In Other Words

Too Few Chefs in the Kitchen: An Examination of Evidence-Based Practices for Teachers in Special Education

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Introduction

The field of special education is in the midst of a scientific revolution that began with the passing of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2001) legislation (Slavin, 2002). There has been a longstanding dispute about how to translate research in education into practice and make the results effective in relation to increased student learning. The debate is centered on what constitutes rigorous research and what elements of a particular design employed in practice create positive student outcomes. For some time now the fields of medicine, agriculture, psychology, and economics have moved forward with their version of what "evidence" is and how it can be used in order to enhance the particular disciplines' capability to predict and alter outcomes. There is much debate about how certain principles of experimentation in education can assist students in achieving their maximum potential. This examination of the literature and issues surrounding Evidence-based Practices (EBPs) will focus on the problems related to the current research of the field special education, how the objectives are defined for moving towards rigorous research, the opposition to this movement, and the recommendations from experts in the field. One of the more important recommendations is the need to connect with teachers in the field. We need them cooking up these interventions as well in order to best serve the students in the public school system. However, if all the chefs in this situation are cooking up different recipes and wanting the same outcome, we have a problem. The problem, which certainly warrants further examination outside this initial analysis becomes: Can the field of special education employ EBPs in practice in order to enhance student outcomes in an inclusive classroom?

Understanding EBPs

In order to frame the discussion of evidence-based practices, certain definitions need to be explained and a model for understanding their applications delineated. Dunst and Trivette (2009) define evidence-based practices as:

> …practices informed by research findings demonstrating a (statistical or functional) relationship between the characteristics and consequences of a planned or naturally occurring experience or opportunity where the nature of the relationship directly informs what a practitioner or parent can do to produce a desired outcome (p. 41).

The authors noted that the concepts that inform EBPs come from a micro-level or microsystem outlined in Bronfenbrenner's (1993) work. This theory postulates that the examination of the physical, social, actions, roles of those involved, and interpersonal relationships of a planned or naturally

occurring experience affect how these elements are interrelated and ultimately the way this interplay influences outcomes.

Essentially, researchers have attempted to determine the cause and effect relationship between practice and student outcomes, while attempting to control for all the influential factors affecting a student's learning. Ultimately then a teacher could then use the EBP and determine if that method positively influences an individual student's learning, with all other elements being equal (or as close to equal as possible). This attempt at complete control of a multiple regression is not theoretically possible. This is due to the factors that cannot be controlled for, including the setting (child's home life), the uniqueness of every disability and its presenting manifestations, the student's academic history, and the teacher's interactions with his or her students. However, this should not deter practitioners and researchers from moving towards a more rigorous form of their discipline. If this attempt is made comparisons and contrasts become more apparent and practice can be shared across contexts.

Issues of EBPs Related to Special Education

Cook, Tankersley, Cook, and Landrum (2008) provided a summary of several issues to consider when examining EBPs in special education, which, in part, will be discussed throughout this paper. They noted that EBPs should have a sound research basis from reputable universities and large sample sizes within the studies. The results of those studies should have indicated positive, generalizable outcomes for students with disabilities. The authors also noted the required presence several crucial elements of the research studies being conducted at the university or government level about EBPs which included a solid experimental design, a high methodological quality, and a foundation of previous findings from other studies (with the exception of novel EBPs).

Additionally, the authors cautioned that not every EBP will work for every student and that teachers should be able to tweak certain aspects of the protocol to fit their students' needs. Lastly, a recommendation was made for the Council for Exceptional children (CEC) to create a state of the art inventory for EBPs (Cook, Tankersley, Cook, & Landrum, 2008). Thankfully, since the time of publication, the CEC has developed such a database. The use of the CEC will be discussed in the conclusion section of this examination.

Context

The context of the relationship between certain variables is important to understand when determining what constitutes evidence. Therefore, what counts as evidence is what can be drawn from experimental designs that involve random assignment to conditions or what is termed the "gold standard" of scientific research outlined in the NCLB act (2001). Although this type of research best describes a certain phenomenon, it does not mean that this type of research is the only way to inform EBPs. Experimental data is simply one source of information that allows for a degree of certainty (Dunst and Trivette, 2009). Experimental designs are a way to validate studies in a rigorous fashion, as long as the principles of a thorough design are applied.

However, Dunst and Trivette (2009) posited that certain studies need not employ such a design, especially if the outcome could be determined through an alternate method. The authors gave an example of paratroopers randomly assigned

to a condition (either wearing a parachute or not wearing a parachute). According to "pure" experimental design standards, the researcher would have to test the hypothesis that one group would experience significantly increased trauma versus the other if they were about to jump out of a plane.

So, for example, if a researcher were to have observed an effective practice in the field with a student identified as having a learning disability and they wanted to isolate and examine the factors that make that practice effective in a controlled setting, they would need to withhold treatment from a control group throughout the entire process to determine if the treatment or intervention has any lasting effect. This would obviously not be beneficial for the control group. This tradeoff between external and internal validity is something that needs to be addressed in special education (Gersten, Baker, & Lloyd, 2000). The difficulty lies in how special education defines itself as a legitimate field with valid and reliable research in the face of other disciplines whose members identified the role of an EBP long ago through the research process (this topic will be further explicated when the quality indicators set by the CEC (2014) are discussed in the future implications and conclusions section).

Defining Scientific Research

The NCLB (2001) act specifically mentions "scientifically based research" 110 times throughout the document in relation to best practices (Slavin, 2002). The exact definition of this type of research is "rigorous, systematic and objective procedures to obtain valid knowledge" [including research that] "is evaluated using experimental or quasi-experimental designs" (Slavin, p. 15). However, the concepts presented in the NCLB act are nothing new to other fields (e.g. medicine, psychology, etc.) and in order to understand how evidence-based practices are constructed, an understanding of treatment validity and treatment integrity needs to be delineated. This issue becomes particularly murky when it comes to practices in special education, as often the discipline combines elements of psychology, neurology, and educational practices, as all disabilities do not present in a uniform manner. The question becomes whether or not science should drive practice in special education research and if so, how should the process of scientific research look both in the classroom and at the university level (Odom, et al., 2005).

Several concepts become confounding factors related to the examination of results to determine the effectiveness of an evidence-based practice. Treatment validity, as it is applied to assessment in education, has to do with the prescription of an effective intervention given the presenting challenges and its efficacy. Obviously, there is no "magic" treatment that is successful with every child in every situation, but that confounding variable of how to tweak an intervention and thus report the results as valid becomes problematic. This concept conflicts with treatment integrity, which is the "quality control" for certain evidence-based practices. When these concepts are considered in the design of certain practices, interventions and curriculum are held to a standard that is supported by data (Greenwood, 2009).

Additionally, both EBPs and the concept of treatment validity are intended to be integrated in the Response to Intervention (RTI) model, which is a system that implements the evidence-based

practices used with students at various stages of increasingly rigorous interventions (Bursuck & Blanks, 2010). The proposed rationale for the RTI model is to ensure that students receive scientifically-based interventions through a series of tiers that increase in intensity (time and length of intervention) in order to support a student in reaching his or her goals. However, the RTI model is considered to be a general education initiative and there is still the inherent problem of determining how to obtain and utilize interventions that work in all conditions, no matter what, with every student.

This issue is compounded by the concept of treatment fidelity, which is defined as, "the strategies that monitor the accuracy and consistency of an intervention to ensure it is implemented as planned and that each component is delivered in a comparable manner to all study participants over time." (Smith, Daunic, & Taylor, 2007, p. 121). The concepts of treatment validity and treatment fidelity for EBPs within the RTI system might seem contradictory. If teachers have to tweak or alter the intervention or EBP, then how can we say that treatment is truly effective and the results generalizable? Smith, Daunic, and Taylor (2007) addressed this issue through examples of their classroom-based observations. They noted that five distinct areas related to treatment fidelity are important to examine when trying to determine if an EBP was implemented with fidelity. These included study design, training, treatment delivery, treatment receipt, and treatment enactment. Throughout each of these stages adjustments can be made in order to ensure that the EBP is tailored to each teacher's classroom, if the study design followed the suggestions outlined above by Cook, Tankersley, Cook, and Landrum (2008).

For example, the study and its associated EBP could be presented, teachers could be trained in the same way on how to implement it, but the delivery could be altered to account for students with disabilities in the classroom who are also labeled as English language learners (ELLs). This derivation is not seen as a negative because using the same EBP and training teachers in the same fashion still qualifies as upholding the fidelity of the process. Therefore, when fidelity is considered in several areas of the method, the alterations are justified to fit the context of the classroom. As long as the treatment is carefully documented, fidelity can be upheld and add to the body of understanding its effectiveness and ultimately how to ensure rigor in the implementation of EBPs (Smith, Daunic, & Taylor, 2007).

Rigor of Design

The hallmarks of EBPs are that they are replicable, valid, effective, and implemented with fidelity. These are also tenets of an experimental design and in order to create a practice that can be used across conditions, in different settings, and with individuals with diverse needs, a set of standards needs to be established (Greenwood, 2009). However, teachers are not robots and students are not empty vessels that can be filled with information presented in the same fashion over time. Therefore, the quality of the method and the magnitude of the results are essential in the creation or adaptation of interventions based on evidence (Cook, Tankersley, & Landrum, 2009).

Additionally, more research employing the use of experimental designs is needed in the field of special education.

Spooner, Algozzine, Wood, and Hicks (2010) analyzed the journal *Teacher Education and Special Education* and found that over the last five years, 55 percent of the journal's articles were quantitative in nature. However, of these articles only 12 percent had a true experimental design with random assignment to treatment groups (the majority of authors conducting research assessed teachers and their students with surveys). Therefore, the authors determined that research in special education was fairly broad and in order to create a literature base for EBPs, researchers should focus on establishing standards that define professional practice.

Threats to Validity

There are a number of threats to validity that are unique to the field of special education and the use of EBPs. These problems occur due to the unique nature of those individuals involved in the use of a practice and the bias that is infused in attempting to study the relationship between treatment and effect. One major issue is the relationship between external and internal validity and how researchers determine which experimental controls will protect against cultural and social factors influencing the results. The desired result from studies related to interventions with the population of special education is the ability of the results to be generalized and for the study to purport to measure what it was intended to measure.

However, as stated above, not all students are the same and not all interventions (even when they are effective) can be administered in the exact same fashion in every situation. Therefore, researchers must consider who they are examining and how the fidelity of implementation is measured. Kutash, Duchnowski, and Lynn (2009) indicated that fidelity is threatened by a lack of administrative support, inadequate follow-up, a lack of collaboration with teachers at the school level, and a general lack of time" (p. 918). All of these factors are difficult to control for and in order to create EBPs that can be implemented in multiple settings, a method of evaluation and a set of standards need to be created and practiced.

Implementation Model

In order to understand the implementation process for EBPs, the flow of the model needs to be delineated. Odom's (2009) flow model for implementation science (Figure 1) is a process by which EBPs are conceived, distributed, and related to potential outcomes. Within the model, the researcher determines a potentially effective intervention approach, adapts a manual for implementation, and provides the procedures to the practitioner who applies the intervention within the context of his or her classroom. The adaptation process involves two dimensions including process and structure.

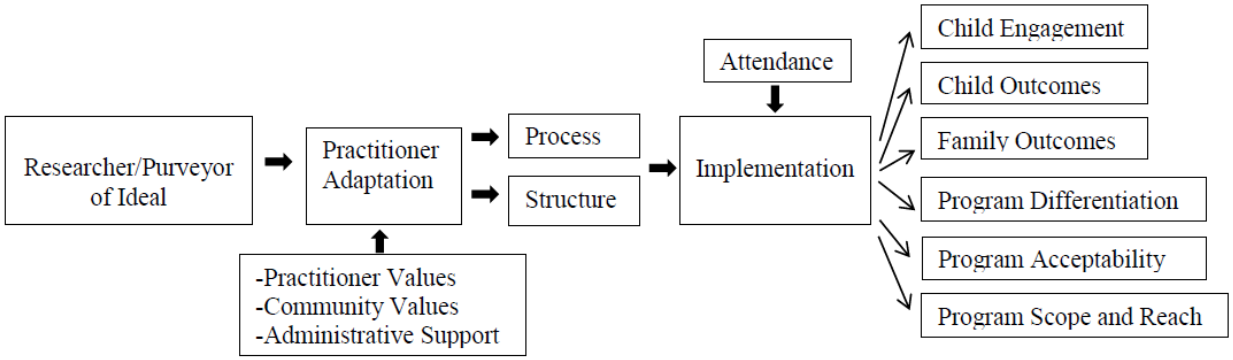

Figure 1. The implementation process of EBPs. Adapted with permission from Odom (2009). The tie that binds: Evidence-based practice, implementation science, and outcomes for children. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 29*, p. 51.

The structure refers to the quantity (or dosage) of the intervention as it relates to number of hours of instruction or the number of lessons covered, while the process refers to the quality of the implementation of the intervention which includes how well the teacher delivers the lesson and the positive aspects of their interaction (measured through observational techniques). The implementation is affected by the attendance of the child, which is a confounding variable in any intervention process. The outcomes are then connected to the researcher or the purveyor's ideal and effectiveness is determined. With the implementation of EBPs outlined, the opposition to the concept will be described in the next section.

Alternative Views

The research to practice gap in special education that impedes the creation of EBPs is explicated through a philosophical, practical, and functional viewpoint. Researchers who argue from a philosophical standpoint note the creation of an EBP is directly opposed to a Deweyan approach to education. The practical argument concerns the implementation of certain methodological practices and due to the variability of the human condition; no sure answers can be derived. The functional point about EBPs is related to how some researchers attempt to discern how "scientific research" applies to the current state of research in education and which practices can be considered evidence-based given the results of the various studies (Cook & Odom, 2013; Odom, Brantlinger, Gersten, Horner, Thompson, & Harris, 2005). Each of these viewpoints will be examined in order to understand how the practice of creating EBPs in special education can be improved.

Philosophical Argument

Webster (2009) argues that EBPs in special education run counter to the approach proposed by Dewey in the first half of the 20th century. The author clarified his point by noting that EBPs in education are empirical, but not scientific. The experimental trials that are conducted in education to create evidence are based on an empirical standpoint that provides evidence, but not necessarily proof. From Dewey's pragmatic perspective, he argued that in the creation of certain evidences, "nothing has brought pedagogical theory into greater disrepute than the belief that it

is identified with handing out to teachers' recipes and models to be followed in teaching" (Dewey, 1916 as cited in Webster, 2009, p. 218).

Therefore, Webster (2009) argued that correlational examinations of what works in one particular situation, might not work in another. This leads researchers in the area of education to move away from cause-effect relationships and the practices of rigorous scientific testing. Furthermore, Webster (2009) proposed that EBPs, which rely exclusively upon empirical approaches, actually stifle intellectual inquiry and lead to false beliefs about outcomes of certain students exposed to interventions researched by professionals in the field and thus obtain the label of an EBP. Although we may have a favorite meal, unless the right person is cooking, it's just not right.

Practical Argument

In order to determine if a practice is effective, Dewey called for educators to be more scientific in terms of their attitude about how an EBP is created. Webster (2009) noted that "scientific inquiries involve active and critical testing and experimentation and can encourage teachers as educators to become more intellectual" (p. 219). The type of intelligence the author is referring to is related to Dewey's concepts of social intelligence and without certain alterations in the fabric of the way society treats certain individuals; no true evidence can be created. If researchers do not disseminate information that is both valid and reliable to teachers and do not warn them of the inherent inconsistencies in terms of culture, time, and place, then application of interventions becomes diagnostic and uniform and no sense of community or a philosophical understanding of education can be reached.

Functional Argument

The question as to whether there can be a perfect relationship between interventions and their effects is one that requires an examination of the practice of educational research and how research can convolute 'what works.' Biesta (2010) argued that because there is a "knowledge, efficacy, and application deficit in education" (p. 497) related to EBPs, no true causality can be determined and no "magic bullet" can be derived. The knowledge that is lacking in educational research is "knowledge about the relationships between actions and consequences" (p.500). Additionally, issues with efficacy are found "in most if not all cases of social interaction we have processes that operate as open, recursive system, as a result of which the connection between actions and consequences can never be totally determined" (p. 500), which potentially affects efficacy. Essentially, if researchers keep trying to move towards a more "pure" form of experimental inquiry, the less effective and practical EBPs will become for the practicing teacher.

Biesta (2010) also noted that there is a need for a complexity reduction in the creation of EBPs if the field of education is ever to produce the sound and effective elements of evidence. In order to move away from the confusion, researchers in the area of education need to employ the use of randomized and controlled experiments with multiple groups of individuals in order to determine effectiveness. According to the author, this would change the name to "evidence-*informed* practice" (p.500) to more accurately capture how evidence is implemented in the field through interventions.

Here is where teachers need to be infused in the process. Obviously not every

teacher in the field has an in depth understanding of psychometrics and validity tests, but certainly teachers could and do understand the how and why behind evidence-based practices. The real issue is combining the knowledge and structure from the research community and making it into something consumable and viable in the classroom setting (Burns & Ysseldyke, 2009). Having teachers assist with data collection and including their adaptations for what works with particular students is not rigorous scientific practice, as outlined by other disciplines, but if we as a community of educators were to harness the concept of research as an interweaving of "good" teaching, then the research to practice gap could be closed. Just like the sharing recipes from the five star restaurants to mom and pop's kitchen, everyone can benefit from what tastes good. This would need some concessions from the research community, but its viability would potentially benefit all students.

Possible Enhancement of the Process Creating EBPs

In 2005, the Division for Research of the Council for Exceptional Children commissioned a series of papers to examine what kind of quality indicators (QIs) should be included in the creation of an EBP in special education. The four different research designs included group experimental studies, correlational research, single-subject design, and qualitative research (Cook, Tankersley, & Landrum, 2009). The QIs for group experimental and quasi-experimental research were proposed by Gersten et al., (2005), while the QIs for single-subject research were proposed by Horner et al. (2005). These QIs could define what is considered an evidence-based practice in special education.

An example of an essential quality indicator and its criteria for group experimental and quasi-experimental designs are listed in Table 1 (Gersten et al., 2005, p. 151). In order to determine if a QI was present in the study, questions would be asked and then tallied in order to determine the level of quality present. After the presence of quality indicators was determined, Gersten et al. (2005) then required a minimum of two high-quality group studies or four acceptable quality studies in order for an intervention or practice to be considered evidence-based. This process is what Gersten et al. (2005) recommended to The Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP). Therefore, researchers were able to have some relative guidance in terms of what features their experiment should include in order to be considered a certain quality. The desired outcome of this procedure was to ensure that some standards existed for future research, allowing for a base of solidly constructed methods to translate into practice.

Table 1. ***Example of Quality Indicators for Evidence-Based Practices*****.**

Essential Quality Indicators
Quality Indicators for Describing Participants
1. Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm whether the participants demonstrated the disability(ies) or difficulties presented?
2. Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions?
3. Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or

teachers provided? Did it indicate whether they were comparable across conditions?

Note: Information adapted from Gersten et al. (2005), Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education.

Programs of Research

Levin, O'Donnell, and Kratochwill (2003) recommended that in order to implement a scientific method in education, a continuum of stages should be used to improve techniques that could yield significant results. This involves observational exploration and flexible methodology that incorporates qualitative and correlational methods (stage one), controlled laboratory or classroom experiments (stage two), and randomized trials (stage three), all of which would result in informing classroom practices based on the specific and unique conditions that exist in the particular environment (stage four). Taken together, the QIs inform the construction of research, while the stages of programs for research allow for variability in implementation of what was found. If researchers are able to adhere to QI and still take into consideration not every child learns the same, then EBPs can be created that are not definitive, but flexible and allow for teachers to utilize what they have been taught in order to make decisions. A good chef evolves the recipe over time.

Future Implications and Conclusions

In order to understand the issue of teacher education and its relationship to EBPs, Jones (2009) examined the views of novice special education teachers and their current way of employing certain practices. The author found that the main motivating factor to continue to implement interventions with fidelity was the progress students demonstrated. The fact that improvements were made seemed to be intrinsically motivating to novice special educators. Additionally, the clarity of the intervention and ongoing professional development were also important factors that led to the teachers giving higher ratings to the various EBPs being implemented (e.g. direct instruction, peer-mediated learning, and content enhancements).

The use of technology was also an important factor, especially when teachers were given adequate training on the available tools. Jones (2009) concluded that in order for EBPs to work in the field, researchers needed to continue to closely define the quality indicators associated with the research. This allows teachers to analyze their own performance and makes the practice more understandable. The overall goal of research should be to make teachers "wise consumers" (p.115) and enhance not just their knowledge base, but their confidence level in reading and understanding research.

The implementation issues surrounding EBPs needs to be addressed in teacher preparation programs in special education in order to help close the research and practice gap (Bain, Lancaster, Zundans, & Parkes, 2009). Bain, Lancaster, Zundans, & Parkes, (2009) noted that the essential elements of teacher preparation include "advanced knowledge of evidenced-based cooperative instructional approaches, including cooperative and peer-assisted learning" (p. 215). There are many EBPs associated with these methods, including peer-assisted learning (PALS) and these methods could be incorporated into any teacher's cookbook (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2005; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Slavin, 2015). Instruction for implementing interventions has been proven through past

research and assist special education teachers with effective instructional methods, as long as they are implemented with fidelity (Harn, Parisi, Stoolmiller, 2013). However, Bain, Lancaster, Zundans, & Parkes, (2009) contended that even with some variability, cooperative and peer-assisted learning are effective. Additionally, the authors noted that teacher education programs need to instill in their students the correct methods for adapting intervention techniques based on their student population and setting. This could include variations to the time of implementation, the number of students involved, or using additional modalities for the presentation of material.

Response to Intervention

What teachers learn about the implementation and use of EBPs in context is directly related to the increased application of the Response to Intervention (RTI) model in school systems across the nation. The RTI model was derived from the concept of treatment validity and a structure of pre-special education services developed by Fuchs (1995). RTI is more closely defined through the use of consultation, intervention design, and service delivery (Barnett, VanDerHeyden, & Witt, 2007). The purpose of RTI is noted as:

> …preventing failure and reducing risk, identifying who needs what type of supports, monitoring the effectiveness of that support, modifying support in an iterative fashion for better outcomes, and ultimately helping to make decisions concerning transitions to typical environments or specialized services. (Barnett, VanDerHeyden, & Witt, 2007, p. 48)

Despite the positive aspects of the RTI model moving away from the discrepancy formula for special education eligibility, if a teacher does not have an appropriate repertoire of interventions, which are considered EBPs, then little improvement in student outcomes can be made (Nieysn, 2009). Again, the problem with the "recipe" mentality about interventions is all students are not alike in terms of how they learn and what outcomes is a result of certain treatments. A good chef knows when to add a pinch of salt or include that *secret* ingredient. Therefore, the understanding of how an EBP is created and the model for the program is important because it allows for variability. However, the feasibility of how an intervention is applied in a classroom is vital, because if the implementation is not dependable, then the constructs related to effectiveness of an EBP comes into question.

The Creation of a Problem-Solving Model

Within the RTI model, an understanding of how an individual teacher uses EBPs is necessary in order to protect against the threats related to the fidelity of implementation. In order to accurately determine the "best practice" for a particular setting in education, a method of implementing the scientific method in the classroom needs to be delineated. This assists the teacher in determining what EBP could be used and if that particular approach is going to be effective based on the information gathered. This requires examining student performance and classroom expectations. This process involves a teacher identifying the problem (a gap between individual performance and classroom expectations), exploring and implementing an intervention, and evaluating the effectiveness of that intervention through progress monitoring (Deno, 2002).

Hopefully, teachers are informed about state and local policies through resources such as the CEEDAR Center, where users can examine state policies as they relate to the needs of their students labeled with disabilities. If teachers and researchers could be more involved in the process of creation, implementation, and adaptation of EBPs in special education (as well as other areas of education), it is believed that the benefit could be a more fluid system for the production and use of sound practices and satisfies the need for rigor and validity.

One essential resource can be found through the standards set by the Council for Exceptional Children and their resources of lists of EBPs for teachers. CEC's research highlighted eight quality indicators related to the topic of EBPs. These include standards related to how certain elements are addressed in the following areas: Context and setting, participants, intervention agent, description of practice, implementation and fidelity, internal validity, outcome measures, and data analysis (CEC, 2014). The list of quality indicators is described in detail in the report and is a good addendum to what was previously discussed in this paper. The importance here is to disseminate this knowledge to teachers and researchers in order to hold both researchers and practitioners to a certain standard. The hope is that such a rating system for EBPs and the standards for the quality indicators would be upheld in future research.

The problem description should include an examination of the classroom environment, student performance, school history, diagnostic test results, behavior checklists and rating scales, information from parents and other students, and the progress monitoring data gathered so far. The selection of a particular intervention should be based on an evaluation of the current EBPs. With this issue of what intervention to choose for a particular situation comes the way in which the intervention is found, used, and applied. Although many teacher education programs teach their preservice teachers about the importance of EBPs and their construction, once out in the field the teachers may not have the access to resources that they did while in their university program (e.g. access to professors, mentors, and technical resources). The choices the teachers make in the field should be data-driven decisions that are not necessarily made solely by the teacher in his or her individual classroom (e.g. other members of the student's study team). Finally, the importance of an ongoing evaluation to determine the effectiveness of the intervention should occur through an assessment of trend lines (comparing and contrasting one student's performance to that of the class). This helps to justify the use of certain EBPs and inform decisions about alterations to that student's particular plan (Dieker, et al., 2009).

It is important when creating EBPs and disseminating information about their use in practice that researchers think of teachers as the consumers. Although the purpose of this paper is not to presume what and how teachers think, one assumption that could be made is that EBPs need to be easily accessible and have clear formats to follow, while still being flexible enough to apply to more than one group of students. Of course, this means nothing without the support of the local and state school systems. The need for better professional development and a more concise agreement about what constitutes EBPs given the variance of situations across the nation's classrooms should also be

delineated. The chefs creating these EBPs should agree that teachers all have different tastes and even the best cookbooks and recipes need revision to adapt to an ever-changing audience and that this would best serve students.

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