A continuum of professional development proposed at the University of North Florida conceptualizes points along the continuum as junctures for initiating collaborative activities between public schools and higher education. The findings of four different studies were merged to investigate the career development continuum of urban educators. The first study focused on stages of career development and examined the differences in career concerns of 44 experienced urban teachers and 87 preservice education students. Significant differences were found in the means on three scales of the Adult Career Concerns Inventory. A second study investigated the pattern of work values as measured by the Work Values Inventory of S. Super using the same groups. There were no significant differences in values between the groups. The third study addressed the career commitment of 143 experienced teachers, and the fourth study compared the career commitment of 87 students completing internships in urban schools to that of the preceding group of teachers. Preservice teachers were more likely to think that they would still major in education if they were beginning their educations, and they were less likely to plan to change careers. Data indicate that self-report data might not be the best way to identify the steps and stages in the professional development of urban teachers because of differences in the career concerns of experienced and preservice teachers. (Contains 2 tables, 2 figures, and 56 references.) (SLD)
Career Development Continuum for Urban Educators.

Robert Drummond and Cheryl Fountain
Career Development Continuum for Urban Educators

Introduction

Both national and state reform agendas demand new ways of thinking about schooling, developing challenging educational outcomes, and creating stronger links between education and emerging workplace competencies. Newly created schools and classrooms coupled with educators prepared to implement a curriculum calibrated to the competencies and skills required for high performing workplaces if we are to meet demands of the twenty-first century.

The ways in which educators are prepared and continue their professional education will need to change if this transformation is to take place. It is not possible to ensure that students acquire these emerging knowledge bases and competencies without ensuring that teachers and other educators also possess and demonstrate similar competency.

A shift in thinking about the way teachers are prepared and their continued professional development must lead to changes in the culture of the organization itself, not just the competencies and skills of individuals within the organization. Changes in schools' culture will require changes in values, norms of interaction and ways of doing things. Changes must occur in the ways individuals participate in decisions affecting the organization; in the ways in which individuals interact with colleagues in the organization; in the ways in which conflicts are handled; in the ways in which time allocations are made; and in the ways in which continuous learning by all members of the organization are fostered.

These social, political, and economic pressures are demanding changes that require not just "tinkering" but major conceptual shifts from the educational enterprise. New knowledge and understandings about systems and the change process make it clear that connections between K-12 schooling and higher education are necessary. Transforming schooling can not take place without changing the ways in which educators are prepared and continue their professional development throughout their careers. If schools are to be transformed, the content and delivery of instruction, the
preparation of future educators, an development the capacity of existing university faculty and classroom teachers must be simultaneously redesigned.

Historically, the process of preparing teachers and the professional development of practicing teachers were disjointed. If we are to dramatically redesign educational practice, as called for by educational reformers, then the preparation and continued development of practicing teachers must be merged into a "seamless" process that results in both individual growth and organizational development. The authors believed that career development theories could provide valuable insights as to how these disparate processes might be unified and redesigned.

A Professional Development Continuum for urban educators was conceptualized to serve two purposes: (a) as a conceptual tool that could be used to frame investigations of how professional development may be encouraged and facilitated; (b) as a conceptual tool to identify opportunities for collaboration between preservice and inservice educators that address pressing educational reform issues facing both K-12 and higher education. The Professional Development Continuum spans preservice and inservice roles rather than focusing on only one phase of teacher development. The Professional Development Continuum emerged from three knowledge bases (a) educational reform literature, particularly as it relates to urban settings; (b) development of teacher expertise; and (c) career development theory.

Limited attention has been given to exploring the relationships among preservice preparation, inservice professional development, and the stages of career development. The purpose of this study was to investigate the stages of career and professional development of urban educators and to see whether patterns were different from non-urban teachers. The study attempted, as a first step, to identify the characteristics of teachers at the various stages of a professional development continuum focusing on salient elements of career satisfaction and continued professional development: teacher efficacy, commitment to teaching, self-perceptions (confidence levels) of developing professional expertise, and reflective thought. Context of the Study

For the past five years, the authors have been engaged in two school/university
collaborative reform initiatives designed to restructure the preparation of urban educators and urban schooling by altering the professional development of inservice urban teachers. From these initiatives, the professional development continuum emerged as did the interest in factors which might contribute to continued professional development and commitment to teaching in urban settings.

AT&T Alliance for Tomorrow’s Teachers

In 1991 the AT&T Foundation invited the University of North Florida College of Education in collaboration with two urban school districts, two teacher organizations, and a community college to be one of five national sites to develop a model to improve the preparation of urban teachers by restructuring teacher preparation and practice in urban elementary schools. The program design of the Jacksonville AT&T Alliance for Tomorrow’s Teachers included establishing three urban professional development schools; redesigning school-based and university faculty roles; using strategic learning teams; redesigning clinical components of the teacher preparation program; and redesigning professional development opportunities for urban teachers.

Jacksonville Urban Educational Partnership

In 1994 the University of North Florida College of Education and Human Services, an urban school district, a teachers organization, and a community college received funding from the U.S. Department of Education to create an inter-institutional urban collaborative change network, the Jacksonville Urban Educational Partnership (JUEP). Project goals include: (1) creating three urban partnership professional development schools where best practices are modeled and refined giving particular attention to language arts, thinking skills, and workplace competencies that assist urban students to meet challenging academic standards; (2) creating and pilot-testing high-quality, research-based professional development opportunities for preservice and inservice urban teachers aligned with challenging standards-based academic content; (3) establishing a Professional Development Continuum for urban educators; (4) creating multiple opportunities for parental collaboration in the educational enterprise; and (5) informing the professional of successful strategies.
Professional Development Continuum

The professional development continuum attempts to integrate constructs from three knowledge bases (a) educational reform literature, particularly as it relates to urban settings; (b) development of teacher expertise; and (c) career development theory. The professional development continuum provides a framework for thinking about and changing teacher development and as a result educational practice.

Points along the continuum are conceived as junctures for initiating collaborative activities between public schools and higher education. The intersection points provide contexts for (a) meaningful engagement with ideas and colleagues to occur; (b) take into account the multiple and diverse contexts of urban schooling; (c) encourage inquiry, experimentation, and risk-taking; and (d) seek to enhance personal and organizational capacities. This collaborative framework for professional and career development is depicted in Figure 1.
Educational Reform Literature

Beginning in the early 1980s education again appeared on the national agenda as a concern (Goodlad, 1984, 1990; Holmes Group, 1986, 1990, 1995; Murphy, 1991; Sarason, 1990; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; Schlechty, 1990; Carnegie Forum of Education and the Economy, 1986; Educational Commission of the States, 1983). Interest in improving the quality of education in America was further exacerbated by the dramatic changes taking place in the global marketplace. American corporations began to struggle with the task of transforming companies to maintain their competitive edge in that marketplace. As American industry embarked on a journey to improve quality as a way of remaining competitive, the quality of the persons for the workforce took on greater importance. The public education structure that had served American industry so well in the past was seen as inhibiting the ability of American corporations to respond quickly and competently to the dramatic changes of an emerging complex and interdependent marketplace. Education was seen as part of the problem and at the same time critical to the solution. How to go about dramatically altering education practice became a priority.

Over the past fifteen years, reform efforts have continued to evolve, building on "lessons learned." A growing understanding of and use of change and the change process has emerged as a reform strategy (Fullan, 1993) as did the emergence of the concept of learning organizations and systems thinking (Senge, 1990) as a means of altering the preparation and practice of teachers thereby altering the outcomes of schooling.

Fullan (1993) identified four capacities needed to build greater personal change capability: personal vision building, inquiry, mastery, and collaboration. He also identified institutional counterparts for each: shared vision building, organizational structures, norms and practices of inquiry, focus on organization development and know how, and collaborative work structures. These views of the change process and supporting personal and institutional capacities provided useful constructs in developing the professional development continuum and structuring collaborative reform initiatives.
Senge (1990) argued that organizations of the future will be “learning organizations.” He identified five new “component technologies” that could provide the innovative energy necessary for learning organizations to thrive. These include (1) “systems” thinking—a conceptual framework... to make the full patterns clearer, and to help see how to change them effectively; (2) personal mastery; (3) using mental models; (4) building shared visions; and (5) team learning. These technologies provide a means for managing the increasingly complex systems and problems that confront both business and education and represent new kinds of skills and competencies needed by educators and their students.

Garvin (1993) further refined the meaning of learning organizations. He defined them as “organizations skilled at continuously creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge, and continuously modifying their behavior to reflect new knowledge and new insights.” Two conditions are necessary for learning organizations to flourish according to Garvin. First, new ideas and information must be readily accessible and in a useful format. Second, the newly acquired knowledge must then be applied to activities and translated into new ways of behaving. Garvin contends that members of learning organizations must be skilled in using five processes: systematic problem solving, experimentation with new approaches; learning from experiences and past history; learning from the experiences and best practices of others; and transferring knowledge quickly and efficiently throughout the organization.

Finally, differing conceptions of teachers’ work began to emerge. (Little & McLaughlin, 1993). These conceptions influenced the development of the professional development continuum. The nature of the professional community and its attendant norms and beliefs plays a major role in how teachers view their work and their students and influence their persistence in the profession (Nias 1989, McLaughlin, 1993). Examining the elements of a professional community and their influence on individual professional development and growth just beginning to be explored.

Development of Teacher Expertise

Three dimensions of teacher development identified by Leithwood (1990)
served as conceptual organizers in developing the professional development continuum. These include the development of professional expertise, psychological development, and career cycle development.

Leithwood's first dimension considers those skills and areas of expertise which contribute most directly to student achievement. He identified six stages of development in this dimension: developing survival skills, becoming competent in the basic skills of instruction, expanding one's instructional flexibility, acquiring instructional expertise, contributing to the growth of colleagues' instructional expertise, and participating in a broad range of educational decisions. These developmental stages have a great degree of commonality with the developmental stages of expert pedagogy articulated by Berliner (1988, 1994). These stages begin with novice and progress to advanced beginner to competent teacher to proficient teacher to expert teacher.

Also taken into consideration was the nature of pedagogy (Shulman 1986, 1987) and the work currently underway to define the process of professional development of teachers and its relationship to achieving educational reform goals (Mayher & Brause, 1991; Joyce & Showers, 1987; Kennedy, 1987; Little, 1987; Loucks-Horsley, 1989; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Lieberman, 1995).

The professional development continuum embraced the set of hypotheses identified by Mayer and Brause (1991) as essential to continuous cycles of teacher growth:

- teaching practice stems from teacher beliefs (implicit and explicit theories)
- change in practice depends on change in belief (theory)
- sources of change in belief (theory) are reflection-in-action on one's current practice; understanding and transforming research findings and theories so they form the basis of practice; sharing problems and reflections with colleagues.

Added to these premises were two other dimensions the authors believed were necessary if teachers beliefs and behaviors were to develop and change: (a) change
theory and its impact on teacher development; and (b) the influence of norms and culture on teachers behaviors and beliefs and the development of a professional community.

Hall and his colleagues (1987), building on the work of Fuller (1969), argued that when confronted with an innovation or proposed change in practice, teachers progress through predictable "stages of concern," and that those changes must be addressed if substantive change was to occur. Seven developmental stages of concern were identified: awareness, informational, personal, management, consequence, collaboration, and refocusing.

Little and her colleagues (1987) found that the school's values and norms shaped teachers' interest in and involvement with professional development. Fullan (1993), Lieberman (1991), and Little and McLaughlin (1993) contend that changes in the social context of schooling and changes in the nature of interactions among teachers greatly influence practice, professional efficacy, and the sense of professional community. As a result, six professional norms of interaction (collegiality, experimentation and risk-taking, reflectivity, multicultural sensitivity, teacher-as-decision-maker, ongoing inquiry, and commitment to teaching) served to anchor professional development activities associated with the professional development continuum.

Finally, the professional development continuum and its collaborative activities took into consideration a fundamental finding of the effective schools research - raising teacher expectations about students is a key element in raising urban student achievement (Brook, 1989; Edmonds, 1979, 1986; Levine, 1991; Levine and Lezotte, 1990; Lezotte and Jacoby, 1991; Ross, 1994; and Zeichner, 1994). Having high expectations for students is closely linked to high teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy measures the extent to which teachers believe their efforts will have a positive impact on student achievement.

O'Neil (1991) analyzed 88 studies related to teacher efficacy and its impact on teaching practices and student achievement. He identified four ways that teacher
efficacy might impact student achievement. First, higher efficacy teachers are more willing to learn about and implement teaching strategies which are especially demanding. Second, higher efficacy teachers use classroom management approaches that stimulate student autonomy and reduce custodial control. Third, higher efficacy teachers attend to the needs of lower ability students more closely and set higher academic standards for this group than low efficacy teachers did. Fourth, higher teacher efficacy may lead to changes in students' perceptions of their academic abilities.

To raise teachers' expectations for urban students, the authors believed that urban teachers must understand the resiliency of urban children, their families, and their communities (Benard 1991, 1993; Garbarino, 1992) and know how to create learning environments that build on those strengths. Werner (1990) found that the level of caring and support within the school is a powerful predictor of positive outcomes for youth. It is important that schools provide opportunities to develop caring relationships with both adults and other youth. Equally important was establishing high expectations for all students and giving them the support necessary to achieve them. Carta (1991) found that high achieving urban students were provided with opportunities to be meaningfully involved and have roles of responsibility within the school environment.

How to go about encouraging prospective and practicing teachers to hold high expectations for urban students and foster high levels of efficacy has received limited attention. It seemed clear that simply increasing the knowledge base of prospective and practicing teachers regarding urban learners was important but insufficient. The authors believed that purposeful interactions between novice and experienced teachers, multiple and varied experiences with urban students, their families and communities, would positive impact teachers' expectations for urban students. The intersection points along the professional development continuum helped to identify opportunities to encourage this "cross-stage" interaction, create shared experiences, and reflection.
The professional development continuum was the catalyst for increased collaboration between university education students and urban classroom teachers with the hope that this would result in positively changing prospective and practicing teachers' understanding of and expectations for urban students, families, and communities. Many opportunities to reflect on their experiences and the experiences of others were provided as a means of encouraging prospective and practicing teachers to challenge implicit beliefs and preconceptions about urban students, their families, and the communities in which they live.

**Career Development Theory**

Leithwood (1990) conceptualized career development from a life-cycle perspective. He identified five stages of development based on the work of Huberman (1988); Sikes, Measor, and Woods (1985); and Levinson (1978). These stages include launching the career; stabilizing and developing mature commitment; new challenges and concerns; reaching a professional plateau; and preparing for retirement. Actions in the third stage may take many forms ranging from increasing expertise to seeking promotion or pursuing alternative career paths.

Super (1994) also takes a life cycle perspective when describing career development. Super contends that individuals face the same developmental tasks, but in different forms as life unfolds. The life developmental tasks include growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. The life stages include adolescence (14-25); early adult (25-45); middle adulthood (45-65); and late adulthood (65 and over). Super also identified important “determinants” that influence and effect career development, achievement, and maturity. These include both external influences such as community, school, family, peer groups, the economy, society, the labor market; and internal influences such as intelligence, needs, values, interest, aptitudes, interests, and personality type. Super’s developmental tasks are depicted in Figure 2.
The authors believed that the life cycle perspective would be helpful in structuring collaborative activities along the Professional Development Continuum. By "matching" developmental tasks of novices and experienced teachers as collaborative activities were planned, it was hypothesized that professional growth for both participants would be enhanced.

Using the construct of a professional development continuum, collaborative initiatives were designed and implemented as a means of initiating the redesign educational practice in urban settings. The professional development continuum provides a way of thinking about merging the preparation and continued development of practicing teachers into a "seamless" process that encourages and facilitates in both individual growth and organizational development.

From "A life-span, life-space perspective on convergence." In M. Savikas & R. Lent (Eds.), Convergence in career development theories: Implications for science and practice, page 70.
This study attempted, as a first step, to identify the characteristics of teachers at the various stages of a professional development continuum by focusing on salient elements of career satisfaction and continued professional development. These included teacher efficacy, commitment to teaching, self-perceptions (confidence levels) of developing professional expertise, and reflective thought.

Questions To Be Answered

The overarching purpose of both school/university collaborative initiatives was the realignment and redesign of teacher preparation and ongoing professional development systems with emerging demands for education systems so that students and adults will possess and use the strategies and knowledge bases needed to creatively and ethically solve complex problems; adapt readily to changing circumstances; and excel in a culturally diverse and technologically sophisticated world.

The professional development continuum serves three purposes. It functions as a conceptual model for the way in which growth and development unfolds over the "life-span" of teachers. Second, it provides a way to identify points in time where collaborative opportunities among preservice and inservice teachers can take place that will encourage the redesign existing preparation and urban schooling processes. Third, it provides a framework for thinking about teacher development, its relationship to career development and existing career development theories, and the differences that may exist between urban and non-urban teachers.

This study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Are there differences in the career concerns of experienced urban teachers and preservice education students as measured by the Adult Career Concerns Inventory? Does the pattern of career development of individuals entering the field of education fit into the life stages paradigm of Super?

2. Are there differences in the twenty-one work values as measured by the Values Scale of experienced urban teachers and preservice education students?
3. Are there differences in career commitment for experienced urban teachers and preservice education students? Does commitment increase as individuals continue to work in teaching?

4. Are there differences in career satisfaction of experienced urban teachers and preservice education students?

Findings

The findings of four different studies were merged to investigate the career development continuum of urban educators. The first study focused on stages of career development and focused on the following question: Are there differences in the career concerns of experienced urban teachers and preservice education students as measured by the Adult Career Concerns Inventory? Eighty-seven preservice education students and forty-four urban teachers participated in the study. The average age of the teachers was thirty-two. They were all females and employed on the K-6 level. They had been teaching on the average of eight years. The range was three years to twenty-eight years. They were all graduate students enrolled in master level programs in the College of Education and Human Services. The eighty-seven preservice education students were all juniors and seniors in the College of Education and Human Services. They were seeking certification as elementary teachers. The mean age for this group was twenty-one.

The results of the comparison of the preservice education students and urban teachers is presented in Table 1. There were significant differences in the means on three of the scales of the Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI). Preservice education students had a significantly lower mean on the Exploration Scale than did the experienced teachers (46.67 to 56.47). Similar differences were found for all three subscales: Crystallization, Specification, and Implementation. There were not significant differences on the Establishment Scale. There were differences in the same direction, however, on the Maintenance Scale. Experienced urban teachers had a significantly higher mean than the preservice education students (53.95 to 45.32) on the Updating and Innovating subscales. Significant differences were also found on the Disengagement Scales and its subscales: Decelerating, Retirement.
Planning, and Retirement Living. Experienced urban teachers had higher concerns (51.52 to 37.93).

The second study investigated the pattern of work values as measured by Super's Work Values Inventory of experienced urban teachers and preservice education students. The comparison of the two groups is presented in Table 2. The make-up of the two groups was the same as in the first study. There were no significant differences between the two groups. The scores were ranked and a Spearman's rho of .95 was computed. The top three values for urban teachers were Altruism, Way of Life, and Achievement. For preservice education students, the top three values were Way of Life, Altruism, and Achievement.

The third study addressed the question: Are there differences in the career commitment of experienced urban teachers and preservice education interns? The questions on career commitment were extracted from three different surveys given as part of the continuous evaluation plan of the College of Education and Human Services. In the most recent study of urban teachers several questions were asked concerning their career satisfaction. Forty-nine percent of the 143 teachers responding to the survey reported that they still would have majored in education if they had it to do over again. 28% responded probably yes; 14% probably no; and 9% no. In this group, when asked their current feeling about a career in education, 32% reported very positive, 33% positive, 17% unsure, 14% negative, and 5% very negative. When asked what their career plans were for five years from now, forty-seven of the ninety-seven responding to the survey said "keep in teaching." Twenty-eight percent wanted to move on to some other position but still in the field of education.

In the most recent survey of students completing their internships in urban schools, 67 or 73.6% checked that they strongly agreed with the statement that if they were beginning their program of studies over again they would still major in education. Seventeen or 18.7% agreed with this statement. Only three or 6.6% disagreed. Ninety-one percent of the group reported that their internship made them more sure that they wanted to be a teacher. Only 11% reported that after their internship experience they had decided to explore other career fields.
Limitations

The data reported in these series of studies are self-report data. The sample in the first three comparisons is female and predominately Caucasian. Only about 5% of the respondents were minority group members. The group of urban teachers used in the first two studies were teachers enrolled in graduate studies at the university and might not be representative of all urban educators. The values and adult career concerns inventory although theoretically based on Super’s theories may have limited reliability and validity for assessing preservice and inservice teachers.

Conclusions

Data indicate that self-report data might not be the best way to identify the steps and stages of the development of the urban teacher. There appears to be no major differences between the experienced urban teacher and students preparing for teaching in their commitment to the career and their work values. However, there were significant differences in their career concerns. Experienced teachers had more concern about their career decision than did the preservice education students. The preservice education students probably look more idealistically at the choice. With the changes in technology and the stress of teaching, the experienced teachers were more concerned with updating and innovation than, of course, were the preservice education students. Both groups did have has their Holland high point code, Social, so many of the differences are in intensity of response, not the rank order of the variables.

Next Steps

To better understand the career continuum, a comprehensive longitudinal study would provide a different perspective. Ethnographic study of preservice education students, interns, beginning teachers, and experienced teachers might provide a more in-depth view of the stages of the continuum. Possibly, many of the differential traits and characteristics are teaching competencies and can best be assessed through observation.
Table 1.
Comparison of Preservice and Inservice Elementary Teachers on the Work Values Inventory

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Preservice</td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>sd</td>
<td>rank</td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>sd</td>
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<td>11.84</td>
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<td>13.39</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>12.32</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>11.93</td>
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<td>12.18</td>
<td>2.22</td>
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<td>Prestige</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>10.27</td>
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<td>11.50</td>
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Table 2.
Comparison of Experienced Teachers and Undergraduate Education Majors on the ACCI

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<tr>
<th>Test/Scale</th>
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<th>Preservice Teachers M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td>16.14</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>3.79*</td>
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<td>15.97</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>9.51*</td>
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<td>46.67</td>
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<td>7.75*</td>
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<td>15.69</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>5.56*</td>
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References


