following individualized education plans).

Perceived Stress Scale. To measure teacher stress, this study modified the Perceived Stress Scale created by psychologists Cohen, Kamarck, and Mermelstein (1983). The fourteen item scale was designed to fill the gap of a global measure of stress. The fourteen items ask individuals to answer questions with regards to how they have felt within the past month. Because scale asks about anxiety and feelings of no control in an individual's life. In three samples, the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) was between 0.83 and 0.85. To illustrate content validity, the creators examined its correlation with other measure, and found that the PSS measure was highly correlated with depressive symptomology. The creators also created an abridged four item scale which remained similar reliability. This study uses the abridged version of the scale, adding to the end of each item "at work" or "at school" to make the stress particular to the workplace. Furthermore, instead of looking at stress within the last month, the directors were changed to ask teachers, "in the past semester."

Measuring Teacher Behaviors

Most educational policies are designed with the intended goal of having an effect on instruction and student outcomes. Measuring teacher behavior and correlating it with knowledge of educational policy is one of the primary objectives in this study. Does knowledge of the policy change affect behavior? This research investigated teacher behavior in terms of their classroom goal structure.

Approaches to Instruction Scale Instead of examining incidence or frequency of concrete behaviors (which would be better examined the observation than self-report), this study utilized teachers goal orientations as a measure of teacher behavior. The scale utilized to assess teacher behavior was created by Midgley and associates to assess teachers' classroom goal structures. A great deal of literature has examined student goal orientations and their relationship to student achievement. Researchers typically acknowledge two primary goal orientations, mastery (or task) orientation and performance (or ability) orientation. Pintrich explains in detail that:

> mastery goals orient students to a focus on learning and mastery of the content or task and have been related to a number of adaptive outcomes, including higher levels of efficacy, task value, interest, positive affect, effort and persistence, the use of more cognitive and metacognitive strategies as well as better performance. In contrast, performance goals orient students to a concern for their ability and performance relative to others and seem to focus the students on goals of doing better than others or of avoiding looking incompetent or less able in comparison to others. (Pintrich, 2000, p.544)

Research has not only looked at the existence of goal orientations within students, but how various environments contribute to these orientations (Ames, 1992; Ames, 1988; Ames and Archer,1988; Maehr & Midgley, 1991). In fact, Wolton (2004) found that even when previous

achievement is controlled for, a mastery goal structure has a significant impact on achievement. Maehr and Midgley explicate a performance goal orientation: "is likely to develop when students are provided little choice concerning tasks, competition and social comparisons are emphasized, ability grouping and tracking are used, public evaluations of performance and conduct are common, grading is based on relative ability, and cooperation and interaction among students are discouraged" (1991, p. 404). The teacher's actions set the climate of the classroom and this is critical because "when students perceived their class as emphasizing a mastery goal, they were more likely to report using effective learning strategies, prefer tasks that offer challenge, like their class more, and believe that effort and success covary" (Ames and Archer, 1988, p. 264). The Approaches to Instruction scale is a scale included in the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Assessment. The scale is designed to capture teacher behaviors and determine whether or not teachers' behaviors encourage mastery or performance orientation in students. The Approaches to Instruction scale has two parts, a mastery orientation and a performance orientation section. Both sections have Cronbach's alphas of .69. In this study, the Approaches to Instruction items were combined with reworded Goal Structure for Students items. The Goal Structures for Students scales, also in the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Assessment, measure the teachers' perceived goal structure for the school. The items were reworded to have teachers answer the items with regards to their own classroom, extending our understanding of the environment teachers create. The Goal Structures for Students items contain alphas of .81 for mastery goal structure and .70 for performance goal structure. While student goal orientations are not being measured, this measure of classroom goal structure tells us the likelihood of the teachers' classroom to cultivate one orientation over the other.

Table 3-1: Survey Instrument Scales

Survey Instrument Scales			
Scale	**Items**	**What it Measures**	**Sample Item**
Knowledge of Education Policy*	15	Teachers' perception of their knowledge of education policy.	How much do you know about Common Core? Never Heard of It – I'm an Expert (6 choices)
Consciousness of Education Policy*	15	Teachers' frequency of thinking about a particular policy.	During the course of a school week, how often do you think about Common Core? Never- Constantly (6 choices)
Teacher Sense of Efficacy	4	Teachers' confidence in his/her ability to carry out tasks related to teaching.	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? Nothing – A Great Deal (9 choices)
Culturally Responsive Teaching Efficacy	14	Teachers' confidence in his/her ability to carry out tasks related to teaching diverse students.	How confident are you that you can use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds. No Confidence- Completely Confident (10 choices)
Education Policy Influence Efficacy	13	Teachers' confidence in his/her ability to influence education policy.	I can contribute ideas when discussing solutions to educational problems. Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree (6 choices)
Perceived Stress Scale	5	Global measure of teachers' work related stress.	In the last semester, how often have you felt that you were effectively coping with important changes that were occurring at work? Never- Very Often (5 choices)
Approaches to Instruction Scale	20	Measures teachers' goal orientation towards classroom instruction.	*Performance Oriented Item* In my classroom, students hear a lot about the importance of getting high test scores. *Mastery Oriented Item* In my classroom, students are told that making mistakes is OK as long as they are learning and improving. Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree (6 choices)

***Researcher Constructed Scale**

Demographic/School Information

Finally, the instrument also assessed demographic information on teachers and their schools. Teachers were asked to provide their age, gender, and ethnic information as well as information about how long they have been teaching and their teacher preparation.

Data Collection

To answer the questions presented above, this study utilized mixed methods with a primarily quantitative orientation. Mixed methods research is defined as: "the collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research" (Creswell, Clark, Gutmann & Hansome, 2003, p. 212). The study design conducted here is classified as a sequential explanatory design as such designs are "characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative data followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. [In this case] priority is typically given to the quantitative data and the two methods are integrated during the interpretation phase of the study" (Creswell et al. 2003, p.223). This study utilized two primary methods of data collection in two phases: surveys then focus groups and interviews. Prior to the survey, a pilot was conducted on a group of 100 teachers from other states, in order to get feedback on items included in the survey. An expert panel also reviewed items, especially those on the researcher constructed scales. These initial steps allowed feedback and the changing of wording if necessary and to ensure similar meanings for each item are elicited by different individuals.

Survey.

Invitations to participate in the survey were sent electronically to teachers in the identified schools. Principals were asked to alert their teachers of the coming survey to avoid confusion or the assumption that the survey maybe junk mail. The researcher also attended faculty meeting prior to the invitation to explain the nature of the project and to make teachers aware of the upcoming survey. Methodologists have listed several limitations to online data collection including difficulty calculating response rates and limited access to the online interface (Cobanaglu, Warde & Moreo, Evans & Mathur, 2005; Wright, 2006). In this study, the total

teaching population at each school was invited to participate, so response rates were calculated by dividing the total number of teachers employed by the number of responders. Also, in an effort to increase response rate, two weeks after the initial invitation is sent, a reminder was sent only to individuals who have not yet completed the survey. The survey remained live for four weeks. Issues of access did not arise in the current study because all teachers are provided email addresses by the school system and at least have access during the school day.

Interviews & Focus Group.

After the wide-scale dissemination of the surveys, interviews and focus groups were conducted. For the purpose of this study, focus groups are defined as "a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher" (Morgan, 1996, p.130). Madriz (2000) explains that focus groups are "a collectivist rather than an individualistic research method that focuses on the multivocality of participants' attitudes, experiences, and beliefs" (p.836). This method sought to capture a broad understanding of the relationship between policy and teaching while also illustrating particular experiences. Inviting all survey participants who indicated a willingness to participate in a follow-up interview I attempted to avoid what Hargreaves (1996) warns against, research that:

> . . .represents teachers' voices in a decontextualized way—in isolation from other (dissimilar) teachers, from the contexts of teaching (as limiting or liberating ones) that give rise to those particular voices. . .there are many teachers' voices, not just one.. . in the present context of reform and restructuring, perhaps the time has come to bring together the different voices surrounding schooling. (p.16)

Hargreaves goes on to discuss the need to include student and parental voices as well. While that is beyond the scope of this study, this design does attempt to show the diversity amongst teachers.

Furthermore, Rubin and Rubin (2005) explicate that "findings are enhanced if you make sure you have interviewed individuals who reflect a variety of perspectives" (p. 67).

The single focus group was conducted where teachers had the chance to discuss major policies affecting their daily school routine. One of the strengths of including focus groups is that:

> the discussion in focus groups more than the sum of separate individual interviews is the fact that the participants both query each other and explain themselves to each other . . . such interaction offers valuable data . . . a further strength comes from the researcher's ability to ask the participants themselves for comparisons among their experiences and views, rather than aggregating individual data in order to speculate about whether or why interviewees differ (Morgan, 1996, p. 139).

This was quite evident in the discussion that took place between Leslie and Alice.

The decision to include interviews as a data collection procedure came after three scheduled focus groups had only one participant attend.

The focus group and the interviews followed a thematic interview protocol with a semi-structured format. Each focus group participant or interviewee was given a sheet that had topics to be discussed, potential interview questions, and guidelines for the conversation (See Appendix B). To protect the identities of participants, the created name tags with pseudonyms, so other members of the focus group would refer to them by that pseudonym. The researcher's primary goal was to generate authentic discussions with teachers while directing participants to reflect on RT3, No Child Left Behind, IDEA, Common Core Standards. The interviews and focus group attempted to capture views from teachers from a variety of disciplines and years of experience. While teachers in the focus group were from the same district, they were not from the same schools, as it was found "this strategy generated a free-flowing exchange about teaching

experiences in different contexts" (Valli & Buse, 2007, p. 526). The data yielded from the surveys, interviews, and focus group sufficiently answer the questions posed above.

Data Analysis

Data analysis took place in four phases: instrument validation, quantitative data analysis, qualitative data analysis and data integration.

Instrument Validation

While this is not a "validation" or a psychometric study, not validating the instruments, particularly the researcher constructed ones, leaves questions about the conclusions that can be drawn from the study. For each scale utilized in the study, a Cronbach's alpha was calculated and reported. CFA for each established scale was utilized to confirm the internal structure holds to what literature has stated. Reliabilities were calculated for each researcher constructed scale as well. All scales on the instrument proved to be reliable with α levels above .70. Furthermore, CFAs on established scales illustrated their underlying structures held.

Table 3-2 Scale Validation

Instrument Validation Output				
		Confirmatory Factor Analysis Indicators		
Scale	**Cronbach's Alpha**	χ^2 (DF)	RMSEA	CFI
Knowledge of Education Policy*	.906	χ^2 (47)=122.22	.085	.942
Consciousness of Education Policy*	.863	χ^2 (31)=77.09	.081	.950
Teacher Sense of Efficacy	.919	χ^2 (2)=3.07	.049	.999
Culturally Responsive Teaching Efficacy	.940	χ^2 (70)=198.77	.095	.976
Education Policy Influence Efficacy	.779	χ^2 (60)=106.84	.060	.957
Perceived Stress Scale	.783	χ^2 (4)=6.36	.051	.991
Approaches to Instruction Scales				
• Mastery	.796	χ^2 (42)=95.28	.076	*.952*
• Performance	.843	χ^2 (24)=45.30	.064	*.980*
***Researcher Constructed Scale**				

All of the scales were found to be reliable with Cronbach Alphas above .70. Three scales had a RMSEA above .8; the highest was the Culturally Relevant Teaching Efficacy Scale, where items were selected based on their factor loadings. Both the policy knowledge and policy consciousness hovered near .08. RMSEA is known to be positively biased (large) with smaller sample sizes, and some argue one should look closely at the confidence interval, in each case, 90% CI captures what would be considered good or moderate fit: CRTE (0.08, 0.11), Knowledge of Education Policy (0.06, 0.10), and Consciousness of Education Policy(0.05, 0.104) (Kenny, 2014). Though the RMSEAs were high, the Chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio and the CFI were in the range that indicated good fit.

Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

RQ1: Teacher knowledge. The first research question asks about teachers perceptions of their knowledge of educational policy. The KEP scale was designed to uncover how much teachers believe they know about educational policy. Descriptive statistics are reported in chapter 4 based on teacher responses. The mean responses are disaggregated by type of policy as well. Correlations are drawn between policy knowledge and teacher demographic variables. In addition to the data yielded from the KEP scale, qualitative data from the focus groups are aligned to illustrate teacher knowledge and where that knowledge is derived.

RQ2 and RQ3: Policy knowledge, stress, and behavior. Because this study sought to examine a number of variables utilizing a theory that allows for bidirectional influences, I employed structural equation modeling techniques to answer research questions two and three. Keith argues, SEM is "often a better choice for explanatory analysis of nonexperiemental data" than multivariate regression (2006, p.213). One of the assets of SEM is the ability to focus "not only on direct effects, but also on indirect and total effects" (Keith, 2006, p.213). After utilizing CFA in the instrument validation stage, illustrating the measurement model for each scale, I created composites for each of the scales based on the factor loadings. The composites where

utilized in the path analysis to represent scales. In structural equation modeling, observed variables (items on scales, composites) are depicted with rectangular figures and latent variables (constructs attempted to be measured by the scales) are depicted by circular figures. Unlike multivariate regression, SEM allows the measurement of direct and indirect effects simultaneously and is a great tool to understand the effect of intervening or mediating variables.

The study sought to understand the relationship between policy knowledge, policy consciousness and stress:

Policy Knowledge/Policy Consciousness → Stress

as well as the relationship of policy knowledge and consciousness to instructional practices:

Policy Knowledge/Policy Consciousness → Instructional Practice

However, it also asks if stress mediates the effects of policy knowledge on instructional practice. In its most simplistic form, the hypothesized path analysis for is:

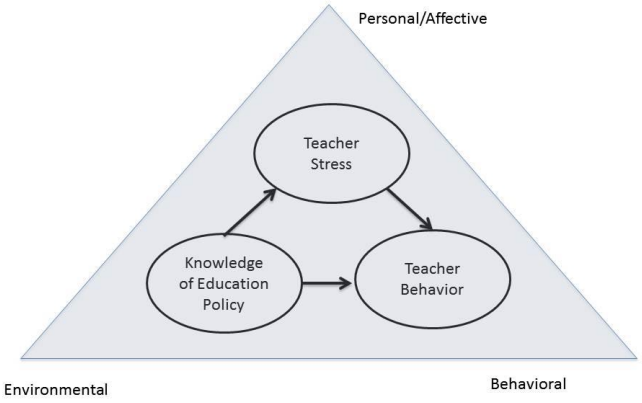


Figure 3-1: Social Cognitive Theory and SEM Model

The *a priori* hypothesized relationships are tested in SEM to see if the hypothesized relationship is supported by the data. However, we know that teacher efficacy has a significant effect on teacher stress and presumably teacher behaviors as well (Lassen, 2010). According to Keith, "for estimates to be accurate, we must control for important common causes for our presumed cause

and presumed effect" (2006, p.241). The researcher hypothesized the greater a teacher's stress, resulting from knowledge of education policy, the more likely the teacher would endorse a performance oriented (opposite of mastery oriented) classroom. Therefore, the latent variable SEM to be tested initially is below:

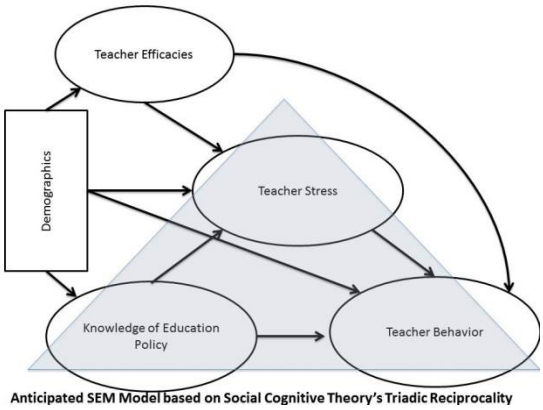


Figure 3-2 Social Cognitive Theory and SEM Model with Control Variables

While the specified model appears above, the researcher considered suggested modifications to the model given in LISREL if they do not contradict the theory and the literature.

RQ4: Teachers' ability to affect educational policy. The fourth research question asks what teachers believe they can do to affect educational policy. The scale EPIE was created particularly to answer this question. To establish the validity of the internal structure of this scale, I utilized CFA. The CFA confirmed three factors in the scale: adaptability, micropolitical efficacy, and overtly political efficacy. From the factor loadings, a composite was created for the subsacles Micropolitical Efficacy and Overtly Political Efficacy.

After testing the measurement model of the latent variable, Educational Policy Influence Efficacy, it was added to the SEM to examine its mediating effects between educational policy and teacher stress:

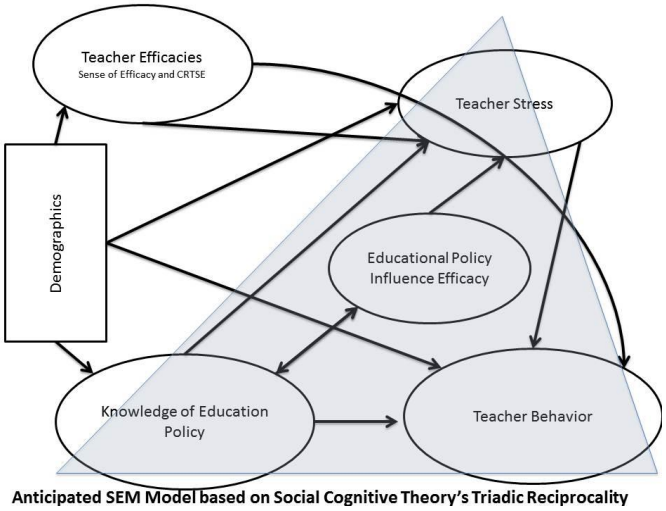


Figure 3-3 Social Cognitive Theory and SEM Model with Educational Policy Influence Efficacy

I anticipated the effect of educational policy knowledge and consciousness on teacher stress would be diminished in the face of efficacy to influence such policies. While the direct relationship between policies and stress and not evident in the previous model, one's efficacy in dealing with policy is significantly related to stress. The effect of policy on stress is mediated by one's efficacy to influence policy. Both subscales derived from the Education Policy Influence Efficacy were found to have a significant impact on stress but in different ways. Micropolitical efficacy, or one's attempt to undermine policies beneath the radar, is related to an increase in teacher stress. However, efficacy in overtly influencing policy was related to a decrease in stress.

Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures

Focus groups and interviews had audio recorded at the consent of participants. Audio recordings were transcribed and coded for themes. The coding process was an ad hoc process, compiling a number of coding methods (Kvale, 1996). In particular, the researcher utilized clustering methods as well as comparisons and contrasts .The researcher let codes arise organically from the data rather than creating and defining preliminary codes (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

After inviting all participants who indicated a willingness to participate in a follow up interview, one focus group and five one-on-one interviews were conducted, yielding qualitative data from seven teachers. In the table below, their demographic information and scores relative to their peers on the scales are displayed. Survey data was divided utilizing visual binning into thirds, where respondents were identified as scoring in the top, middle, or lowest third of the sample. If they were in the top, they are listed below as high, in the middle as moderate, and in the lowest third as low.

Table 3-3: Interviewees at a Glance

Interviewee	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Years of Experience	Grade Level	Stress Level	OVERTLY Political	Micro Political	Mastery	Performance	Policy Consciousness	Policy Knowledge
Julee	F	44	White	13	HS	high	moderate	moderate	high	moderate	moderate	Low
Bella	F	49	Latina	23	EL	low	moderate	Low	high	Low	moderate	High
Alice	F	59	White	33	HS	high	low	Low	low	Low	moderate	Moderate
Leslie	F	33	White	9	EL	high	high	high	high	Low	moderate	Moderate
Bob	M	31	White	3	HS	high	Low	moderate	low	High	moderate	Low
Jasmine	F	32	African American	8	HS	low	moderate	high	high	moderate	low	Moderate
Sabrina	F	29	White	6	MS	high	moderate	low	low	moderate	high	Low

Data Integration

One of the key challenges in mixed methods research is accurately combining the data from different collection processes while maintaining methodological integrity to each method. Though there was some discussion about how each phase facilitates the next, the primary point of data integration in this study is the phase of interpretation. The initial quantitative analysis was utilized to determine the validity of the instruments.

The SEM analysis was used to describe the relationships amongst the policy environment, stress, and classroom behavior. While the quantitative data illustrated trends, the qualitative data was used to describe those trends in more concrete ways. For instance, to say someone has high educational policy influence efficacy may mean something to readers conceptually; but to pair the statements of individuals with high educational policy efficacy to their scores of educational policy efficacy may make a more accurate representation of what the scores actually mean. This technique was utilized in the integration stage. The focus group data also served as a point of triangulation for the survey data.

Limitations/ Delimitations

As with all research, this study has its limitations. The first limitation in this study is its small scale. While it examines teacher responses to and knowledge of federal educational policy, it focuses on responses of teachers from one state. It would be ideal to see how teachers respond from a number of states and in different types of settings (ie: urban, suburban, rural or unionized, right to work, etc.). However, this study provides a framework for how such work can be undertaken in the future. Furthermore, it describes in detail the local policy context as well, so readers can compare their own local context to the ones here and see if the findings are generalizable to their locality.

This study is also set in a specific moment in time. Policies are temporal; however, much is to be learned from policy studies in the past, as this will add to our understanding of policy effects in the future. The KEP scale is a scale for this moment. In five or ten years, the policies teachers are asked to rate their knowledge on would change. However, the EPIE scale may have longevity in describing how teachers perceive their ability to interact with the policy environment.

Lastly, while this study examines stress, it was voluntary. It is only wise to assume that the teachers with the most extreme cases of stress would opt out because it is not something they are required to do. While the teacher below was included in the survey, her email illustrates her need to opt-out of the focus group.

to me

I am so sorry that I did not make it to this focus group. A thousand apologies....to add to my stress I had to take my mother to the doctor and Friday was the only day I could get in. It took two hours with the wait time and then we had to drive home.

My stress level is high all the time. I teach 5 different math subjects all day. I am in a new school this year, but it's my 29th year. (no, I'm not retiring) I am working on a specialist degree with the doctorate in mind. I'm making a presentation this summer (I was invited to participate) at the Southern Regional Education Board in Charlotte, NC, ANNNNNNNNND....my mother lives with me. She is 93 and has dementia. She was just recently in the hospital during my spring break. My husband has lots of stress. He's with her 24/7.
I'm an AP reader for the college board, but this summer I'm taking graduate classes. I am exhausted a lot and I'm on Weight Watchers (or trying to be). I feel like I have time to myself, but I don't use it to the maximum most days. I have no time to exercise although I know I need to do so.
I have a paper due Thursday and a presentation due. I'm ready for the presentation, but I haven't written my paper.
Faculty meeting this afternoon, meeting with my project members today (for NEXT Thursday), and I have "exceeds" tutoring tomorrow so I need to get snacks, get contact lens solution, and come home and write a paper.
When will I enter grades? .... sometime on Wednesday, hopefully. Oh wait. I'm going to the math consortium on Thursday during the day so I need substitute notes and papers done.
My life is full like this ALL THE TIME. I feel like it never lets up.
However, my observations have been exemplary (no fooling) and I have few failures even though I grade like crazy!

Subject: Evite Invitation: Teacher Stress and Education Policy Focus Group .

Brandi Hinnant-Crawford invited you to

Teacher Stress and Education Policy Focus Group .

Friday, April 12, 2013
4:00 PM - 5:00 PM

WHERE:
Starbucks

In a similar fashion this study also relies heavily on self-report instruments. However, in an effort to diminish bias, multiple methods are used and the data is triangulated.

Chapter 4 What Teachers Know and Think About Education Policy

This chapter explores the findings on teacher knowledge and consciousness of education policy posited in RQ1. It begins by utilizing descriptive and inferential statistics to describe overall trends in the survey data about teacher knowledge and consciousness and how teacher demographics are correlated with policy knowledge. The chapter then looks at differences in

policy knowledge by federal policy. Finally, this chapter explores the sources of policy knowledge and hindrances to the acquisition of policy knowledge.

What Teachers Know

Teacher knowledge of education policy varied greatly amongst the sample. The survey data made it evident that teachers know more about some policies than others and that certain demographic factors are correlated with higher knowledge. The average policy knowledge possessed by teachers in the sample was 4.27 on a scale of 1 to 6, where one meant they had never heard of the policy and six meant they were experts. The average policy knowledge varied for different groups. One-way ANOVAs were conducted to compare the effects of grade level, career pathway, and degree level on policy knowledge. The data showed there were no differences amongst teachers from different grade levels (elementary, middle, high) on knowledge of Common Core [F(2, 230)=1.84 p=.161)], Race to the Top [F(2, 221)=1.21 p=.299)], No Child Left Behind [F(2, 231)=0.69 p=.501)], or IDEA [F(2, 228)=1 p=.368)]. Likewise, certification pathway (traditional or alternative) did not show differences amongst policy knowledge as well in terms of Common Core [F (1, 233)=0 p=.972)], Race to the Top [F(1, 224)=.61 p=.437)], No Child Left Behind [F(1, 234)=0.16 p=.691)], or IDEA [F(1, 231)=.25 p=.621)]. However, teachers with advanced degrees (a masters or above) had a significantly higher knowledge of NCLB than those without advanced degrees [F(1, 234)=7.15 p=.008)]. Advanced degrees had no effect on knowledge of Common Core [F(1, 233)=.26 p=.611)], Race to the Top [F(1, 225)=2.18 p=.142)], or IDEA [F(1, 233)=1.92 p=.167)].

Knowledge and Consciousness by Policy Type

Descriptive statistics illustrate teachers were most confident in their knowledge about Common Core and IDEA. One the other hand, teachers think a great deal more about Common Core than any of the other policies. Since Common Core is the curriculum currently employed, it makes sense for it to enter their consciousness more than the other policies on a daily basis.

Teachers think the least about No Child Left Behind, this finding is not surprising since the state has applied for and received a waiver from NCLB.

Chart 4-1 Policy Knowledge and Consciousness Averages

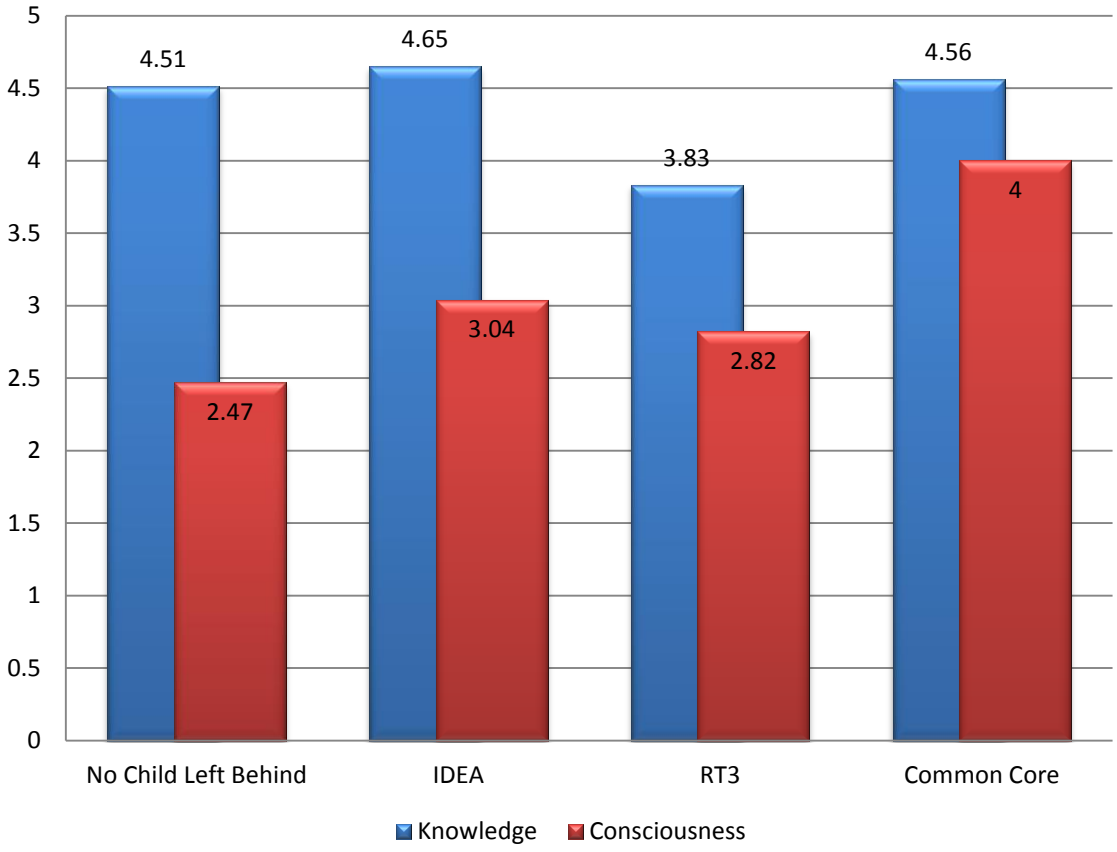


Table 4-1: Policy Knowledge Descriptive Statistics

Policy Knowledge	Mean	SD
Common Core	4.56	1.13
IDEA	4.65	0.85
NCLB	4.50	0.89
RT3	3.85	1.02

In general, there are not great distinctions amongst the knowledge teachers have about NCLB, IDEA, and Common Core. One caveat to that would be that teachers seem to know more about IDEA than No Child Left Behind ($t(233)=2.74$ $p=.006$). However, as depicted below, data indicate there is a significant difference amongst teachers' understandings of NCLB, IDEA, Common Core, and RT3.

Table 4-2 Paired Sample T-Test on Policy Knowledge

	Mean Difference	T	DF	P-value
NCLB-RT3	.643	11.45	226	.00
IDEA-RT3	.789	11.22	223	.00
CC-RT3	.696	10.42	228	.00

In addition to conducting paired-samples t-test, the effect sizes for the differences were examined.

Table 4-3: Cohen's D Effect Sizes

Relationship	*d*	Interpretation
IDEA > RT3	.85	Large
NCLB > RT3	.68	Medium
Common Core > RT3	.65	Medium
IDEA > NCLB	.17	Small

In this case, the effect size in not examined to determine a treatment effect, but rather to see the difference of the means in terms of standardized units. Unlike significance tests, effect size indicators are not biased by sample size. It is evident all that teacher perceive themselves to know more about IDEA, Common Core, and NCLB than RT3, and the size of the difference is considered medium to large. However, the difference between IDEA and NCLB is considered

small in terms of standardized units. The ambiguity around Race to the Top is also articulated in the interview responses.

Knowledge and Consciousness of Race to the Top

The teachers interviewed had a variety of opinions about Race to the Top, but when it came to what they actually knew about it, their knowledge varied greatly. Most were aware of some of the ways the policy affected them, but few had a good understanding of it in the way they understood NCLB or IDEA.

Sabrina, for instance, knew it was a competitive grant and that her school was a recipient for funding from the grant. But in describing the policy she said:

> Race to the Top, it's a mixed bag. It's provided money for us so we've gotten Race to the Top money, it's a mixed bag. I don't think it's particularly fair. We've benefited from it though so I don't know that much about it. We applied for a grant and got it. I don't know, I like … the competitive grant has worked well for my school but I don't really know that much about it. I couldn't give you why we got it over another state or I couldn't even give you the states that got it. I think most states did get money but I don't even know so I'm very least informed about that.

Julee also described an elusive understanding of what the policy was and how it affects her, "We've only recently learned about Race to the top, I'm still not exactly sure what that is. I know that because of that we have the teacher leader keys." The Teacher/Leader Keys she is referring to is the observation instrument that will be used as a part of the Teacher Effectiveness Measure and Leader Effectiveness Measure in Race to Top. These measure also include growth models of student achievement and will be tied to performance pay several years out. Jasmine's take on the policy went directly to the idea of performance pay, "I think Race to the Top is stupid. I think it

is going to promote more cheating, and I think it puts more teachers at professional risk because it makes you panic because you're saying my money depends on the success on these students. . . and it just, once again, puts money in the wrong place, and it puts emphasis on the wrong thing."

Most of the teachers interviewed or that participated in focus groups only seem to have an understanding of parts of Race to the Top and not a grasp of the policy as a whole. The one exception to that is Leslie, who was the Race to the Top facilitator at her school. Leslie explained that:

> So my perception is that, and I'm the Race to the Top facilitator at my campus—so I go to some Artis wide Race to the Top county meetings and I've heard the state department speak about it a little so I know a little bit about the details of it, and my perception of that and Common Core is that the way it was implemented—its actually pretty good policy. . . .States could write their own proposals to better education. And I thought that was a cool idea but the way it actually ends up happening is all money based.

Leslie stated clearly that she realized she knew a great deal more about the policy than other teachers in her building. It appears her understanding of the overall goals of the policy is an anomaly amongst teachers interviewed.

Knowledge and Consciousness of No Child Left Behind

Unlike Race to the Top, teachers knew a great deal about No Child Left Behind. The goal of universal proficiency was something the teachers understood and discussed. While teachers acknowledged and applauded the goal of the policy, most agreed policy and implementation of the policy was flawed. Interestingly, three respondents commented specifically on the policy's name:

Sabrina: I think the title is a lot better then what's happened. The title, nice idea and you can tell … but they're obviously not going to happen and I think it's caused more harm then good.

Jasmine: No Child Left Behind. Great Concept. Great title. Great Marketing. Stupid program because life will leave you behind. . .

Bella: I think it's a great though. I think no child should be left behind, but I thin they haven't taken into account those children that are challenged, those that have learning difficulties . . .the policy makers really fallen short, because they don't allow for exceptions.

Bob and Leslie also agreed it was a good and probably well-intentioned idea that failed during implementation. Bob said they he believes the NCLB was enacted hastily, before research could actually be completed to see what works. Alice, discussing the disaggregation of data by subgroups because of mandates in NCLB, said, "The good news is we are identifying kids that weren't identified before. The bad news is we're going to kill them with testing." During the focus group, Alice and Leslie discussed what some may call conspiracy theories about the relationships that exist among the Bush family and Pearson and McGraw Hill, Alice said to Leslie, "Its insidious. I kind of disagree with you Leslie, when you say, I don't know, you're probably a but more kind, I don't know, maybe it was well intentioned." In an attempt not to outright say that she thought Leslie was wrong, Alice appeared to believe NCLB did not have the intentions its title suggests.

Even though Georgia has received the waiver from No Child Left Behind, the policy and its goals were still fresh on the teachers' minds. It was evident they understood the policy and its components from AYP to data disaggregation. The teachers had a great deal more to say about the effects of the policy that will be covered in detail in the following chapter.

Knowledge and Consciousness of IDEA

Of the teachers interviewed, three taught special needs populations: Bella, Sabrina, and Alice. Bella currently taught elementary special needs students, Sabrina taught middle school special needs students as her TFA assignment immediately after graduation, and Alice taught high school English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL/ELL) students. While these are teachers one would expect to know a great deal about IDEA, surprisingly, Julee, Bob, Leslie, and Jasmine were well versed in the policy as well.

Most of the participants had severed on IEP teams or had worked with special education support teachers who had shown them the intricacies involved with adhering to IDEA. Sabrina explained quite succinctly, " I wrote IEPs and sat in on all the IEP meetings at my school so I've got primary knowledge." Bella explained a source of frustration with her colleagues because they did not understand why she would have to be in such long meetings. When asked whether or not polices affect what happening in their classroom, Sabrina answered, " Well, IDEA does, I'll tell you IDEA does. . . The idea of having IEPs and holding kids accountable to those IEPs I think it affects a huge amount because it's so legally bounded."

It appeared that teachers were more concerned about the legality in IDEA than any other policy. Bob said his high school had more students with IEPs than any other school in Artis County. He believed that some were abusing the statute and they did not need an IEP just extra help. He goes on to say that he believes the mandates in IDEA may deter some people from working with special needs students:

> I think that is what pushes people away from wanting to help, the bureaucracy behind it, makes it so overwhelming they want to give up. . . some of my support teachers, they are overwhelmed, they barely have any time to devote to the classroom because they're so

> focused on trying to adhere to things that IDEA is asking for, it is almost like you're a part-time teacher, full-time lawyer.

Unlike NCLB, there was not an overwhelming negative response to IDEA, but individuals had a significant understanding of the policy and its complex requirements. They also believed that IDEA, mainly due to the IEP document, had more significant consequences for not adhering to the policy.

Knowledge and Consciousness of Common Core

The Common Core standards had the highest scores in both knowledge and consciousness compared to the other policies examined. Most teachers had recently undergone some type of professional development around the standards and all understood the goals around having a set of national standards. Some questioned the feasibility, such as Alice, who liked the idea of a child being able to leave Artis County and go to Lansing, MI and be able to pickup right where he left off, but there were quite a few concerns about how to make such a scenario possible.

Leslie and Sabrina both liked the Common Core standards. Sabrina explained, with much excitement, "I'm a big fan of Common Core- though I'm getting rather depressed because a lot of people say its just going to make new test companies rich. " While it is impossible to know if Leslie is one of the "lot of people" she spoke to, Leslie could fall into that category. Leslie and Sabrina both applaud the rigor of the new standards, but Leslie expressed her concern over implementation:

> Like Common Core, wanting kids to go deeper and not broader, the actual standards themselves, are actually pretty good standards. . . .So like Common Core immediately got jumped on by publishers. Pearson didn't write Common Core but they wrote a

> publisher's guide to Common Core which is different than the actual Common Core but everyone preaches it and that not even what we adopted.

Bob had another take on the impetus for the Common Core, suggesting the movement was a reaction to the failure of NCLB. Bob said, "I think all the states have been moving towards Common Core, in my opinion I think it's a good idea, but I think that it is sort of a retaliation that our scores are not good enough to pass so instead of looking shameful in front of the county, we'll just come up with a new plan."

While currently Georgia has only rolled out Common Core standards in English/Language Arts and Mathematics, all of the teachers were familiar with Common Core and its goals. Since the interviews were conducted Georgia has pulled out of deal with one of the major Common Core assessment groups leading people to speculate whether or not Georgia will continue to employ Common Core standards in their schools.

Where the Knowledge Comes From

The ways in which policy knowledge is derived varied greatly amongst survey participants. Survey respondents were asked to rank 7 sources of policy knowledge, with 1 being the source where they received the most information and 7 being the source where they received the least. The average of those results are below in order from where the learned the most to where they learned the least.

Table 4-4 Ranked Sources of Policy Knowledge

Sources of Policy Knowledge in Ranked Order	
1. School	2.75
2. Collegiate Education Program	3.56
3. Professional Development	3.67
4. Colleagues	3.69
5. Media	3.93
6. Personal Research	4.18
7. Other	6.19

The sources of knowledge about education policy did not differ greatly from the qualitative data. Most learned about policies from school, professional development, colleagues, and teacher preparation programs. For example, Bella, explained her primary source of policy knowledge came from her school building, "I learned about these [policies] mostly from peers and from whatever our administration made comments on." Respondents had an "other" category in which they could write in responses, and the most common written in response was PAGE- the Georgia professional organization for teachers, which had 11 teachers write it in. Other responses included other professional teacher organization, professional conferences, social media, family members, and teachers in other districts, and their children.

Professional Development and Teacher Preparation

While the survey results indicate teachers learned the most information about education from their school (staff meetings, memos from administration) interviewees and focus group participants talked more about the knowledge they received from professional development and teacher preparation programs as primary sources, the second and third source from the survey data.

Leslie was a big advocate for professional development, saying it was a necessity for all teachers to hone their craft. Yet, she complicated the idea that all professional development was a good thing or beneficial to the development of policy knowledge. She stated quite frankly, "the difference between empowering teachers and boring them to death is not that much." This was an idea echoed by Jasmine. She too talked about the role of professional development in building her policy knowledge. She spoke specifically to training on Common Core and how the presenters take on the policy is was is passed to the audience,

> the way these policies are presented to us they come to us and we learn professional development workshops that are, you know, 3, 4, 5 hours long, and the information was given to a teacher or an administrator, and they were told to come back and re-teach this information to the faculty, and depending on the attitude of the person who was redelivering the information, that determined the attitude in which you received the information . . . I went to training for Common Core and I remember sitting there, and I remember being overwhelmed because the person who was redelivering the information to me was overwhelmed, and she was saying how much different ... Different the professional standards, like the GPS standards.

Bob also discusses the quality of professional development. Tying it back to funding, he talks feeling like he's being rushing through the training necessary to implement policies, in this case Common Core, successfully.

In addition to high quality professional development, several participants discussed learning about policy from the educator preparation programs. Sabrina, who entered teaching through Teach For America, because she had negative views about majoring in education, said she learned a great deal about IDEA from a masters program and special education that she did not complete. Alice, said a great deal of her policy knowledge was obtained through her leadership add-on to her current certificate. Bob, who completed an MAT program, explained he took a whole class on IDEA and, "What I know about NCLB was straight from grad school. They talked about that a lot."

A great deal of participants discussed the role that educator preparation played in their understanding of education policy. Leslie explained her educator preparation programs impact to a different degree, she explained "I think my preparation program helped build my confidence as a leader, helped me want to know about policy and believe I could make a difference."

Hindrances to Policy Knowledge

In addition to describing how they know what they know about education policies, many participants voluntarily gave information about why they did not know more about education policy. They described several hindrances to the acquisition of knowledge about the policies affecting them. Beyond lackluster professional development, teachers said time and good information are difficult to come across.

Sabrina, apologetic for her lack of extensive knowledge about current policies, explained she did not have time to do the research to learn about all the changing polices. Julee, corroborated this reality saying she told a visitor who was at her school discussing Race to the Top: "My thing, what I told the lady at Race to the Top is, just tell me do I need to call in sick just to be able to research this stuff. I don't have time read all the emails that come across from page. I don't have time. That's stressful because I feel like I should know. I don't have time to do it."

In addition to time being a hindrance to teachers obtaining knowledge about education policy, several teachers expressed questions about where to locate trustworthy information about policy. Jasmine explained in one situation:

> I work for Artis County, and it was presented to me that this [a particular testing procedure] is a county rule, but I came to find out later that it might have been a school rule, and that's how a lot of things are done. Principals are making policies, and they are told that it is a county rule, and because there is no one place to go to get official information, you are just force-fed the information, and you are told to believe it, and it may or may not be accurate.

Jasmine continues by explaining, "You don't know what is county policy or not because you're not always shown things in writing and you are not taught how to go find out if something is true or not." Bob, in a similar fashion, said he is hindered by both time and confusion about where to

locate information. Bob explains, "It's hard to know where to look to find out about information because there's such sort of information overload with what we're expected to know and do, it's difficult to know where to look and when to have time to look and know about the policies that affect us." While other things may affect teachers' knowledge level of education policy, the most notable hindrances explained in this sample of teachers was time and finding accurate and trustworthy information.

Several participants emphasized the role their formal education played in their policy knowledge. These participants were also the ones who had higher scores in the area of policy knowledge. Alice explained most of what she knew about education policy came from her "leadership" add on. And Leslie praised her educator preparation program extensively for not only preparing her to digest policy, but motivated her to be an advocate in the current policy context.

Policy knowledge varied amongst survey respondents and interviewees. It is clear that study participants writ large know more about NCLB, Common Core, and IDEA than RT3. They think about the policies with relevantly similar frequency, with the exception of Common Core that weighs more heavily in their thoughts throughout the course of the week. The knowledge they possess about education policy comes from many sources, but primarily school, professional development, and teacher preparation programs. Two of the primary hindrances to the development of policy knowledge are time and location of trustworthy information.

Chapter 5 Policy, Stress, and Instruction

In this chapter, quantitative and qualitative data are presented that begin to answer research questions 2 and 3, about the relationships that exist amongst policy, stress, and instruction. The quantitative data illustrates clear relationships amongst certain policies and instructional goal orientations, but neglects to find any systematic patterns amongst responses

with regards to policy and stress. The qualitative data suggest that there may be relationships amongst policy and stress that are missed by the model. The chapter begins by discussing the incidence of stress amongst all participants and what their primary sources are. It then looks specifically at interviewee data that suggest a relationship between policy and stress particularly at the two most recurrent themes: assessment and policy inconsistency. After exploring the relationship between policy and stress, it examines the findings around the relationship between policies and instructional behavior. The interviewees fell into two broad categories, those who believed policy affects their teaching and those that do not. From their accounts of experiences in this policy context, the qualitative evidence supports the finding that accountability policies such as No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top lead to performance orientations, but less evidence to support the finding that Common Core and Individuals with Disabilities Education Act actually instigate mastery oriented teaching as the quantitative model suggests. The chapter concludes by acknowledging a persistent interview theme around teacher evaluation and its effects on instruction and stress.

Teacher Stress

The survey data indicate that all teachers in the sample are not "stressed out." The distribution of stress amongst the survey participants was almost normal, with the majority feeling they were moderately stressed, a few extremely stressed, and none saying they had no stress at all. As evident below, most are clustered around the mean:

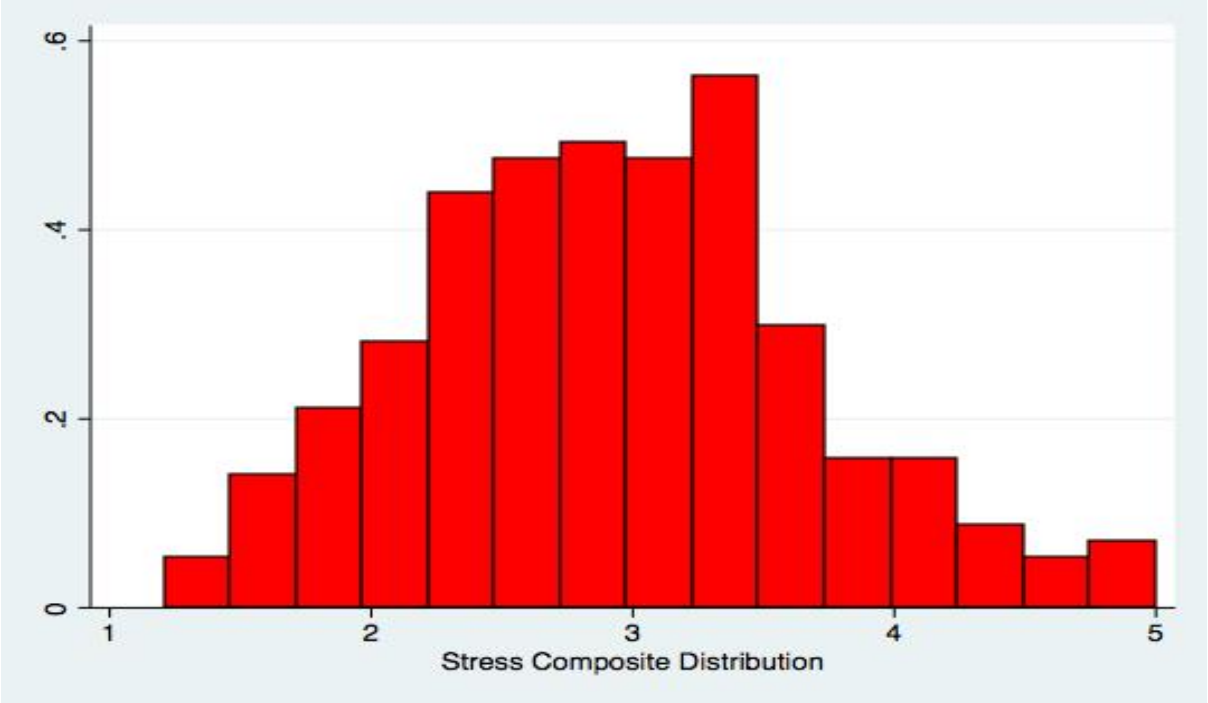


Figure 5-1 Distribution of Stress

The interviewees also were varied in their stress levels with some quite high like Bob, the novice teacher, and others very low like Jasmine, a veteran of eight years.

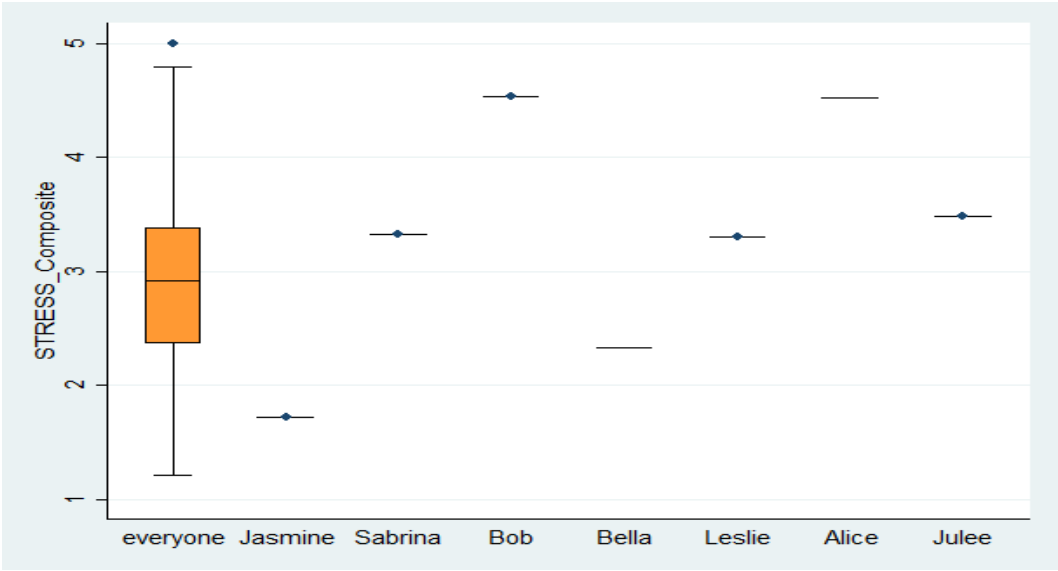


Figure 5-2 Stress Distribution of Interviewees

The reasons for the stress amongst teachers varied as much as their levels of stress. One scale asked teachers to rate their sources of stress; the top 10 stressful items are below:

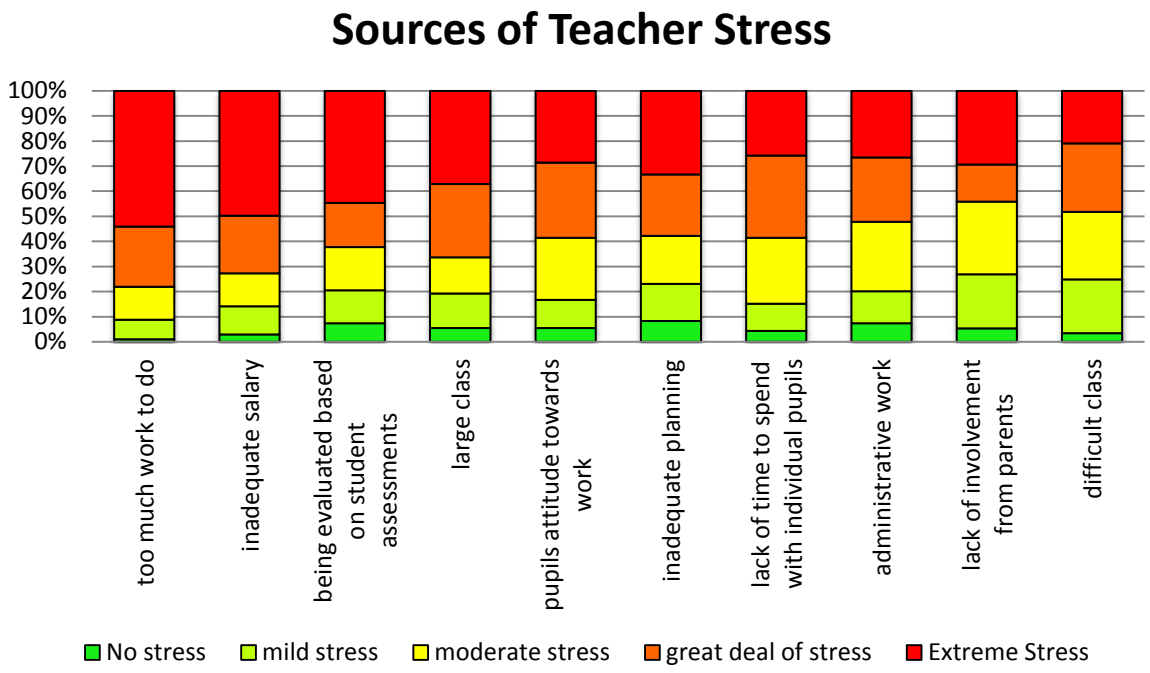


Figure 5-3: Sources of Teacher Stress

The next three sources of stress, not included in this list were poor equipment, student impolite behavior, and pressure from administrators. Interview data corroborated the findings, that the sources of teacher stress are numerous and not simple to pinpoint. Of the teachers interviewed, the primary sources of stress dealt with value of teachers, workload, resources available, administrators, and time.

Undervalued as a Profession as a Source of Stress

Throughout the interviews teachers wove in their beliefs about how our society views education and how our society views teachers. While Jasmine had a long list of stressors from teaching, she kept coming back to the perception and value that society places on teachers. She discussed media frenzies whenever a teacher is caught in the wrong and how people have often

told her she is too smart to be a teacher or the idea that anyone can do it. She explains, "Our society makes it seem we got these cushy jobs that pay us every month, it's hard to get fired from and you're just in it for the free summers, and I just don't like the way that we are portrayed as a nation and viewed. . . it seems that anybody can do what we can do and that frustrates me." Jasmine was not alone in those sentiments. Leslie explicitly pointed out alternative certification programs stating, "TFA sends the dangerous message that anyone can teach." However, the TFA teacher, Sabrina, also talked about the value of teachers as a source of stress. Along side the idea of value, the interviewees discussed compensation, as Jasmine explained:

> The reason why I say we don't value education is we value where we put our money, and as the United States of America we put our money in entertainment, and you can see that happening just by how much people are paying. That's how we show what we value. We are as society that's very materialistic, very capitalistic. Wherever the money is, that's where our heart is. We have athletes and entertainers that are bringing in millions and millions of dollars. We have the penal system that brings in millions and millions of dollars, but we pay our teachers as if whatever they do, anybody can do that job. We don't pay them like they are anomalies like they are something that we just have to have, and everyone can't be a teacher. So we pay teachers as if anyone can do that job.

Compensation as a Source of Stress

While it was not the primary source of stressed, a great deal of the teachers referenced compensation as a source of stress. Though they had varying degrees of stress related to salary, they often discussed annoyance with the current salary schedule. Particularly teachers in Artis County, where they had to take pay cuts do to budgeting constraints, compensation was a source of frustration. Jasmine said quite bluntly, "what also frustrates me is people playing with my

money." She explained she was making less now than when she began in the classroom. Bob, a much less experienced teacher said while he was struggling to keep up with policy and curricular changes the finance aspect also weighed on him as a new teacher:

> That [policy changes] along with obvious recession struggles and pay I think it's going to turn a lot of people away from the field. Doing it because you believe in it can only work for so long. Until the pressure along with your income level will eventually get to you. I care about the kids but I don't know if I wanna struggle like this the rest of my life.

He went on to discuss his aspirations of having a family and concluded saying, "I'm 31 years old with a roommate." Like Jasmine, Sabrina also talked about the relationship between money and the value of teachers. She went on to say that she believed there might be a relationship between compensation and the morale of the teachers at her school:

> Our teacher morale is low this year because our teachers took a huge pay cut . . . and then we are not paid for the time we're at school. . . not paying teachers for their hours kind of shows disrespect because they don't get paid that much anyway. I just think that it shows that you don't value . . . because money is so valued in our society it comes across as they don't value you.

In addition to discussion on inadequate salary, several teachers discussed merit pay. While merit pay did not show up high in the list as a source of stress, what the interview data shows is there are gross inconsistencies about what teachers know about merit pay. Sabrina recalled, "When I was in Houston we got paid by our test scores, we were in a special grant and it worked out really well for me, I got more money than I've ever gotten in my life." But she also remembered, "I didn't understand the algorithm. It wasn't very clear and it was so depersonalized that I don't know if it had any meaning." Bella discussed stress amongst the special education teachers at her school as the "buzz" around merit pay was discussed. Bella

explained, “There has been buzz. You know, teachers talk all the time. There has been buzz about merit pay and one of the teachers at the school came in and said, ‘ I don’t know how they’re going to do that, because I work with the special ed kids and I can’t get them up in a year, so I’ll never get merit pay.” Bella speculated her coworkers rant might make other teacher think ,”I’d rather be with the gifted if they’re going to give me extra money based on my children’s performance.” While there was buzz about merit pay, neither teacher from Wooten County knew anything about the value-added or growth assessments proposed to be utilized in determining merit pay.

While value, salary, and merit pay were sources of stress, they were one of several that were recurrent themes throughout the interviews and focus groups.

Time Constraints and Excessive Workload as Sources of Stress

Similar to statements captured by research in the literature review, some of the teachers interviewed discussed the constraint of time. As discussed in the previous chapter, Julee explicated time as a hindrance to her ability to learn about the new policies affecting her classroom. That instance was not the only time she discussed “time” as a stressor. After articulating changes in the school schedule (adding an extra period), the building expectation of contacting parents of every student, she explained, “I don’t have time. My planning period is shot, it’s spent trying to email 190. You know what I mean. . .I leave school spent, they’ve gotten everything—so I try, I didn’t used to but I really now when I leave there I leave it there.” In her phrasing of her stressor she also illustrated one of her methods of coping, trying to leave schoolwork at school.

Julee was not alone in discussing time. Sabrina said when it comes to instruction, “I never feel like I have enough time. I always feel rushed, I always feel like I short change my students.” She expressed guilt in her inability to do what she felt was necessary for each child. Sabrina also said as a teacher teaching “low-stakes” course, most of her pressure to do well with

the students came from within. Bob also is a social studies teacher, however, he teaches high school. Like Sabrina, Bob expressed concerns about his time getting through the course materials due to a great deal of external interruptions, "I have a tremendous amount of material to cover in a limited amount of time and endless amounts of disruptions: testings, students being pulled out for the counseling office, assemblies, fire drills, 3 pep rallies, [and] general classroom behavior problems." There were few complaints about the actual content within the curriculum, just discussion about the pressures to cover standards within the time allotted.

Lack of Resources as a Source of Stress

Another source of stress amongst teachers was lack of resources. While none of these teachers worked in the condition's described in Savage Inequalities, they did discuss how lack of access to instructional materials made the job more difficult. Bella often compared her current position to one she previously held in another southern state at an elite private school where "it was not unheard of" for students to come to school in limousines or helicopters. She refers to her current school as a Title school, a misnomer for Title I school.

> The private school that I worked at, if I needed a piece of tape, all I had to say was 'I need,' and there were 20 of them, so the resources were unbelievable. We had our own IT department, not in the county, in the school. . . My guns were loaded and I didn't even have to lad them myself. So here I come to a public school and I'm in a Title School . . . I've got the low socioeconomic kids and I've got the no money school and what do you mean I can't have a piece of construction paper, I have to buy it myself? I can't pull those resources out for the babies that really need it.

While Bob discussed his confusion as a new teacher in the midst of such transition, in terms of curriculum and accountability measures, Jasmine, a more veteran teacher, discussed the lack of resources to help teachers in the transition. Jasmine said:

> I was so frustrated because last year we went to Common Core which nobody really know a what it does and how it's different from GPS standards that we had before, and our county decided that they wanted to have county wide unit plan for these classes. I went online and I downloaded the county wide plan which is different from the state plan.

As she discussed the conflicting plans, which were supposed to be instructional resources to help teachers adjust to the new standards, it became evident that another resource was lacking that she needed for instruction: "And we were encouraged not to really stick to the textbooks, which is great because we did not have enough textbooks. . . . I don't know how you teach literature and you don't have books that can go home with kids." As a high school English teacher, she expressed a great deal of frustration about the inability to assign reading outside of class. Resources also proved to be a source of stress for the teachers in this sample.

Lack of Support from Administration as a Source of Stress

Several participants discussed the role their school's administration played in their stress level. Administrators can contribute to stress or detract according to the participants in this study. Julee articulated her lack of support from administration was her primary source of stress:

> I think right now most of stress does come from my top administrator. . . It's the lack of support when we go in there with an idea. I have to work up the courage, I even told this person this one time, I said, 'you know I have to work up the courage to come in and ask you to do things because I know that the only words I'm going to hear out of your mouth are no.'

Conversely, Jasmine, painted a very different picture of the relationship between her school's administration and her stress level. She begins by stating that, "very few things frustrate me in my building," and she attributes that to her principal. She continued, "I love my principal. I love

her vision. I love her leadership." Leslie and Alice also spoke a great deal about the role administrators could pay in alleviating or compounding the stress teachers face, but Julee and Jasmine's words concretely illustrate the two effects administrators can have on stress.

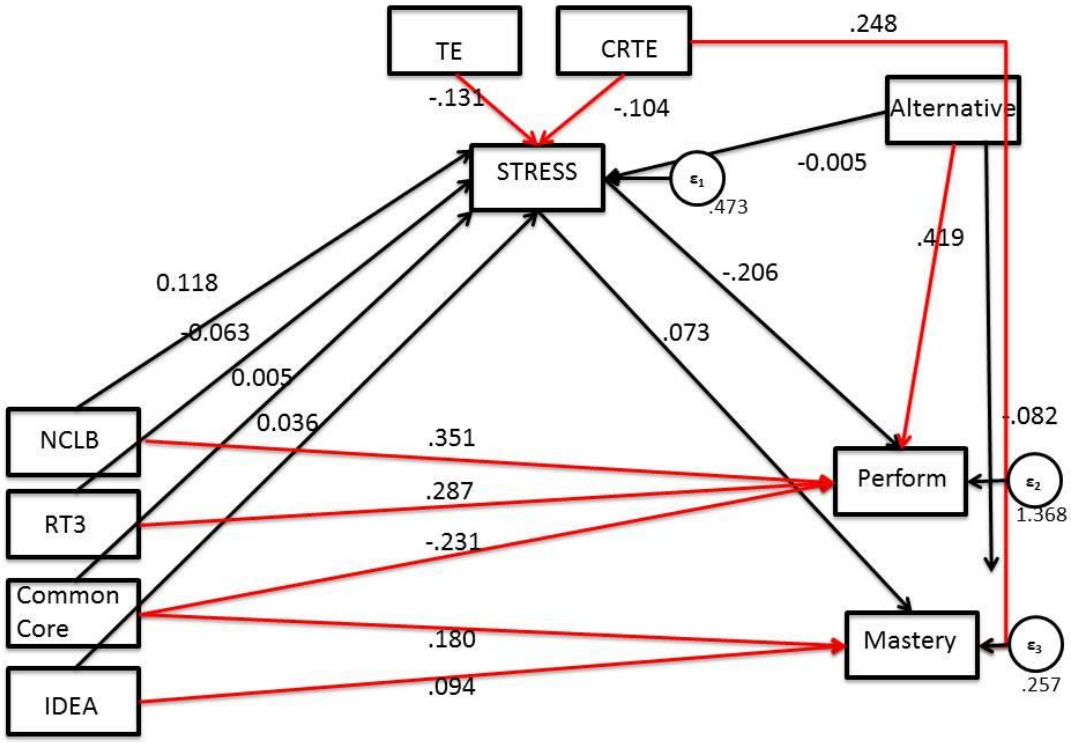
Student Behavior as a Source of Stress

Much of the research on teacher stress looks at student behavior as the primary cause. The quantitative data did show two items related to students within the top 15 stressors, student attitudes towards work and difficult classes. When asked about stressors from work, Jasmine said bluntly, "believe it or not, it's never the kids." Most of the teachers in the sample only listed student behavior after listing a number of other stressors, indicating students may not be the primary stressor. Of those interviewed and participating in focus groups, Julee, a 13 year veteran, was the only one who discussed student behavior as a major factor contributing to her stress. Julee explained: "The key stressors at school are when you've got the behavior issues at school that you can't do anything. There's not a single thing you can do about them It's like you're damned if you do, damned if you don't." Julee talked a great deal about feeling helpless about what to do with student behavior. She talked about her fears that if she sent a disruptive student out, she had no control over whether or not they stayed in the hallway or decided to go elsewhere. She also realized she was taking a risk every time she sent a student out for misbehaving. While she discussed gang activity and lack of motivation among students, she repeatedly came back to not having the support of her administration when dealing with problem behavior. Julee was the only one to go into detail about student behavior as a source of stress.

Value, workload, salary, time, resources, administration were the most discussed sources of stress. Sabrina and Julee also discussed parental support, and Bella, Sabrina, and Bob discussed students coming into their classrooms "behind." Bob went on to say "high failure rate" is stressful, but his rationale for it being stressful had to do with the policies in place as a repercussion for failure, which are a direct result of policies.

Policy and Stress

One of the primary questions raised by this study is what is the relationship between policy and teacher stress. Path Analysis was used to model the effects of Common Core, NCLB, RT3, and IDEA on stress.



Path Analysis 1: Policy, Stress, and Instruction

The model here fit the data reasonably well, with a χ^2 (7)=5.72, a RMSEA of . 00 and a CFI of 1.00.

Effects on Stress	
	Standardized Direct Effects
Teaching Efficacy	-0.131**
CRP Teaching Efficacy	-.104*
NCLB	0.118
CC	0.005
RT3	-0.063
IDEA	0.036
Alternative Certification	-0.005
Consonant	6.208**
* significant at the .05 level ** significant at the .01 level	

As depicted above, only two predictors of stress were found to be statistically significant (depicted with red lines): Teacher Sense of Efficacy and Culturally Relevant Teaching Efficacy. The model here confirms the premise put forth in Social Cognitive Theory that stress is due to a lack of efficacy. Both Teacher Sense of Efficacy and Culturally Relevant Teaching Efficacy were inversely related to stress. While the efficacy data was skewed toward the high end, as efficacy scales often are, the data still captured an inverse relationship amongst efficacy and the global measure of stress. The instructional portion of the model will be discussed later in the chapter.

While the model above does not illustrate a direct correlation between policy consciousness and stress, it should be noted that there were correlations between policy knowledge and stress as illustrated below:

Pairwise Correlations Between Policy Measures and Stress		
		Affect
	Policy	Stress
Knowledge	Common Core	-0.145*
	IDEA	-0.077
	NCLB	-0.177**
	RT3	-0.141*
Consciousness	Common Core	-0.037
	IDEA	0.019
	NCLB	0.033
	RT3	0.025

Due to the small sample size, policy consciousness and policy knowledge could not both be included, and consciousness was selected for the model because of its relationship to behavioral measures.

Interview data suggest a relationship a relationship between policy and stress undetected in the consciousness model. Several teachers discussed frustration as a consequence of particular policies. Alice spoke in grave detail about the frustration she has around assessment and accountability. Explaining she has a migraine within 48 hours of each standardized test, when asked if any policies affect her in the classroom she said:

> TESTING. Capital TESTING! My job is to teach children from whom English is their second language. The test is given in English. So you're not testing what they know about science or math, you're testing how well they know English. You're also testing culture. These kids are found to be in my class because they were tested and found to be deficient or not proficient enough in English. Therefore, don't test them in English, because we already know they don't know English.

She makes a slight reference to No Child Left Behind and the disaggregation of students by subgroup, almost praising the intent stating, “the good news is we are identifying kids that weren’t identified before. The bad news is we’re going to kill them with testing.”

While a great deal of participants talked about the stress due to testing, another source of stress related to policy was the inconsistency and constant change. Jasmine said every five to ten years its something new and change is driven by money, “Every five to ten years, depending on where the money is, the county and state would makes a switch, and We don’t stick with something long enough to actually see if it will work.” Julee said it felt like change was happening every six months, “It seems like every six months its something new. That is very stressful because I’m the type of person when they give me something and tell me its going to be implemented . . .I’ve just now devoted 10 hours or more to what they just have me to oh gosh that’s not going to apply anymore, now you’re going to do this, but its easier.” Bob believed the constant shifts in policy were not due to money, but rather an attempt to make up for previous failures; for instance, he thought the push for Common Core was a reaction to the fact the universal proficiency was not going to happen, so if they changed the standards they could explicate why not. Bob went on to say, “a lot of education policies it was a lot of political pressure, and they feel forced to enact something quickly to make voters happy without doing enough research to figure out what really works best and how to apply it to different areas.” As he discussed the changes and the rationale behind them, he also said that newer teachers felt lost and the students are the ones that suffer, “People like myself who haven’t been around long, we come in with no idea what to do and we’re kind of stuck in this array from transfer from and old policy to a new policy in the meantime our students are learning like they should.” Bella echoed the sentiments of Jasmine, Julee, and Bob with an emphasis on how policy campaigns try to get buy-in for teachers saying this policy is better than the previous one:

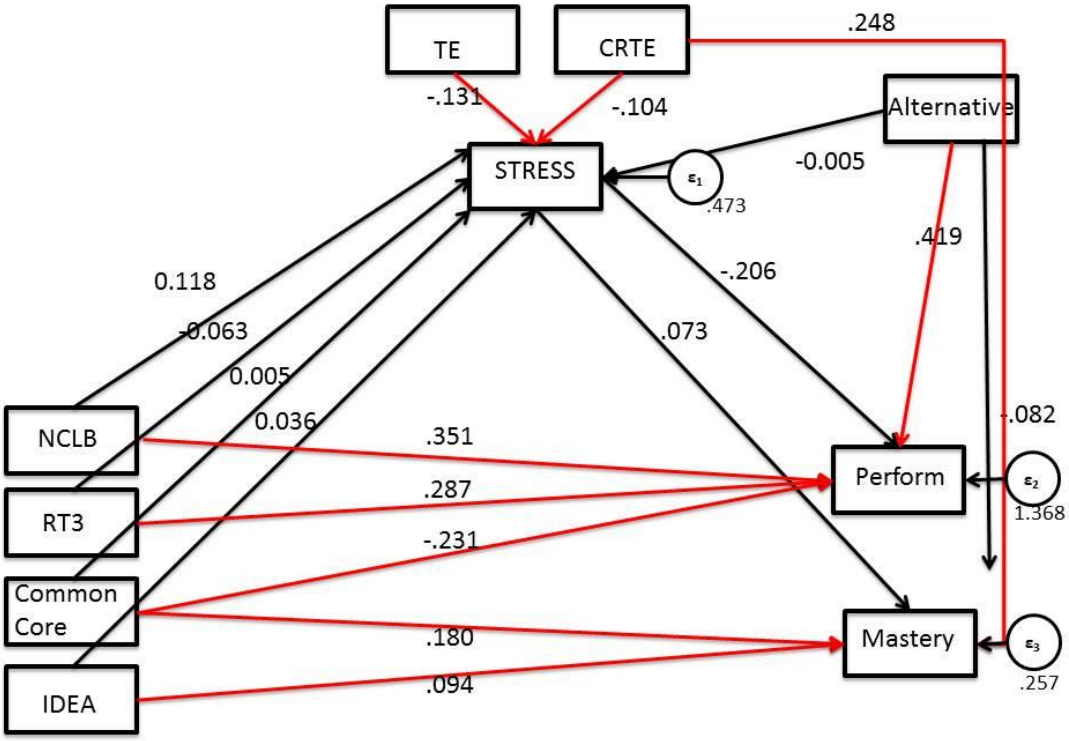
> I also believe too many people higher up are, I don't want to say confused, but not really stuck in their ways, because this year we'll have one policy, next year it'll change. This year we'll get one curriculum, next year they'll adopt a new one. Now this is better, so now we're going to go with common core. No this is better, so now we're going with this standard or that standard and they continue to change, so I just think that's really bad for teachers, because we can never sink our teeth or claws into one thing.

Subsequent to the testing aspect of accountability policies, the unstable educational policy context would be the leading cause of stress due to policy.

The qualitative and quantitative data here paint different pictures about the relationship between educational policies and stress; leading to an inconclusive finding about the true nature or effects of policy consciousness on stress.

Policy and Instruction

For decades researchers and teachers alike have discussed the way accountability policies make teacher "teach to the test." The data illuminate the assortment of effects policy can have on instruction. While its influences on stress were insignificant, its influences on a teachers' classroom goal orientation were significant.



Factors on Mastery Orientation[5]			
	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
NCLB		.007	.007
CC	.180**	0	.180**
RT3		-.003	-.003
IDEA	.094*	.002	.096*
Stress	.073		.073
CRTP	.248**	-.009	.240**
Alternative	-.082	-.001	-.082
TE		-.009	-.009
Factors on Performance Orientation			
NCLB	.351**	-.019	.331**
CC	-.231**	-.001	-.232**
RT3	.287*	.009	.297*
IDEA		-.005	-.005
Stress	-.206		-.208
Alternative	.419*	.002	.421*
Certification			
TE		.027	.027
CRTE		.023	.023

[5] In the initial model, not pictured here, all policies were regressed on both orientations. To increase the degrees of freedom and have a more parsiomonious model, policies with negligent effects and insignificant coefficients paths were removed. NCLB and RT3 had no effect on Mastery Orientation and IDEA had no effect on Performance Orientation in this dataset.

The model here indicates that the frequency a teacher thinks about Common Core and IDEA is positively related to Mastery Orientation. Likewise, the more a teacher thinks about No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top is related to Performance Orientation. While the literature says the two orientations can operate together, the data show an inverse relationship between the frequency of thinking about Common Core and Performance Orientation.

The interviewees could be categorized into two groups, the group who recognizes the effects of policy on their instruction and the group who denies any relationship between policy and their instruction.

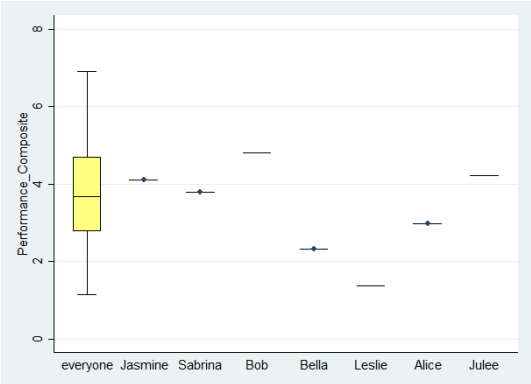
Policy Influences My Teaching

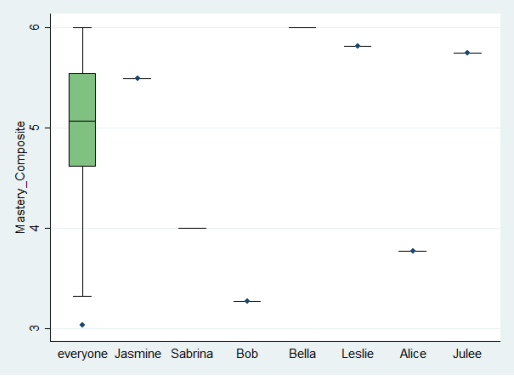
Bob and Sabrina are prime examples of those who recognize the effect that external policies have had on their teaching. Sabrina speaks specifically to No Child Left Behind saying, "No Child Left Behind affected how I taught and how I learned how to teach. In Texas we taught directly to the test. Yeah, we taught to the test." Sabrina, a Teach for American alumnus, is an example of the relationship shown in the data of alternatively certified teachers embracing a performance orientation. In describing the competitive nature of her classroom when teaching in Texas, she explained the test was like the "superbowl" to the students. Bob, however, completed a Master's of Arts in Teaching program and discussed a metamorphosis in his instructional style that has occurred since he's been teaching. Rationally questioning the methods he was taught were best practices and blaming student preconditioning as requisite for his change, he attempted to justify his modifications to his instructional behavior:

> I'm still sort of developing, so it's kind of changing. My first year out, it was all about all of the little programs and methods and research based ideas that allow for good student learning. And so I was all about doing that, interactive groups, student based learning all that good stuff. . . . All the stuff that's supposed to work, but if you look closely at the

data it's mostly done in one region with 1 racial group of students and a lot of studies are done in private schools.

Bob went on to explain, "Overtime, it has become more lecture based, guided by the hands. I feel like each year I'm dumbing down the material more and more and cutting out critical thinking . . . they have become programmed and accustomed to that. A lot of the kids don't know anything besides a teacher talking at them. Fighting against 8-9 years. . . fighting against patterns of habit." While Bob does not say, NCLB changed his instructional style, he constantly discusses being evaluated based on student performance. As the review explained the risk of student centered instruction, Bob concurs, saying "regardless of what you do in the classroom, all that really matters is the test score at the end of the year." All of the courses Bob taught have end of course test; this is an example of accountability leading instruction. Bob and Sabrina are unique in that the readily recognized and did not deny the effects of policy on their instructional practices. It should also be noted, Bob was the highest in terms of performance orientation of all interviewees.





Policy Doesn't Influence My Teaching

Several teachers interviewed also illustrated the effects of policy on their instructional practices even though when asked explicitly if policy affected their classroom practice, they said no. Bella proudly stated she is unconscious of policies in her classroom, "I don't go in thinking

how these affect my class. I don't even think about policies when I'm in my classroom. I'm just thinking, how is this child going to learn this information?" While she articulated policies being far removed from her mind during instruction, later she also explained as they implemented GLAD (guided language acquisition design) the push was, "they wanted kids working together in a group and they don't want any craft stuff. Don't waste time doing the crafts; we don't have time for that kind of fun stuff." She spoke in great detail about how she disagreed and how her students needed the crafts and "fun stuff" and, "take that away and where does that leave the kid? Hating school. Hating it." The implementation of GLAD definitely required instructional modifications that Bella did not agree with. GLAD is aligned with Common Core.

Jasmine spoke similarly about how policy affected her instruction, saying her job was to be a buffer, "My job as a teacher is to be a buffer. I really don't care what they come up with. . . Whatever they're buzz word is, I really don't care. My job is to learn the policy, filter in, and figure out how do I get back to rockin' out in my classroom." As a result of RT3, the teacher evaluation system in RT3 districts changed and they had to be evaluated with the Teacher Effectiveness Measure, part of which was tied to student achievement on standardized test of Student Learning Objectives. A building wide policy was put in place at Jasmine's school that every teacher had to teach one class with a standardized test as a result of the change. Jasmine explained, "I used to teach 12th grade and AP literature which do not have standardized tests. They gave me those classes and then I had to pick up a 9th grade class, and now they have at least one class they can measure my performance on." Still unsure about all the ends and outs of Common Core with the curricular changes, she modified her usual teaching strategy: "By the end of the semester, I just know, OK, this end of course test is still coming whether I understand the Common Core teaching plan or not. I went and sat down I took practice versions of the end of course test myself so I could know what was on the test, and then I taught the test." This method

was quite different from what she employed in her AP classes, where she said she had a great deal of autonomy and even deviated from the "book lists" often suggested.

Both Bella and Jasmine's first instinct was to deny any policies effect on their instruction. However, their stories about their classroom showed that policies do affect their approach to instruction. They also illustrate the difficulty of dividing the effects of each policy. Both Common Core and RT3 were implemented simultaneously, it is difficult to understand the effects of one without understanding how the two work together. In Jasmine's story, both had an impact.

Teaching for Evaluation

The ostensible goal of teacher evaluation is to determine whether or not good instruction is taking place. The data gathered from the teachers interviewed reveals dissonance between the purpose of the evaluation and the action that precipitates it. Instead of evaluation measuring effective instruction, evaluation serves as a catalyst for instruction. Some teachers are teaching with evaluation in mind instead of learning, and Jasmine described her frustration with that fact:

> I don't like how some teachers are so fearful of being evaluated that it stifles their creativity and it stifles their power in the classroom, and they're so nervous about doing something wrong they end up being bad teachers because they're so scared. You can't teach and rock out if you're scare. You can't be afraid that you will say the wrong thing, do the wrong things, put the wrong thing on the board your job is in jeopardy because somebody with a clipboard is going to come by and put an X in a box where you should have got a check.

While it did not dominate the discourse around the effects of policy on teachers, teacher evaluation came up time and time again. The walk-throughs and observations, described in Jasmine's comment, are only one component of the evaluation system currently in place as a

result of RT3 to determine teacher effectiveness. The other portion of one's evaluation is their students' achievement. "Being evaluated based on student achievement" was the third highest source of stress amongst the survey respondents. When teachers discussed the effects of policy in their classroom, most saw policy as primarily related to testing. Leslie was an outlier when she explained she was just disappointed on the way assessment is handled: "I get that we need to show what our kids know, and more importantly than that, I get that we need to monitor progress, but progress monitoring should occur in an authentic way and in a way that's useful to teachers." Her understanding nature was a far cry from what her peers expressed.

While Leslie spoke about the need for progress monitoring and authentic assessment, she also said she believed the "test are all there because they don't trust teachers. They don't trust teachers to make good decisions." Along with the idea of uncertainty about the true purpose of the assessments, there is uncertainty about the outcomes. Bob said quite frankly, "The impression we're given is you keep your job based on how well your scores are. There's a lot of emphasis put on whose scores are high, there's condemnation, whether it's public or private, on teachers whose scores are low. And so regardless of what you do in the classroom all that really matters is the test score at the end of the year." While Bob's comments were made while under the Race to the Top policy on teacher assessment, it was not clear that this was not still the impression prior to the implementation of the grant. Jasmine had a unique perspective on the evaluation system currently in place, demonstrating a disconnect between self-evaluation and the evaluation system: "According to my building I'm good with those types of classes because my scores are high. I just was not as confident in those classes" meaning her 9th grade classes that had standardized assessments.

Alice discusses her concern about the number of assessments given and time taken away from instruction due to standardized assessments. Leslie concurred saying measuring every

minute thing is not really helping teachers, if they are not going back and planning and re-teaching based on the data collected. She expounded:

> It's like we have to report on everything. They're turning data into a bad word which is so annoying, Data based instruction could be as simple as giving your students a writing assignment and you notice that they need or you need to do this based off of what you're seeing. You don't have to go through checklist after checklist in this painstaking process . . .and all it does is turns people off from data, even good data.

A point proven with Alice's response to her comment, when she explained, "And my favorite expression is data driven instruction, excuse me while I vomit."

When conversing on the subject of stress and instruction, teachers did not make the links between assessment and policies they made during the knowledge portion of the conversation. However, teacher evaluation and assessment repeatedly presented itself in survey and interview data. When asked about what policies teachers think about during the course of the week that were not listed, Teacher KEYS was the most wrote in answer. Teacher KEYS is a consequence of Race to the Top, a fact teachers did not realize or felt the need to examine separately.

The quantitative data showed no relationship between policy consciousness and stress, a fact contradicted by the interview data. However, the model did capture a relationship between policies and instruction, echoed in the interview data.

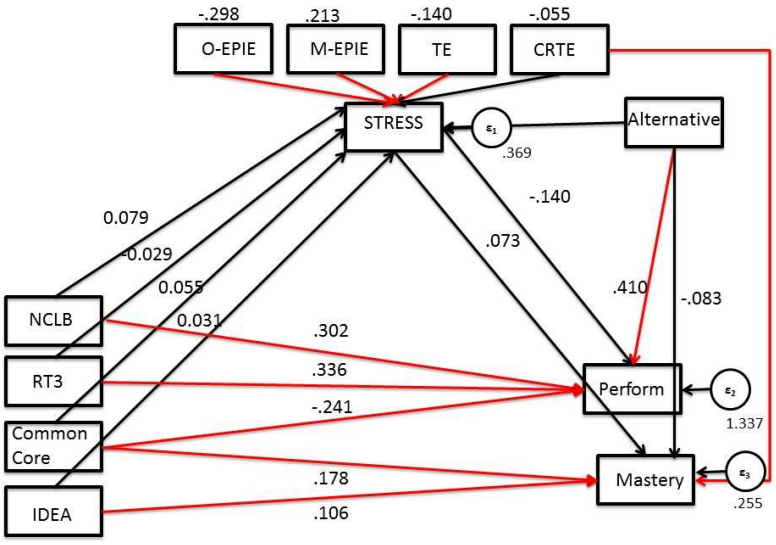
Chapter 6 Policy Creation and Implementation from the Perspective of Teachers

This study not only asked what are the relationships amongst policy, stress, and instruction, but what teachers believed about their own abilities to be change agents in the educational policy arena. In this chapter the Education Policy Influence Efficacy Scale is introduced and its two major factors, overtly political efficacy and micropolitical efficacy, are

used to answer the fourth research question. The two were found to have differing effects on stress and overtly political efficacy was found to be higher with the more knowledge one possessed about education policy. Qualitative data is utilized to illustrate various mirocpolitical and overtly political behaviors as well as ground the understanding about what it is teachers believe they can accomplish in this policy context. From the teachers interviewed, several themes emerge around their roles as implementers and not creators of policy, their distrust of policy makers, and their belief in the teaching experience as a requisite to good education policy making.

Educational Policy Influence Efficacy: Micro and Overtly Political

The Education Policy Influence Efficacy Scale was created to measure teachers' confidence in their ability to influence education policy. Confirmatory factor analysis did confirm the scale had two major factors: micropolitical efficacy and overtly political efficacy. To continue the inquiry on the relationship between policy and stress, these two measures were added to the previous model depicted in chapter 5. The model is below:

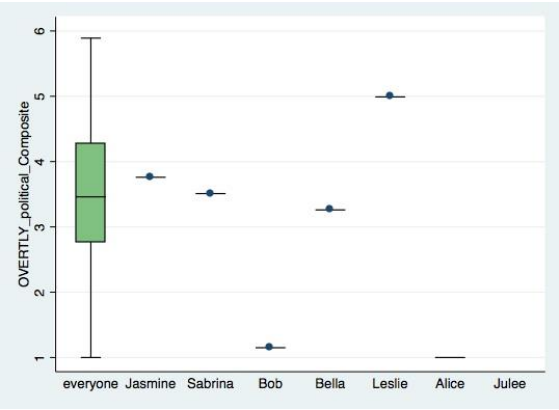


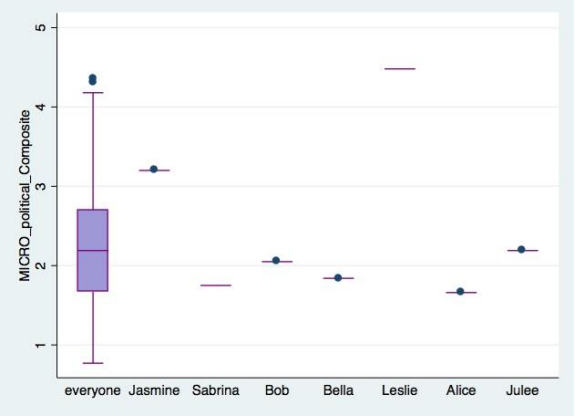
Path Analysis 2: Policy, Stress, Instruction & EPIE

Effects on Stress	
	Direct Effects
Teaching Efficacy	-0.104**
CRP Teaching Efficacy	-0.055
NCLB	0.079
CC	0.055
RT3	-0.029
IDEA	0.031
Micropolitical	0.214**
Overtly Political	-0.298**

It is evident that while consciousness of policies alone did not have a direct effect on teachers' stress, one's efficacy in their ability to effect policy was directly related to teacher stress. The model shown above, has a $\chi^2(11)=19.62$, an RMSEA of .068, and a CFI of .951. The model shows that overtly political policy efficacy decreases teacher stress while micropolitical policy efficacy increases teacher stress. In essence, knowing how to and being confident in one's ability to navigate the policy terrain and be a vocal advocate is related to a decrease in stress. Micropolitical efficacy, or "closing the door" or working beneath the radar to maintain the status quo or change policy adds to the global stress measure.

As desired in the sequential explanatory design, the interviewees varied in their micropolitical and overtly political efficacy. As evident below, Leslie scored highest in overtly and micropolitical. Bob and Alice scored the lowest in overtly political and none of the interviewees scored in the lowest quadrant for mircopolitical.





Jasmine, 8 year veteran high school English teacher, described prototypical micropolitical behavior when she discussed the creation of her lesson plans. With a score above the majority of participants on the micropolitical subscale she explained:

> I used to care about policies when I first started teaching and I used to be one of those teachers that would panic about the new buzz words, and make sure that I'm using the new buzz words, but I mean education is a game. You need to know what words to drop and when to drop them. I sprinkle my lesson plans with all the words they want to hear and they leave me alone and I am able to run my classroom and teach and walk out.

Leslie described a similar secretive autonomy when discussing teachers in her school, explaining, "You can close your door and do all kinds of stuff. I think teachers in my building do all kinds of stuff." Leslie was a unique contributor, she scored higher on micropolitical and overtly political than most of her peers. In discussing her many attempts to effectively change policies, she also talks about why it is so important to change:

> A huge majority of our public's children go through the educational system and we can really impact how society operates by helping kids figure out how to solve problems, see chances for making change and be productive prosocial people. So right away, from the beginning, I realized education is not really set-up to do those things for children. . . And so I really felt like I wanted to make change but I didn't really know what to do. You know some teachers just say, oh just go in your classroom and teach the best way you know how and then you know you impact some young minds. Other people say, try to reach out to your teammates and influence them and help them make good decisions or get as much professional training as you can and spread the word or teach in a teacher preparation program and I've tried all those things and I cannot decide what the best

> thing to do is. And now I feel like I'm at a juncture in my career where I am so frustrated.

Leslie ended her remarks by stating, "I don't know how to make change in the bottom line." Despite her admitting she does not know how, her efficacy was one of the highest in the sample. This sense of loss about what to do was not only present in Leslie's dialogue, but amongst several others as well.

According to Bandura, efficacy is developed through 4 means: mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and physiological responses. Many of the participants believed their actions "did not matter" and would have no effect on the policies currently in place. Alice, who was extremely low on the overtly political efficacy scale and high in terms of stress, explained that some teachers did not pay any attention to policies and policy changes because, "They're smarter than us. They probably know no matter what we say or do it doesn't make a difference." Bob had similar statements when discussing the policy making process. Explaining that policy makers are "Definitely not making us feel like we have any input. Even if we did, I kinda feel like it wouldn't make a difference anyway." Like Alice he also does not give any insights on why he feels that is the case. Bella is more specific about where she feels she has a voice and where she does not; however, she explains having a voice does not necessarily mean she has power:

> I don't feel I have any pull at the federal level. I could stand and picket and take my signs out and stuff and protest. I don't know that that would work, but at the school level I could have my input. I don't know that I would necessarily be listened to. They're going to do what they want to do anyway, because they're governed by someone higher than them, who is making the rules and laws. There's nothing they can do about it either.

Because of her unique experience in the private school sector as well, she was asked to compare her power there and she said, "I don't know that it's any different . . .[but] I didn't have as many concerns." Jasmine, also articulated her actions did not matter, but discusses experiences in the past, where being active have not yielded her desired results, "Whatever policy they come up with, I don't really care. I don't care enough to go to these meeting and stand up and say this and complain this because I've gone to different meetings in the past. I've answered different questions; I've done different surveys. I've gone to round table discussions and it really doesn't matter." As we see above, Leslie too has faced a great deal of negative outcomes to her many attempts to make change in education. Yet, hopeful, she explains, " I think that it's really important for teachers to have a voice in education policy, [but] I think it's really hard. . . to figure out how to do that in an effective way that will actually make real change." She admits the task is difficult, and probably attributes her lack of success to things beyond her control. She thinks it is hard but not impossible.

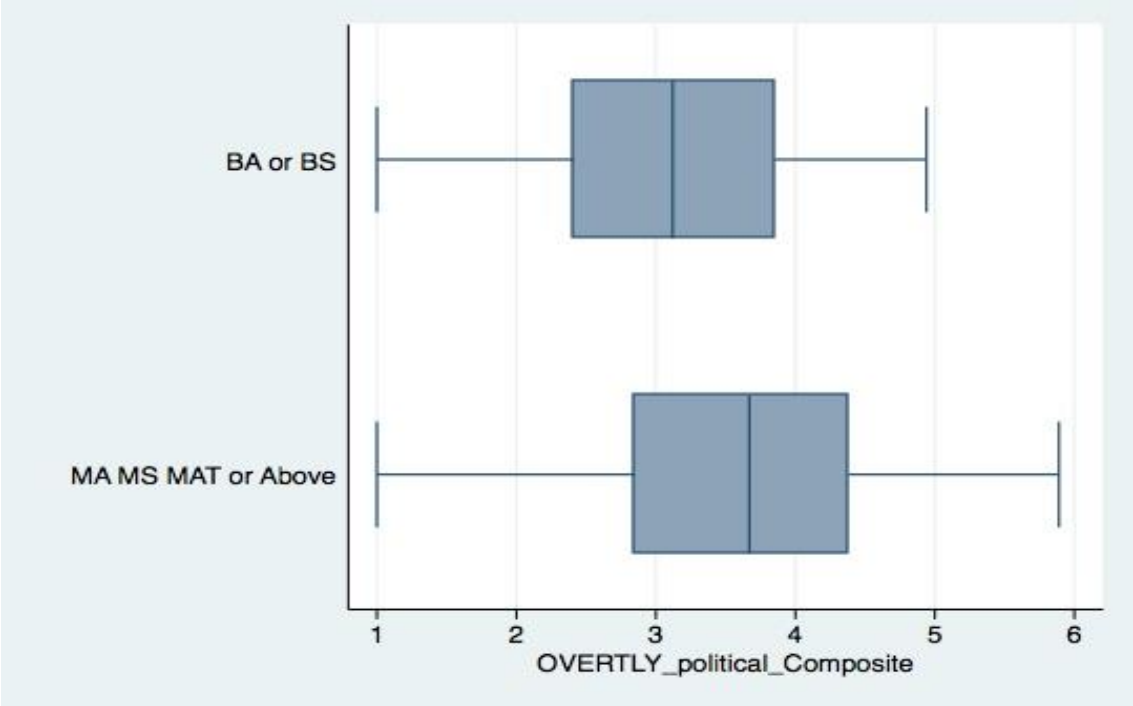
Contributors to Educational Policy Influence Efficacy

Part two of the fourth research question asks, how does knowledge of education policy (or lack thereof) affect teachers efficacy to influence policy? The data illustrate that a number of demographic factors, including policy knowledge, are related to a person's educational policy influence efficacy. However, the correlations below show that micropolitical and overtly political efficacy have different relationships with different variables.

Table 6-1: Correlations between EPIE and Demographics

Pairwise Correlations with Demographics and Educational Policy Influence Efficacy						
	Micropolitical	Overtly Political	Average Policy Knowledge	Experience	Age	Highest Degree
Micropolitical	1					
Overtly political	0.185**	1				
Average Policy Knowledge	0.068	0.221**	1			
Experience	-0.052	0.079	0.223**	1		
Age	-0.148*	-0.031	0.144*	0.652**	1	
Highest Degree	0.047	0.164*	0.2163**	0.238**	0.196**	1
*significant at the .05 level ** significant at the .01 level						

Policy knowledge is positively correlated with overtly political efficacy but not micropolitical efficacy. Policy knowledge effects teachers' efficacy in their ability to openly seek change, but does not have a measurable relationship on covert behaviors that seek to challenge or maintain the status quo. Micropolitical efficacy is negatively correlated with age, meaning younger teachers are more efficacious in their ability to engage in micropolitcial behaviors than older teachers. Overtly political efficacy and micropolitical efficacy are positively correlated with each other. Teachers, such as Leslie for instance, can be efficacious in both factors in educational policy influence efficacy and can utilize both micropolitical and overtly political tactics to try to influence policy. It should be noted that overtly political efficacy is positively correlated with policy knowledge and highest degree. Moreover, highest degree and average policy knowledge are also correlated with each other. There is a relationship amongst continued education, policy knowledge, and overtly political efficacy. As depicted below, one can see the shift in the mean and see the spread of overtly political efficacy when examining survey participants with and without advanced degrees:



These correlations only begin to uncover the qualities and experiences that may lead to the development of micorpolitical and overtly political efficacy. Also, while correlations are significant, their magnitude is not very large, below .3. However, the data does show some relationship between policy knowledge, higher education, and overtly political efficacy; a starting point for considering ways to build this efficacy amongst teachers.

No Role in Creation, Full Role in Implementation

Despite their efficacy to influence education policy, teachers primarily saw their role in the policy process as implementers of someone else's mandates. In the current context, while they make daily decisions about best practices, they did not express that they felt the autonomy they theoretically possess as street level bureaucrats. Bob said tersely, "We're required to do it, but don't have any say so." Bob continued in a blunt manner saying, "No role in creation. Full role in implementation. The onus and pressure of performance is completely placed on our [teachers] shoulders. Poop rolls down hill kinda thing." Sabrina concurred saying, "I implement

more than I create." Sabrina discussed her membership in an organization, Leadership for Educational Equity that she fostered ties with through Teach For America, but admitted her involvement had waned since she left graduate school. Reverberating the sense of not knowing what to do expressed by Leslie, Sabrina said, " I'm just not very politically involved. I voted for the charter school amendment but I'm not very political. I just don't deal about policy that much. I can see the damage it does but I wonder what the alternatives are. I don't have really great alternatives." The two differ in Leslie has clear alternatives but does not know how to get the people in charge to consider those alternatives. Bob also spoke about voting and things he could do, but in an exacerbated tone concluded:

> At the end of the day, decisions are coming from State or Federal. I can maybe vote from time to time, but how often if ever are there any educational referendum on the ballot? I can write a local politician and petition them maybe, but they might say something, but in a recession people don't want to talk about anything that may require spending money, especially education.

In the focus group with Leslie and Alice they discussed potential repercussions for being too vocal and trying to have a role in policy creation. Alice explicated, " We're totally dissuaded and if you say anything counter to anything coming down you're either ignored or have a sense that, or at least speaking personally, we kind of understand that we're not supposed to say anything. There's some sort of implicit threat." Leslie followed Alice's comments reflecting on and comparing her time in Georgia "a right to work state" to her time in California and the sense of security she had from the union:

> The south is really different from California in many ways but in one of the ways is that in California you're protected by the union. And I always thought my union was just there to protect bad teachers, I always thought that—I hated my

> union there. But then I come here and I come to find out that my union there enabled me to have a voice to where I did not need to be fearful. . . we could voice what we wanted to voice and could try to make change if we wanted to.

Across the board, teachers saw themselves more as implementers of policy and not creators. While several expressed an interest in being on the creation side, they explained they were unsure how to move to the other side of the policy equation.

Teachers' Views of Policy Makers

In addition to discussing their role in the policy making process, the teachers interviewed spoke a great deal about the people currently creating policies. There was a blatant disconnect between teachers and policy makers. Teachers seemed to have little or limited knowledge on the way education policy is formed, though they had clearer ideas on implementation and poor implementation. Teachers also appeared to distrust policy makers and their intentions, not believing all education policy was designed to do what is best for children. Lastly, the teachers believed the policy makers were ill informed and needed classroom experience to do their jobs effectively.

Disconnect & Distrust

Amongst the interviewees there seemed to be an elusive idea of who the policy makers actually were. They were more often than not referred to with some type of pronoun, such as "them" or "they" "those people" and even once a "whoever." For example, Bella said, "***They're*** just making policies. Even ***people*** who are making the curriculum, ***they're*** just doing it and ***they*** have no idea what's going on in the classroom, none." The sole caveat to this finding was Bob, who used the "whoever" but described with more clarity his vision of the policy process than any of the other participants, "Policy makers and politicians whoever kinda come up with theses

ideas, out it down to state and county level people, county level people come around and put it on superintendents, superintendents on principals, so on and so forth, and everyone sort of is pressuring but not supporting." In addition to the disconnect with who policy makers actually are, many of the participants doubted the intentions behind the policies.

As stated earlier in chapter 4, Leslie and Alice had a long discussion about the relationships amongst Pearson, McGraw Hill and the Bush family and how those companies stood to gain with the passing of the No Child Left Behind legislation. Alice concluded the conversation saying, "So we have our politicians and our leaders saying this is a good idea because I can get rich off it and not what's good for our kids." Bob said the policy makers do not have a vested interest in what happens because they are not directly affected, "Politicians kids don't go to public schools anyway, so they definitely don't care. That's part of the problem, all of the people in charge of making decisions are not affected by the decision they make. And so, it really makes it difficult to understand the logic and legitimacy of these policies. . . . they're not affected if it doesn't work." Distrust of the abstract policy makers was a common theme amongst the interviewees.

Ill Informed

Lastly, almost unanimously, the interviewees said the policy makers needed first-hand experience in the classroom in order to make good policies about schools. As Julee and her mother had a conversation about Michelle Rhee, Julee explains, "I told my mom, until the government official that are making the decisions about our schools, until they are actually in our schools having to create lesson plans, having to sit in the classrooms with our students and make the parent conference and have all the same demands put on them. Until they are there, instead of making up the policies without all of that, it's not going to change." Bella had similar ideas about the insights policy makers could get from actual classroom experience. She began by saying,

"policy makers have really fallen short because they don't allow for exceptions" which it to be expected since she teaches exceptional children. But Bella also said, "I would want those people who are making the laws to actually get their feet wet. Come to a classroom for a week. Not just a day and not just an hour. Anybody can put on a pony show for an hour, but be there for a week." Jasmine takes the idea even farther, saying it is not enough to have experience, the experience must be recent:

> Be it the principal, people in the county level, I think within every three years, people should be back in the classroom for at least one class—for a principal or administrator, I think they should carry one class a school year, and I think if they stay in touch with children on that level, it would force them to make better policies and it would force them to identify with teachers more as opposed to saying when I was teaching and it was 20 years ago when they were last in the classroom, and they're still riding on their 20-years-ago experience.

This consistent discussion of the need for classroom experience illustrates an implicit understanding that the knowledge derived from teaching experience is valuable in the education policy making process.

In chapter 5, we found that policy consciousness had no direct effects on stress. However, in this chapter, we find one's efficacy in their ability to affect policy does have a direct effect on stress. One's efficacy in their ability to express one's policy desires openly decreases stress; while micropolitical efficacy increases stress. A number of factors were related to teachers efficacy in stress. Policy knowledge and advanced degrees were positively correlated with overtly political efficacy, weherase fewer demographic factors were correlated with micropolitical efficacy. While Darling Hammonds and Odden point out the power teachers have over the implementation process, the teachers in this sample did not perceive their position as one

of power when it comes to policy brokering. While some had clear ideas about what should be in place to create a better learning and working environment, they seemed to be unsure of how to translate those ideas into actionable steps to bring about change. Others, such as Jasmine and Bob, were not only bewildered about how to navigate the policy terrain but disillusioned. We also find that teachers in the sample questioned policy maker's intentions and their qualifications for making education policy.

Chapter 7 Rock Out or Stress Out

For far too long, the discourse around the effects of policy has been measured in terms of test scores. While achievement is important and can be mediated through policy, someone has to ask what other underlying effects policies have on teachers. Meahr and Midgley (1991) explicate it quite frankly when they stated, "Yet seldom, if ever, do educational psychologists speak directly and at length to those who view the school as a whole . . . Rarely do we see an article by a major researcher that speaks to policymakers, principals, and school leadership teams about changing the school environment to enhance student motivation and achievement"(p.406). This work sought to elucidate the motivational effects of the policies in place, so when discussions of reauthorizations occur, there is a more complete picture of the effects of the policies on teachers. This concluding chapter reiterates the primary findings of this study and speaks at length to policy makers, administrators, and teacher-educators about what these findings mean for actual practice. Specifically, this chapter will discuss the effects of educational policies on teacher goal orientations and the necessity for the development of policy knowledge to cultivate Educational Policy Influence Efficacy, which decreases incidence of stress. Lastly the chapter discusses psychometric questions and recommendations for future research around measuring policy influence on affective and behavioral measures.

The Imperative for Increasing Policy Knowledge and Mastery Instruction

In October 2012 at the AERA Brown Lecture, Dr. Siddle-Walker addressed the education community by declaring "we are the first generation that doesn't have a plan." Historically teachers, particularly African American teachers, have been at the forefront of movements and organized even when changes they advocated for may have had negative consequences for them as individuals. The proof positive we do not have a plan is the articulation of frustration, bewilderment, and disillusionment by the teachers in this sample—even those who want to make change have no idea what to do. While the high school civics teacher could describe the federalist nature of education policy, it is disheartening that he was the lowest in efficacy of how to change education policy.

Contrary to popular media portrayals that teachers are only in it for the check, these teachers had big ideas about what education should do for their pupils. Bella talked about how she would tell kindergarten parents she did not care if their child did not learn one thing in her class that year as long as they left the class with a love for learning. Jasmine complained that teachers were missing valuable connections that should be made, "I think people are missing a lot of social connections that can be made in the classroom. They're missing a lot of community connection that can be made in the classroom because people are too busy trying to teach the test." The teachers also commented on the negative effects of policies on their students. Jasmine explained:

> If you take a student from 2013 and compare them with a student from 1993, they're not getting any smarter. They're not any more prepared to live in our society. It seems like the students are getting dumber and dumber over time as we are trying to streamline our education more and more. We are coming out with a weaker product.

These sentiments were echoed by Bob who reflected on the fact his current cohort of students had been under NCLB their entire educational career:

> I was talking to a teacher earlier today, and I find this interesting, the teachers I talk to, even the ones who have been teaching while, say each year it gets harder and harder, this year being one of the hardest . . .but I told them it's interesting this is the 12th year since they enacted NCLB, so this is the first group of students who have gone all the way through, with the exception of kindergarten, through the process. And I think it's not a coincidence these students who are really lacking a lot of motivation and a lot of critical thinking skills . .

However, while they make these statements, and believe them to be true, both of them discussed ways they have changed their instruction to accommodate the demands of the accountability system. While Jasmine said her job was to be a "buffer" and Sabrina said her job was to be an "advocate" for her students, they appear to be surviving within a system they believe is flawed rather than trying to change it. Despite the fact they believe they are shielding their students from policies that may be detrimental to their cultivation, what they are actually doing is aiding in the proliferation of the policies effects.

The finding above may be the most significant in the study. The literature was right; the current accountability policies have called for a "tight coupling" between policy and practice. The autonomy once experienced by teachers in the silos of their classrooms has been eroded by accountability and a fear of its consequences. Duke(2013) explains to Administrators in Phi Delta Kappan that:

> For the most part, the tests focus on the basic knowledge not advanced learning necessary to stretch top achievers to the boundaries of their abilities. That's why students who perform well on state tests frequently do less well on international assessments, such

> as the Program for International Students Assessment (PISA). Focusing on basic knowledge, of course, is not a problem unless the preoccupation with getting all students to pass these tests of basic knowledge precludes efforts to move more [ALL] students beyond the basics (p. 46).

The amalgamation of performance monitoring and teacher evaluation has led to a misunderstanding of assessment purposes and a focus on test preparation that sometimes values test score over learning.

Measuring the effects of individual teachers on student performance is novel and necessary to improve practice. However, the "how" in the process being utilized to measure teacher effects is so mystified that as Bella explained the special education teachers believe they will never be able to receive benefits of merit pay. This is evidence of the mis or lack of communication and the lack of knowledge that exists in the details teachers receive. The assumption that teachers need high-level information takes a position that teachers, those who are to guide the minds of youth, are not capable of handling and digesting such information. The results of this method are confusion, at best, as teachers are fearful due to lack of knowledge.

The question of who holds the burden for educating teachers on policy issues is unclear. Just like teachers do not want to spoon-feed students, one must question whether or not they should be spoon-fed information as well. The finding that teachers find it difficult to sift through the overwhelming amount information is cause for concern for a number of reasons. On one hand, teachers do need a trusted resource that can be utilized to disseminate information. On the other, the Common Core says a student who is considered college and career ready is able to "without significant scaffolding, comprehend and evaluate complex texts . . . discern a speaker's key points, request clarification, and ask relevant questions. . . become self-directed learners, effectively seeking out and using resources to assist them." Is this a skillset we have cultivated in

our teachers? In years past, the teacher held the information, and knowing content was the most important thing. The banking method had a degree of validity when only one person was literate. However, now, content is at the fingertips of students via their smart phones and tablets but we have to teach pupils how to sift the wheat from the chaff. In the information age, knowing the answer is less important than knowing how to get it. Have our teachers been taught how to navigate and select reliable sources? How can we ensure they know how to going forward?

Most teachers said the information they did know about policies came from their school (such as administrative bulletins) or from their teacher education programs. It is clear that administrators and teacher education are critical in educating teachers about the policies governing schools. While teacher educators have a great deal on their plate teaching content and pedagogy, and are currently under fire from a number of entities, this work has implications for educator preparation. Teachers who know more about policy are more likely to be efficacious in overtly advocating for or against policy and this leads to a decrease in stress. In the sample, policy knowledge is significantly related to advanced degrees. Is educational policy a subject more likely to be covered in graduate level than undergraduate level courses? Teacher educators must ask, do preservice teachers in undergraduate teacher preparation programs need to learn more about the policy context before they enter the classroom? How can we balance content and pedagogy and add a course on a degree audit where so many different disciplines are competing for hours? And what would a course include? Is a course necessary, or just a more explicit unit in an introductory schools and society course? Often in methods and student teaching practicums, pre-service teachers are taught to "make friends with the custodians" but at what junction are they taught the policy making agenda process that Odden lays out in text on education policy implementation? While the link between policy consciousness and stress is not evident, it is clear that being able to effectively navigate the policy terrain leads to reduction in teacher stress.

Colleges of Education cannot bear the burden alone. One may question if colleges of education are the most effective vehicles for preparing teachers to navigate the policy context, especially in a context where so many alternative routes to teaching are blooming annually. Induction plays a critical role too. As teachers come into a system, they should have clear communication about where to go to get reliable information about the policies governing the district. Whether they receive the information from a principal or mentor teacher, it should be a designated place they can go for information. While teachers in the sample credited NEA and subject level organizations for information on policies, teacher organizations must be encouraged to publish, to the extent possible, neutral resources for teachers to use. For example, Castellano & Ho (2013) published a wonderful Practitioner's Guide to Growth Models. If Bella and her friends had read it, they would understand merit pay based on one of those models would not have negative effects on them as Special Education Teachers. However, while it is a practitioner's guide, it is 117 pages long. Teacher organizations should summarize these longer reports and point interested persons to the full report.

While decreasing stress is important and should be investigated to prevent burnout and turnover of top talent, this study also sought to understand environmental effects on instruction. It appears that Colleges of Education set the standard for the pedagogical knowledge teachers take in the classroom. Colleges of Education prepared the bulk of the teachers in this study. Only 12 percent of participants were alternatively certified. All of the path analyses, that examined alterative preparation as a control variable, found alternative certification to be related to performance-oriented teaching. While the goals of alternative programs are often to decrease the number of hoops one must jump through to teach and to staff hard-to-staff areas with superb talent, one must question what is being lost by shrinking the pathway to the classroom. What can Colleges of Education teach alternative programs about instructional practice? Can the two competitors for pre-service teachers work together since the children are what is at stake?

Furthermore, while colleges of education and alternative programs teach and model good instruction, in this era of "tight coupling" between policy and practice, policy makers must be intentional in their messages to teachers about policy goals and procedures or the environment will diminish the effects of teacher preparation. At this point in the evolution of education policy, it is improbable that we will retreat from accountability and measuring teacher effectiveness as a function of student performance. So, a recommendation of abandoning accountability would be useless. However the perception of accountability could be changed in the minds of teachers.

Teachers value assessment. Every teacher has a list of Bloom's Taxonomy verbs in a folder so they can design assessments that hit different levels of understanding. They value formative and summative assessments, and usually utilize a combination of the two to get an accurate picture of their children's progression throughout the year. Teachers are formatively assessing students every time they walk the classroom and look over the shoulders of their pupils to see what each child is jotting down. However, the assessment practices utilized in accountability policies are not beneficial to teachers. Beyond changing the sense-making Spillane discusses, we must reconcile the divorce between standardized assessment and the learning enterprise.

Educational psychology says that instructional feedback is most useful when it is immediate. Teachers need data, as Hess and Fullerton explicate, that includes:

> performance of students of various substrands (e.g. number sense, spatial relations on the math test) of state test results. . . Item level analysis at the individual student and classroom levels. [Which] allows teachers to analyze whether all or most of their students miss the same test items-- and then adjust their teaching strategies. The results of

> benchmark tests provided back in a timely manner (e.g. no more than one or two days after the test is completed) (2009, p.7).

Being privy to the aggregate scores of their students from the previous year does not enable teachers to know what to reteach or how to change their instruction to improve performance. At that point, the assessment process, though summative, is not useful to the learning enterprise. So, it is difficult for teachers to see the value in this type of assessment; and as the assessment is divorced from learning, sometimes so is the preparation for it. Recent literature has discussed the type of data needed to drive improvement, and how most teachers do not have access to this data and if they do it's not in a timely manner. While policies can continue to include growth models to measure effectiveness, if teachers saw the assessment as more than an evaluation maybe the way they prepare for the test would change.

Changing the perception has to include changing the practice, as described above in terms of making data available, and also changing the conversation that surrounds teacher "effectiveness." While every article on teacher effectiveness begins with some quote like the one in Hanushek's article "What is a Good Teacher Worth?" that lauds, "The quality of the teachers in our schools is paramount: no other measured aspect of schools is nearly as important in determining student achievement" the rest of the article discusses ineffective teachers and what they could be costing society if we do not get rid of them (2011, p.41). Effectiveness is equated to student achievement, and that is the message teachers hear—"I am only as good as my test scores." It is this narrow definition of effectiveness that leads to cheating and abandoning some instructional practices for others. While it may be necessary to speak about effectiveness and eliminating the bottom 15 percent when seeking investors from the business sector, there must be a political "code switch" when the conversation is brought to teachers.

Most teachers teach because they care about student outcomes. Their idea of student outcomes may extend beyond traditional measures of achievement. Beyond college and career ready, teachers want students to be life ready, and may be helping students prepare to deal with whatever they have to face when the leave school for that day. Policy makers should capitalize on the fact that teachers usually care about students and should frame the evaluation and effectiveness discourse to help teachers view these measures as a way to improve practice. If districts could retreat, for a moment, from merit pay and tenure decisions, and view student growth for teachers as one indicator in a performance management system. Indiana University defines performance management as:

> an ongoing, continuous process of communicating and clarifying job responsibilities, priorities and performance expectations in order to ensure mutual understanding between supervisor and employee. It is a philosophy which values and encourages employee development through a style of management which provides frequent feedback . . . It emphasizes communication and focuses on adding value to the organization by promoting improved job performance and encouraging skill development (University Human Resources Services, 2005).

In this scenario, a principal would serve as an instructional leader, sitting down with teachers and their data explicating areas where they need to improve, prescribing professional development unique to their needs, and modeling the type of differentiated instruction that is hopefully employed in every classroom. Such a system would promote mastery in teaching skills over simply performance. As a result of the elaborate evaluation systems are in place for teachers and to a lesser extent principals, many districts are looking to performance management to evaluate non-instructional employees. However, if the measures are to actually drive performance, a key piece of the puzzle is missing. A memo stating a teacher is “effective” or “ineffective” gives no direction on how to improve.

Psychometric Findings and Implications

Beyond hindrances to policy knowledge and "tight coupling" between policy and practice, the data indicate that stress decreases when one is efficacious in their ability to overtly influence education policy. This aligns with Social Cognitive Theory's understanding of stress. If stress is increased by a low sense of efficacy in one's ability to "exercise control over aversive threats and taxing environmental demands," one's ability to influence policy should result in a decrease in global stress. To complicate the Educational Policy Influence Efficacy instrument, its two factors had different effects on stress. The overtly political component decreases stress, while the micropolitical component increases stress.

Micropolitical educational policy influence efficacy is positively associated with stress. Micropolitics, the root word of micropolitical, is usually defined in the educational context as, "the strategic use of power by individuals and groups in organizations to achieve preferred outcomes" (Ballenger, n.d.) Betty Malen extends the definition by saying it includes "overt and covert" actions utilized to "protect and promote" individuals' interests. With Malen's broad definition, both the overtly educational policy influence efficacy and the micropolitical efficacy could fall under mircopolitical. For the purposes here, micropolitical refers non-public action.

The next question becomes why does overtly EPIE decrease stress when quantitative data do not show a relationship between policy consciousness and stress. The answer is a bit complex and has more to do with measurement than phenomena. Measuring the affective and behavioral effects of policy is difficult, and one needs to utilize both policy consciousness and policy knowledge to begin to uncover the effects (and other measures not yet created). While consciousness (frequency of thinking about a policy) captures the effects on behavior, knowledge (how much one knows about a policy) better illuminates the effects on stress. Overtly political

influence efficacy is a function of policy knowledge. Both overtly political efficacy and policy knowledge are inversely related to teacher stress. Take the chart below, previously viewed in chapter 5:

Policy Measures and Stress Correlations		
		Stress
Knowledge	Common Core	-0.145*
	IDEA	-0.077
	NCLB	-0.177**
	RT3	-0.141*
Consciousness	Common Core	-0.037
	IDEA	0.019
	NCLB	0.033
	RT3	0.025

While knowledge has some significant correlations with stress, consciousness was not significantly related to stress. When simultaneously estimating the multiple equations in the path analysis, the effects of knowledge on behavior diminished, while those of consciousness remained evident. Policy knowledge is inversely related to stress, as the qualitative findings suggest, but one's frequency of thinking about certain policies is related to their classroom goal orientation.

As one proceeds in this line of research, one must determine what other measures of policy can be utilized to uncover relationships amongst affective and behavioral measures. Also, going forward, it is critical to examine teacher behavior, through observation, during the course

of policy change. While self-report measures are useful, being able to examine changes in behavior over time would be the best lens for understanding how policy affects instruction.

We Need Teachers to Rock Out in the Classroom, Speak Out in the Boardroom

In the previous pages, there has been a great deal of numbers, figures, citations, and quotations. I have argued rationale for methods employed and sought to present the data in a way that is accessible. This study, with its sequential explanatory design and 4 research questions, is not complex in its essence. In this study I have sought to understand how the current policy environment affects teachers, their stress levels and instructional practices, and whether or not teachers believe they have any power to influence the environment in which they work.

The literature has questioned for over a decade the relationship between policy and teacher stress. Kyriacou explicated in 2001, "particular research is needed on stress generated by coping with change, so that such research can provide governments and policy makers with an ongoing critique of how various educational reforms impact on teachers' experience of stress" (p. 32). In a similar vein, Olson explained the following year "research in education needs to find out what teachers think of reform—to ask those who have intimate knowledge of what happens when grand schemes are launched" (2002, p.129). Both Kyriacou and Olson are correct, and this study illustrates knowing more about the policy alone is related to a decrease in overall stress. Furthermore, having policy knowledge is related to greater overtly political educational policy influence efficacy. Knowing more about the policies enables individuals to feel they have more ability to assert change and have more control over their environment.

Furthermore, this study extends our understandings of teacher stress and teacher emotions by uniting the two schools of thoughts and their methods. Instead of looking specifically at the numbers or solely at the story, this work attempted to do both. Put the numbers in conversation with the story. While the literature on teacher stress shows student behavior as the primary cause

of stress, this work finds that student behavior is only a piece of the puzzle. Like the teacher emotions literature that discusses stress originating from colleagues, the data here also finds stress to be the result of a number of factors in the work environment. One of the sources of stress evident in this study is the lack of support from administration. While sources of stress was not a research question, the recurrent theme of administration within the interview data points to a gap in the canonical knowledge on teacher stress. While all job-related stress may be tied to "bosses" in some aspect, the desire for support and validation may be greater for teachers. As the literature discusses the vulnerable state that teaching places a person, support from immediate supervisors and colleagues may mean more in the setting than others. More research is needed to understand the relationship between administrative support and teacher stress.

Lastly, the significance of this work is not only scholarly but also practical. At its essence, it asks the question of how policy affects teacher practice. While the study collects data from teachers, it never loses sight of the fact that the teacher is the most important instrument in the classroom to affect student learning. Understanding aspects of stress or the environment that affect teacher behavior is critical in understanding how to modify teacher behavior to improve student learning. Midgley, Kapplan and Middelton (2001) discussed the role of performance goal orientation and that the effects are not always negative, especially when found in conjunction with mastery orientation. However, the scholars conclude performance orientation does not need to be conceptualized as having overwhelmingly positive effects on all students. We need to garner mastery goal orientation in classrooms. This data shows that accountability policies that stress outcomes over processes are related to performance orientation.

This is not an indictment on teachers, but a critique of their context. Pintrich (2000) found math students who had high performance orientations coupled with low master orientation, "it seems clear that their pathway through math classrooms was not a particularly easy or positive one. They were less confident, less interested, experienced less positive affect, and were more

likely to report withdrawing their effort and engagement in difficult tasks over time" (p. 553). It is fortunate that the majority of the teachers in the sample by self-report are more mastery oriented that performance oriented. So most of the students served by these teachers are experiencing an environment that supports the mastery orientation or the mastery orientation in conjunction with the performance orientation, in which revised goal theory explicates performance orientation in and of itself is not maladaptive. However, 20 percent of the teachers in this sample had higher scores in performance orientation than mastery. Bob is one of the 50 plus teachers in that category. He clearly articulates the changes he has made in his instruction, how he has made it more lecture based and "dumbed down" the material over the first few years of his career as a response to the pressures of accountability.

If Bob is not an anomaly, we are witnessing a real problem. In an attempt to hold teachers accountable for getting their students to a certain level, accountability policies have created an environment that pushes teachers to adopt practices that may prevent students from reaching that achievement goal. While some may consider the recommendations here conservative since they do not recommend abolishing testing and abandoning accountability, changing the use of achievement data and the conversation around teacher effectiveness could have profound implications for instruction. Furthermore, increasing teacher knowledge of education policy could decrease stress.

Literature shows middle-class parents, those with the most social capital, operate out of individual concern for their child(ren). We need teachers to advocate for the masses, and we need them to be confident in their ability to do so. Efficacy leads to agency, and while efficacy scales are usually positively skewed, the overtly political efficacy scale was normally distributed. We need to develop our teacher's overtly political educational policy influence efficacy because it is up to the teachers to change the face of education. As Jasmine explained, teacher's cannot "rock out" when they are "stressed out."

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Appendix A

Dissertation Instrument

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Consent

1. Emory University
Division of Educational Studies
Consent to be a Research Subject

Title: Stressed Out: Federal Education Policy, Teacher Stress, and Instructional Practices
Principal Investigator: Brandi N. Hinnant-Crawford, Doctoral Student

Introduction
You are being asked to be in a research study. This form is designed to tell you everything you need to think about before you decide to consent (agree) to be in the study or not to be in the study. It is entirely your choice. If you decide to take part, you can change your mind later on and withdraw from the research study. The decision to join or not join the research study will not cause you to lose any benefits.

You are being asked to participate in this study, because you are an educator. Approximately 500 teachers (18 and older) will be surveyed in this study. If you are not 18 years old, please disregard this survey and do not continue. This study will take place during 2012-2013.

Purpose
The scientific purpose of this study is to understand how an education policy affects teacher stress and teacher classroom behavior.

Procedures
If you qualify, you will proceed to the online survey. It will ask you questions about your beliefs and your behaviors. The survey will also ask you some demographic information with regards to gender, age, ethnicity, education, and teaching experience. The survey is completely voluntary and will take you approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Risks and Discomforts
There are no foreseeable risk or discomforts associated with this study.

Benefits
This study is not designed to benefit you directly. This study is designed to learn more

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about how educational policy directly effects teachers. The study results may be used to help other people in the future. There may be no direct benefit to you as a participant from this study.

Compensation
You will not be offered payment for being in this study. However, if you choose to enter, there will be drawing where survey participants can win 1 of five giftcards to School Box (classroom supply store).

Confidentiality
Certain offices and people other than the researchers may look at your study records. Government agencies, Emory employees overseeing proper study conduct may look at your study records. These offices include the Emory Institutional Review Board and the Emory Office of Research Compliance, Emory will keep any research records we produce private to the extent we are required to do so by law.

A study number rather than your name will be used on study records wherever possible. Your name and other facts that might point to you will not appear when we present this study or publish its results.

Study records can be opened by court order or produced in response to a subpoena or a request for production of documents unless a Certificate of Confidentiality is in place for this study.

Withdrawal from the Study
You have the right to leave a study at any time without penalty. This decision will not affect in any way your status in the course in which the survey is distributed.

Questions
Contact Brandi N. Hinnant-Crawford at (919) 394-2806 or brandi.hinnant@gmail.com:
- **if you have any questions about this study or your part in it,**
- **if you would like to receive the study results, or**
- **if you have questions, concerns or complaints about the research**

If you have questions about your rights as a research subject or if you have questions, concerns or complaints about the research, you may contact the Emory Institutional Review Board at 404-712-0720 or 877-503-9797 or irb@emory.edu.

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

If you consent, select yes below and continue to the survey.

- ◯ I consent
- ◯ I do not consent

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Demographic Information

2. Are you a K-12 teacher?

- ◯ yes
- ◯ no

3. What grade do you teach?

- ◯ K-5
- ◯ 6-8
- ◯ 9-12

4. Do you teach a grade or course that has a state examination?

- ◯ yes
- ◯ no

5. What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- ◯ Some college but no degree
- ◯ Bachelor degree
- ◯ Masters Degree (MAT or M.Ed)
- ◯ Specialist Degree
- ◯ Terminal Degree (Ed.D. or PhD)

6. Is teaching your second career? (Did you change careers to become a teacher?)

- ◯ yes
- ◯ no

7. How did you prepare to become a teacher?

- ◯ Traditional Educator Preparation Program (majored in education, received MAT)
- ◯ Alternative preparation program (like Teach for America)
- ◯ Other (please specify)

8. How many years have you been teaching? (If this is your first year, put 1)

# of Years

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

9. What is your gender?

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male

10. What is your age?

age in years

11. What is your race? Mark one or more.

- ☐ White
- ☐ Black or African American
- ☐ Hispanic/ Latino
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ☐ Other

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Demographics About the School

12. My school is a Title I school.

◯ yes ◯ no

13. I would classify my school as:

◯ urban ◯ suburban ◯ rural

14. Answer the following questions about YOUR students. Answer the question about the students YOU TEACH not the total population of students in your school. If you are unsure, give your best estimate.

	0	1-10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	91-99%	100%
What percent of YOUR students are English Language Learners?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
What percent of YOUR students are identified as gifted?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
What percent of YOUR students have individualized education programs (IEPs)?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
What percent of YOUR students are students of color?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
What percent of YOUR students are eligible for free or reduced lunch?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Education Policy Influence Efficacy

15. On a scale of 1 to 6, rate how much you agree with the following statements about what you can do with regards to educational policy. One (1) meaning you strongly DISAGREE with the statement and six (6) meaning you strongly AGREE with the statement.

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
When policies are implemented I disagree with, I can close my classroom door and do my own thing.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Once a federal education policy is in place, I cannot do anything to challenge it.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can contribute ideas when discussing solutions to educational problems.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can trust federal educational policy makers to make the best decision about what my students need.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can determine when to speak out about decisions made in my school.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can influence education policy by working with other teachers in groups like the National Education Association (NEA) or subject specific groups like the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE).	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Once a school policy is in place, I cannot do anything to challenge it.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can influence school leaders to consider my opinion in decision making.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can ignore my feelings when I have to implement a policy I disagree with.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When policies are implemented I disagree with, I can convince other teachers not to follow the policy.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When policies are implemented I agree with, I can convince other teachers to follow the policy.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
If I believe a policy is not in the best interest of my students, I can seem like I'm adhering to the policy, even when I'm not.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can trust school leaders to make the best decisions about what my students need.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can modify my instructional strategies to align with educational policies.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I can contact policy makers to share my insights on education.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Knowledge of Education Policy

16. One a scale of 1 to 6, rate how much do you know about each of the following educational policy topics. One (1) meaning you've never heard of it and don't know anything about it, six (6) meaning you're an expert on the subject.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)	○	○	○	○	○	○
No Child Left Behind (NCLB)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Race to the Top (RT3)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Common Core Curriculum	○	○	○	○	○	○
Individualized Education Program (IEP)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Referral process for gifted and talented students	○	○	○	○	○	○
Referral process for special education services	○	○	○	○	○	○
Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Consequences for not making AYP	○	○	○	○	○	○
Student Subgroups	○	○	○	○	○	○
Title I	○	○	○	○	○	○
Highly Qualified Teachers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teacher Effectiveness Measures	○	○	○	○	○	○
Pay for Performance/ Merit Pay	○	○	○	○	○	○
Value-added/Student-growth assessments	○	○	○	○	○	○
College and Career Readiness Index	○	○	○	○	○	○
School Choice	○	○	○	○	○	○

17. From what sources have you learned the most about the educational policy topics. Rank your top choices, 1 being where you've learned the most, 7 being where you've learned the least.

☐	Graduate or undergraduate program in education
☐	Media (News, newspapers, internet)
☐	School (faculty meetings, memos from administration)
☐	Colleagues (ie: teacher lounge discussions)
☐	Professional Development
☐	Personal research
☐	Other

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

18. What was your "other" source in the previous question?

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Goal Structures

19. Rate your agreement with the following statements about your classroom.

	Strongly disagree					Strongly Agree
In my classroom, students are told that making mistakes is OK as long as they are learning and improving.	○	○	○	○	○	○
During my class, I often provide several different activities do that students can choose among them.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, I make a special effort to recognize students' individual progress, even if they are below grade level.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, the emphasis is on really understanding the schoolwork, not just memorizing it.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I display the work of the highest achieving students as an example.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I consider how much students have improved when I give them report card grades.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, I give a wide range of assignments, matched to students' needs and skill level.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I give special privileges to students who do the best work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, a real effort is made to recognize student effort and improvement.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, a lot of the work students do is boring and repetitious.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, students hear a lot about the importance of getting high test scores.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, it's easy to tell which students get the highest grades and which students get the lowest grades.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, students who get good grades are pointed out as an example to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom students are encouraged to compete with each other academically.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Grades and test scores are not talked about a lot, in my classroom.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, the importance of trying hard is really stressed to students.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, I help students understand how their performance compares to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, students are frequently told that learning should be fun.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, a real effort is made to show students how the work they do in school is related to their lives outside of school.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my classroom, students hear a lot about the importance of making the honor roll or being recognized at honor assemblies.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Teacher Stress- Sheldon Cohen, Tom Kamarck and Robin Mermelstein Modified

20. The questions in this scale ask you about your thoughts and feelings during the last semester (this school year). In each case, you will be asked to indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way. The best approach is to answer each question fairly quickly. That is, don't try to count up the number of times you felt a particular way, but rather indicate the selection that seems like a reasonable estimate.

	never	almost never	some-times	fairly often	very often
In the last semester, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things happening at work?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
In the last semester, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle problems at work?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
In the last semester, how often ave you felt that things were going your way at work?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
In the last semester, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up sp high that you could not overcome them?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
In the last semester, how often have you felt that you were effectively coping with important changes that were occurring at work?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Teacher Efficacy- Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy

21. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below.

	Nothing	Very Little			Some Influence		Quite a Bit		A Great Deal
How much can you control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

CRTSE- Swiatu

22. Rate how confident you are that you can complete the following tasks.

	No Confidence								Completely Confident
Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students' home culture and the school culture.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Assess student learning using various types of assessments.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Use a variety of teaching methods.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Develop a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse backgrounds.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Use my students' cultural background to make learning meaningful.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Identify ways how students communicate at home may differ from school norms.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Help students develop positive relationships with their classmates.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Obtain information regarding my students academic interest.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Use the interest of my students to make learning meaningful for them.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Implement cooperative learning activities for students who like to work in groups.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Design instruction that matches my students' developmental needs.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Illustrate the connections between academic learning and real world application.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

Options

Thank you so much for completing this surey. This page will ask you for information that is OPTIONAL. This page will ask you for your contact information if you would like to be entered into the drawing, for your contact information if you would like to participate in a focus group, and some questions about the sources of your stress. You can choose to answer some or none of the questions on this page.

23. If you want to be entered into the drawing for the School Box gift certificate, please enter your email address below.

Email Address:

24. If you are willing to participate in a group interview, discussing how education policy effects your day to day classroom experiences, please enter your LAST NAME and EMAIL ADDRESS below.

Name:

Email Address:

25. On a scale of 1 to 6, rate how much you agree with the following statements about what TEACHERS can do with regards to education policy. One (1) meaning you strongly DISAGREE and six (6) meaning you strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Teachers in my school can challenge school policies once they're in place.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers can influence education policy through a variety of ways.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers determine whether or not educational policies are implemented.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers primary role in education policy is implementation.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers can make education policy.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers in the United States can challenge federal education policies once they're in place.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers in my school can influence our school policies.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers can influence educational policy through teachers' unions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers in my state can influence state educational policy.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers in the United States can influence federal education policy.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers cannot play a role in making policy.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Education Policy, Teacher Stress & Instruction

26. As a teacher, how great a source of stress are these factors to you?

	No Stress	Mild Stress	Moderate Stress	Much Stress	Extreme Stress
poor career ladder (poor promotion aspects)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
difficult class	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
lack of recognition for good teaching	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
responsibility for pupils	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
noisy pupils	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
inadequate planning periods	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
pupils' poor attitudes to work	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
inadequate salary	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
to much work to do	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
large class	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
maintaining class discipline	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
administrative work	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
pressure from parents	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
lack of involvement from parents	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
ill-defined standards/objectives	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
learning new standards	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
lack of time to spend with individual pupils	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
shortage of equipment	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
poor facilities	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
attitudes and behaviors of other teachers	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
pupils impolite behavior	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
pressure from administrators	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
having extra pupils from absent teachers	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
merit pay/ pay for performance	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
adhering to individualized education programs	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
working with English Language Learners	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Working with students with disabilities	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
working with diverse learners	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
working with gifted students	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
being evaluated based on student assessments	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Appendix B

Thematic Interview & Focus Group Protocol

Research Questions	Potential Questions/Discussion Leads

[redacted]	• Introductory remarks:
	  ○ Please tell us your chosen pseudonym?
	  ○ What grade and subject do you teach?
	  ○ How long have you been teaching?
	  ○ How did you become a teacher?
	  ○ Why did/do you want to teach?

What are teachers' perceptions of their knowledge of federal education policy, specifically key elements of IDEA, ESEA, Common Core, and RT3? From what sources is that knowledge derived? Are teachers given the space to discuss new policies?	• What do you think about the current state of education in this country? State? City?
	• What do you think about and how often do you think about:
	  ○ IDEA
	  ○ RT3
	  ○ NCLB
	  ○ Common Core
	• Where did you learn about these policies?

Is teacher perceived knowledge of education policies related to teacher stress?	• What stresses you out at work?
Is teacher perceived knowledge of policies related to classroom instruction (goal structures)? Does stress have any mediating effects on the relationship between teacher perceived policy knowledge and classroom instruction?	• Do any educational policies affect your everyday classroom practices? If so which? How? • Describe a typical day in your classroom? • How would your describe your teaching style?
What are teachers' perceptions about their ability to influence education policy? How does knowledge of education policy (or lack thereof) affect teachers' perceptions about their ability to influence education policy?	• If you could change any education policies, what would they be? Why? • Can you change education policies? How? • What is your role in the creation and/or implementation of education policy?