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Teacher Preparedness, Stress, and Subjective Well-Being in Alternative and Traditional Certification Route Teachers

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Walden University

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Shu'Chemia Bradley

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Walden University
2020

Abstract

Teacher Preparedness, Stress, and Subjective Well-Being in Alternative and Traditional

Certification Route Teachers

by

Shu'Chemia Bradley

MS, Walden University, 2014

BA, University of South Carolina Aiken, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Social Psychology

Walden University

November 2020

Abstract

Many educators who enter the teaching profession via the traditional route leave the profession early. As a result, many school districts rely on alternative certification programs to fill the teacher shortage. Though the traditional route of teacher certification contains instruction parallel to pedagogical theories and produces candidates with the opportunity to gain experience through practicums, the alternative route allows candidates to move directly into the classroom to fill teacher vacancies. The purpose of this study was to examine possible differences in teacher job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being as a function of teacher certification route. In addition, possible differences in teacher preparedness were examined as a function of certification route and time of preparedness assessment. The demand control model, self-efficacy theory, and role stress model were used as theoretical frameworks. Data were obtained from a convenience sample of 103 first year teachers within two public school districts in South Carolina. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) showed no statistically significant differences in the mean levels of job-related stress between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. A second MANOVA showed that teachers certified alternatively had significantly higher levels of each component of teacher subjective wellbeing (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, and total wellbeing). Chi square analyses showed no significant differences in teacher preparedness between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. This study may lead to positive social change by providing insight to develop strategies that reduce teacher stress, improve teacher wellbeing, and reduce teacher shortages.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband (Jaquan Williams), my daughter (Ahnesti Bradley), son (Ashton Williams), my father (Otis Bradley), and my mother (Carolyn Bradley). Your motivation, support, and encouragement made this journey possible.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Past research has examined differences in alternative and traditional certification programs relating to teacher preparedness (e.g., Linek et al., 2012). Traditional certification programs require teachers to obtain a 4-year college degree in education. Traditional programs also have a set curriculum that involves pedagogical training accompanied by a student teacher practicum/internship (Linek et al., 2012). Alternative certification programs differ by placing teachers into the classroom with little to no pedagogical training with the hope that professional support can strengthen teaching abilities (Linek et al., 2012). Candidates in alternative certification programs must have a bachelor's degree relating to a critical need area of education and must be able to pass the necessary PRAXIS exams relating to the critical area of need (Linek et al., 2012). Research has shown that due to differences in certification structure, overall teacher preparation may differ in the ability to provide effective classroom instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism (Torres & Chu, 2016).

The demands control theory and role stress model support the assumption that when teachers are not prepared to enter their profession, emotional strain and role stress can occur. Stress and burnout have been determined to be leading factors that negatively impact teacher subjective well-being (Renshaw et al., 2015). Thus, the focus of this research was the relationship between teacher-related stress, teacher preparedness, teacher subjective well-being, and teacher certification route. This study could provide educators and educational institutions insight into developing strategies to prevent teacher shortages from increasing. If lack of teacher preparedness contributes to higher levels of

stress and lower levels of teacher well-being in the education profession, then possible revisions of both traditional and alternative programs can be implemented to address this concern.

In Chapter 1, I review the background of the study, explain the problem statement, and elaborate on the purpose of the study. The theoretical framework, nature of the study, research questions and hypotheses included are also discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the operational definitions, assumptions, scope of delimitations, significance, and limitation to the study.

Background

Researchers have studied components of preparation of traditional and alternative certification route programs by examining teacher's perception of overall preparedness. For instance, abbreviated preservice preparation for teachers certified alternatively has led teachers to feel less prepared than teachers certified traditionally, so they leave the teaching profession early (Kee, 2012; Schonfeld & Feinman, 2012). Student teaching has been deemed as essential to teacher preparedness; longer field placements for student teaching provides teachers with more time to be in the instructional role to gain awareness and preparedness (Robinson, 2014). However, teachers in alternative certification programs have reported an overlap of curriculum and insufficient opportunity to apply practice as reason for difficulty with overall teacher preparedness (Koehler, Feldhaus, Fernandez, & Hundley, 2013).

According to the preparation to practice gap, when individuals enter a job with limited preparation, they experience stress and hardship that impact job performance

(Hickerson et al., 2016). Deficits in educational programs are a factor that prevent new educators from being able to meet the demands of their job (Hickerson et al., 2016). Therefore, the preparation to practice gap can describe how teachers accumulate job related stress from lack of preparation. As teachers' level of stress grows (e.g., feeling ineffective on the job, being overwhelmed, unpreparedness, and experiencing burnout), it becomes a leading reason why teachers leave the education profession (Kerlin, 2002). Perhaps due to a lack of preparedness, teachers who are alternatively certified have higher turnover rates than teachers who are traditionally certified (Sawchuk, 2016).

Teacher job-related stress can also develop from a number of sources in addition to lack of preparedness. For example, Prilleltensky et al (2016) found that teachers reported keeping up with paperwork, grading student work, and dealing with student conflicts as reasons for stress occurring. But student misbehavior was the number one stressor for teachers (Prilleltensky et al., 2016). For the purposes of this study, the specific components of job-related stress included time management, discipline and motivation, work-related stressors, and professional distress (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). Time management and work-related stressors are considered to heighten job stress when teachers experience issues with lack of preparation time, large class sizes, too much paperwork associated with their role, not enough time to devote to personal priorities (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990; Prilleltensky et al., 2016). The discipline and motivation component has been found to be the strongest factor that contributes to teacher job-related stress (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990; Prilleltensky et al., 2016). Students who misbehave and lack motivation to learn make it difficult for teachers to effectively do

their job. In addition, teachers also feel that their authority is rejected by students and other staff members. Professional distress contributes to job related stress because teachers feel that they lack promotion opportunities, respect and recognition, and professional improvement opportunities (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). Professional distress also leads to teachers feeling as if they are not adequately compensated financially for the work they do and that their opinions are not valued in the workplace.

When teachers experience an abundance of stress, it negatively impacts their ability to function healthily at work and their subjective well-being (Renshaw et al., 2015). School connectedness and teaching efficacy are two factors that impact teacher subjective well-being. School connectedness is defined as a sense of feeling supported by the school and relating well to others at school, whereas teaching efficacy is defined as how a teacher perceives themselves as effective at teaching (Renshaw et al., 2015). These two components of teacher subjective well-being were assessed in the current study.

Although previous research has noted possible differences in preparedness of teacher certification route, there is no research on preparedness, teacher job-related stress, or well-being as a function of teacher certification route. Recently, the Committee on the Study on Teacher Preparation Programs of the National Research Council stated that “research is badly needed” to compare alternative and traditional pathways to teaching (Kee, 2012). Research in this area was considered to be critical because it would bring forth knowledge on the effect different teacher preparation pathways have on K-12 student success and teacher effectiveness (Kee, 2012). This study filled this gap in literature by addressing preparedness domains that determine teacher effectiveness. Stress

and teacher well-being were also analyzed as a function of teacher certification route because previous research had determined that stress and teacher well-being are factors that impact teacher effectiveness.

Problem Statement

Many states across the United States are experiencing teacher shortages (O'Donovan, 2011). For example, Pennsylvania reported over 190 teaching vacancies during the month of October 2016 (Yaffe, 2016). Arizona, Oklahoma, Nevada, Hawaii, and Indiana are additional states that reported more than 1,000 teaching vacancies in 2016 (Will, 2016). Data analyzed by the Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning concluded that teacher shortages exist because the number of newly hired teachers have dropped to 50% since 2010 (CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2010). The number of individuals enrolled into traditional teaching certification programs has also dropped from 75,000 to 45,000 in the past 10 years (CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2010).

To recruit qualified teachers to fill the teacher shortage gap, the U.S. Department of Education (2015) developed alternative teacher certification programs. Alternative certification programs have been used formally and informally by states for more than three decades (Ludlow, 2013). These programs are inexpensive, relatively short term, and help inspiring teachers move directly into the classroom (Ludlow, 2013, Shaw, 2008). The goal of alternative certification programs is to bring forth teachers to help fill teacher vacancies; however, many educators are concerned if alternative certification programs address the problem that it was intended to fix (Koehler et al., 2013). By the end of 2009,

data had shown that teachers who entered the teaching profession through alternative certification programs were 2-and-a-half times more likely to leave the profession than teachers who entered through the traditional certification route (Sawchuk, 2016).

The ability to move teachers directly into the classroom is the most significant difference between alternative certification route programs and traditional certification route programs. In traditional certification programs it is mandatory that students complete a student teaching practicum. Teachers who completed student teaching practicums deemed it as essential because it allowed them the opportunity to take information learned from textbooks and transform that information into practice (Bainbridge & Macy, 2008). Research also revealed that teachers who completed student teacher practicums reported high levels of teacher preparedness and credited their student teaching practicum in this regard (Bainbridge & Macy, 2008). In contrast, teachers from alternative certification programs reported that preparation for classroom management was challenging because of disconnect between theory and reality (Koehler et al., 2013). Teachers from alternative certification programs also reported an overlap of curriculum and insufficient opportunity to apply practice, which led to lack of overall preparedness, though they were still skilled in lesson planning (Koehler et al., 2013).

Deficits in educational programs have prevented new educators from being able to adequately perform the demands of their job, which leads to stress (Hickerson et al., 2016). Research has shown that teacher stress can be detrimental to both the student and the teacher because when teachers are stressed it impacts their teaching performance and students do not receive adequate lessons (Kerlin, 2002). However, despite present

research on teacher preparedness, stress in teachers, and subjective well-being, there is no research examining stress levels, subjective well-being, and teacher preparedness related to teacher certification route. Analyzing stress, preparedness, and teacher well-being are analyzed as a function of teacher certification route in this study provided insight into whether differences in certification programs alleviated teacher stress, strengthened well-being, and strengthened preparedness once teachers enter the education profession. This study addressed this gap in literature by comparing stress levels, subjective well-being measurements, and teacher preparedness between teachers certified alternatively and teachers certified traditionally.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to determine whether there were differences in levels of teacher job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being as a function of teacher certification route. In addition, possible differences in teacher preparedness were examined as function of teacher certification route and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment). The teacher preparedness assessment is given in the fall and spring of the school year. This variable would determine how preparedness changes over time. Though previous research offers insight into how teacher preparedness and stress impacts teacher's performance and their decision to remain in the education profession, there is no research examining teachers who have been alternatively certified versus traditionally certified. To address this gap, I examined the impact of teacher certification route (independent variable) on teacher job-related stress (dependent variable) and teacher subjective well-being (dependent

variable). I also examined teacher preparedness (dependent variable) as a function of teacher certification route (independent variable) and time of teacher preparedness assessment (independent variable).

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to time management, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀1: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to time management between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

H₁1: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to time management between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers

Research Question 2: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to discipline and motivation, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀2: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to discipline and motivation between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

H₁2: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to discipline and motivation between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 3: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to work stressors, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

*H*₀₃: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to work stressors between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

*H*₁₃: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to work stressors between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 4: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to professional distress, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

*H*₀₄: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to professional distress between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

*H*₁₄: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to professional distress between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 5: Is there a difference in levels of teacher subjective well-being (school connectedness), as measured by the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

*H*₀₅: There is no significant difference in subjective well-being (school connectedness) between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

*H*₁₅: There is a significant difference in subjective well-being (school connectedness) between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers

Research Question 6: Is there a difference in teacher subjective well-being (teacher efficacy), as measured by the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₆: There is no significant difference in teacher subjective well-being (teacher efficacy) between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₆: There is a significant difference in teacher subjective well-being (teacher efficacy) between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 7: Is there a difference in total teacher subjective well-being, as measured by the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₇: There is no significant difference in total teacher subjective well-being between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₇: There is a significant difference in total teacher subjective well-being between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 8: Is there a difference in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism), as measured by the preliminary assessment phase of the Assisting, Developing and Evaluating Professional Teachers (ADEPT) Performance Standard Assessment, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₈: There is no significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the preliminary assessment phase.

H₁₈: There is a significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the preliminary assessment phase.

Research Question 9: Is there a difference in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism), as measured by the final

assessment phase of the Assisting, Developing and Evaluating Professional Teachers (ADEPT) Performance Standard Assessment, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.?

H₀9: There is no significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the final assessment phase.

H₁9: There is a significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the final assessment phase.

Theoretical Framework

The demands control model and self-efficacy theory were used to interpret the influence of teacher certification route (independent variable) on teacher job-related stress, teacher subjective well-being, and teacher preparedness. Job-related stress, teacher subjective well-being, and teacher preparedness can be impacted by teacher certification route because of differences in job training, job demand, and job control. The demands-control model proposes that job demands and job control are key components that contribute to the stress-strain relationship (Karasek, 1979). Job demand is referred to as the aspect of the job that requires excessive effort physically, emotionally, and psychologically. Job control is referred to as the ability to have control of the demands of the job (Karasek, 1979). The demand control model predicts that excessive demands of the job create strain but if an individual has a high level of job control then the amount of strain is reduced (Karasek, 1979). Research has also shown that self-efficacy impacts the demand control model (Karasek, 1979). Individuals with higher self-efficacy are able to

control the strain created from the demand of the job whereas those with lower self-efficacy have more difficulty (Karasek, 1979).

The role stress model also guided this study. The role stress model proposes that role conflict is related to role overload (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Role conflict occurs when the work demands are incompatible, making it difficult to identify the duties of the job. Role overload occurs when the ability to meet commitment and responsibilities of the job is influenced by lack of resources (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Because role conflict and role overload are two important stressors in organizational life, this model helps to understand how different teacher preparation routes may produce differences in teachers' ability to control role conflict and role overload (Karasek, 1979).

Time management, discipline and motivation, work stressors, and professional distress are factors that can contribute to role stress. Domains of teaching preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) can result in difficulty with the ability for teachers to meet the demands of their job. The theoretical framework includes these components of job-related stress. Research questions were developed to measure these variables (measures of job-related stress and teacher preparedness).

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study is quantitative using a nonexperimental survey design. The independent variable is teacher certification route (traditional, alternative). Current levels of teacher job-related stress (time management, discipline and motivation, work stressors, professional distress) and teacher well-being (school connectedness, teacher

efficacy, total wellbeing) will serve as dependent variables. Possible differences in teacher stress and well-being as a function of certification route were analyzed using two one-way multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVAs). In addition, the independent variables of certification route (traditional or alternative) and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment) was used to examine possible differences in teacher preparedness (instruction planning, classroom management, and professionalism). Possible differences in teacher preparedness was analyzed using multiple chi square test.

Teacher job-related stress was measured using the Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990), and teacher subjective well-being was measured using the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire (Renshaw et al., 2015). A quantitative stress survey is the most effective method of measuring stress because the characteristics of a large population can be described (Creswell, 2009). The survey was administered to participants in electronic format. Participants were contacted via e-mail and provided the link to take the Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Well-Being Questionnaire.

Teacher preparedness was measured from scores on the ADEPT Performance Assessment (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). The four domains of teacher preparedness that were measured are instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism. Multiple chi square test was used to test for possible differences related to teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) as a function of teacher certification route and time of

the ADEPT assessment (preliminary and final assessment). Because the preliminary and final stage of the ADEPT Performance Assessment take place in the fall and spring of the school year, data collection was planned to take place after the final assessment was administered. Participants were asked to indicate whether they passed or failed each component of the ADEPT Performance Assessment and provide their overall status of passed or failed for the preliminary and final assessment. To maintain confidentiality, participants' names were removed from the data and coded by participant number.

Operational Definitions

Alternative certification: A state created program that recruit individuals with a bachelor's degree outside of education into the education profession (Reese, 2010).

Candidates who are licensed to teach through this route must not only have a bachelor's degree but must also pass a screening process and engage in job training while working as a teacher in the education profession (Reese, 2010).

Classroom management: A component of teaching that relates to creating and maintaining a classroom environment conducive to learning (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). This includes setting rules, managing behavior and creating structure within the classroom.

Instruction: A component of teaching that consist of implementing lessons appropriate and meaningful to the student (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). Instruction also involves the ability to reflect on student performance and determine the appropriate lesson to facilitate and foster learning.

Planning: A component of teaching that drives the process of implementing instruction (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). Planning also consists of determining what students need to know and conducting the appropriate lesson.

Professionalism: The ability for teachers to assume responsibility for continual improvement in the education profession (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). Professionalism is also the ability for teachers to share their professional knowledge and skills to benefit the student.

Teacher job-related stress: Stress that occurs when teachers have difficulties performing task or meeting the demands of their job (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990).

Teacher preparedness: A teacher's perception in their ability to effectively master instruction, planning, classroom management and responsibilities within the education profession (Kee, 2012).

Teacher subjective well-being: overall measure of teacher's positive psychological functioning at work (Renshaw et al., 2015).

Traditional certification: Traditional certification programs are defined as a 4-year Bachelor of Arts or science degree program geared towards preparing individuals for the profession of education. Traditional programs are comprised of several components: a series of general education courses, a focus area of courses in education, a total of 180 hours of field experiences, a semester of student teaching or internship within a school, and a passing score on content/grade related praxis exams. Teachers from traditional programs can choose from certification in the follow areas: early childhood, elementary education, middle school education, secondary education, or K-12. Traditional teacher

certification programs are governed by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, which both ensure that colleges and universities are creating an extensive awareness that teacher education is grounded in a framework of defined standards and appropriate assessments (Reese, 2010).

Assumptions

There are several assumptions relevant for this study. I assumed that all participants would complete the Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire and would answer honestly. Participants were provided with a statement addressing the importance of answer each item on the scale honestly. Ensuring participants of this importance supports the assumption that each item would be answered with integrity and honesty.

It was also assumed that the participants would carefully read and understand the items as they are written and that their answers reflect what the item intends to measure. I assumed that the Teacher Stress Inventory, Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, and ADEPT Performance Assessment would measure what they were intended to measure. All reliability and validity information are presented in Chapter 3.

It was assumed that when both the public school districts that participated in this study were contacted to recruit participants that each school district would only recommend first-year teachers. It was also assumed that each school district followed the correct process associated with the ADEPT Performance Assessment and that scores on the assessment were reported accurately. The assumptions were necessary in the context

of this study because it ensured validity of the study and allowed the results to be generalized.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this quantitative research included first-year teacher responses to survey questions that measure teacher job related stress. Teacher's score on the ADEPT Performance Assessment were also used. First year teachers were chosen as the population to participate in this study because this population of teachers are new to the teaching profession and have no prior experience to teaching after completion of their certification route program. Limiting the study to first-year teachers controlled for confounding variables such as experience to alter results of the study.

Choosing to recruit participants from two public school districts in the state of South Carolina was determined due to convenience sampling but also because the two districts mirror organization, structure, and routines. Due to using convenience sampling in this study, the ability to generalize the results may be reduced. However, the diversity within the two public school districts strengthened the generalizability of the results. Both school districts are diverse and employ teachers of different races, ethnicities, and backgrounds. Efforts were made to ensure that the teachers selected to participate in this study reflected the diverse population of teachers employed within the districts.

The ADEPT Performance Assessment is based primarily on observations being conducted on teachers using a research-based rubric. Ensuring that the two school districts are conducting observations in the same fashion multiple times throughout the

school year ensures that scores on the ADEPT Performance Assessment are being reported accurately.

Limitations

There are threats to validity that exist in this study. In this study, maturation could have impacted internal validity. The participants in this study were given a preliminary and final assessment (ADEPT) to measure teacher preparedness across the school year. The variation in time could have changed the physical or mental maturation of the participants in the study as opposed to the independent variable (teacher certification route). Because of this, it may be difficult to conclude whether certification route impacted teacher preparedness. The Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire were administered to participants in an online survey format. Because the survey was administered in an uncontrolled setting, there could have been factors in that setting that influenced participants responses such as accessibility usage, lack of having a conscientious response to questions on the survey, and social desirability bias (Creswell, 2009). To control for factors such as social desirability, participants were reminded that their responses would be confidential. In terms of researcher bias, I have been employed by one of the public school districts in this study for 5 years. I have also undergone the ADEPT process. But this school district has over 50 schools. For the purpose of this study, the participants were not recruited from the school where I am employed. By doing so, researcher biases was addressed.

There are also threats to external validity. Because the environment and culture of schools are different, teachers employed by different schools within a district may

experience different outcomes, stressors, or situations in the workplace. This makes it difficult to generalize the results to the population of educators certified traditionally or alternatively because there maybe extenuating variables that could influence the participants in this study response on the Teacher Stress Inventory, Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, or the ADEPT performance analysis.

Significance

Recent data show that 11% of U.S. teachers leave the profession during their first year of teaching, and 39% leave the profession over the first 5 years (Dupriez et al., 2016). To address the teacher shortage across the United States, there were more than 465 alternative teacher certification programs developed (Schonfeld & Feinman, 2012). Stress and burnout have been determined to be leading factors that negatively impact teacher subjective well-being and reasons why teachers leave the teaching profession (Renshaw et al., 2015). It is imperative that stress, preparedness, and teacher well-being are analyzed as a function of teacher certification route because it will provide insight into whether differences in certification programs alleviated teacher stress, strengthened well-being and strengthened preparedness once teachers were employed in the education profession. This study is important because an analysis of these variables in relation to teacher certification route will be a gateway to understanding why teacher shortages exist. This study may have positive social change implications for teachers and educational institutions who can use the results to develop strategies to prevent teacher shortage. If lack of teacher preparedness contributes to higher levels of stress and lower

levels of teacher well-being in the education profession, then possible revisions of both traditional and alternative programs can be implemented to address this concern.

Summary

In Chapter 1, I reviewed background information pertaining to teacher shortages, which exist because teachers experience burnout. Factors related to burnout were stress and lack of preparation. The purpose of this study was to examine a possible difference in teacher job- related stress, teacher subjective well-being, and preparedness as a function of teacher certification route (alternative vs traditional). The demands control model, role stress model, and self-efficacy theory were used as theoretical framework. The demands control model and role stress model both reveal that when employees cannot perform the duties or meet the demands of their job, stress occurs. Self-efficacy theory states that those with lower self-efficacy have more difficulty performing the duties of their job. Chapter 2 will further elaborate on the theories that support this study as well as provide a review of the current literature pertaining to teacher shortages/burnout, teacher certification route, teacher stress, and teacher preparedness.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Many states across the United States are experiencing teacher shortages (O'Donovan, 2011). The number of newly hired teachers have dropped to 50% since 2010 (CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2010). Further, the number of individuals enrolled into traditional teaching certification programs have dropped from 75,000 to 45,000 in the past 10 years (CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2010). In effort to recruit qualified teachers to fill the teacher shortage gap, the U.S. Department of Education developed alternative teacher certification programs (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). The goal of alternative certification programs is to bring forth teachers to help fill teacher vacancies; however, since the rise of alternative certification programs many educators are concerned if alternative certification programs address the problem that it was intended to fix (Koehler et al., 2013.)

Alternative certification programs differ from traditional certification programs in the duration of content that is taught and the absence of student teacher practicums (Kee, 2012; Shaw, 2008). Teachers from alternative certification programs have reported an overlap of curriculum and insufficient opportunity to apply practice as reason for difficulty with overall teacher preparedness (Koehler et al., 2013). Research has also revealed that teachers who completed student teacher practicums reported higher levels of teacher preparedness and credited their student teaching practicum in this regard (Bainbridge & Macy, 2008). Thus, lack of preparation in the workforce can be explained

by the preparation to practice gap. The preparation to practice gap defines how deficits in educational programs caused stress and prevented new educators from being able to adequately perform the demands of their job (Hickerson et al., 2016).

Despite present research on teacher preparedness and stress in teachers, there is no research examining stress levels and teacher preparedness related to the type of teacher certification route. The purpose of this study was to use a quantitative approach to examine possible differences in levels of stress, teacher well-being, and teacher preparedness between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers. Though research offers insight into how teacher preparedness and stress impacts teachers' performance and their decision to remain in the profession, there is no research on teachers who have been alternatively certified versus traditionally certified. To address this gap, this study focused on teacher preparedness, stress, and teacher certification route.

Chapter 2 includes an overview of the relationship between teacher certification routes, teacher preparedness, and stress. Chapter 2 begins with an analysis of literature that establishes a link between job demand, job control, job strain and role stress in the workplace. The demand control model, self-efficacy theory, role stress model are discussed to explain how individuals cope differently with job stress and strain. This chapter further includes analyses on components of teacher preparedness, stress and teacher certification route to explain their connection to teacher shortages.

Literature Review Strategy

Walden University's Library was used to locate peer reviewed articles. The following databases were used: PsycInfo, psycARTICLES, and EBSCOHOST,

Education Source, and ERIC. Keywords used to locate articles were *alternative licensure, job stress, teacher stress, teacher preparedness, traditional licensure, job demand, job control, role stress, demand control model, student teacher practicums, and preparation to practice gap, ADEPT, instruction, professionalism and teacher shortage*. Articles were selected within a 10-year publication timeframe. Major emphasis was placed on articles published within the last 5 years.

Theoretical Foundation

This study is based on the theoretical foundation of the demands control model, role stress model, and self-efficacy theory. These models and theories were used to support the hypothesis of there being a significant difference in the stress levels of traditional versus alternative certified teachers.

Demands Control Model

The demand control model was developed by Karasek and Theorell (1979) to explain how job demand and job control interact to create strain and stress in the workplace. To fully understand the model, the terminology associated with job demand, job control, and job strain must be defined. Job demand is referred to as the aspect of the job that requires excessive effort physically, emotionally, and psychologically. Job control is referred to as the ability to have control of the demands of the job (Karasek, 1979). Job strain refers to the physical and psychological hardship that corresponds with a worker's inability to meet the demands of the job.

The demand control model predicts that excessive demands of the job create strain but if an individual has a high level of job control then the amount of strain is

reduced (Karasek, 1979). An essential component of the demand control model is the social support component known as the iso-strain model. This model proposed that social support influences job strain by buffering the effects of job demands. In jobs where the demands are high, the control is low, and the social support is low; job strain is thus considered to more prevalent. The demands control model also proposes that an individual learns and grows when job-demands and control are high (Karasek, 1979).

Previous researchers have used and examined the demand controls model, offering criticisms and expanding or supporting the model. Kwakman (2001) analyzed the stress and learning portion of the demand control model and found that the model better explained stress than it did learning. Kwakman concluded that work-based variables and other task characteristics should be considered to determine whether learning results from high job demands and high job control. Fernet et al. (2004) also used the model to examine job demand, job control, and self-determination and found that each variable was related to a dimension of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). Job control moderated job demands that contributed to emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization for employees with high levels of work self-determination (Fernet et al., 2004). Further, Verhofstadt et al. (2017) examined work experience in the demand control model and found that job control grew stronger as the years of work experience increased.

Pomaki and Anagnostopoulou (2003) also tested the iso-strain portion of demand control model and found that job demands were essential to a teacher's physical and

psychological health. They also found control to be associated with job satisfaction. In cases where job demands were high, data showed low personal accomplishment. With regard to social support, it alleviates jobs strain (Pomaki & Anagnostopoulou, 2003).

Additionally, the demands control model has been essential to understanding emotional exhaustion, but the concept of emotional labor had not been studied. Emotional labor consists of three strategies: suppression, surface acting, and emotional consonance (Naring et al., 2006). Naring et al. (2006) studied emotional labor together with variables (high job demands, low possibilities to regulate one's work, little support) of the demand control model and dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). Results showed that when workers pretend to display emotions that they do not feel (surface acting) because it is deemed appropriate for the situation (emotional consonance), work stress occurs (Naring et al., 2006). Surface acting and suppression were also found to be significantly related to depersonalization (Naring et al., 2006). Emotional consonance was found to be useful in gaining an understanding of personal accomplishment (Naring et al., 2006). Naring et al.'s findings offer an additional perspective than the demand control model to understanding work stress.

Research pertaining to certification route and lack of preparedness supported the need to measure job demands of teaching preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) as a function of teacher certification route. Torres and Chu (2016) analyzed alternative certification programs and found that because of limited time and training, these programs are inadequate at preparing teachers for the classroom and the rigor of teaching. Kee (2012) also found that alternative certified teachers were

less prepared to teach effectively when compared to traditionally certified teachers.

Domains of teaching preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) are addressed in the current study as a function of teacher certification route. The demands control model supported the research questions and variables because it lays foundation for further analysis to be conducted in reference to how job demands contribute to job strain when teachers are not trained properly before entering the teaching profession.

Role Stress Model

The role stress model builds on the demands control model. Illgen and Hollenbeck (1991) analyzed stress in relation to roles in the workplace and hypothesized that stress occurs when role conflict and role ambiguity are present. Role conflict occurs when two or more work demands are incompatible. Role ambiguity occurs when the functions and responsibilities associated with the role of the job is unclear. Role conflict and role ambiguity drive the role stress model which proposes that role conflict is related to role overload (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Role overload occurs when the ability to meet commitment and responsibilities of the job is influenced by lack of resources (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991).

Chang and Chang (2007) further analyzed the role stress model by comparing it to job performance and service capability. They found a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job performance. Findings demonstrated that when employees reported higher role ambiguity (an unclear understanding of their job roles) their job performance decreased. Chang and Chang also found a positive correlation between service skills and

job performance; as reported levels of service skill increased job performance increased. The authors concluded that employees tended to perform well in areas related to their professional skill (Chang & Chang, 2007).

Time management, discipline and motivation, work stressors, and professional distress are variables measured in this study that research has found to contribute to role conflict and job stress within the teaching profession. The study built on the role stress model by analyzing the independent variable (teacher certification route) and its impact on role stress within the teaching profession.

Self-Efficacy Theory

There is much evidence that suggests that individual differences and personal characteristics impact the relationship between demands and control (Salnova et al., 2002). The self-efficacy theory was developed by Bandura (1977) to explain how one's belief in their own abilities influences how they succeed in certain situations. Self-efficacy theory describes various characteristics associated with those who have high and low self-efficacy. Bandura proposed that individuals with low self-efficacy portray task to be harder than they are, which results in increased stress. Bandura also proposed that those with low self-efficacy often give up on task when presented with obstacles. In contrast, those with high self-efficacy are optimistic and show greater effort when presented with obstacles. Individuals with higher self-efficacy often associate failure with external factors whereas individuals with low self-efficacy blame their abilities for failure (Bandura, 1977).

Research has shown that individuals with higher self-efficacy can control strain created from the demand of the job whereas those with lower self-efficacy have more difficulty (Karasek, 1979). When referencing the teaching profession, personal and psychological concerns can impact teachers' self-esteem and self-efficacy. For example, when novice teachers experience a sense of isolation and community on the school level, it results in feelings of despair and devalue in work performance (McCarthy et al., 2014).

Previous researchers have studied the effects of self-efficacy in relation to teaching. Tuxford and Bradley (2015) hypothesized that jobs producing emotional demands contributes to emotional exhaustion, which can be buffered by social support and self-efficacy. Enhancing self-efficacy is significant at helping teachers manage exhaustion or strain associated with the role of their job (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). Demirdag (2015) also studied the relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction in teachers using a job satisfaction scale with subscales including pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating, coworkers, nature of work and communication. Though results revealed no meaningful relationship between job satisfaction and teacher self-efficacy, findings suggested that school leaders place more emphasis on taking steps to increase job satisfaction and self-efficacy in middle school teachers (Demirdag, 2015).

In relation to teaching experience, researchers have noted differences in self-efficacy between first-year teachers depending on their certification and whether teaching was their first career. Fox and Peter (2013) studied the first-year experience of alternative and traditional certified teachers and found that traditional certified teachers rated their

first experience as more satisfying than compared to alternative certified teachers.

Troesch and Bauer (2017) also studied job satisfaction and self-efficacy among first career (teachers who pursued a career in teaching first) and second career teachers (teachers who had previous careers before teaching). Results showed that second career teachers were more satisfied with their job and experienced less stress than first career teachers (Troesch & Bauer, 2017). Because second career teachers develop well in their new careers, they are able to maintain their self-efficacy and cope with the demands of their job; career path was also a moderating factor (Troesch & Bauer, 2017).

Teacher efficacy and school connectedness are variables found to contribute to a teacher's sense of self-efficacy. The research questions in this study built on the theory of self-efficacy theory by analyzing the independent variable (teacher certification route) and its impact self-efficacy in the teaching profession.

Summary of Theories

The demand control model, role stress model, and self-efficacy theory, provided a framework to explain how differences in the program structure of alternative and traditional certification routes may produce differences in a teacher's ability to tackle job demands, maintain job control, and prevent role conflict from occurring in the workplace. Because alternative and traditional certification routes differ in the method of teacher preparation, the differences in preparation could impact the self-efficacy of teachers from these programs. When individuals are not prepared to meet the demands of their job or manage role conflict, they experience stress and strain. Research indicates that teachers' self-efficacy is related to emotional exhaustion at the beginning of their careers

(Oberennan et al., 2017). As their careers continue overtime, the likelihood for stress and strain also increases (Oberennan et al., 2017). In other words, teachers who are not prepared at the beginning of their careers are more likely to experience stress and strain overtime.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

Teacher Shortage and Burnout

The theoretical foundation supports the assumption that job demands, job role conflict, and self-efficacy influence an individual's job performance and stress levels, which can explain why teacher shortages are prevalent across the United States. With so many teachers leaving the teaching profession; the need to bring teachers into the profession becomes essential. However, fewer individuals have entered the teaching progression and that over the last decade enrollment in teacher preparation programs has dropped 35 percent nationwide (Berry et al., 2017). Researchers have found that approximately 30% of teachers who complete teaching programs leave the profession within their first 3 years of teaching (Elliot et al., 2010).

Researchers have identified many reasons related to the teacher shortage. The oldest and youngest teachers are more than likely to leave the profession early (Dupriez et al., 2016). Additionally, teachers often leave the profession because they fail to adjust to the demands of teaching (Ewing & Smith, 2003). Classroom management has been considered as the greatest demand of teaching that teachers faced (Ewing & Smith, 2003). Burnout has also been deemed as a leading reason for teachers leaving the profession (Steiner, 2014). Burnout is a job-related syndrome which prevails in three

dimensions: emotional exhaustion reduced personal accomplishment and depersonalization (Steiner, 2014). Emotional exhaustion occurs when one feels emotionally drained by work frequently during the work week (Steiner, 2014). Reduced personal accomplishment occurs when individuals devalue their work performance. Depersonalization occurs when an individual's attitude hardens and they become unsympathetic to components of their job (Steiner, 2014). The experience of burnout has been associated with low levels of self-efficacy in the ability to motivate, discipline and instruct students (Oberennan et al., 2017). When teachers experience a crisis in self-efficacy, they lack confidence in their ability to teach (Oberennan et al., 2017).

Haberman (2005) developed a behavioral definition of burnout and defined it as a condition in which teachers remain as paid employees but stop functioning as professionals. According to Haberman (2005), when teachers experience burnout they start to believe that they are not valuable or that the work they do will not make a difference in the lives of their students. This reduces their sense of self-efficacy and also results in teaching with no emotional commitment (Haberman, 2005). Steiner (2014) also discovered that when teachers suffer from burnout it becomes difficult for them to give themselves to students the way they once could (Steiner, 2014). In other words, when teachers experience burnout they begin to physically distance themselves from students and develop uninviting attitudes towards them (Steiner, 2014). They also begin to develop negative images of their students and feel as if they are not making a difference in their students' lives (Steiner, 2014).

Teacher stress and burnout are recognized as key factors that contribute to physical illness, early retirement, and absence from the teaching profession (Steiner, 2014). Teachers also reported that they left the teaching profession because they felt devalued under constant stress (Berry et al., 2017). Researchers argue that until states improve teacher preparation and working conditions states will continue to experience teacher shortages (Berry, et al., 2017). Increasing teacher preparation will increase teacher effectiveness and reduce stress; hence reducing shortages (Berry et al., 2017).

Teacher Certification Route

Since rise of teacher shortages, the US Department of Education has restructured the avenue for individuals to become certified teachers. In the past, traditional programs were the only option to seek teacher certification. Traditional certification programs are defined as a four-year Bachelor of Arts or science degree program geared towards preparing individuals for the profession of education. Traditional programs are comprised of several components: a series of general education courses, a focus area of courses in education, a total of 180 hours of field experiences, a semester of student teaching or internship within a school, and a passing score on content/grade related praxis exams. Teachers from traditional programs could choose from certification in the follow areas: early childhood, elementary education, middle school education, secondary education, or K-12. Traditional teacher certification programs are governed by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. Together the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education and National Board for Professional Teaching Standards ensure that colleges and universities

are creating an extensive awareness that teacher education is grounded in a framework of defined standards and appropriate assessments (Reese, 2010).

Because of lack of enrollment into teacher preparation programs and teachers leaving the profession, teacher shortages have risen. To remedy this problem, the US Department of Education created alternative certification program. Alternative certification was developed based off of the assumption that if an individual has content knowledge in an area, then that individual is able to become an expert teacher in the classroom (Elliott et al., 2010). It is proposed that pedagogical knowledge can be acquired by other means besides coursework and that teachers learn to teach by practicing the craft; not by coursework (Peterson & Nadler, 2009). Research has shown that approximately one third of new teachers enter the teaching profession through alternative certification routes (Consuegra et al., 2014)

Each state develops and structures an alternative program. For the purpose of this study, the development of the Program of Alternative Certification for Educators (PACE) in the state of SC will be discussed (South Carolina Department of Education, 2017). In South Carolina, the PACE program recruit candidates who hold a bachelor's degree in an area parallel to a critical need area defined by the state (South Carolina Department of Education, 2017). Critical need areas in the state of South Carolina include math, science, special education, physical education, and foreign languages. If the candidate's degree is parallel to a critical need area, then that individual is asked to complete proper paperwork and would be given a list of Praxis exams that he or she would have to gain a passing score. Once the individual earns a passing score, he or she would be given a statement of

eligibility which verifies that he or she has met qualification to be hired as an educator (South Carolina Department of Education, 2017). If the candidate is hired by a school district, the candidate is then offered admission into the program. South Carolina's PACE program is a total of 3 years. The candidate must remain in a teaching position throughout the 3 years of the program (South Carolina Department of Education, 2017). During year 1 the candidate attends two 10-day trainings which provide a condensed version of courses in instruction, planning, classroom management, etc. The candidate must complete assignments and pass both 10-day trainings. In between the trainings are weekend seminars that also consist of assignments that must meet a passing score (South Carolina Department of Education, 2017). During the 2 and 3rd year, candidates are asked to complete 3 college courses that correspond to their certification area. At the end of the 3rd year, candidates are able to apply for professional certification if he or she has meet requirements, earned a passing score on the Principals of Learning and Teaching Exam and pass ADEPT evaluations conducted by their employing school district.

As stated earlier, each state has a different protocol for candidates to obtain alternative certification. However, the common feature and benefit of alternative programs is the ability to move teachers directly into the classroom versus having them complete the necessary training and education before becoming employed (Kee, 2012; Shaw, 2008). The preparation component of traditional versus alternative certification programs differ significantly. Because of the diversity of teacher preparation, this brings forth the question of if teachers from alternative certification programs are less, more, or

equally prepared to begin their careers as educators compared to those of traditional certification programs.

Research has shown that teachers who obtained certification from traditional programs reported that student teaching internships were essential because it allowed them the opportunity to take information learned from textbooks and transform that information into practice (Bainbridge & Macy, 2008). Robinson (2014) analyzed student teaching in traditional certification programs and deemed it as essential to teacher preparedness. This study found that longer field placements for student teachers provided teachers with more time to be in the instructional role to gain awareness and preparedness. Similarly, Bainbridge and Macy (2008) also revealed that teachers who completed student teacher internships reported high levels of teacher preparedness. Research has also shown that traditional certified teachers displayed higher levels of pedagogical competency and showed greater confidence in their teaching ability (Schonfeld & Feinman, 2012).

Hassan, Khaled and Kaabi (2010) analyzed student's perception of preparedness after leaving their traditional certification programs. They conducted surveys and interviews with 84 graduates who majored in education. When asked to rate their how prepared they were at providing instruction to their students, 79.4% percent reported that they were highly prepared (Hassan et al., 2010). When asked what helped to foster a sense of preparedness, the participants reported that field experiences made them well prepared to teach. They reported that the student teaching opportunities increased their

ability to teach and provided them with real world classroom experience (Hassan et al., 2010).

In contrast to preparedness found in teachers who have been traditionally certified, teachers from alternative certification programs reported an overlap of curriculum and insufficient opportunity to apply practice as reason for difficulty with their overall teacher preparedness (Koehler et al., 2013). Alternative certified teachers also reported issues with connecting theory to reality when placed in the teaching workforce (Koehler et al., 2013). The most challenging component of teacher preparedness for alternative certified teachers was classroom management. Teachers certified alternatively also expressed issues with lack of experience and reported that they had to learn as they teach (Elliott et al., 2010). Elliot, et al. (2010) studied alternative and traditional certification programs and concluded that alternative certification programs produced poor quality teachers. Elliot also found that teachers certified alternatively were more likely to leave the profession within 3 years compared to those who were certified traditionally.

Teachers from alternative and traditional certification programs may experience differences in meeting job demands and managing role conflict due to differences in teacher preparedness. Differences in preparedness can create emotional exhaustion and burnout. Sawchuk (2016) analyzed turnover rates of teachers who have alternative certification and discovered that they have higher turnover rates than teachers who were traditionally certified. The next section will discuss factors associated with the high turnover rate of teachers.

Teacher Stress

Tahseen (2015) defines stress as a connection between a person and the environment that when threatened with a difficult situation, a physical or emotional response occurs. Stress can affect a person in every aspect of life such as work and interpersonal relationship. For the purpose of this study, stress was analyzed in the work environment of teachers.

All jobs, in some shape or form, can cause stress (Tasheen, 2015). Work related stress is a crucial concern for the wellbeing of employees but also to the overall performance of a company or organization (Tasheen, 2015). Stress has been categorized into two categories: positive (good) and negative (bad). For example, positive stress could be promotion or challenge whereas negative stress could be anxiety or disappointment. The interpretation of stress being positive or negative depends upon the individual's perception which in returns determines if the response would be positive or negative (Tasheen, 2015).

There is current research that analyzes job dynamics in relations to teacher stress. Because teacher's work is based on interactions with students, parents and the community; stress has been discovered to be more frequent and serious when compared to other professions (Tasheen, 2015). Research has shown that administrative, classroom, and personal stressors were the key factors that contributed to teacher related stress (Tasheen, 2015). In terms of administration, teacher's perception of their role within the school and with administrators was discovered to be important in predicting job stress (Tasheen, 2015). Personal stressors such as time management, shifting in education

policies, and heavy workloads were discovered to be key factors that contributed to teacher stress (Tasheen, 2015). Clement (2007) also found that teachers reported the feeling of not being appreciated by administrators, parents, and the public as a large contributing factor to the stress. Kriacou (2001) found that dealing with work colleagues, role conflict ambiguity, and teaching students who lack motivation to be key factors that contribute to teacher stress. Teaching students with demanding needs without enough support as well as feeling the constant pressure of always being held accountable for students were also factors that contributed to teacher stress (Richards, 2013).

Prilleltensky et al. (2016) also studied stress and found that teachers reported keeping up with paperwork, grading student work and dealing with student conflicts as reasons for stress occurring (Prilleltensky et al., 2016). Student misbehavior was the number one stressor for teachers (Prilleltensky et al., 2016). Teacher doubts and worries about personal competence, and feelings of insufficient job preparation were also discovered as reasons for stress occurring (Prilleltensky et al., 2016).

Haberman (2005) studied how stress affects teachers and found that 20% of the teachers he studied reported that they drink too much and 15 % admitted to being alcoholics. Haberman (2005) also found that 25% of the teachers in his study reported stress related problems such as hypertension, insomnia and depression. It was also noted that 17% of the teachers from his study suffered from nervous breakdowns (Haberman, 2005).

Black (2003) studied teacher stress and discovered strategies that could help alleviate stress. Reasonable workloads, frequent breaks, elimination of tedious task,

allowing teachers to focus on teaching the classroom, and ensuring that the school environment is safe were a few strategies deemed effective at reducing teaching stress (Black, 2003).

Teacher Preparedness

Research by Cassell (1984) discovered that inadequate teacher preparation and ineffective school management contributes to burnout and stress occurring in teachers. For this reason, it is important to analyze teacher preparation programs and its impact on teacher preparedness. Studies on teacher preparation programs have found significant differences in overall perceptions of preparedness. Torres and Chu (2016) analyzed alternative certification programs and found that because of limited time and training, these programs are inadequate at preparing teachers for the classroom and the rigor of teaching. Torres and Chu sampled 1076 teachers and found that 18% of the teachers who were alternatively certified reported that their preparation programs were poor at preparation whereas 9% of teachers who were traditionally certified reported their program being poor at preparation (Torres & Chu, 2016).

Consuegra et al. (2014) also examined first year teachers but placed focus on those from alternative certification programs. Consuegra et al. (2014) found that teachers from the alternative certification program reported that their work environment was not a stimulating learning environment. Findings from Consuegra et al. (2014) are important because alternative programs are assumed to prepare teachers while having them work in their profession. If teachers are reporting an absence of stimulating learning environment

than adequate preparation from alternative certification programs becomes questionable (Consuegra et al., 2014).

Scott (2009) evaluated the ACT (an alternative certification program in Georgia) using principles and guidelines from the American Evaluation Association and the Joint Committee's Program Evaluation Standards. Scott found that the ACT program was effective at producing well-prepared teachers in Georgia's middle and high school classrooms. Scott (2009) also found that teachers from alternative certification programs demonstrated strength in faculty support and their ability to mentor students.

Moffett and Davis (2014) studied alternative and traditional certification programs to investigate the difference in teacher preparedness. Results from their study found no difference in overall preparedness of alternative and traditional certified teachers. However, Moffett and Davis (2014) did find mentorship to be significantly different between alternative and traditional certified teachers; which directly effects teacher preparation. These findings conclude the importance of support for teachers certified alternatively once they are employed.

In contrast, Kee (2012) found that alternative certified teachers were less prepared to teach effectively when compared to traditionally certified teachers. Kee (2012) also found the lack of educational coursework and field experiences were factors that contributed to alternative certified teachers feeling less prepared to teach effectively. Linek et al. (2012) also found that alternative certified teachers struggled in the teaching profession when compared to traditional certified teachers. Teachers certified alternatively had more difficulty with lesson planning, classroom management and

application activities (Linek et al., 2012). Linek et al. (2012) also concluded that teachers certified alternatively struggle in the teaching profession due to lack of training and coursework. He suggested that the best solution would be to offer strong mentoring programs to alternatively certified teachers during their first year of teaching (Linek et al., 2012).

When analyzing teacher preparedness in South Carolina four domains are assessed by the evaluation team in each school district: instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). Instruction is defined as the transfer of learning from the teacher to the student (Bainbridge & Macy, 2008). The thought process behind how to deliver instruction requires a lot of planning, which is why instruction and planning are domains that go hand and hand.

Instruction involves teaching content and deciding what teaching strategies/best practices work better to teach content (Bainbridge & Macy, 2008). Bainbridge and Macy (2008) discovered that teachers who completed student teaching internships deemed it as essential because it allowed them the opportunity to take information (teaching strategies) learned from textbooks and transform that information into practice. By receiving this training before entering a career of teaching, teachers from traditional programs were more experienced in providing instruction to meet the needs of their students. In contrast, due to insufficient training, the pedagogical aspect of instruction is where teachers from alternative certification programs struggled (Koehler et al., 2013). Research has found that because alternative certified teachers were highly skilled in their content, lesson

planning was less of an area of weakness (Koehler et al., 2013). In contrast, Wayman et al. (2003) found that teachers certified alternatively indicated more concerns regarding lesson planning than teachers certified traditionally. It was also discovered that teachers certified alternatively reported concerns regarding preparation and elicited lower skills in instructional methods (Wayman et al., 2003).

Researchers also reported that both alternative and traditionally certified teachers reported difficulty with effectively continuing instruction as planned when unexpected events occurred in the classroom (Koehler et al., 2013). Yayo and Williams (2010) examined alternative and traditionally certified teachers and found there to be no difference in teacher competency in terms of instructional skills. In contrast, Berry (2001) found that alternatively certified teachers may have content knowledge but that they lack the skills that research identified as necessary to effectively teach the content.

Classroom management is also a domain of teacher preparation that differs between teachers certified via the traditional and alternative route. Flower et al. (2017) deemed classroom management and behavior management as critical elements of being a highly qualified teacher because they both contribute to creating a positive learning environment where students can feel safe and secure. Studies have analyzed classroom management and determined that teachers highly trained in their teacher preparation programs are more effective at mastering classroom management (Flower et al., 2017). Researchers have discovered that teachers who have not received an extensive amount of training in classroom management are more likely to use ineffective strategies to manage the classroom (Flower et al., 2017).

Alternative certified teachers reported experiencing more issues with classroom management than traditionally certified teachers (Koehler et al., 2013). Teachers certified alternatively reported that received little to no coursework or discussions on classroom management during their pre-service trainings; hence making it difficult to tackle classroom management once employed in the teaching profession (Koehler et al., 2013). Alternatively, certified teachers also reported that it was more difficult managing a classroom in urban schools and classrooms that contained special needs students (Koehler et al., 2013). Sokal et al. (2003) found that teachers certified alternatively lack effective teaching practices; which contributed to more difficulty with classroom management. It was also discovered that due to differences in preparation route, alternative and traditional certified teachers have different attitudes about classroom management (Sokal et al., 2003). Teachers certified traditionally developed their attitudes about classroom management based on pedagogical theory and intensive training received in their teaching program. However, teachers certified alternatively developed their ideas from preparation programs that placed minimum emphasis on classroom management (Sokal et al., 2003).

Wayman et al. (2003) studied classroom management in alternative and traditionally certified teachers and found that teachers certified alternatively indicated more concerns with classroom management. In contrast, Moffett et al. (2014) found that there was no difference in classroom management between traditional and alternative certified teachers. Moffett et al. (2014) concluded that the training alternatively certified teachers received from moving directly into the classroom to teach was equivalent to the

training and coursework that traditionally certified teachers received. Moffet et al. (2014) found that both preparation programs prepared teachers to be effective at classroom management. Flowers et al. (2017), argued that to improve behavior and classroom management, it is essential to incorporate evidence-based classroom management practices into teaching programs. They discovered that universal concepts such as rules, routines, management of student assignments, parent communication and positive climate were being taught as way to manage the classroom versus strategies appropriate for managing more challenging behaviors (Flowers et al., 2017). Flowers et al. (2017) argued that when teachers have classrooms with more intense behavioral problems, these basic concepts will not address their needs.

Professionalism is the final domain of teacher preparedness. Professional in the workplace is defined as the way an individual conducts him or herself on the job. In the field of education, professionalism is measured in 4 areas: attitude, ethics, professional development (service) and knowledge and execution of duties (University of North Dakota, 2017). Professional attitude reflects how the teacher interacts with all stakeholders in education. This includes how feedback is accepted, whether the teacher is polite and respectful to stakeholders, if the teacher arrives to work on time, if he or she is reliable, and if he or she shows compassion towards the needs of others (University of North Dakota, 2017). Professional ethics involves the teacher ensuring that he or she adheres to confidentiality laws, respects others and treat them with fairness, honesty, trustworthiness, and integrity (University of North Dakota, 2017). Professional development entails the teacher accepting learning as a lifelong process by continuing to

develop and improve (University of North Dakota, 2017). This includes the teacher attending workshops, conferences, professional development presentations or simply advancing in college degrees.

Professionalism may differ between teachers certified via traditionally or alternatively. Researchers have found that alternative certified teachers have more difficulty finding their professional and personal teaching style; hence causing conflict with them appearing competent to teach (Koehler et al., 2013). Wayman et al. (2003) studied work related variables and teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. Wayman found that teachers certified alternatively had more difficulties with professionalism in areas such as building relationships with colleagues/parents and professional development. Muijs et al (2013) studied teachers certified alternatively and leadership within schools. When compared to teachers certified traditionally, teachers certified alternatively were able to effectively exercise leadership within schools. However, more strength was seen in informal leadership roles such as chairing school programs and activities (Muijs et al., 2013).

The state of South Carolina uses the four domains (instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism) of preparedness as a method to evaluate teacher preparedness on the Assisting, Developing and Evaluating Professional Teachers (ADEPT) Performance Standard Assessment (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). There are different phases of evaluations that the state of South Carolina uses depending the teacher's experience and successful completion of other phases (South

Carolina Department of Education, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the induction phase of the ADEPT Performance Standard Assessment is discussed.

The purpose of induction is to help beginning teachers make a successful transition in the teaching profession (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). School districts that employ novice teachers must provide their teachers with information about the ADEPT performance standards and help them meet or exceed performance expectations (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). This is done, by assigning teachers an evaluation team that provides feedback throughout the teaching year to help the teacher improve or strengthen in the domains associated with evaluation. Teachers who are in the induction phase of evaluation are asked to complete a long-range plan and unit work sample. Members on their evaluation team will review the documents and offer constructive criticism. Members of the evaluation team also conduct multiple observations of the teacher during instructional time. After each observation a conference is conducted with the teacher to go over the observations. Teachers are then required to reflect on the results of their evaluations by writing a personal reflection. Ewing and Smith (2003) studied the induction process of teachers certified alternatively. Ewing and Smith (2003) found that teachers certified alternatively were not satisfied with induction and stated that their first year of teaching was not well planned or managed. Data suggest that many teachers certified alternatively were left to seek informal support versus having the support from principals and executive staff during the induction process (Ewing & Smith, 2003).

Branyon (2008) found that mentoring and cohort collaboration was successful at helping novice teachers pass domains on the ADEPT performance assessment. Results showed that when teachers were offered mentors and the opportunity to collaborate in cohorts; 100 percent of the teachers successfully passed the ADEPT Performance Assessment (Branyon, 2008). When teachers were asked to complete a self-report on their overall readiness, results revealed that all of the teachers reported that they were confident and ready for their job in the teaching profession (Branyon, 2008).

Summary and Conclusions

In Chapter 2, I reviewed current literature that relates to teacher certification route, stress, and teacher preparedness. I discussed several theories (demand control model, self-efficacy theory, and role stress theory) and how they relate to teacher certification routes, stress, and teacher preparedness. The preparation to practice gap defines deficits in educational programs as a factor that prevented new educators from being able to adequately perform the demands of their job. When there is inadequate teacher preparation, burnout occurs. When stress levels become too high, teachers may leave the profession or stay in a job giving only a minimal level of performance.

While research offers insight into how teacher preparedness, subjective well-being, and stress impacts teacher's performance and their decision to remain in the education profession, there is no research examining teachers who have been alternatively certified versus traditionally certified. It is known that teachers who are certified traditionally report being better prepared to teach when compared to teachers certified alternatively. It is also known that teachers who are certified traditionally remain

in the profession longer than those certified alternatively. However, research has not specifically addressed the impact of teacher certification route on job-related stress, well-being, and teacher preparedness. To address this gap, this study used a quantitative approach to examine possible differences in levels of job stress, well-being, and teacher preparedness between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers. In Chapter 3, I discuss the research design, population, sample, data collection and statistical analysis for this quantitative study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to determine whether there are differences in levels of teacher job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being as a function of teacher certification route. In addition, possible differences in teacher preparedness were examined as function of teacher certification route and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment). In this chapter I describe the research design, population, sample, instrumentation, data collection, the plan for statistical analysis, threats to validity, and the ethical procedures

Research Design and Rationale

The nature of this study was quantitative using a nonexperimental survey design. The independent variable was teacher certification route (traditional, alternative). Current levels of teacher job-related stress (time management, discipline and motivation, work stressors, professional distress) and teacher well-being (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, total well-being) served as dependent variables. Possible differences in teacher stress and well-being as a function of certification were analyzed using two one-way MANOVAs. In addition, the independent variables of certification route (traditional or alternative) and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment) were used to examine possible differences in teacher preparedness (instruction planning, classroom management, and professionalism). Possible differences in teacher preparedness were analyzed using multiple chi square testing.

Teacher job-related stress was measured using the Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990), and teacher subjective well-being was measured using the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire (Renshaw et al., 2015). A quantitative stress survey is the most effective method of measuring stress because the characteristics of a large population can be described (Creswell, 2009). Further, teacher preparedness was measured from scores on the ADEPT Performance Assessment (South Carolina Department of Education, 2010). The four domains of teacher preparedness that was measured were instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism. Multiple chi square testing was used to test for possible differences related to teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) as a function of teacher certification route and time of the ADEPT assessment (preliminary and final assessment). Because the preliminary and final stage of the ADEPT Performance Assessment take place in the fall and spring of the school year, data collection was planned to take place at the closing of the spring of the year.

Methodology

Population

The target population for this study was first-year teachers employed in two public school districts in the state of South Carolina who were under the ADEPT evaluation system. Novice teachers were deemed appropriate for this study to control for confounding variables such as years of teaching experience. There were approximately 52 schools with 2,500 teachers employed in one of the public school districts. The other

public school district had approximately 40 schools and employed approximately 2,000 teachers.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Convenience sampling was done with The Office of Educator Quality for the two public school districts. The Office of Educator Quality works to inspire and prepare teachers with the goal of improving student academic success. They are the office that analyzes the ADEPT performance assessment and store records from the assessment. Participants were grouped by their certification route (alternatively certified or traditionally certified). Both school districts recruit a large number of alternatively certified teachers yearly which would ensure that there are enough alternatively certified teachers available to participate in this study.

The inclusion criteria for survey participation included

1. Only novice teachers (teachers who just completed a 4-year degree education program or teachers during their first year of an alternative certification program).
2. All participants must not have been employed as a teacher in any other school district.

All teachers who met the inclusion criteria were eligible to participate in the study. This sampling strategy was chosen because both school districts are among the largest school districts in South Carolina. This contributed to gathering a greater number of participants for the study that has diversity in certification route.

A power analysis for the 2 X 2 MANOVA using G*Power 3.0 (Faul et al., 2007) was conducted using the following statistical variables: alpha level, anticipated effect size, statistical power, dependent variables, and number of groups. The statistical variables were as follows: an alpha level of 0.05, an anticipated effect size of 0.25, a statistical power of 0.95, four dependent variables, and four groups. An effect size of 0.25 has been consistent in research that compares alternative and traditional certification programs (Unruh & Holt, 2010). Results from the power analysis suggested a sample size of 129 participants. A power analysis for a one-way MANOVA was also conducted with an alpha level of .05, an anticipated effect size of 0.25, a statistical power of 0.95, seven dependent variables, and two groups. Results from the power analysis suggested a sample size of 32 participants. Because the power analysis for the 2 X 2 MANOVA resulted in a larger sample size, the recommended sample size of 129 participants will be used for this study.

Procedures for Recruitment and Participation

Approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Walden University was obtained before research was conducted (approval no. 05-02-19-0326885). During the first stage, the first public school district's Accountability, Assessment, Research & Evaluation Office was contacted by e-mail to ask for permission to incorporate teachers employed by the district into the study. Permission to use the Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire was achieved by e-mailing the authors of the scales (see Appendices D and E). Upon approval, the center was asked to provide a list of all first-year teachers who were in the induction stage of the ADEPT evaluation.

Efforts were made to ensure that there was an equal number of teachers certified traditionally and alternatively by screening the certification route of potential participants.

One of the school districts allowed each principal who agreed to have their first-year teachers participate in the study facilitate the distribution of my survey and informed consent. In contrast, the other school district provided me with a list of all first-year teachers in the district along with their e-mail addresses. They allowed me to e-mail their first-year teachers to explain the topic of the study, the purpose, and a summary of informed consent. If participants agreed to participate in the study, they proceeded with completing the survey in which the link was attached in the e-mail. This same e-mail was given to the principals in the first school district for them to forward to their teachers. When the study concluded, a summary of results was provided to each participant upon their request.

Instrumentation and Operational Construct

Teacher Stress Inventory. The Teacher Stress Inventory (see Appendix A) was developed to measure teachers' perceptions of different stress experiences that relate to the role of teaching (Fimian, 1984; Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). The original version of the inventory (Fimian, 1984) was constructed using two major content validity standards, which included collecting a representative sample of items and using sensible methods of test construction. First, survey items were generated based on previous stress survey work on an exhaustive review of the quantitative and qualitative literature examining general teacher stress. The original 1984 version of the survey also demonstrated satisfactory

factor validity and internal consistency (Fimian, 1984). The 1990 version of the survey was used in the current study. The Teacher Stress Inventory consists of 49 items and has 10 subscales: professional investment, behavioral manifestations, time management, discipline and motivation, emotional manifestations, job related stressors, gastronomical manifestations, cardiovascular manifestations, fatigue manifestations, and professional distress (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). For the purposes of this study, only the following subscales were used: time management, discipline and motivation, work-related stressors, and professional distress.

The time management subscale measures a teacher's ability to balance various aspect associated with their role as a teacher. If stress develops, teachers may overcommit themselves, feel they have too much to do at one time, feel uncomfortable, and are unable to relax during the workday. The time management subscale consists of eight items. Example items include "I easily overcommit myself" and "I feel uncomfortable when I waste time." The discipline and motivation subscale measures teacher-student relationships. Some teachers may have difficulty disciplining students because they feel that their authority is rejected by students and administrators. Teachers who feel this way are prone to being more sensitive toward students, and they often have more behavioral problems in the classroom. When students are less motivated, teachers experience more stress trying to motivate them (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). The discipline and motivation subscale consists of six items. Example items include "I feel frustrated when having to monitor pupil behavior" and "I feel frustrated because my authority is rejected by pupils/administration." The work-related stressors subscale measures the environmental

specific events that assist in providing a source a stress for teachers. This includes being overworked, excessive paperwork, heavy caseloads/class sizes, and high job demands. The work-related stressors subscale consists of six items. Example items include “There is too much work to do” and “My caseload/class is too big.” The professional distress subscale measures teachers’ sense of perceiving themselves as professionals. The professional distress subscale consists of five items. Example items include “I lack recognition for extra work” and “I lack promotion/advancement opportunities.” Responses are rated on a 5-point scale (with a rating of 1 = *no strength/not noticeable*, rating of 5 = *major strength/extremely noticeable*). Items relating to each subscale are scored by totaling the responses and dividing the responses by the number of items.

Factor analysis of the Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990) was conducted on the 49 items, which examined component loadings and communalities. If items exceeded an eigen value of 1.0 and had a factor loading of .35 these items were retained. The 10-component (subscale) solution accounted for 58.0% of the total stress strength variance and all 49 items exceeded the .35 loading criterion (two exceeded .40). The 10 subscales and their corresponding Cronbach alpha (internal consistency) values were professional investment (alpha =.75), behavioral manifestations (alpha =.82), time management (alpha =.83), discipline and motivation (alpha =.86), emotional manifestations (alpha =.87), work related stressors (alpha =.80), gastronomical manifestations (alpha = .88), cardiovascular manifestations (alpha= .78), fatigue manifestation (alpha =. 82), and professional distress (alpha =. 82). Again, only four of the subscales were used (time management, discipline and motivation, work related

stressors, and professional distress), which all produced a Cronbach's alpha higher than .80 and demonstrated high internal consistency (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). Thus, the Teacher Stress Inventory has been shown to have adequate reliability and validity.

Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire. The Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire (Renshaw et al., 2015) was used to measure teachers' positive psychological functioning at work (see Appendix B). The Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire consists of eight items with two subscales: teacher efficacy and school connectedness. Teacher efficacy is defined as a feeling of happiness when teachers can meet environmental demands. It is also associated with positive emotions and thinking when engaging in the act of teaching or task relating to teaching. The teacher efficacy subscale consists of four items. An example item is "I am a successful teacher and I have accomplished a lot as a teacher." School connectedness is defined as a feeling supported by and relating well to others at school. The school connectedness subscale consists of four items. An example item is "I feel like I belong at this school." The eight items are rated on a 4-point scale with 1 indicating *almost never* and 4 indicated *almost always*. A total score is calculated by totaling the ratings for each item. Higher scores indicate that a teacher possess a stronger sense of subjective well-being (Renshaw et al., 2015).

To assess for concurrent validity, scores on the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire were correlated with the Supportive Student Environmental Scale (Renshaw, 2014), Supportive Teacher Environmental Scale (Renshaw, 2014), and the Teacher Emotional Burnout Scale (MBI et al., 2005). The Supportive Student Environmental Scale measures students' perception of the level of support for students in

their schools. The Supportive Teacher Environmental Scale measures teachers' perception of the level of support for teachers within schools. The Emotional Burnout Scale measures the affective component of teacher burnout. Bivariate correlations between the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, the Supportive Student Environmental Scale, and the Supportive Teacher Environmental Scale indicated a strong, positive associations ($r = .57$ and $r = .62$, $p < .01$). These results indicated that the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire is a valid measure of teacher well-being.

The Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire was also assessed for divergent validity by comparing general education teachers to teachers who experienced classroom management problems. For teachers experiencing classroom management problems, results demonstrated that the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire had strong short-term predictive validity for psychological distress and accounted for half of the variance in teacher stress and emotional burnout (Renshaw et al., 2015).

The Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire was also evaluated using test-retest reliability (Renshaw et al., 2015). Initial test-retest reliability was examined over a span of approximately one month and showed a significant positive correlation for the overall survey ($r = .89$, $p < .05$). The Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire also demonstrated strong overall internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha = .87. In addition, the subscales (teaching efficacy and social connectedness) of the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire also produced significant positive test-retest correlations over the 1-month time period (teacher efficacy, $r = .79$; social connectedness,

$r = .90$; Renshaw et al., 2015). Thus, the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire has been found to be reliable and valid measure of teacher well-being.

ADEPT Performance Assessment. The ADEPT Performance Assessment adopted its structure from TAP System, which was developed in 1999 by the National Institute for Excellence in Teaching (Barnett, et al., 2016). Since 1999, the TAP System has become a widely used model utilized by many states to evaluate educators (National Institute for Excellence in Teaching, 2015).

The TAP System's uses two components to determine educator effectiveness: skills, knowledge, and responsibilities scores and classroom value added scores (Barnett et al., 2016). SKR scores uses three indicators to measure a teacher's ability to influence student performance. Those indicators are instruction, planning, and classroom management. Each of these indicators are measured through classroom observations. Professionalism is measured by analyzing the evidence of professionalism that a teacher displays.

The TAP system encourages schools to obtain multiple measures of teacher performance throughout the school year, provide adequate feedback, and compose a summative rating on the teacher by the end of the school year (Barnett et al., 2016). Teachers are observed multiple times throughout the school year by trained observers which include principals and mentor teachers. The trained observers conduct observations using a research-based rubric that covers a variety of dimensions of instructional quality (National Institute for Excellence in Teaching, 2014). Observations are both announced and unannounced and are always followed by a post-conference

meeting between the teacher and observer. The post conferences are to provide teachers with feedback and strategies for instructional improvement. By providing teachers with feedback, teachers are expected to improve their weaknesses by the time the next observation is conducted. In the state of South Carolina, observations are conducted during the preliminary period and the final period. The preliminary observations are conducted in the winter of the school year and the final are conducted in the spring of the school year.

Observational scores are combined through a weighted average with additional responsibility indicators to produce an overall SKR score for each teacher (Barnet et al., 2016). The SKR scores consist of a percentage of research based pedagogical practice components related to the delivery of instruction (an explanation is found on TAP rubric domains for Instruction, Planning, and Classroom Management; Barnett et al., 2016). Professional scores are calculated by taking into consideration a teacher's community involvement, school responsibilities, professional growth and reflection on teaching. A weighted score from each of these indicators create the overall TAP SKR score. The range for scoring is 1.0 which indicates unsatisfactory performance to 5.0 which indicates exemplary performance. In the state of South Carolina, scores under a 3.0 value are considered as unmet and scores above 3.0 are considered as met (South Carolina Department of Education, 2006). South Carolina also enforces that if teachers have not produced a met status on all four domains then they will have to repeat the ADEPT process for the upcoming school year and additional consequences are taken by the school district.

The ADEPT Performance Assessment and many other state assessments that follow the TAP System model have been proven to be reliable and valid (Barnett et al., 2016). When analyzing the validity of SKR and classroom value added scores of state assessments from Arizona, Indiana, Louisiana, South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas over an extended number of years, results were significant and showed a positive correlation (learning environment ($r=.240$), planning ($r=.209$), instruction ($r=.240$)) (Barnett, et al., 2016). A higher classroom value added score indicated a higher SKR scores. That is, when teachers were strong at planning, instruction and managing the classroom environment; when observed in these areas, they produced high scores.

These results showed statistical validity across years, states, and instruments that each state used. For this reason, the TAP system has been determined to be an instrument that produces reliable scores while also providing teachers with actionable feedback to improve their skills as an educator (Barnett et al., 2016).

Data Analysis Plan

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental study was to determine if there were differences in levels of teacher job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being as a function of teacher certification route. Possible differences in teacher preparedness were examined as function of teacher certification route and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment). The data was analyzed using the SPSS software package Version 24. Normality, multicollinearity, and homogeneity of variances are data screening methods that will be used. To ensure that the independent and dependent variables are normally distributed Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, QQ plots, and

scatter plots were conducted in SPSS. Univariate and multivariate outliers were examined as well. The Variance Inflation Factor was conducted in SPSS to test for multicollinearity. Levene's test of homogeneity was conducted in SPSS to test for homogeneity of variance.

The following research questions and hypotheses were developed to align with the purpose and achieve the goals of the research study.

Research Question 1: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to time management, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀1: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to time management between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

H₁1: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to time management between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers

Research Question 2: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to discipline and motivation, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀2: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to discipline and motivation between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

H₁2: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to discipline and motivation between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 3: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to work stressors, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to work stressors between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₃: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to work stressors between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 4: Is there a difference in teacher job-related stress related to professional distress, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₄: There is no significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to professional distress between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₄: There is a significant difference in teacher job-related stress related to professional distress between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 5: Is there a difference in levels of teacher subjective well-being (school connectedness), as measured by the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₅: There is no significant difference in subjective well-being (school connectedness) between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₅: There is a significant difference in subjective well-being (school connectedness) between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers

Research Question 6: Is there a difference in teacher subjective well-being (teacher efficacy), as measured by the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₆: There is no significant difference in teacher subjective well-being (teacher efficacy) between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₆: There is a significant difference in teacher subjective well-being (teacher efficacy) between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 7: Is there a difference in total teacher subjective well-being, as measured by the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₇: There is no significant difference in total teacher subjective well-being between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

H₁₇: There is a significant difference in total teacher subjective well-being between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.

Research Question 8: Is there a difference in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism), as measured by the preliminary assessment phase of the Assisting, Developing and Evaluating Professional Teachers (ADEPT) Performance Standard Assessment, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers?

H₀₈: There is no significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the preliminary assessment phase.

H₁₈: There is a significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the preliminary assessment phase.

Research Question 9: Is there a difference in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism), as measured by the final assessment phase of the Assisting, Developing and Evaluating Professional Teachers (ADEPT) Performance Standard Assessment, between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers.?

H₀₉: There is no significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the final assessment phase.

H₁₉: There is a significant difference in teacher preparedness between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers in the final assessment phase.

Research Questions 1-7 were analyzed using two one-way MANOVAs. The independent variable was teacher certification route and the dependent variables were teacher job-related stress (time management, discipline and motivation, work related stressors, and professional distress) and teacher subjective well-being (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, and total wellbeing). Research questions 8 and 9 were analyzed using multiple chi square test with the independent variables of teacher certification route (alternative vs. traditional route) and time of the preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment). The dependent variables were factors related to teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management and professionalism). The MANOVAs results were interpreted using a .05 alpha level and the effect sizes were calculated using eta squared for any significant effects.

Threats to Validity

Quantitative research has been valued at producing more validity and reliability when compared to other research methods (Creswell, 2009). As with any research method, there are threats to validity. Internal validity is established when changes in the dependent variable are said to be caused by the independent variable (Creswell, 2009). In this study, maturation could be a factor that impacts internal validity. The participants in this study were given a preliminary and final assessment (ADEPT) to measure teacher preparedness. The variation in time could change the physical or mental maturation of the participants in the study as opposed to the independent variable (teacher certification route). Thus, it may be difficult to conclude if certification route impacted teacher preparedness. The Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire would be administered to participants in an online survey format. Because the survey would be administered in an uncontrolled setting, there can be factors in that setting that influence participants responses (Creswell, 2009). Reminding participants that their responses would be confidential may assist in reducing social desirability bias.

External validity is said to be established when the results of a study can be generalized to a larger population (Creswell, 2009). Because the environment and culture of schools are different, teachers employed by different schools within a district may experience different outcomes, stressors or situations in the workplace. This makes it difficult to generalize the results to the population of educators certified traditionally or alternatively because there maybe confounding variables that could influence the

participants in this study response on the Teacher Stress Inventory, Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire, or the ADEPT performance analysis.

Construct validity is established when a tool measures a construct it is said to measure. To ensure construct validity, I evaluated the validity and reliability of the Teacher Stress Inventory and the Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire. I also examined the internal consistency for Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Wellbeing Questionnaire by reporting Cronbach's alpha for this study. The validity and reliability of the ADEPT performance assessment were also evaluated for effectiveness.

Ethical Procedures

The rights of the participants were aligned with the IRB compliance. Participants were provided with informed consent forms consisting of the following information: participation procedures, confidentiality, a disclosure stating that participation is voluntary, and that participants can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. An electronic signature was used to sign the informed consent. Consent forms were developed using Walden's University template consent form.

If any teachers have a negative experience as a result to this study, then teachers will be directed to contact the school district's Employee Assistance Program to speak with a certified counselor. The Employee Assistance Program works in cooperation with South Carolina Department of Vocational Rehabilitation.

Results from the ADEPT performance assessment are generated by the district and used to help determine if a teacher's contract would be renewed. Participants would be ensured that their ADEPT results are coded so that the participant's name remain

anonymous (ex: participants identified by numbers versus their name). The data would remain confidential by being stored in a password protected computer. It would be explained that the data would be stored for five years and then destroyed.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I discussed the research design and methodology that was used to test the hypotheses in this study. Current levels of teacher job-related stress (time management, discipline and motivation, work related stressors, professional distress) and teacher wellbeing (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, total wellbeing) served as dependent variables. Possible differences in teacher stress and wellbeing as a function of certification route were analyzed using two one-way MANOVAs.

The independent variables of certification route (traditional or alternative) and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final) were used to examine possible differences in teacher preparedness (instruction planning, classroom management, and professionalism). Possible differences in teacher preparedness were analyzed using multiple chi square test.

Chapter 3 also reviewed the reliability and validity of the ADEPT Performance Assessment, Teacher Stress Inventory, and Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire. Sampling procedures were discussed which included a power analysis for MANOVA using G*Power. Threats to validity and ethical procedures were discussed. Chapter 4 includes a detailed analysis of data and results from the study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine possible differences in levels of teacher job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being as a function of teacher certification route (traditional vs. alternative). In addition, possible differences in teacher preparedness were examined as a function of teacher certification route and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment). Though previous research offers insight into how teacher preparedness and stress impacts teachers' performance and their decision to remain in the education profession, there has been no research on teachers who have been alternatively certified versus traditionally certified. To address this gap, I examined the impact of teacher certification route (independent variable) on teacher job-related stress (dependent variable) and teacher subjective well-being (dependent variable). I also examined teacher preparedness (dependent variable) as a function of teacher certification route (independent variable) and time of teacher preparedness assessment (independent variable). Nine research questions and hypotheses were evaluated related to these variables.

In this chapter, the data collection procedure is described in detail including time frames, procedural changes, response rates, and other relevant information pertaining to the data collection. Basic demographic data of the sample is also presented along with evaluation of statistical assumptions and the results from the MANOVA and chi square analyses.

Data Collection

Data collection began on June 6, 2019 at 8:00 a.m. and concluded on August 19, 2019 at 8:00 a.m. Each public school district permitted the recruitment of their teachers as participants in the study under the conditions that the study be conducted after the school year ended. Therefore, the summer break was the allotted timeframe to collect data. One of the public school districts did not allow me to make direct contact with their first-year teachers, and they did not provide me with an explanation as to why this decision was made. Instead, the Accountability and Research Office presented my study to all principals in their school district, and the principals decided if they wanted their teachers to participate in the study. The Accountability and Research Office provided me with the contact information for the principals who agreed.

On the last day of the 2018-2019 school year, June 6, 2019, I contacted each principal who agreed to allow their teachers to participate in the study. Per each principal's request, I provided them with an e-mail that described the nature of my study and included the link to the informed consent and survey. Those principals then forwarded my e-mail to the first-year teachers in their school. On June 6, 2019, I began to receive responses (15 total) to my survey from the teachers in one specific school district. However, because the principals were at the forefront of the contact with the participants, I was unaware of how many teachers they included in total or how many did not respond to my survey. This made it difficult for me to determine what the response rate was for teachers that came from that specific school district.

In contrast, the second school district allowed me to contact their first-year teachers directly. This specific district's Accountability and Research Office provided me with a list of all first-year teachers (132 total) employed in their school district. On June 10, 2019, the date the district gave me to begin collecting data, I sent out an e-mail (the same em-ail that was sent to teachers in the other school district) to all first-year teachers on that list to briefly explain the nature of the study. The e-mail also provided them with a link to the informed consent and survey. The initial response rate (14%) was low; therefore, I decided to send the e-mail to each participant individually because the e-mail could have been mistaken as spam mail. By doing so, the response rate increased to 40%. I made multiple attempts (resent the e-mail four times) to contact and recruit teachers. Three of those times were during the beginning and middle of the summer break. The final e-mail was sent on August 12th, which was a week before the start of the 2019-2020 school year. At that time, teachers were preparing to return to work and the likelihood of checking their work e-mail would be higher. The response rate increased to 67%. The responses I received from both school districts produced a total of 103 participants. The recommended sample size from the power analysis was 129 participants. I waited until August 19th to conclude the study because the new school year started, and I wanted to see if more teachers would participate. The response rate did not increase, and the sample size of 103 participants was used.

Procedural Changes to Data Collection

Procedural changes were completed prior to collecting data for the study. When I initially submitted my IRB application the procedures entailed starting the data collection

phase in April 2019 and having the school districts provide me with first year teacher's ADEPT scores. However, when I presented my proposal to both school districts, they granted approval to use their teachers as participants under certain revisions. The first revision was the time of data collection. Both school districts did not want me to conduct my study during the school year because they both noted that teachers were already overwhelmed with completing documents to close out the school year. They suggested that having their teachers participate in the study during the school year could cause additional stress. Therefore, one school district proposed that my start be June 6, 2019, whereas the other was June 10, 2019.

The second revision involved the collection of ADEPT scores. Both school districts suggested that the teachers self-report their ADEPT scores. Neither school district provided an explanation as to why they could not report the scores to me directly. For this reason, I had to include a section in the demographic area of my survey to have teachers provide their scores. After I gained IRB approval and began collecting data for my study, I discovered that a few of the teachers who completed the demographics did not indicate their ADEPT scores. I received a few e-mails from some teachers stating that they only knew if they had made a passing score on the ADEPT assessments, but they could not retrieve the document that had their specific scores. As a result, I revised the demographic survey and asked teachers to indicate whether they made a passing score on each domain of the ADEPT preliminary and final assessments.

Results

Possible differences in job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers were analyzed using two one-way MANOVAs. Possible differences in teacher preparedness were analyzed using multiple chi-squares analyses. Descriptive statistics, the evaluation of statistical assumptions, and results from the MANOVA and chi-square analyses are presented in the following sections.

Descriptive Statistics

The sample consisted of 103 first-year teachers. The independent variable, teacher certification route, was roughly balanced in the number of participants in the sample. For example, 44 (42.7%) of the participants were certified the traditional route, and 59 (57.3%) were certified the alternative route. Age, gender, and ethnicity information was not collected in this study. The only information that was collected was teacher certification route and the subject area that was taught by the teachers. There currently is no national data on the proportion of first-year teachers trained alternatively or traditionally; therefore, I am unsure how representative the sample is to the population.

Teachers were asked to indicate what subject area they taught. The most common subject areas taught were English/ELA, math, science, and social studies. English/ELA accounted for 14 participants (13.1%). Math accounted for 31 participants (38%). Science accounted for 27 participants (28.2%). Social Studies accounted for 10 participants (9.7%; see Table 1).

Table 1

Frequency of Subject Areas Taught by Teachers

Subject Area	Frequency	Percent
Math	39	38
Science	29	28.2
Chorus	1	1.0
ELA/English	14	13.1
Various General Ed	4	4.0
Navy JROTC	1	1.0
PE	1	1.0
Social Studies	10	9.7
Special Ed	3	3.0
Technology	1	1.0
Total	103	100.0

Average levels of job-related stress, as measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory (related to time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, and work-related stressors), were examined between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. The mean level of job-related stress specific to time management for teachers certified traditionally was 3.4 ($SD = 1.17$), whereas those certified alternatively was 3.58 ($SD = .99$). The mean level of job-related stress specific to work stressors for teachers certified traditionally was 3.58 ($SD = 1.02$), whereas those certified alternatively was 3.42 ($SD = 1.22$). The mean level of job-related stress specific to discipline and motivation for teachers certified traditionally was 3.55 ($SD = 1.07$), whereas those certified alternatively was 3.44 ($SD = 1.18$). The mean level of job-related stress specific to professional distress for teachers certified traditionally was 3.59 ($SD = 1.03$), whereas those certified alternatively was 3.48 ($SD = 1.19$).

Average levels of teacher subjective wellbeing, as measured by the Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire (teacher efficacy and school connectedness), were examined between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. The mean level of teacher subjective wellbeing specific to school connectedness for teachers certified traditionally was 12.93 (SD = 4.51), whereas those certified alternatively was 14.79 (SD = 2.94). The mean level of teacher subjective wellbeing specific to teacher efficacy for teachers certified traditionally was 13.15 (SD = 4.41), whereas those certified alternatively was 14.91 (SD = 2.86). The mean level of teacher subjective wellbeing specific to total teacher subjective wellbeing for teachers certified traditionally was 26.09 (SD = 8.88), whereas those certified alternatively was 29.71 (SD = 5.71).

The frequency of teachers who received a passing and failing score on the ADEPT Performance Assessment was examined between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. For the ADEPT assessment on instruction, 72 teachers had a passing score and 31 did not have a passing score. For each of the preliminary ADEPT assessments, each component (classroom management, planning and professionalism) had 76 teachers who passed and 27 who failed. For the final ADEPT assessment, each component (instruction, classroom management, planning, and professionalism) had 76 teachers who passed and 27 who failed.

Evaluation of Statistical Assumption

Statistical assumptions for MANOVA related to the dependent variables of job-related stress (time management, work stressors, discipline and motivation, professional distress) were evaluated. Multivariate outliers were evaluated using Kolmogorov-

Smirnov tests and indicated that scores on the time management component of stress did not follow a normal distribution, $D(44) = 0.39, p = .000$. Scores on other components of stress also did not follow a normal distribution: work stressors ($D(44) = 0.38, p = .000$), discipline and motivation ($D(44) = 0.39, p = .000$) and professional distress ($D(44) = 0.38, p = .000$). Despite the data not following a normal distribution, the data did demonstrate homogeneity of variance. Levene's test showed that the variances in time management were equal, ($F(1,1) = 2.57, p = .112$). Homogeneity of variance was also found in work stressors ($F(1,1) = 2.58, p = .111$), discipline and motivation ($F(1,1) = 2.74, p = .101$), and professional distress ($F(1,1) = 1.41, p = .438$). Tables 2 and 3 show the skewness and kurtosis values for job related stress which indicate no outliers.

Table 2

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Testing for Job-Related Stress and Teacher Subjective Well-being for Traditional Teachers

	Skewness	Kurtosis	Statistic	p value
Time management	-1.19	.045	.719	.000
Discipline and motivation	-1.207	.239	.720	.000
Work stressors	-1.052	-.132	.744	.000
Professional distress	-1.203	.333	.730	.000
School connectedness	-1.082	-.413	.683	.000
Teacher efficacy	-1.290	.093	.665	.000
Total Teacher Subjective Well-being	-1.189	-.129	.680	.000

Table 3

Shapiro-Wilk Normality for Job-Related Stress and Teacher Subjective Well-being for Alternative Teachers

	Skewness	Kurtosis	Statistic	p value
Time management	-1.4	1.39	.719	.000
Discipline and motivation	-1.301	.642	.708	.000
Work stressors	-1.369	1.132	.720	.000
Professional distress	-1.517	1.54	.693	.000
School connectedness	-2.544	5.802	.475	.000
Teacher efficacy	-2.78	7.083	.436	.000
Total Teacher Subjective Well-being	-2.744	6.96	.465	.000

Statistical assumptions related to the dependent variable teacher subjective well-being (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, total teacher subjective well-being) were evaluated. Multivariate outliers were evaluated using Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and indicated that scores on the school connectedness component of teacher subjective wellbeing did not follow a normal distribution, $D(44) = 0.39, p = .000$. Teacher efficacy also did not follow a normal distribution ($D(44) = 0.35, p = .000$). The total score on the Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire also did not follow a normal distribution ($D(44) = 0.36, p = .000$). Levene's test showed that homogeneity of variance was not found in school connectedness, $F(1,100) = 19.82, p = .000$. Homogeneity of variance was also not found in teacher efficacy $F(1,100) = 14.67, p = .000$ or total Teacher Subjective Wellbeing, $F(1,100) = 17.76, p = .000$. Homogeneity of variance (i.e., homoscedasticity) is the assumption that the variability in scores is roughly the same at all values of another variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This is caused either by non-normality of one of the variables or by the fact that one variable is related to transformation of the other.

However, heteroscedasticity is not detrimental to the analysis. Research has shown that ANOVA and MANOVA analyses are quite robust even when homogeneity of variance is not met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In addition, Tables 2 and 3 show the skewness and kurtosis values for teacher subjective well-being which indicated no outliers.

Cronbach's alpha scores for job related stress and teacher subjective wellbeing were analyzed to examine internal consistency of each survey. Cronbach's alpha for time management was .979. Cronbach's alpha for work stressors was .990. Cronbach's alpha for discipline and motivation was .994. and Cronbach's alpha for professional distress was .976. Cronbach's alpha scores across of the dependent variables of job-related stress established internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha for school connectedness was .986. Cronbach's alpha for teacher efficacy was .94. Cronbach's alpha for total teacher subjective well-being was .993. Cronbach's alpha scores across the dependent variables of teacher subjective well-being established internal consistency.

Statistical assumptions were met for the data pertaining to the dependent variable teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism) to be analyzed using the chi square test. Both the independent and dependent variable were measured as categories at the nominal and ordinal level. Case processing summary was conducted and revealed that there were no cases that were excluded due to missing value, which indicated that independent observations were met. Another assumption for chi-square testing is that for a 2 by 2 table all expected frequencies must be less than 5. In this case 0% of the cells had an expected count less than 5 with a minimum expected count of 13.24, which showed that the data assumption was met.

Research Questions 1-4: Job-Related Stress

Job-related stress was examined across the components of time management, discipline and motivation, work stressors, and professional distress. I assessed Research Questions 1-4 using a one-way MANOVA to measure the effect the independent variable (teacher certification route) had on the dependent variables (time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, work stressor). Despite the data not meeting the assumption of normality, the MANOVA was still used as a statistical assessment because the MANOVA is a robust test even when normality is violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). It was hypothesized that there is a significant difference in the mean levels of stress (time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, and work stressors) between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively (H_1). This hypothesis was not supported by the result from the MANOVA, $F(4, 97) = .544, p > .05$, Pillai Trace = .022, partial $\eta^2 = .022$. There was no statistically significant difference in the mean level of job-related stress between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. To further examine each component of stress (time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, work stressors) a test of between-subjects effects was analyzed and evaluated at an alpha level of .05. Results showed no significant differences between traditional and alternatively certified teachers on any of the components of job-related stress: time management $F(1, 100) = .67, p = .42$, partial $\eta^2 = .007$; work stressors $F(1, 100) = .52, p = .47$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$; discipline and motivation $F(1, 100) = .25, p = .62$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$; and professional distress $F(1, 100) = .32, p = .57$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$.

Research Questions 5-7: Teacher Subjective Well-being

I assessed Research Questions 5-7 using a one-way MANOVA to analyze the effect the independent variable (teacher certification route) had on the dependent variables (teacher subjective well-being: school connectedness, teacher efficacy, total teacher subjective wellbeing). Despite the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance not being met, the MANOVA was still used because the MANOVA is a robust test even when normality is violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). It was hypothesized that there is a significant difference in the levels of subjective wellbeing (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, and total teacher subjective wellbeing) between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively (H_1). This hypothesis was supported by the result from the MANOVA, $F(2, 100) = 3.253, p < .05$, Pillai Trace = .061, partial $\eta^2 = .061$. There was statistically significant difference in subjective wellbeing between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively.

To further examine each component of teacher subjective well-being (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, and total teacher subjective wellbeing) a test of between-subjects effect was analyzed and evaluated at an alpha level of .05. All of the between-subject effects were significant: school connectedness $F(1, 101) = 6.57, p = .012$, partial $\eta^2 = .061$; teacher efficacy $F(1, 101) = 6.13, p = .015$, partial $\eta^2 = .057$; total teacher subjective well-being $F(1, 101) = 6.47, p = .012$, partial $\eta^2 = .060$. Results showed that teacher certification route did impact teacher subjective wellbeing. The mean level of teacher subjective wellbeing specific to school connectedness for teachers certified traditionally was 12.93 (SD = 4.51), whereas those certified alternatively was 14.79 (SD

= 2.94). The mean level of teacher subjective wellbeing specific to teacher efficacy for teachers certified traditionally was 13.15 (SD = 4.41), whereas those certified alternatively was 14.91 (SD = 2.86). The mean level of teacher subjective wellbeing specific to total teacher subjective wellbeing for teachers certified traditionally was 26.09 (SD = 8.88), whereas those certified alternatively was 29.71 (SD = 5.71). Thus, teachers certified alternatively had significantly higher levels of each component of teacher subjective wellbeing (school connectedness, teacher efficacy, and total wellbeing). This meant that alternatively certified teachers had higher levels of feeling supported by and relating well to others at school (school connectedness). Alternatively certified teachers also had higher levels of happiness when meeting environmental demands (teacher efficacy).

Research Questions 8-9: Teacher Preparedness

Multiple chi-square tests were conducted to examine teacher preparedness. In the first chi-square tests I assessed if there were difference in the 4 components of teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism) at the preliminary assessment between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. It was hypothesized that there are significant differences in teacher preparedness at the preliminary assessment between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers (H_1). This hypothesis was not supported by the results from the four chi square tests across all domains, $\chi^2(1, 103) = 1.434, p = .231$. Among traditional certified teachers, 28 passed and 16 did not pass each component of preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism). Among alternatively certified teachers, 44 passed and 15

did not pass each component of preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism).

In the second chi-square tests, I assessed if there were difference in the 4 components (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism) of teacher preparedness at the final assessment between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. It was hypothesized that there is a significant difference in teacher preparedness at the final assessment between alternatively versus traditionally certified teachers (H_1). This hypothesis was not supported by the results from the four chi square tests across all domains, $\chi^2(1, 103) = .441, p = .507$. Among traditional certified teachers, 31 passed and 13 did not pass each component of preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism). Among alternatively certified teachers, 45 passed and 14 did not pass each component of preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism).

Summary

In this study, I hypothesized that significant differences would be found in job related stress, teacher subjective wellbeing, and teacher preparedness between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. The only significant difference was found in teacher subjective wellbeing. Teachers certified alternatively had higher mean levels of teacher subjective wellbeing. This meant that alternatively certified teachers had higher levels of feeling supported by and relating well to others at school (school connectedness). Alternatively, certified teachers also had higher levels of happiness when meeting environmental demands (teacher efficacy).

There were no significant differences in the mean levels of stress (time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, or stressors). There were also no significant differences in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism) during the preliminary and final assessment as a function of teacher certification route. In Chapter 5, I discuss interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, and implications.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences in levels of teacher job-related stress and teacher subjective well-being as a function of teacher certification route. In addition, possible differences in teacher preparedness was examined as function of teacher certification route and time of preparedness assessment (preliminary and final assessment). Despite previous research on teacher preparedness, teacher stress, and subjective well-being there has been no research examining stress levels, subjective well-being, and teacher preparedness related to teacher certification route. Examining these variables provided insight into whether differences in certification programs alleviated teacher stress, strengthened well-being, and strengthened preparedness once teachers enter the education profession. This may assist educators and educational institutions in developing strategies to improve teacher wellbeing and reduce teacher shortages.

I compared first-year teachers certified traditionally and alternatively based on teacher self-reports using the Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire. I also analyzed teacher data on the ADEPT Performance Assessment across 4 domains (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) at the preliminary and final assessment. I conducted two one-way MANOVA to test for possible differences in job related stress and teacher subjective wellbeing as a function of teacher certification route. Stress was examined across four domains (time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, work stressors), and teacher subjective

well-being was examined across three domains (teacher efficacy, school connectedness, total teacher subjective wellbeing). Chi square analyses were conducted to test for possible differences in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) as a function of teacher certification route and time of the ADEPT assessment (preliminary and final assessment).

The results of the first MANOVA showed that there were no significant differences found in the mean levels of job-related stress across all domains between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. However, results of the second MANOVA demonstrated significant differences in the mean levels of teacher subjective well-being between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively. Teachers certified alternatively had significantly higher mean ratings in self-efficacy, school connectedness, and overall teacher subjective well-being. The results from the chi square analyses showed no significant difference across the four domains of teacher preparedness in the preliminary or final assessment of the ADEPT Performance Assessment between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively.

Interpretation of the Findings

Teacher Job-Related Stress

Teacher job-related stress has been examined in previous literature to determine factors that contributed to the stress occurring within the teaching profession. For example, according to Clement (2007), teachers reported that not being appreciated by administrators, parents, and the public is a contributing factor to the stress. Kriacou (2001) found that dealing with work colleagues, role conflict ambiguity, and teaching

students who lack motivation to be key factors that contribute to teacher stress. More recent research demonstrated that administrative, classroom, and personal stressors were the key factors that contributed to teacher related stress (Tasheen, 2015). In terms of administration, teachers' perception of their role within the school and with administrators was discovered to be a significant factor in predicting job stress (Tasheen, 2015). Personal stressors such as time management, shifting in education policies, and heavy workloads were also discovered to be key factors that contributed to teacher stress (Tasheen, 2015). Teaching students with demanding needs without enough support as well as feeling the constant pressure of always being held accountable for students were also factors that contributed to teacher stress (Richards, 2013).

In contrast to determining what factors contributed to job related stress in the teaching profession, researchers like Black (2003) studied teacher stress and discovered strategies that could help alleviate stress. Reasonable workloads, frequent breaks, elimination of tedious task, allowing teachers to focus on teaching the classroom, and ensuring that the school environment is safe were a few strategies found to be effective at reducing teaching stress (Black, 2003). Prilleltensky et al. (2016) also studied teacher stress and found that teachers reported keeping up with paperwork, grading student work and dealing with student conflicts as reasons for stress reoccurring. Student misbehavior was the number one stressor for teachers (Prilleltensky et al., 2016). Teacher doubts and worries about personal competence, and feelings of insufficient job preparation were also discovered as factors for increases in job-related stress (Prilleltensky et al., 2016).

Despite previous literature examining job-related stress in the teaching profession, there was no research on job-related stress as a function of teaching certification route. Instead, previous literature suggested that lack of preparedness might be a factor that could increase stress in the workplace. The preparation to practice gap defines deficits in educational programs as a factor that prevented new educators from being able to adequately perform the demands of their job (Hickerson, et al., 2016). When there is inadequate teacher preparation, burnout occurs and teachers may leave the profession or stay in a job giving only a minimal level of performance (Hickerson, et. al., 2016). Thus, I further examined teacher certification programs (alternative and traditional) to determine whether differences in preparedness impacted teacher job-related stress once teachers were employed in their first year of teaching.

The Teacher Stress Inventory consists of four components—time management, discipline, and motivation, work stressors, and professional distress (Fimian, 1984; Fimian & Fastenau, 1990)—that served as dependent variables to determine whether teacher certification route influenced levels of job-related stress. Results from this study showed that there were no significant differences in the mean levels of teacher job-related stress (time management, discipline and motivation, work stressors, and professional distress) between teachers certified traditionally or alternatively. The results from this study could be interpreted in many ways. It could be concluded that no significance was found in job-related stress as a function of teacher certification route because of the nature of the teaching profession in general. There is a plethora of literature that has demonstrated that the teaching profession is a highly stressful work environment (e.g.,

Black, 2003; Haberman, 2005; Prilleltensky et al., 2016; Tasheen, 2015). In addition, literature has attempted to identify factors that contribute to the teaching profession being stressful such as excessive paperwork, classroom management, dealing with student misbehavior and parents, and unreasonable workloads (Haberman, 2005; Prilleltensky et al., 2016; Tasheen, 2015). These factors do not differ based on certification route.

Because teachers regardless of their certification route have reported these factors as stressors, this could possibly explain why there was no difference in the mean levels of job-related stress between teachers who were certified traditionally or alternatively.

Teacher Subjective Well-being

Teacher subjective well-being has been examined in previous literature in the areas of job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Fox and Peter (2013) studied the first-year experience of alternative and traditional certified teachers and found personal satisfaction to be significantly different between the two groups. Traditional certified teachers rated their first experience as significantly more satisfying compared to alternative certified teachers (Fox & Peter, 2013). Troesch and Bauer (2017) also studied job satisfaction and self-efficacy among first career (teachers who pursued a career in teaching first) and second career teachers (teachers who had previous careers before teaching). Results showed that second career teachers were significantly more satisfied with their job and experienced significantly less stress than first career teachers. It was concluded that because second career teachers were eager to begin their new careers, they were able to maintain their self-efficacy and cope with the demands of their job. Results also showed that second career teachers displayed significantly higher levels of self-efficacy and

attributed career path as a moderating factor. Because second career teachers had been exposed to other careers prior to becoming an educator, variation in job exposure could have had a positive influence on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Troesch & Bauer, 2017).

This study involved the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire to examine teacher subjective wellbeing as a function of teacher certification route (Renshaw et al., 2015). Teacher subjective well-being was measured across two components—teacher efficacy and school connectedness—that have been found to contribute to overall well-being. Results from this study found that there was a significant difference in subjective well-being between teachers certified traditionally and alternatively (Renshaw, 2015). Teachers who were certified alternatively had significantly higher mean levels on teacher efficacy, school connectedness, and total teacher subjective well-being. The results from this study support previous research that revealed that second career teachers had higher levels of self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Second career teachers are similar to teachers who took the alternative route to seek teacher certification. It could be interpreted that alternatively certified teachers displayed higher levels of self-efficacy, school connectedness, and total teacher subjective well-being for similar reasons that previous literature as proposed. Research has shown that career diversity and variations in job exposure are beneficial to second career teachers because it allowed them to cope with the demands of their job, hence strengthening their sense of well-being (Troesch & Bauer, 2017).

Teacher Preparedness

Previous research has examined the effectiveness of alternative and traditional teacher certification programs. Kee (2012) found that alternative certified teachers believed they were significantly less prepared to teach effectively when compared to traditionally certified teachers because they did not have enough pedagogical coursework or internships prior to entering the teaching profession. Linek et al. (2012) also found that alternative certified teachers struggled in the teaching profession when compared to traditional certified teachers because they had significantly more difficulty with lesson planning, classroom management, and application activities. Wayman et al. (2003) also found that teachers certified alternatively indicated significantly more concerns regarding lesson planning than teachers certified traditionally. Teachers certified alternatively reported also concerns regarding preparation and demonstrated significantly lower skills in instructional methods (Wayman et al., 2003). However, in other research alternative certified teachers reported being highly skilled in their content had fewer concerns regarding lesson planning as an area of weakness (Koehler, et al., 2013).

Although previous research has supported the claim that teachers certified alternatively are less prepared than those certified traditionally, there is research that suggests the opposite. Moeffet and Davis (2014) studied alternative and traditional certification programs to investigate possible differences in teacher preparedness. They assessed preparedness by exploring teacher and administrator perceptions of the effectiveness of routes to teacher certification. Results from their study showed no difference in overall preparedness of alternative and traditional certified teachers.

However, Moffett and Davis did find a significant difference in the amount of mentorship between alternative and traditional certified teachers, which directly affected teacher preparation. It was suggested that the way to create more effective teachers is to provide strong mentor support from seasoned teachers.

The ADEPT Performance Assessment was used to measure teacher preparedness as a function of teacher certification route across the domains of instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism (Barnett et al., 2016). Chi square tests were conducted, and results revealed that there were no significant differences in teacher preparedness. It could be implied that teacher certification route does not impact teacher preparedness in terms of instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism. This could be a result of the effectiveness of alternative programs. Despite alternative program deviating from the traditional way that teachers are certified, alternative programs appear to be able to produce teachers that are equivalently prepared to enter the teacher workforce as teachers who were certified the traditional route. As previous research suggested, mentorships could also be responsible for the results (Moeffet & Davis, 2014). The first-year teachers who participated in this study were employed by school districts in South Carolina and received mentorship as a part of their professional development program. Receiving mentorship could have possibly increased preparedness in alternatively certified teachers to similar levels of traditionally certified teachers.

Theoretical Framework and Research Findings

This study was based on the demands control model (Karasek & Theorell, 1979), role stress model (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991), and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977). These models and theories were used to support the hypotheses of there being a significant difference in the stress levels, teacher subjective wellbeing, and teacher preparedness of traditional versus alternative certified teachers. The demand control model explains how job demand and job control interact to create strain and stress in the workplace (Karasek & Theorell, 1979). The demand control model predicts that excessive demands of the job would create strain, but if an individual has a high level of job control then the amount of strain is reduced (Karasek, 1979). The role stress model builds upon the demands control by analyzing stress in relation to roles in the workplace and assumes that stress occurs when role conflict and role ambiguity are present (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Role conflict is said to occur when two or more work demands are incompatible. Role ambiguity occurs when the functions and responsibilities associated with the role of the job is unclear. Research pertaining to certification route and preparedness supported the need to measure job demands of teaching preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, and professionalism) as a function of teacher certification route (Illgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). The demands control model supports this study because it laid foundation for further analysis to be conducted in reference to how not being able to meet job demands and job strain could contribute to job related stress occurring within the teaching profession. The results from this study revealed that there were no differences in teacher preparedness based on teacher

certification route. It could be implied that teachers from each certification route had a high level of job control and minimum issues with role conflict/ambiguity which reduced the amount of strain because they both were trained properly.

The self-efficacy theory was developed by Bandura (1977) to explain how one's beliefs in their own abilities influences how they succeed in certain situations. This theory describes various characteristics associated with those who have high and low self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) proposed that individuals with low self-efficacy perceive task to be more challenging which results in increased stress. Research has shown that individuals with higher self-efficacy can control strain created from the demand of the job whereas those with lower self-efficacy have more difficulty (Karasek, 1979). The self-efficacy theory supports this study because it aids in interpreting teacher subjective wellbeing as a function of teacher certification route. When individuals are not prepared to meet the demands of their job or manage role conflict it contributes to stress and strain occurring. Research indicates that teacher's self-efficacy is related to emotional exhaustion at the beginning of their careers (Oberennan et al., 2017). As their careers continue overtime, the likelihood for stress and strain also increases; hence negatively impacting self-efficacy (Oberennan et al., 2017). Results from this study found teachers who were certified alternatively to have higher levels of self-efficacy, which was a factor that measured teacher subjective well-being. According to the self-efficacy theory, it could be that teachers certified alternatively had strong beliefs in their abilities which contributed to them perceiving task associated with the teaching profession to be less challenging. Teachers certified alternatively may have had stronger beliefs in their

abilities due to diversity in their career path. Because second career teachers had been exposed to other careers prior to becoming an educator, variation in job exposure could have had a positive influence on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Troesch & Bauer, 2017).

Limitations

There are several limitations that are present in this study. One limitation is the accuracy in the participants' responses as to whether they met the minimum score for passing each section of the ADEPT performance assessment. Initially, school districts agreed to provide a list of first year teachers along with their actual ADEPT Performance Assessment scores on each domain. Later, I was notified by the school districts that the teachers would have to provide their own scores. In the beginning of the data collection phase, a number of teachers completed the survey but did not complete the demographic section that asked for their scores. Those teachers emailed me and stated that they only knew whether they met or failed each domain but could not recall their exact scores. For this reason, I revised the demographic area and specified for teachers to report either met (passed) or did not meet (failed) each section of the ADEPT Performance Assessment rather than asking for their actual scores. It is assumed that teachers reported accurate responses on whether they met or did not meet a passing score, but it cannot be verified. In addition, another limitation with not having participants actual scores could be in power of the statistical analysis. Had teachers been able to report their actual scores, I would had been able to assess possible differences in the actual levels of preparedness versus only being able to analyze the data on a categorical level.

A limitation that impacts the internal validity of the ADEPT performance assessment is maturation. The participants in this study were given a preliminary and final assessment (ADEPT) to measure teacher preparedness across the school year. The preliminary test is given in the fall of the school year roughly around the month of October, whereas the final is given in the spring of the school year around the month of April; approximately a six-month maturation period. The variation in time could have changed the maturation of the participants and their levels of preparedness, stress, and wellbeing, rather than as a function of the independent variable (teacher certification route).

The Teacher Stress Inventory and Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire were administered to participants in an online survey format. Because the survey was administered in an uncontrolled setting, there could be factors in that setting that influenced participants responses such as lack of having a conscientious response to questions on the survey and social desirability bias (Creswell, 2009). Teachers may have responded to items on the survey in a manner that they felt was socially favorable. This could be the same for the demographic area that requested for teachers to report if they met or failed components on the ADEPT Performance Assessment. Teachers may have reported that they met each component because it would be socially favorable. To control for factors such as social desirability, participants were reminded that their responses would be confidential and anonymous.

Other limitations include self-report bias, sampling bias, researcher bias, and confounding variables. Self-reporting bias could be a limitation because it is possible that

teachers could have self-reported their ADEPT scores as met on each domain due to social desirability. Sampling bias also serves as a limitation due to convenient sampling that was used to recruit participants. It is possible that only teachers who have experienced lower levels of stress could have been more willing to participate in the study. In terms of researcher bias, it has been noted that I have been employed by one of the public school districts in this study for over 5 years and that I have also undergone the ADEPT process. The public school district in which I am employed has over 50 schools, therefore the participants in this study were not recruited from the school where I am employed. By doing so, researchers' biases should not be a concern. The final limitation could be related to possible confounding variables such as mentorship. Moffett and Davis (2014) found a significant difference in the amount of mentorship between alternative and traditional certified teachers, which directly affected teacher preparation. It was suggested that the way to create more effective teachers is to provide strong mentor support from seasoned teachers. Because the first year teachers in this study received mentorship, the mentorship component could have altered their sense of wellbeing and overall stress they experienced.

Recommendations

A more in-depth study exploring the possible effect of teacher certification route on teacher preparedness, stress, and teacher subjective wellbeing might use a longitudinal study that would follow teachers from these programs into the end of their second year employed in the teaching profession. It would be important to look at the variables in this study after year one because year one is an adjustment period for all new teachers. Using

a different research method could examine the growth and differences in the participants within their profession overtime. Another possible study could examine whether the higher levels of subjective wellbeing among alternatively trained certified teachers is related to their previous careers and motivation to change their career. Reasons for changing careers and going into teaching may have an impact on subjective wellbeing. Similarly, researchers should also consider a qualitative study that could examine the first-year experiences of traditional and alternatively certified teachers which may provide insight on possible negative and/or positive themes related to the experience of teaching. Other more objective measures of teacher preparedness could also be used rather than relying on participant self-reports of ADEPT assessments. If district preparedness assessments such as ADEPT are used, perhaps some school districts may be willing to provide teachers scores versus having to rely on teachers to self-report.

Implications

The current study demonstrated that the only significant difference between alternatively and traditionally certified teachers was on the levels of subjective wellbeing. Teachers certified alternatively had significantly higher mean levels of teacher subjective wellbeing across the areas of self-efficacy, school connectedness, and overall wellbeing. There were no significant differences in the mean levels of stress (time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, or stressors) and also no significant differences in teacher preparedness (instruction, planning, classroom management, professionalism) during the preliminary and final assessment as a function of teacher certification route. These findings may contribute to several positive implications for

social change in the teaching profession. This research has provided additional information to the limited body of knowledge on job related stress, teacher subjective wellbeing and teacher preparedness as a function of teacher certification route.

Results from this study may lead to positive social change in school policy such as the hiring process of alternatively certified teachers and the implementation of professional development. Because this study showed no significance between the two certification routes in the areas of job-related stress and preparedness, school principals may be more receptive to hiring first year teachers that come from the alternative certification programs. There are many states that have teacher shortages but who have not created alternative teaching certification programs as remedy to fill those shortages. The results from this study also revealed that alternatively certified teachers did not differ from traditionally certified teachers on preparedness but did report higher levels of subjective well-being. By having this information, those states who have not implemented alternative programs may become more receptive to doing so. Professional development programs could also be developed in schools that focus on maintaining components of subjective wellbeing so that teachers are happier in their careers; hence reducing teacher shortages. Other professional development opportunities could focus on how to strengthen teachers' sense of self-efficacy and school connectedness.

This study may also lead to positive social change in terms of the job demands of the teaching profession. Despite this study not finding teacher certification route to be a factor that influenced teacher job-related stress, this study did find that the teaching profession was considered as a stressful workplace for all teachers regardless of their

certification route. School districts may use the results from this study to look at factors such as time management, discipline and motivation, professional distress, and professionalism as areas to improve with the goal of alleviating some of stress experienced by first year teachers. By doing so, it could possibly lead to lower teacher turnover and thus reduce existing teacher shortages.

This study can also lead to methodological and theoretical implications. The ADEPT performance assessment was used to assess teacher preparedness in this study. Future researchers should assess preparedness with a more objective assessment measure that school districts can provide or researchers can develop. In addition, school districts should consider other ways to use these preparedness measures like ADEPT outside of its original purpose which was to determine teacher contract levels. This could include implementing strategies and programs to improve preparedness. The results of this study have supported the self-efficacy theory. However, it is certainly the case that not every teacher going through their first year of teaching is going to have an equal level of wellbeing. Further implications would be to analyze other theories to better understand how teachers reach a certain level of self-efficacy which may alter their level of wellbeing. Such theories as the Maslach burnout theory might explain the relationship between job efficacy and self-efficacy. It may be that teachers certified traditionally experience more burnout and emotional exhaustion which impacts their wellbeing, whereas teachers certified alternatively may not.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to fill the gap in literature relating to job related stress, teacher subjective wellbeing, and teacher preparedness as a function of teacher certification route. Teaching has been deemed as a highly stressful career that has resulted in teacher burnout and teachers leaving the profession (Steiner, 2014). Data has also shown that the number of individuals enrolled into traditional teaching certification programs have dropped from 75,000 to 45,000 in the past 10 years (CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2010). With teachers leaving the profession and not enough traditional teaching programs producing new teachers to replace the ones that have left, the issue of teacher shortages has become a significant problem. State and federal educational departments have looked to alternative teacher certification programs with hopes to fill this shortage. This study examined first year teachers from alternative and traditional certification programs to determine if there were differences in job related stress, teacher subjective wellbeing, and overall teacher preparedness once teachers from these programs were employed in their workplace. Findings indicated that there was no difference in job-related stress or teacher preparedness as a function of teacher certification route. However, findings did indicate a significant difference in teacher subjective wellbeing. Teachers certified alternatively had significantly higher levels of teacher subjective wellbeing across the areas of self-efficacy, school connectedness, and overall wellbeing. These findings suggested that teacher certification route does not influence teacher job-related stress or preparedness, but that there may be other mediating factors such as career diversity that could have influenced teacher subjective wellbeing.

Findings from this study may enable future researchers to look at the variables in this study beyond the first year of teaching. In addition, these results may be used for positive social change by encouraging school districts to hire more alternatively certified teachers to help reduce teacher shortages.

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Appendix A: Teacher Stress Inventory

The following are a number teacher concerns. Please identify those factors which cause you stress in your present position. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Then, indicate how strong the feeling is when you experience it by circling the appropriate rating on the 5-point scale. If you have not experienced this feeling, or if the item is inappropriate for your position, circle number 1 (no strength; not noticeable). The rating scale is shown at the top of each page.

Examples: I feel insufficiently prepared for my job. 1 2 3 4 5

If you feel very strongly that you are insufficiently prepared for your job, you would circle number 5.

I feel that if I step back in either effort or commitment, I may be seen as less competent.

1 2 3 4 5

If you never feel this way, and the feeling does not have noticeable strength, you would circle number

	Rating Scale				
	1	2	3	4	5
HOW	no	mild	medium	great	major
STRONG	strength;	strength;	strength;	strength;	strength;
not	barely	moderately	very	extremely	
noticeable	noticeable	noticeable	noticeable	noticeable	

TIME MANAGEMENT

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I easily over-commit myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I become impatient if others do things too slowly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I have to try doing more than one thing at a time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I have little time to relax/enjoy the time of day. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I think about unrelated matters during conversations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I feel uncomfortable wasting time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. There isn't enough time to get things done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I rush in my speech. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Add items 1 through 8; divide by 8; place your score here:

WORK-RELATED STRESSORS

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9. There is little time to prepare for my lessons/responsibilities. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 10. There is too much work to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 11. The pace of the school day is too fast. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 12. My caseload/class is too big. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |

13. My personal priorities are being shortchanged due to time demands. 1 2 3
4 5
14. There is too much administrative paperwork in my job. 1 2 3
4 5

Add items 9 through 14; divide by 6; place your score here:

DISCIPLINE AND MOTIVATION

I feel frustrated...

15. ...because of discipline problems in my classroom. 1 2 3 4
5
16. ...having to monitor pupil behavior. 1 2 3 4
5
17. ...because some students would better if they tried. 1 2 3 4
5
18. ...attempting to teach students who are poorly motivated. 1 2 3 4
5
19. ...because of inadequate/poorly defined discipline problems. 1 2 3 4
5
20. ...when my authority is rejected by pupils/administration. 1 2 3 4
5

Add items 15 through 20; divide by 6; place your score here:

PROFESSIONAL DISTRESS

21. I lack motivation/and or advancement opportunities 1 2 3 4 5
22. I am not progressing my job as rapidly as I would like 1 2 3 4 5
23. I need more status and respect on my job 1 2 3 4 5
24. I receive an inadequate salary for the work I do 1 2 3 4 5
25. I lack recognition for the extra work and/or good teaching I do 1 2 3 4
5

Add items 21 through 25; divide by 5; place your score here:

Appendix B: Teacher Subjective Well-Being Questionnaire

The following are a number teacher concerns that assess teachers' subjective wellbeing. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Then, indicate how strong the feeling is when you experience it by circling the appropriate rating on the 4-point scale. The rating scale is shown at the top of each page.

Rating Scale

(1) almost never (2) rarely (3) sometimes (4) almost always

School Connectedness

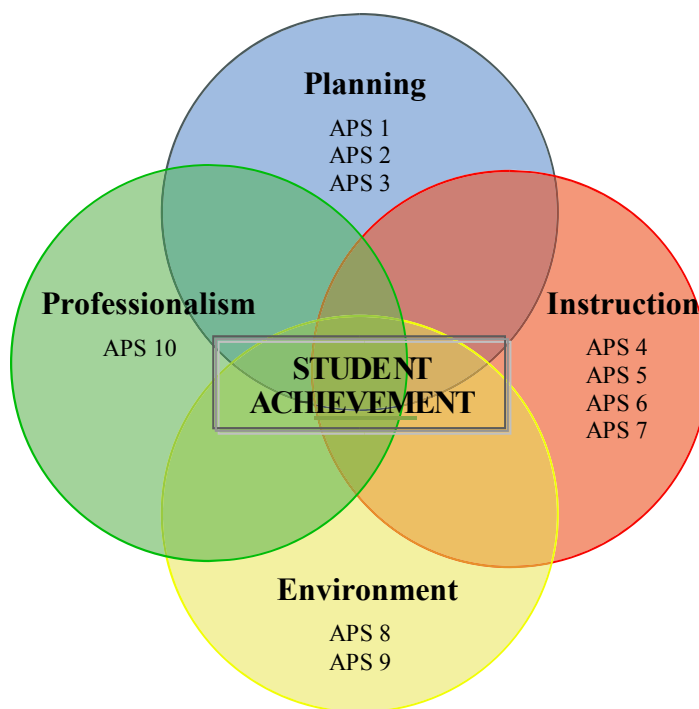
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I feel like I belong at this school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I can really be myself at this school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I feel like people at this school care about me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. I am treated with respect at this school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Teaching Efficacy

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5. I am a successful teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I am good at helping students learn new things. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I have accomplished a lot as a teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I feel like my teaching is effective and helpful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Total Score: _____ (calculated by summing all ratings for each item)

Appendix C: ADEPT Forms and Rubrics



ADEPT Formal Evaluation Observation Record for Classroom-Based Teachers

Teacher's name: _____ Grade(s)/subject(s): _____

District: _____ School: _____

Date/time of observation: _____

Observer: _____

APS 8: MAINTAINING AN ENVIRONMENT THAT PROMOTES LEARNING <i>An effective teacher creates and maintains a classroom environment that encourages and supports student learning.</i>	
A. What was the physical environment of the classroom like?	
B. What type of affective climate did the teacher establish for the students?	
C. What type of learning climate did the teacher establish for the students?	

APS 9: MANAGING THE CLASSROOM <i>An effective teacher maximizes instructional time by efficiently managing student behavior, instructional routines and materials, and essential noninstructional tasks.</i>	
A. What were the teacher's expectations for student behavior? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood the ways in which they were expected to behave?	
B. In what ways did the teacher maximize—or <i>fail</i> to maximize— instructional time?	
C. What types of instructional materials, resources, and technologies were used during the lesson, and how did the teacher manage them?	

APS 4: ESTABLISHING AND MAINTAINING HIGH EXPECTATIONS FOR LEARNERS <i>An effective teacher establishes, clearly communicates, and maintains appropriate expectations for student learning, participation, and responsibility.</i>	
A. What did the teacher expect the students to <i>learn</i> from the lesson? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood what the teacher expected for them to learn?	
B. What did the teacher expect the students to <i>do</i> during and after the lesson? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood what the teacher expected them to do?	
C. How did the teacher help the students <i>relate</i> to the learning? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood the relevance and/or importance of the learning?	

APS 5: USING INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO FACILITATE LEARNING	
<i>An effective teacher promotes student learning through the effective use of appropriate instructional strategies.</i>	
A. What instructional strategies did the teacher use during the lesson?	
B. In what ways did the teacher vary the instructional strategies during the lesson, and why?	
C. What evidence suggests that the instructional strategies were—or were <i>not</i> —effective in terms of promoting student learning and success?	

APS 6: PROVIDING CONTENT FOR LEARNERS	
<i>An effective teacher possesses a thorough knowledge and understanding of the discipline so that he or she is able to provide the appropriate content for the learner.</i>	
A. What evidence suggests that the teacher did—or did <i>not</i> —have a thorough knowledge and understanding of the content?	
APS 6: PROVIDING CONTENT FOR LEARNERS	
<i>An effective teacher possesses a thorough knowledge and understanding of the discipline so that he or she is able to provide the appropriate content for the learner.</i>	
B. What was the content of the lesson?	
C. How did the teacher explain and/or demonstrate the content to the students, and how effective were the explanations/demonstrations?	

APS 7: MONITORING, ASSESSING, AND ENHANCING LEARNING	
<i>An effective teacher maintains a constant awareness of student performance throughout the lesson in order to guide instruction and provide appropriate feedback to students.</i>	
A. In what ways—and how effectively— did the teacher monitor student learning during the lesson?	
B. In what ways—and how effectively— did the teacher make adjustments to accommodate the learning needs of the students?	
C. What types of instructional feedback did the teacher provide to the students, and how effective was the feedback in terms of enhancing student learning?	

APS 8: MAINTAINING AN ENVIRONMENT THAT PROMOTES LEARNING <i>An effective teacher creates and maintains a classroom environment that encourages and supports student learning.</i>	
A. What was the physical environment of the classroom like?	
B. What type of affective climate did the teacher establish for the students?	
C. What type of learning climate did the teacher establish for the students?	

APS 9: MANAGING THE CLASSROOM <i>An effective teacher maximizes instructional time by efficiently managing student behavior, instructional routines and materials, and essential noninstructional tasks.</i>	
A. What were the teacher's expectations for student behavior? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood the ways in which they were expected to behave?	
B. In what ways did the teacher maximize—or <i>fail</i> to maximize— instructional time?	
C. What types of instructional materials, resources, and technologies were used during the lesson, and how did the teacher manage them?	

APS 4: ESTABLISHING AND MAINTAINING HIGH EXPECTATIONS FOR LEARNERS <i>An effective teacher establishes, clearly communicates, and maintains appropriate expectations for student learning, participation, and responsibility.</i>	
A. What did the teacher expect the students to <i>learn</i> from the lesson? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood what the teacher expected for them to learn?	
B. What did the teacher expect the students to <i>do</i> during and after the lesson? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood what the teacher expected them to do?	
C. How did the teacher help the students <i>relate</i> to the learning? In what ways did the students demonstrate that they understood the relevance and/or importance of the learning?	

APS 5: USING INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES TO FACILITATE LEARNING	
<i>An effective teacher promotes student learning through the effective use of appropriate instructional strategies.</i>	
A. What instructional strategies did the teacher use during the lesson?	
B. In what ways did the teacher vary the instructional strategies during the lesson, and why?	
C. What evidence suggests that the instructional strategies were—or were <i>not</i> —effective in terms of promoting student learning and success?	

APS 6: PROVIDING CONTENT FOR LEARNERS	
<i>An effective teacher possesses a thorough knowledge and understanding of the discipline so that he or she is able to provide the appropriate content for the learner.</i>	
A. What evidence suggests that the teacher did—or did <i>not</i> —have a thorough knowledge and understanding of the content?	
APS 6: PROVIDING CONTENT FOR LEARNERS	
<i>An effective teacher possesses a thorough knowledge and understanding of the discipline so that he or she is able to provide the appropriate content for the learner.</i>	
B. What was the content of the lesson?	
C. How did the teacher explain and/or demonstrate the content to the students, and how effective were the explanations/demonstrations?	

APS 7: MONITORING, ASSESSING, AND ENHANCING LEARNING	
<i>An effective teacher maintains a constant awareness of student performance throughout the lesson in order to guide instruction and provide appropriate feedback to students.</i>	
A. In what ways—and how effectively— did the teacher monitor student learning during the lesson?	
B. In what ways—and how effectively— did the teacher make adjustments to accommodate the learning needs of the students?	
C. What types of instructional feedback did the teacher provide to the students, and how effective was the feedback in terms of enhancing student learning?	

ADEPT Formal Evaluation Consensus Report

Teacher's name: _____ Grade(s)/subject(s): _____

District: _____ School: _____

YEAR _____ € Preliminary € Final

DOMAIN 1: PLANNING

APS 1: Long-Range Planning		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
1.A	Obtaining and analyzing student information and using this information to guide instructional planning			
1.B	Establishing appropriate learning and developmental goals for all students			
1.C	Identifying and sequencing appropriate instructional units			
1.D	Developing appropriate processes for evaluating and recording students' progress and achievement			
1.E	Planning appropriate procedures for managing the classroom			

APS 2: Short-Range Planning of Instruction		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
2.A	Developing unit objectives			
2.B	Developing unit plans (content, strategies, materials, resources)			
2.C	Using student performance data to guide instructional planning			

APS 3: Planning Assessments and Using Data		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
3.A	Developing/selecting and administering appropriate assessments			
3.B	Gathering, analyzing, and using assessment data			
3.C	Using assessment data to reflect student progress and achievement			

Domain 1 (APSs 1–3) total points earned:		Total points possible = 11
Domain 1 Rating	€ Pass (≥ 10 points)	€ Fail (≤ 9 points)

DOMAIN 2: INSTRUCTION

APS 4: Establishing and Maintaining High Expectations for Learners		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
4.A	Establishing, communicating, and maintaining high expectations for student achievement			
4.B	Establishing, communicating, and maintaining high expectations for student participation			
4.C	Helping students assume responsibility for their own participation and learning			

APS 5: Using Instructional Strategies to Facilitate Learning		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
5.A	Using appropriate instructional strategies			
5.B	Using a variety of instructional strategies			
5.C	Using instructional strategies effectively			

APS 6: Providing Content for Learners		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
6.A	Demonstrating a thorough command of the subject matter			
6.B	Providing appropriate content			
6.C	Structuring the content to promote meaningful learning			

APS 7: Monitoring, Assessing, and Enhancing Learning		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
7.A	Monitoring student learning during instruction			
7.B	Enhancing student learning during instruction			
7.C	Providing appropriate instructional feedback to all students			

Domain 2 (APSs 4–7) total points earned:		Total points possible = 12
Domain 2 Rating	€ Pass (≥ 11 points)	€ Fail (≤ 10 points)

DOMAIN 3: ENVIRONMENT

APS 8: Maintaining an Environment That Promotes Learning		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
8.A	Creating a safe physical environment that is conducive to learning			
8.B	Creating and maintaining a positive classroom climate			
8.C	Creating and maintaining a classroom culture of learning			

APS 9: Managing the Classroom		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
9.A	Managing student behavior appropriately			
9.B	Making maximum use of instructional time			
9.C	Managing noninstructional routines efficiently			

Domain 3 (APSs 8–9) total points earned:		Total points possible = 6
Domain 3 Rating	€ Pass (≥ 5 points)	€ Fail (≤ 4 points)

DOMAIN 4: PROFESSIONALISM

APS 10: Fulfilling Professional Responsibilities		Met (1 point)	Not Met (0 points)	Rationale
10.A	Advocating for the students			
10.B	Working to achieve organizational goals			
10.C	Communicating effectively			
10.D	Exhibiting professional demeanor and behavior			
10.E	Becoming an active, lifelong learner			

Domain 4 (APSs 10 total points earned):		Total points possible = 5
Domain 4 Rating	€ Pass (≥ 4 points)	€ Fail (≤ 3 points)

Evaluators' signatures: *By signing below, I verify that the formal evaluation process was conducted in accordance with the approved ADEPT plan and that I participated in making—and am in agreement with—the above judgments.*

Evaluator: _____ Date: _____

Evaluator: _____
Date: _____

Evaluator: _____ Date: _____
(optional)

Teacher's signature: *By signing below, I verify that I have received the results of this formal evaluation. My signature does not necessarily imply that I agree with these results.*

Teacher: _____ Date: _____

Key Elements	Criteria for “Not Met Standard” (1 pt.)	Criteria for “Met Standard” (2 pts.)
1.A: Obtaining and analyzing student information and using this information to guide instructional planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not demonstrate knowledge about the different types of student information or the sources for this information. ◆ Candidate does not use student information to guide instructional planning. ◆ Candidate’s use of student information does not conform to local, state, or federal privacy guidelines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate demonstrates knowledge about the different types of student information and the sources for this information. ◆ Candidate analyzes student information and uses it to guide instructional planning. ◆ Candidate incorporates different types of student information (e.g., interest inventories and learning styles) to guide instructional planning. ◆ Candidate’s use of student information conforms to local, state, and federal privacy guidelines.
1.B: Establishing appropriate learning and developmental goals for all students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not create appropriate learning and developmental goals and units for all students based on state curriculum standards. ◆ Candidate does not use learning taxonomies to structure long-range learning goals. ◆ Candidate fails to incorporate SPA standards (where appropriate) into instructional units. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate creates appropriate learning and developmental goals and units for all students based on state curriculum standards. ◆ Candidate uses (revised) Bloom’s taxonomy as one way to structure long-range learning goals. ◆ Candidate incorporates SPA standards (where appropriate) into instructional units.
1.C: Identifying and sequencing appropriate instructional units	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate rarely identifies or sequences developmentally appropriate instructional units. ◆ Candidate does not identify multiple materials and/or resources to enhance long-range plans. ◆ Candidate’s long-range plans indicate use of the textbook(s) as the instructional resource for the entire curriculum. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate routinely identifies and sequences developmentally appropriate instructional units. ◆ Candidate includes a list of multiple materials and/or resources to enhance long-range plans. ◆ Candidate’s long-range plans indicate an appropriate use of the textbook(s) as an instructional resource, not as the entire curriculum.

Key Elements	Criteria for “Not Met Standard” (1 pt.)	Criteria for “Met Standard” (2 pts.)
1.D: Developing appropriate processes for evaluating and recording students’ progress and achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not develop appropriate processes for evaluating and recording student progress and achievement. ◆ Candidate’s long-range plans do not use a variety of assessments. ◆ Candidate hasn’t developed or utilized appropriate methods for administering, scoring, and analyzing assessments. ◆ Candidate’s long-range plans do not illustrate an awareness of the distinction between progress and achievement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate develops appropriate processes for evaluating and recording student progress and achievement. ◆ Candidate’s long-range plans employ a variety of assessments. ◆ Candidate has developed and utilized appropriate methods for administering, scoring, and analyzing assessments. ◆ Candidate’s long-range plans illustrate an awareness of the distinction between progress and achievement.
1.E: Planning appropriate procedures for managing the classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not have appropriate procedures for managing the classroom. ◆ Candidate hasn’t identified routines, procedures, and expectations for instructional and non-instructional activities. ◆ Candidate hasn’t identified strategies for communicating with parents. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate has developed appropriate procedures for managing the classroom. ◆ Candidate has identified routines, procedures, and expectations for instructional and non-instructional activities. ◆ Candidate had identified strategies for communicating with parents.
2.A: Developing unit objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not develop lesson and unit plans that facilitate learning or developmental goals by incorporating appropriate cognitive, affective, and behavioral objectives based on state standards. ◆ Candidate does not set appropriate or inclusive expectations for learners. ◆ Candidate’s plans do not demonstrate appropriate scope and sequence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate develops lesson and unit plans that facilitate learning and developmental goals by incorporating appropriate cognitive, affective, and behavioral objectives based on state standards. ◆ Candidate sets appropriate expectations for all learners. ◆ Candidate’s plans indicate appropriate scope and sequence.
2.B: Developing unit plans (content, strategies, materials, resources)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate’s plans do not incorporate a variety of instructional strategies, materials, or resources to engage all students in learning. ◆ Candidate does not provide a list of materials, resources, and/or technologies to support instructional plans. ◆ Candidate’s plans show no cognizance of learning styles. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate’s plans use a variety of instructional strategies, materials, and resources to engage all students in learning. ◆ Candidate provides a list of materials, resources, and/or technologies to support instructional plans. ◆ Candidate’s plans take into consideration the learning styles of students.

Key Elements	Criteria for “Not Met Standard” (1 pt.)	Criteria for “Met Standard” (2 pts.)
2.C: Using student performance data to guide instructional planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate fails to use student performance on various formal and informal assessments to guide instructional planning. ◆ The candidate’s plans do not provide (where appropriate) accommodations for learners with diverse needs. ◆ Candidate seems unaware that multiple factors can influence student performance, and that these factors inform planning. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate uses student performance on various formal and informal assessments to guide instructional planning. ◆ Candidate’s plans indicate (where appropriate) accommodations for learners with diverse needs. ◆ Candidate demonstrates awareness that multiple factors can influence student performance, and that these factors inform planning.
3.A: Developing & selecting and administering appropriate assessments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not develop and administer a variety of individual or group assessments to document learning outcomes. ◆ Candidate does not demonstrate knowledge and utilization of the principles of multiple intelligences. ◆ Candidate does not share assessment criteria or rubrics with students. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate develops and administers a variety of individual and group assessments to document learning outcomes. ◆ Candidate demonstrates knowledge and utilization of the principles of multiple intelligences. ◆ Candidate shares assessment criteria and rubrics with students.
3.B: Gathering, analyzing, and using assessment data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not gather his/her own assessment data, analyze it, or make data-based changes in instruction. ◆ Candidate cannot determine the general validity or reliability of assessment instruments. ◆ Candidate is unable to analyze standardized test data to diagnose learners’ strengths and weaknesses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate gathers his/her own assessment data, analyzes it, and makes data-based changes in instruction. ◆ Candidate can determine the general validity and reliability of assessment instruments. ◆ Candidate knows how to analyze standardized test data to diagnose learners’ strengths and weaknesses.
3.C: Using assessment data to reflect student progress and achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate does not use assessment data to show students how they are progressing or what they are achieving. ◆ Candidate does not use assessment data to inform parents about students’ progress in a timely or appropriate manner. ◆ Candidate fails to keep accurate or secure records of assessment data. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Candidate uses assessment data to show students how they are progressing and what they are achieving. ◆ Candidate uses assessment data to inform parents about students’ progress in a timely and appropriate manner. ◆ Candidate keeps accurate and secure records of assessment data.

Instruction

APS 4: Establishing and Maintaining High Expectations for Learners				
An effective teacher establishes, clearly communicates, and maintains appropriate expectations for student learning, participation, and responsibility.				
	4: Exemplary	3: Proficient	2: Needs Improvement	1: Unsatisfactory
APS 4A: The teacher establishes, communicates, and maintains high expectations ^a for student achievement.	The teacher consistently establishes high achievement expectations for the particular students ^b . The teacher clearly communicates, and clarifies and reviews (as needed), learning objectives and purpose/relevance.	The teacher establishes appropriate achievement expectations for the particular students ^b . The teacher communicates learning objectives and purpose/relevance.	The teacher establishes achievement expectations that are somewhat appropriate for the particular students ^b . The teacher's attempts to communicate learning objectives and purpose/relevance are inconsistently clear.	The teacher does not establish achievement expectations, or achievement expectations do not align with the particular students ^b . The teacher fails to communicate learning objectives and/or purpose/relevance.
APS 4B: The teacher establishes, communicates, and maintains high expectations for student participation.	The teacher consistently establishes, communicates, and assesses understanding of appropriate, explicit participation expectations that students apply to instructional activities during and beyond the lesson.	The teacher establishes and communicates appropriate participation expectations that students apply to instructional activities during the lesson.	The teacher establishes participation expectations that are somewhat appropriate. Students inconsistently apply participation expectations to instructional activities during the lesson.	The teacher does not establish participation expectations, or participation expectations are not appropriate. Students do not apply participation expectations to instructional activities during the lesson.
APS 4C: The teacher helps students assume responsibility for their own participation and learning ^c .	The teacher consistently and clearly communicates the importance and relevance of standards and objectives, and relates current learning with prior and/or future achievement. The teacher consistently facilitates active and extensive student ownership of learning and assists students in development of compensatory strategies (as needed).	The teacher communicates the importance of standards and objectives, and relates current learning with prior and/or future achievement. The teacher facilitates student ownership of learning and assists students in development of compensatory strategies (as needed).	The teacher inconsistently attempts to communicate the importance and relevance of standards and objectives, or the relationship between current learning and prior and/or future achievement is unclear. The teacher provides limited opportunities that facilitate student ownership of learning, or offers few needed compensatory strategies ^d .	The teacher does not communicate the importance of relevance of standards and objectives. The teacher fails to relate current learning with prior and/or future achievement. The teacher does not provide opportunities that facilitate student ownership of learning, and fails to offer needed compensatory strategies ^d .

Notes. ^aExamples of high expectations include student exemplars, rubrics, scaffolding, activation of prior knowledge, connections to relevant applications, and student-maintained records (e.g., portfolios).

^bExpectations for particular students refers to appropriately challenging standards for the grade, development, and ability level of students.

^cExamples of student ownership of learning include encouraging initiative and personal goal-setting, and structuring opportunities for self-assessment. ^dCompensatory strategies support varied student weaknesses (e.g., targeted interventions and peer assistance).

APS 5: Using Instructional Strategies to Facilitate Learning				
An effective teacher promotes student learning through the effective use of appropriate instructional strategies.				
	4. Exemplary	3: Proficient	2: Needs Improvement	1: Unsatisfactory
APSs 5A/5B: The teacher uses appropriate and varied instructional strategies.	The teacher consistently uses a substantial and varied repertoire of strategies that are appropriate for specific content/objectives and stage of learning. The teacher consistently varies formats and approaches, exchanges roles with students, and provides opportunities for both independent and collaborative learning for all students.	The teacher uses varied strategies that are appropriate for specific content, specific content/objectives and stage of learning. The teacher varies formats and approaches, may exchange roles with students, and provides opportunities for both independent and collaborative learning for most students.	The teacher uses limited strategies that are somewhat appropriate for specific content/objectives and stage of learning. The teacher uses limited formats and approaches, or does not exchange roles with students, and provides opportunities for either independent or collaborative learning.	The teacher uses a singular instructional strategy that is inappropriate for specific content/objectives and stage of learning. The teacher does not vary formats and approaches, or does not exchange roles with students, or does not provide opportunities for both independent and collaborative learning.
APS 5C: The teacher uses instructional strategies effectively	The teacher consistently uses instructional strategies that provide differentiated learning opportunities for all students based on students' specific levels, interests, and prior learning. The teacher's instruction consistently engages all students in meaningful learning throughout the lesson.	The teacher uses instructional strategies that provide differentiated learning opportunities for most students based on students' specific levels, interests, and prior learning. The teacher engages most students in meaningful learning for the majority of the lesson.	The teacher uses instructional strategies that provide limited differentiated learning opportunities for a few students. Instructional evidence of the teacher's use of students' specific levels, interests, and/or prior learning is sparse. The teacher engages few students in meaningful learning or students are only engaged for part of the lesson.	The teacher uses instructional strategies that fail to provide differentiated learning opportunities for students. Strategies are not based on students' specific levels, interests, and prior learning. The teacher fails to engage students in meaningful learning.

Notes. ^aFor special education students specific content refers to students' IEPs. ^bStage of learning refers to placement of lesson content within a unit or course (e.g., initial learning, application of learning, review of learning). ^cExamples of formats include technology, texts, and DVDs. ^dExamples of approaches include whole group, small group, manipulatives, stations, labs, tiered activities, guided practice, independent practice, and modeling. ^eExamples of role exchanges include the teacher functioning as an instructor and then as a coach while the student switches from an observer to a peer mentor. ^fExamples of effective use of instructional strategies include transferring learning responsibility from teacher to students, students applying knowledge beyond the classroom, and students demonstrating knowledge in a variety of formats. Effective strategies motivate students to maximize their potential beyond the use of rote learning (e.g., worksheets). ^gDifferentiation refers to adjusting instructional practice, process, product, and/or grouping to account for varying student learning levels, interests, and abilities. Examples include tiered assignments/activities based on complexity, intentional student grouping based on achievement levels and goals, and individual learning plans based on assessment and learning goals.

APS 6: Providing Content for Learners An effective teacher possesses a thorough knowledge and understanding of the discipline so that he or she is able to provide the appropriate content for the learners.				
	4: Exemplary	3: Proficient	2: Needs Improvement	1: Unsatisfactory
APS 6A: The teacher demonstrates a thorough command of the discipline that he or she teaches.	The teacher consistently provides accurate and current content, demonstrating a comprehensive knowledge of subject matter through the explanation of conceptual relationships and/or procedural steps. The teacher's expertise allows for content enrichment that augments required content. The teacher identifies and corrects students' errors.	The teacher provides accurate and current content, demonstrating knowledge of subject matter through the explanation of conceptual relationships and/or procedural steps. The teacher identifies and corrects students' errors.	The teacher provides accurate content, and some outdated information without the ability to expound. The teacher demonstrates an awareness of subject matter through the identification of conceptual relationships and/or procedural steps. The teacher identifies students' errors.	The teacher provides inaccurate content with several errors and/or with outdated information. The teacher demonstrates a lack of subject matter understanding, failing to identify conceptual relationships and/or procedural steps. The teacher does not identify students' errors, or inaccurately responds to students' errors.
APS 6B: The teacher provides appropriate content.	The teacher provides content consistently aligned with appropriate standards and students' needs. The teacher provides content from multiple sources, exposing students to a variety of perspectives.	The teacher provides content aligned with appropriate standards and students' needs. The teacher provides content from multiple sources or perspectives.	The teacher provides content that is somewhat aligned with appropriate standards or students' needs. The teacher provides content from limited sources and/or from limited perspectives.	The teacher provides content that is not aligned with appropriate standards or students' needs. The teacher provides content from a single source and/or from a singular perspective.
APS 6C: The teacher structures the content to promote meaningful learning.	The teacher consistently provides content in a logical sequence with examples applicable to all students. The teacher provides extensive content beyond factual information, promoting higher order thinking skills ^c for all students. The teacher consistently recognizes, identifies, and clarifies student content problems.	The teacher provides content in a logical sequence with examples applicable to many students. The teacher provides content beyond factual information, promoting higher order thinking skills ^c for majority of students. The teacher recognizes, identifies, and clarifies student content problems.	The teacher provides content in a somewhat logical sequence with few examples applicable to few students. The teacher provides only factual information, with content focused primarily on remembering facts. The teacher inconsistently recognizes, identifies, and clarifies student content problems.	The teacher provides content in an illogical sequence without examples applicable to any students. The teacher provides only factual information, failing to focus on all essential aspects of the content. The teacher does not recognize, identify, or clarify student content problems.

Notes. ^aExamples of sources include textbook, district curriculum resources, scripted program, state support documents, etc. Teachers adhering to structured programs (e.g., Voyager) may not use multiple sources.

^bLogical sequence includes implementation of Mastery Teaching Model components (i.e., lesson set, skill development, check for understanding, guided practice, closure, independent practice). ^cExamples of higher order thinking that challenge students to extend learning beyond the lesson include: Revised Bloom's Taxonomy levels (e.g., creating, evaluating, analyzing), problem-based learning, case studies, role play, Web quests, graphic organizers, research projects, and multimedia presentations.

APS 7: Monitoring, Assessing, and Enhancing Learning An effective teacher maintains a constant awareness of student performance throughout the lesson in order to guide instruction and provide appropriate feedback to students.				
	4: Exemplary	3: Proficient	2: Needs Improvement	1: Unsatisfactory
APSs 7A/7B: The teacher continually monitors student learning during instruction by using a variety of informal and/or formal assessment strategies ^a and enhances student learning by using assessment information to guide instruction.	The teacher maintains a constant and accurate awareness of student learning by observing/analyzing all students' verbal and nonverbal responses ^b and adjusts instructional strategies and pace accordingly. The teacher consistently uses effective questioning and monitoring to check for understanding with all students, always provides appropriate response time for questions, and rephrases questions when needed.	The teacher maintains a constant and accurate awareness of student learning by observing/analyzing students' verbal and nonverbal responses ^b and adjusts instructional strategies and pace. The teacher uses effective questioning and monitoring to check for understanding with a cross-section of students, provides appropriate response time for questions, and rephrases questions when needed.	The teacher inconsistently maintains an awareness of student learning by observing/analyzing students' verbal responses only. Adjustments in instructional strategies and pace are inappropriate or not evident. The teacher uses limited and/or ineffective questioning ^c and monitoring, only checking for understanding with few students and rarely provides appropriate response time for questions or rarely rephrases questions when needed.	The teacher does not maintain an awareness of student learning, failing to observe/analyze students' verbal or nonverbal responses. Adjustments in instructional strategies and pace are not evident. The teacher uses no and/or ineffective questioning ^c and monitoring, failing to check for understanding with students. The teacher fails to provide appropriate response time for questions and fails to rephrase questions when needed.
APS 7C: The teacher enhances student learning by providing appropriate instructional feedback to all students.	The teacher consistently provides accurate, constructive, substantive ^d , specific, and timely feedback throughout the lesson. Feedback helps students correct errors, reinforce skills, and extend learning.	The teacher provides accurate, constructive, substantive ^d , specific, and timely feedback at important intervals in the lesson. Feedback helps students correct errors, reinforce skills, or extend learning.	The teacher provides limited feedback during the lesson; feedback is often global ^e . Feedback inconsistently helps students correct errors, reinforce skills, or extend learning.	The teacher fails to provide substantive ^d feedback to students on significant student work or feedback is unclear. When feedback is provided, it does not help students correct errors, reinforce skills, or extend learning.

Notes. ^aExamples of informal and formal assessment strategies include discussions, projects, performances, assignments, and quizzes. ^bExamples of verbal and nonverbal responses include responses and reactions, inquiries, approaches to the task, performance, and final products. ^cExamples of ineffective questioning include primarily asking whole group/choral response questions and primarily asking yes/no questions. ^dSubstantive feedback is defined as a significant quantity. ^eExamples of global feedback include “good job” and “OK,” and statements made to the entire class instead of individual and constructive comments.

APS 8: Maintaining an Environment that Promotes Learning				
An effective teacher creates and maintains a classroom environment that encourages and supports student learning.				
	4: Exemplary	3: Proficient	2: Needs Improvement	1: Unsatisfactory
AP S 8A: The teacher creates and maintains the physical environment of his or her classroom as a safe place that is conducive to learning ^a .	The teacher's classroom arrangement consistently allows all students to see, hear, and participate. The classroom is neat, organized, and free of instructional distractions. Materials are properly stored and all applicable safety regulations are followed. The teacher displays relevant and interesting educational items, including current samples of student work ^b .	The teacher's classroom arrangement allows students to see, hear, and participate. The classroom is mostly clear of clutter and instructional distractions. Most materials are properly stored and applicable safety regulations are followed. The teacher displays relevant and interesting educational items, including some current samples of student work.	The teacher's classroom arrangement allows some students to see, hear, and participate. The classroom has some clutter and instructional distractions. Some materials are properly stored. The teacher displays some educational items that are predominately commercially made, with limited or irrelevant samples of student work. Safety regulations are not being followed.	The teacher's classroom arrangement prevents students from seeing, hearing, or participating. The classroom is cluttered with instructional distractions. Materials are improperly stored or not stored at all. Classroom displays are limited, irrelevant, and/or commercially made. Samples of student work are missing, outdated, or irrelevant. Safety regulations are not being followed.
APSs 8B/8C: The teacher creates and maintains a positive affective climate and culture of learning in his or her classroom.	The teacher consistently conveys self-confidence, generates enthusiasm for lesson content, and displays patience working with diverse students ^c . The teacher consistently models respect for all students and their feelings and encourages students to do likewise, ensuring all students have a sense of belonging in the classroom. The teacher values contributions from all students, consistently facilitates inquisitiveness and teamwork, and frequently involves students when designing instructional activities.	The teacher conveys self-confidence, generates enthusiasm for lesson content, and displays patience working with diverse students ^c . The teacher models respect for students and their feelings and encourages students to do likewise, ensuring students have a sense of belonging in the classroom. The teacher values contributions from a crosssection of students, facilitates inquisitiveness and teamwork, and sometimes involves students when designing instructional activities.	The teacher conveys limited self-confidence, generates limited enthusiasm for lesson content, and only displays patience working with some students ^c . The teacher models respect for some students and their feelings but does not encourage students to do likewise; few students have a sense of belonging in the classroom. The teacher does not encourage student contributions and only occasionally facilitates inquisitiveness and teamwork, often with unclear parameters. Students do not help design instructional activities.	The teacher does not display self-confidence, generate enthusiasm for lesson content, or display patience working with diverse students ^c . The teacher does not model respect for all students and their feelings; students do not have a sense of belonging in the classroom. The teacher does not encourage student contributions and does not facilitate inquisitiveness or teamwork and does not create an environment that fosters cooperation. Students do not help design instructional activities.

Notes. ^aGiven physical limitations of the classroom; teachers who share instructional space with other teachers are responsible for safety and student access to learning. ^bFor performance-based classes (e.g., performing arts and PE) student performance during lessons functions as student work. In some special education classes student work may manifest as students' active progress toward functional living goals

during instruction. ^cDiverse students refers to students from varying social, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds, and to students with varying intellectual abilities.

Domain 3 Rubric: Classroom Management

APS 9: Managing the Classroom An effective teacher maximizes instructional time by efficiently managing student behavior, instructional routines and materials, and essential non-instructional tasks.				
	4: Exemplary	3: Proficient	2: Needs Improvement	1: Unsatisfactory
APS 9A: The teacher manages student behavior appropriately ^a .	The teacher consistently establishes, conveys, and consistently enforces appropriate rules and consequences aligned with the school and district. The teacher maintains a constant awareness of students and activities, appropriately addressing all disruptions. The teacher consistently uses preventive disciplinary techniques ^b and positive reinforcement ^c .	The teacher establishes, conveys, and enforces appropriate rules and consequences aligned with the school and district. The teacher maintains an awareness of students and activities, addressing disruptions quickly. The teacher uses preventive disciplinary techniques and positive reinforcement.	The teacher inconsistently establishes, conveys, and enforces rules and consequences somewhat aligned with the school and district. The teacher maintains limited awareness of students and activities, addressing some disruptions while ignoring others. There is focus on both inappropriate behaviors and students. The teacher rarely uses preventive disciplinary techniques ^b and/or positive reinforcement ^c .	The teacher does not establish, convey, and enforce appropriate rules and consequences, and/or rules are not aligned with the school and district. The teacher is unaware of students and activities, with disruptions predominately not addressed. The focus is centered on students rather than behaviors. The teacher does not use preventive disciplinary techniques ^b and/or positive reinforcement ^c .
APs 9B/9C: The teacher makes maximal use of instructional time and manages essential noninstructional routines ^e in an efficient manner.	All instructional materials are useable, well-organized and accessible ^d and instructional transitions are consistently seamless and efficient. The teacher clearly and consistently establishes and communicates routines for all non-instructional practices which are all completed in a timely manner.	Most instructional materials are useable, well-organized, and accessible ^d and instructional transitions are efficient. The teacher establishes and communicates routines for non-instructional practices which are completed in a timely manner.	Instructional materials are not always useable, well organized, and accessible ^d and instructional transitions are sometimes efficient. The teacher has established some non-instructional practices which are inconsistently completed in a timely manner.	Instructional materials are not useable, well-organized, and accessible ^d or instructional transitions are inefficient and chaotic. The teacher has not established or communicated non-instructional routines.

Notes. ^aThe teachers' disciplinary actions focus on students' inappropriate behaviors and not on the students themselves. Teachers of exceptional needs students shape environments to encourage the independence, self-motivation, self-direction, personal empowerment, and self-advocacy of exceptional needs students. ^bExamples of preventive disciplinary techniques include eye contact, facial expressions, and proximity and encourage students to self-monitor and to assume responsibility for their own behavior. ^cExamples of positive reinforcement include verbal/non-verbal praise, tokens, smiles, and thumbs-up. ^dExamples of instructional materials include Voyager information, scripted resources, etc. ^eExamples of non-instructional routines include fire drills, attendance, collecting assignments, obtaining materials, and maintaining orderly work/lab areas.

Domain 4 Rubric: Professionalism

Key Element	Data Source	Exceeds Expectations (ADEPT expectation of 2 nd year teachers) (3 points)	Meets Expectations (2 points)	Does Not Meet Expectations (1 point)
10.A The candidate is an advocate for the students.	APS 10 Items 1, 2	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> works effectively with colleagues to help determine and meet individual student needs; and establishes appropriate professional relationships with others outside the school to support the well-being of students. 	The candidate attempts to work with colleagues to determine and meet individual student needs.	The candidate does not work with colleagues to determine and meet individual student needs.
10.B The candidate works to achieve organizational goals in order to make the entire school a more positive and productive learning environment for the students.	APS 10 Item 3	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> is an active contributor to school initiatives; and supports school-related organizations and activities. 	The candidate attempts to contribute to school initiatives, organizations, and/or activities as appropriate given the placement.	The candidate does not contribute to school initiatives, organizations, or activities.
10.C The candidate is an effective communicator.	Formative Observations & Internship Midterm/Final Evaluation Reports APS 10 Item 4	The candidate uses clear and correct oral and written language; and □ communicates effectively and regularly with parents.	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> uses clear and correct oral and written language; and attempts to communicate with parents. 	The candidate does not consistently use clear and correct oral and written language.
10.D The candidate exhibits professional demeanor and behavior.***	Formative Observations & Internship Midterm/Final Evaluation Reports	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> maintains all required professional credentials; adheres to all Standards of Conduct for South Carolina Educators and maintains ethical standards; and demonstrates self-management skills (e.g., responsibility, initiative, time management, appearance) and a high quality of work (e.g., completing required tasks in an accurate, timely and effective manner). *** Documented on Domain 5 of the Internship Midterm/Final Evaluation Report 	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> adheres to all Standards of Conduct for South Carolina Educators and maintains ethical standards; and demonstrates some self management skills and a high quality of work. 	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> adheres to all Standards of Conduct for South Carolina Educators and maintains ethical standards; but does not demonstrate self-management skills or a high quality of work.

10.E	The teacher is an active learner.	APS 10 Items 5, 6, 7	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• accurately identifies his or her own professional strengths and challenges;• sets appropriate professional development goals; and• regularly seeks out, participates in, and contributes to activities that promote professional collaboration and that support his or her continued professional growth and development.	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• is able to identify professional strengths and challenges; and• sets some appropriate professional development goals.	<p>The candidate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• is not able to identify his or her own professional strengths and challenges; and does not attempt to set professional development goals.
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Appendix D: E-mail for Permission to use the Teacher Subjective Wellbeing

Questionnaire

Greetings Dr. Renshaw,

My name is Shuchemia Bradley and I am a student at Walden University. I am currently working on my dissertation, which will examine teacher stress, teacher subjective well-being and preparedness in teachers certified traditionally versus alternatively. I would like to use the Teacher Subjective Well-being Questionnaire in order to examine teacher well-being. I would be using the assessment in an online format and would only include a copy of the instrument in the appendix of my dissertation with permission. The instrument would not be modified. Please reply indicating if permission is granted or with any questions that you may have.

Thank you for your assistance and have a great day.

Shu'Chemia Bradley

Greetings Dr. Fimian,

My name is Shuchemia Bradley and I am a student at Walden University. I am currently working on my dissertation, which will examine teacher stress, teacher subjective well-being and preparedness in teachers certified traditionally versus alternatively. I would like to use the Teacher Stress Inventory (1990) in order to examine teacher stress. I would be using the assessment in an online format and would only include a copy of the instrument in the appendix of my dissertation with permission. The instrument would not be modified but for data purposes I plan to only use four subscales: time management, discipline and motivation, work related stressors, and professional distress. Please reply indicating if permission is granted or with any questions that you may have.

Thank you for your assistance and have a great day.

Shu'Chemia Bradley