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# The Socialization of CPEP Teachers: Implications for Administration

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THE SOCIALIZATION OF CPEP TEACHERS:  
IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION

by

JIM L. KUHLMANN

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

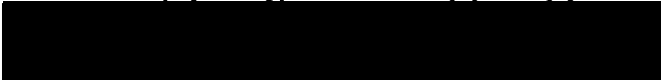
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TO THE OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES:

The members of the Committee approve the dissertation  
of Jimmie L. Kuhlmann presented June 21, 1988.

  
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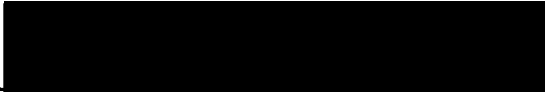
  
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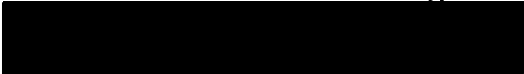
  
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AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Jimmie L. Kuhlmann for  
the Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership and  
Supervision presented June 21, 1988.

Title: The Socialization of CPEP Teachers:  
Implications for Administration.

APPROVED BY THE MEMBERS OF THE DISSERTATION COMMITTEE:

  
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The competencies and needs of those entering the  
teaching profession have become the subject of public debate  
since the release of A Nation at Risk. Subsequently many  
comprehensive and comparative reviews have documented the

socialization of those entering the teaching profession, especially student teachers and first-year teachers. The problems of beginning teachers have produced survival and self-oriented concerns. Internships and induction programs have been developed to ease the socialization of beginning teachers and mediate these concerns.

As internships are developed and induction programs implemented, descriptive field studies which examine the processes of beginning teacher socialization are needed. Particularly, studies which investigate the socialization of first-year teachers prepared in cooperative field-based programs are necessary.

This study was designed to document and analyze the teaching experiences of four first-year teachers who completed an extended field-based internship -- CPEP (Cooperative Professional Education Program). These teaching experiences were documented in terms of a conceptual framework drawn from socialization theory, occupational socialization theory, and teacher socialization research. Three questions were developed to guide this research into the teacher socialization process: 1) What are the socialization structures and processes, formal and informal, which shaped teachers' perceptions of their first year of teaching? 2) What are the teachers' perceptions of problems encountered and what adjustments are made? 3) What are the common concerns shared by these beginning teachers?

The conceptual framework, socialization theory, coupled with a comparative case study design, were utilized to collect, organize, and interpret the data. Data sources included interviews, questionnaires, observations, video tapes, and journals. These multiple data sources provided evidence of the factors which explain beginning teachers' induction into the teaching profession, teaching experiences in terms of teacher socialization theory and research, and the relationship between teacher socialization and occupational socialization theory. The answers to the research questions are as follows:

First, several significant contextual factors shaped these first-year teachers' perceptions of teaching: the organizational nature of the schools, the physical demands necessary to maintain energy levels for teaching, and the lack of time for planning. The influence of the each teacher's primary socializing agent, the internship mentor teacher, was expressed through a process of collegial emulation. Their students and teachers in other schools were also influential socializing agents. The behavioral outcomes of the teachers consistently focused on issues related to efficiency and organization.

Second, the most significant self-perceived problems were the lack of planning time and the dynamics of working with other staff members. Although these beginning teachers became increasingly self-critical about the consequences of

their teaching, they maintained a tone of confidence and competence.

Third, the Stages of Concern Questionnaire administered to the teachers revealed relatively high student-focused (task) and teacher-oriented (impact) concern intensities. Their most commonly shared concerns included refocusing their teaching and identifying the consequences of their instruction.

Although institutional demands influenced teacher adjustment to the norms and values of the profession and to the school as a social organization, the teachers also took an active role in this socialization process. The teachers were influenced by institutional norms, but they also created new roles and norms. Consequently, their socialization was a dynamic and interactive process. Occupational socialization variables which linked teacher socialization to occupation socialization theory included training, formal and informal mechanisms of control, and stages of socialization.

The research findings contribute to the teacher education knowledge base and should be of value to four primary audiences: school site administrators who supervise beginning teachers, staff development administrators who organize in-service programs, governing bodies which regulate teacher certification, and university personnel who develop and supervise teacher preparation programs.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The competencies and needs of those who enter the teaching profession have become the subject of public debate since the release of A Nation at Risk (1983). Much of the educational reform discussion surfaced from specific criticisms from within the profession (Joyce & Clift, 1984; Clinton, 1985). Several reform reports recommended re-evaluation of programs for beginning teachers as priority agenda items for the improvement of teaching (Carnegie, 1986; Holmes, 1986).

The educational research and development agenda for the Eighties has considered pre-service, beginning teaching, and advanced in-service to be connected along one professional continuum (Greenberg, 1983). In the past, these stages have often been treated as separate entities. Whether teaching pre-service students, assisting beginning teachers, or providing in-service for experienced teachers, the professional beliefs and values held regarding the teaching profession should be communicated in all our work.

Recently, the first few years' teaching experience has begun to be viewed as the major event shaping the professional life of a teacher (McDonald & Elias, 1980).

This emphasis has encouraged extended internships and induction programs as one of the major recommendations for improvement of teacher education.

The current status of beginning teachers is well documented. The Oregon Teacher Standards and Practice Commission (TSPC) in 1984 appointed a sub-committee of commissioners to assess the needs of beginning teachers. They found the problems and concerns of neophyte teachers included 1) classroom management and student discipline, 2) student motivation, 3) adjustment to the physical demands of teaching, 4) management of instructional and non-instructional demands of the position, 5) sacrifice of leisure time, and 6) justification of work demands to others outside the workplace. First-year teachers appear to perceive these difficulties to be mixed together during the initial months of teaching. Gradually these difficulties become separate concerns as the first year of teaching progresses.

In addition, beginning teachers reported receiving little formal or informal support during the induction year. The informal support received by these first-year teachers was perceived as more helpful than formal support. Although beginning teachers tended to be highly self-critical, they did not proactively seek assistance from other staff members or supervisory personnel (Clewett, 1984).

In terms of the inductee's socialization to the teaching role and setting, adjusting to the social norms produced in beginning teachers survival and self-oriented concerns. These concerns resulted in controlling behaviors and conventional beliefs such as: seldom feeling prepared to deal with the various relationships in school settings; feeling isolated; viewing problems as inevitable, instructive and beneficial; and fearing adjustments to their roles and functions (Clewett, 1984).

The TSPC study concluded that Oregon first-year teachers experienced problems during induction that are similar to those reported in national and international studies. The Committee on Beginning Teachers has recommended that TSPC should promote linkages between universities and public schools, pay particular attention to the proper assignment of beginning teachers, and continue to study the needs of beginning teachers (TSPC, 1984).

Knowledge of the problems faced by beginning teachers in their first years of teaching may provide important information for the development and improvement of in-service programs. Veenman (1984), in a comprehensive review of the research on beginning teachers, has described the transition from teacher training to the first teaching job as a "reality shock." Veenman listed a number of factors:

1. Perceptions of problems: Includes subjectively experienced problems and pressures and psychological and physical complaints.
2. Changes of attitudes: Implied is a shift in belief systems from progressive to conservative attitudes with respect to teaching methods and discipline.
3. Changes of behavior: because of formal and informal pressures, changes in teaching behavior are contrary to one's own beliefs.
4. Changes of self-concept: Implied changes in the emotional domain such as stability and satisfaction (p. 144).

In part, the research outlined in this study utilized these factors. Specifically, this study explored the problems and concerns associated with first-year teachers, and the changes in behaviors which occur due to the influences of formal and informal socializing agents.

Many studies have documented the neophyte teacher's move from the theory of the classroom to the reality of teaching. New teachers are expected to perform as permanent teachers (Marashino, 1971), receive inappropriate assignments (Fuller & Brown, 1975), are perceived as a threat by experienced teachers (Ryan, 1982), feel isolated from other staff members (Griffin & Hukill, 1983), and feel uncertain about their own competence (Clewett, 1984). Recognizing these experiences for beginning teachers in the context of a predicted teacher shortage encourages attention to programs which will assist teachers recently inducted into the profession.



## DEFINITION OF TERMS

Administration: A social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling, and unifying formally and informally organized human and material energies within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined objectives (Knezevich, 1975).

Beginning Teachers: Those teachers who are in their first year of full-time teaching experience (Tisher, 1983).

CPEP: Cooperative Professional Education Program. CPEP is an example of an alternative teacher education program. After completing a basic liberal arts curriculum, these teachers spend one year in field-based teaching experiences with methods offered during seminars at the university (Johnston & James, 1986). CPEP was developed in a collaborative effort from personnel in the Beaverton School District and the School of Education at Portland State University in 1981, and in 1985 was expanded to the Portland School District. Phase I of the program focuses on the pre-service preparation of beginning teachers designed as either a four-year or a five-year program. Phase II will focus on cooperatively planning and developing a program to strengthen and support beginning teachers as they move through the three years of probationary service toward being awarded tenure. Through cooperative planning and participation, each intern has a support teacher, a university coordinator, building personnel, and a cooperative planning group. An Individual Learning Plan (ILP) setting the performance standards for the intern guides learning in a variety of settings. The program is a full-year commitment (Carl, 1985).

Induction: The entry period accompanying the selection and employment of first year teachers in which they develop those skills, forms of knowledge, attitudes, and values that are necessary to carry out effectively their occupational roles (Schlechty, 1985).

Induction Experiences: Those programs which provide beginning teachers the opportunity to experience fully the responsibilities of teaching; that is, easing the transition from student to teacher, developing skills essential to self-evaluation and survival, acquiring additional knowledge and instructional skills, developing attitudes that foster effective teaching performance, and becoming integrated into the school district and community (Felman-Nemser, 1983).

Intern: One who serves in preparation for independent practice (The New Webster's Dictionary, 1970).

Occupational Socialization: The process by which the neophyte learns the culture, norms and role behavior of the group he or she seeks to be accepted by and to join (Haberman, 1983).

Socialization: The process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Supervision: The process of observation, diagnosis, prescription, and evaluation designed to improve teacher instruction (Gage, 1978).

Teacher Socialization: The process of learning, unlearning, and adjusting new and old behaviors so that role occupants (new teachers) perform in such a manner that role expectations and institutional expectations are met (Cruse, 1979). In this study teacher socialization emphasizes an exploration of new teachers' roles as they enter the school system (Becker, 1951; Eddy, 1969).

Traditional Teacher Education Program: After completing a basic liberal arts curriculum, these teachers spend one semester on teaching methods (usually specific to their major). Generally this experience includes one quarter of student teaching followed by little contact between beginning teachers and the institution where they received their pre-service training (Howsam, Corrigan, Denmark & Nash, 1976).

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Recent attention to the teacher training phase and induction phase of teaching has produced a substantial amount of research describing the actual experiences, attitudes, and concerns of beginning teachers. As neophyte teachers are inducted into the profession, they become socialized into the profession. The process of socialization is important to the success of beginning

teachers as they accept or reject the values of the educational system (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1974).

Socialization occurs continually throughout an individual's career (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The focus of research regarding teacher socialization has been on the introduction of the teacher into the system. As internships are developed and induction programs implemented, more descriptive field studies are needed in order to understand the process of socialization during the beginner's initial teaching experiences (Wells, 1984). Particularly, studies are necessary which investigate the socialization of beginning teachers prepared in cooperative field-based programs.

There is a plethora of research which has investigated the experiences of those entering the teaching profession. Although previous research has explored the problems and concerns expressed by beginning teachers, little or no information exists which describes the concerns and problems of beginning teachers who have completed one-year internships.

As neophyte teachers gain experience, studies have indicated that the influence from formal and informal socialization contribute to an attitudinal shift toward authoritarianism (Lagana, 1970) and realism (Blase & Greenfield, 1982). More indepth descriptions of the first years of teaching are necessary before valid links can be

made between successful socialization experiences of teachers during the induction phase and training programs which assist in preparing these teachers.

Still other researchers have described internships and induction programs which attempt to assist beginning teachers as they are socialized into the teaching profession (McDonald & Elias, 1980; Grant & Zeichner, 1981; Huling-Austin, 1986). Specific induction practices on the development of teachers have not been fully described in existing literature (McDonald, 1982; Hall, 1982; Zeichner, 1983). While it is true that induction programs are being evaluated (Schlechty, 1985) and areas of concern have been identified, an obvious need is to identify and describe the experiences of beginning teachers so that assistance can be most helpful to the new teacher (Odell, 1986).

The central research objective was: given the uniqueness of the CPEP teacher preparation experience, what are the critical socializing factors and what implications do these factors present for teacher supervision?

#### PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study had three major purposes: 1) to document the experiences of first-year teachers who completed an extended field-based internship, 2) to analyze these experiences in terms of teacher socialization literature by identifying critical factors which explain their

socialization, and 3) to examine the relationship between teacher socialization and occupational socialization.

Due to the scarcity of existing research on beginning teacher socialization, this study examined the teacher induction literature. Information from this study can be used to improve teacher education -- both pre-service and in-service. Utilizing socialization theory as the theoretical framework, this study focused on the question of whether the fundamental components of occupational socialization were present during the teacher induction process.

### TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

Settling into an occupation and learning what is needed to become a productive member requires learning technical or professional skills and knowledge associated with the new occupation. Individuals who aspire to be teachers must acquire the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs of the teaching profession. The values and beliefs obtained during their training process and during their induction contribute to their learning, adjusting, internalizing, and complying to the roles of the teaching profession.

All occupational groups have some of the characteristics central to professions. Their combination of these characteristics and their intensity determine where an occupational group can be placed on a continuum from

occupation to semi-profession to central profession (Greenwood, 1957). In Krause's (1971) considerations of central professions and occupations he stated the following:

All occupations have central skills, an occupational code of ethics, a group culture, some occupational authority, and some permission to practice on the part of the community. But the major professions have all of these to a very high degree, and in addition share two major characteristics. First, they are functionally powerful, or near to key places in the division of labor, and this is reflected in their political power, prestige, and material reward. Second, they are all dealing with individual or group needs of a basic sort, in situations where the absence of their skills spells immediate and long-term crisis for the individuals of the society and for the society itself (p. 78-79).

Teaching is one of the occupations which could be loosely classified as a profession. However, the occupation of teaching, as defined by Etzioni (1969), projects autonomy rather than control and is therefore called a semi-profession (Conant, 1949). Continual claims to central profession status presume the existence of a unified occupational group with a system of collegial controls. Teaching tends to stress individuality rather than standardization through bureaucratic or collegial controls. Furthermore, teaching techniques are developed and used by thousands of individuals in restricted contact with one another. The profession has no general expectation that individual teachers should record and publish their experiences and procedures so that they become the accepted standard for teaching and learning.

### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study described the induction process of four first-year teachers who were prepared in an alternative program. In addition to extending previous teacher education research, the results of this study make a contribution to four potential professional audiences: school site administrators who supervise beginning teachers, staff development administrators who organize in-service programs, governing bodies which regulate teacher training, and university personnel involved in teacher preparation programs.

Previous research was extended in the area of socialization theory, occupational socialization theory, and teacher socialization. Propositions emerging out of analysis were presented for future-related studies.

An assumption made by many school site administrators is that pre-service training fully prepares beginning teachers (Kennedy, Cruickshank & Meyers, 1976). However, recent research indicates that induction programs are helpful (Schlechty, 1985). Reform literature has prompted school districts to plan and implement supervisory programs which encourage beginning teachers to take command and be responsible. Researchers have concluded that beginning teachers, as they are concerned with issues of their own survival, are socialized by formal and informal elements

(Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981). Although formal influences carried out through the supervision of new teachers by administrators during observations and conferences impact teacher socialization, informal influences may exhibit a more pronounced impact. Results of this study offer implications useful to school district personnel charged with supervision of beginning teachers.

Staff development administrators must be aware of the problems and concerns of beginning teachers. Concern for the difficulties encountered by new teachers as they enter the profession is well documented (Ryan, 1970; Tisher, 1978; Veenman, 1984). However, very few published reports of organized efforts have responded to the needs of first-year teachers (Grant & Zeichner, 1981; Veenman, 1984) causing them to find solutions for themselves (Ryan, 1982). Additionally, statistics have revealed wide discrepancies in the numbers of potential teachers entering teacher education programs (Felstritzer, 1985). Teacher shortages in some states suggest that the retention of trained teachers will be critical. Evidence has concluded that successful induction to teaching may enhance retention (Tisher, 1980). Even during the early months of the teaching career, beginning teachers may form attitudes toward continuing professional development (McDonald & Elias, 1980). In-service education programs need to be designed with the



beginning teacher in mind. This study may contribute information to assist in this goal.

In response to public pressure to improve the quality of schooling by improving the quality of teaching in the schools, state departments of education and teacher regulatory bodies like TSPC are starting to concentrate on the beginning teacher. Institutional responses relating to the induction period are being formed and implemented without the benefit of knowledge bases. This study has the potential to provide additional information for institutions as they respond to the needs of new teachers and the effects of those responses.

College and university personnel may benefit from the results of this study as they seek to train teachers. The needs and concerns of the teachers who have been trained in this alternative program exhibit problems different from those teachers trained in traditional programs. Research data on these teachers' sentiments could assist in the improvement of pre-service training. An analysis of the results may contribute to improved practices during pre-service teacher preparation.

#### LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited to the description of induction experiences of four female participants. In addition, because all the subjects were part of CPEP, a collaborative

effort of Portland State University and Beaverton School District, generalizability was limited.

The sample size of four limits generalization beyond these subjects. Each subject was an elementary school teacher ranging in age from twenty-six to thirty-eight years.

Since information from each interview must pass through the subjective filters of the subject and the interviewer, the subject may have revealed only what she or he wanted the interviewer to know, and the interviewer may have valued one piece of information more highly than the subject chose to emphasize. However, as the subjects describe their experiences, feeling, attitudes, and concerns, McDonald and Elias (1980) have contended that the experiences of the first-year teachers are sufficiently vivid in their minds to provide fairly complete and relevant information.

The exploratory, qualitative design of this study did not require a representative sample of subjects from a population; rather, the subjects were selected from six CPEP teachers who volunteered to be part of this study. Only four of those six teachers were hired into teaching positions during the course of this study. No control or comparison groups were included; rather, the focus was on gathering descriptions of experiences which became the basis for formulating propositions about teacher socialization and teacher induction.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

This chapter describes the background and context of this study. Although there is a substantial body of research on teacher socialization, to date few research studies have focused on first-year teachers who have completed alternative field-based teacher preparation programs.

Given teacher socialization as the conceptual framework for this study, the review of the literature examined four related areas:

- I. Socialization theory
- II. Occupational socialization as a sub-area of general socialization theory
- III. Teacher socialization theory and research
- IV. Research on teacher induction programs

The socialization scheme which guided this literature review appears in Appendix A.

### SOCIALIZATION THEORY

The induction of teachers into the teaching profession is essentially a socialization process. This process is a sub-area of sociology rooted in socialization theory

(Parsons, 1951; Brim & Wheeler, 1966; Clausen, 1968). As a major research field, the study of socialization is relatively new, dating from the 1930's. However, the process of socialization has been described in The Republic and in Emile by Plato and Rousseau. They suggested schemes for converting the individual into a functioning member of society.

#### Definition of Socialization

Although many sociologists and social psychologists have defined socialization (Parsons, 1951; Merton, 1957; Elkin, 1960; Aberle, 1961), the concept of socialization utilized in this study refers to the process by which individuals acquire the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs that assist them to cognitively learn, socially adjust, and satisfactorily internalize the roles expected of them in our society (Brim & Wheeler, 1966). Role acquisition is not the only aspect of adult socialization, but it is probably the most important. When an adult selects a career, the individual begins an organizational role. Louis (1980) added that socialization is the process by which individuals assume organizational roles and take on organizational responsibilities. Similar definitions and outlines of socialization can be found in Van Maanen (1976), Van Maanen and Schein (1979), and Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1974). This study was concerned with the

characteristics of socialization during the adult's entry into an occupation, specifically the teaching occupation, and was focused on the question of whether the fundamental components of socialization theory in general, and occupational socialization in particular, were present during the teacher induction phase.

### Theories of Socialization

Modern sociologists suggest several competing and to some extent complementary theories of socialization: the functionalist theory (Brim & Wheeler, 1966; Clausen, 1968), latency theory (Lortie, 1975) and interactive theory (Cooley, 1926; Thomas, 1931; Mead, cited in Morris, 1934; Wrong, 1961; Olesen & Whittaker, 1968; Bucher & Stelling, 1977; Wentworth, 1979).

Traditionally, the study of socialization has focused on the individual and her or his relationship with society (Wrong, 1961; Brim & Wheeler, 1966; Wentworth, 1979). Brim and Wheeler (1966) outlined two major interests in their study of the characteristics of socialization:

One interest is in how individuals adjust to society and how in spite of the influence of society on them they manage to be creative and to transform the social order in which they have been born. The other is the interest in how society socializes the individual--how it transforms the raw material of biological man into a person suitable to perform the activities of society (pp.3-4).

The functionalist theory of socialization asserts that the socialization process "is concerned with how society changes the natural man" (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p. 4). Such an orientation declares the causal flow of socialization is from society to individual (Brim & Wheeler, 1966). Influential institutional variables and attitudinal outcomes become the major focus of this orientation.

Beginning with the formation of the basic personality structure, stages are built upon each other which progressively fit the developing individual for a position in society. Furthermore, "man is portrayed as a relatively passive entity giving way to socializing forces" (Lacey, 1977, p. 18). The individual does not have much choice. A "high degree of determinism" (Lacey, 1977, p. 19) exists as the individual relates to the unchanging nature of social institutions. When an individual joins the group, she or he has to accept the norms and values of the group. In simplest terms, the individual acquires the culture of her or his group(s) through socialization. Brim and Wheeler (1966) summarized that "the function of socialization is to transform the human raw material of society into good working members" (p. 5).

However, the functionalist orientation is not without critics (e.g. Popkewitz, 1976; Zeichner, 1980a; Zeichner, 1984). According to these sources, the novice's contributions to and influences on the socialization process

are not accurately depicted. Second, these researchers suggest that the quantitative techniques used to collect data which support functionalism have resulted in a narrowing of the questions asked. Because of a heavy reliance on surveys and questionnaires, the results were reported in the form of group central tendencies. Observation and documentation are necessary to attend to the context of teaching. Finally, "functionalism fails to provide us with an adequate understanding of what occurs..." (Zeichner, 1980a, p. 56). Addressing these concerns, the design of this study allowed for a description, rather than a measure of central tendencies, of the interaction of each teacher's beliefs and values in response to university training values and school district norms.

Related to the functionalist theory is the socialization process described by Lortie (1975) as self-socialization. Institutions are not the major force in reshaping novices' beliefs and practices. Institutions are viewed as catalysts for activating the latent beliefs held by the individuals. The past expectations of others influence the behavior of individuals to acknowledge and conform to social norms. Diversity from social norms is present in all societies. Such diversity reflects on the fact that man is to a degree his own agent; that is, man is self-socializing. Lortie (1975) concluded that one's personal disposition is central to being socialized. The

Individual becomes the most significant judge of her or his performance. Fully accepting the views of significant others, the self-socializing person gradually claims ownership of these ideas and innovations so that the individual can no longer recall the influential source. Experience creates social growth in the individual.

Each of these two theories offers a very different explanation of socialization. Both suggest that socialization is unidirectional; either the individual has control over the institution or the institution has control over the individual. Both orientations deny the existence of a tension that exists between the individual and the institution. Therefore, these views do not allow for significant directional influence between the individual and the institution.

In response to these orientations, several researchers have called for a re-orientation of socialization theory (Popkewitz, 1976; Wentworth, 1979; Tabachnick, 1981, Zeichner, 1984). This re-organization has been labeled interactive theory (Wentworth, 1979) and "dialectical" (Zeichner, 1980a). Interactive theory holds to the traditions of how individuals creatively and gradually transform the society in which they live and work. The individuals are not passive learners of institutional values, but participants in the socialization process. The beginner's own beliefs and creative abilities, developed



through previous experiences and self-initiative, prompts meaningful interactions between the individual and the social structure (Wentworth, 1979). The neophyte and society mutually interact to transform the socialization process.

As one learns role prescriptions and role behavior and begins to understand the feelings associated with these roles, the individual is socialized by society's influences. Society is changing the natural man. However, socialization is an incomplete and partial process full of diversity. Individuals also direct themselves toward new roles and responsibilities. The creativity and skills of the participants acting as their own socializing agents can provide for diversity.

### OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

Most of the early work on socialization dealt with childhood. However, more recent work has dealt with aspects of the adult world. As an individual is socialized into the various developmental stages of her or his life, she or he is quite likely to experience substantial labor market participation. The acquisition of required skills and attitudes for occupations and professions is possibly the most important role performed by adults outside of parenthood. The review of the literature in this section describes adult socialization, defines occupational

socialization, selects a theoretical perspective, examines occupational socialization during and after the training process in the law and medical professions, and examines organizational socialization as a sub-area of occupational socialization.

### Adult Socialization

The continuous process of socialization deals with the acquisition of the skills and knowledge for satisfactory functioning in a role. Learning new role orientations accompanies each change of status throughout life. A common example of adult socialization is socialization into an occupational role. As the mechanisms for occupational socialization -- educational systems, apprenticeships, or on-the-job training -- occur the adult begins to share an occupational identity. This occupational identity may change or be adjusted as the adult moves within an organization or changes occupations. Adults in the process of socialization must recognize that the process "frequently involves, in addition to the learning of new roles and norms, the unlearning or relinquishing of old norms and rules, the extension of old ones, and the possibility of holding conflicting norms and occupying conflicting roles" (Pavalko, 1971, p. 83). For example, changes in occupational identity occur during the induction into

military service, the arrangement of marriage, and the rehabilitation of criminals.

#### Definition of Occupational Socialization

Occupational socialization, a sub-area of socialization theory, is a broad term concerned with how the individual is prepared for a variety of jobs within an occupation. It involves the internalization of knowledge and skills as well as the development of a commitment to the values, norms, and traditions that comprise the work culture. Toward the end of an individual's occupational training, preparation for the job becomes highly specific. This training can vary immensely depending on the skill necessary for successful socialization.

Prior to the specific training for socialization to a possible job, the individual comes under the socializing influences of family, schools, media, peers, and personal activities. Conversations with a wide variety of family, friends, college professors, and classmates focus on professional activities and the job market. Over many years the individual gradually becomes part of the labor force. Even after the individual accepts an occupational role, occupational socialization is not complete. A change in jobs, even within the same occupation, extends the occupational socialization process.

### Occupational Socialization Theory

Krause (1971), in his study of occupational socialization, presented several general analytical approaches. One approach, which Krause calls biographical, is useful for describing occupational socialization in this study. The biographical approach in the sociology of occupations and professions "involves asking what the meaning of the activity is to the individual and the ways in which the individual interacts with the institution in which he exists" (Krause, 1971, p. 18). What are important are the ways in which the individual reacts to and complies with the norms of the institution in which she or he works. The key sociological idea is the interaction of the individual's values with the values of the organization or occupation. As the individual interacts with the norms of the occupation, she or he may resist the process of socialization by attempting to create new professional values and norms.

Individuals are socialized into occupational or professional roles as a result of a variety of influences. Early socialization develops the ability of the individual to work and to achieve through the efforts of parents and others. Other influences include our educational system, career patterns, factors such as age and sex, and the bureaucratic nature of the work setting (Krause, 1971).

While considering the relationship of the individual with her or his occupation or profession, the researcher must determine the influence of the individual's creative abilities on the occupation as well as the occupation's impact on the individual (Krause, 1971). Utilizing the experiences of the past, the individual may become self-directed or more readily adopt the image of the occupation. Kohn (1971) has argued that occupational experiences provide an opportunity for an individual to use initiative, thought, and independent judgment in her or his work.

The relationships of the individual to occupational role -- that is, the individual's effect on the role or the role's effect on the individual -- are of central importance in this study.

#### Occupational Socialization During the Training Process

During the last three decades the study of socialization in professional schools has illuminated our understanding of the occupational socialization process. Studies specifically dealing with the process of a physician's socialization were crystallized, especially in research at Columbia University (Merton et al., 1957) and the Chicago groups (Becker et al., 1961). These studies concern the effects of the medical school experience on specific values and attitudes that are assumed to have

relevance to the doctor's role and on the relationships between the medical school and the medical profession. In the context of the medical school experiences, interpersonal values -- support, conformity, recognition, independence, benevolence, and leadership -- are important variables in the socialization process (Gordon & Mensh, 1962; Gordon, 1976).

Bloom (1965) identified several conflicting conclusions and interpretations that emerged from a review of these studies regarding the socialization process and its outcomes. Concerns relevant to this study include shifts in attitudes and values and the completeness of training which the medical school provides. Concerning attitudinal shifts one study argued that the effects of medical school experiences result in gradual social and professional maturation, while another interpretation identified a cycle going from idealism to cynicism to realistic idealism. Concerning the completeness of the training, one view supported the medical school as forming only a foundation of basic knowledge and skill, while the other study identified the medical school as being an integral part of the medical profession by fully preparing the students for the realities of the profession. These interpretations point up the diversity which exists within the same profession while examining characteristics of the socialization process.

Conclusions from two studies (Becker, 1961; Mumford, 1970) of medical schools support the findings that those who interact with trainees in work settings tend to be more influential than others who interact with trainees in settings removed from the work place. In addition to the medical school experience, the interpersonal networks of peers, authority figures, and situations that directly represent the operational situation of medicine were seen as the socializing agents of the medical profession (Merton, 1957).

In Lortie's (1959) initial observation of student socialization in law school, he noted that law schooling was removed from the everyday realities of the profession. A latent culture persisted until the young lawyers faced the demands of practice. The tasks they were asked to perform as practitioners were not those expected of them after graduation. What young lawyers professed they learned in law school compared to what was necessary for success while building a profession indicated that law school had a limited and partial impact on them and their socialization (Lortie, 1959).

During a law student's first year of law school Schwartz (1980) indicated that there were changes in student attitudes. They became more person oriented as they endorsed lawyers as representatives of individual clients more than of the public. In addition, they expressed a

desire for an emphasis on theory over practice and the belief that law school should prepare them for life-long practice. Schwartz (1980) concluded that, although first-year law students' attitudes were influenced by peers and faculty, the formal institution was mostly responsible for attitudinal changes.

Furthermore, as Lortie (1966) has shown in the discussion of a study of law students in Chicago, young lawyers are isolated from the market place of legal services and often graduated without any contact with real legal work. The law school curriculum provided few opportunities, such as internships, for students to learn the role. Schooling was removed from everyday realities. Law school had a "limited and partial impact on them (law students) and their socialization into the realities of the profession" (Lortie, 1966, p. 100). Lortie (1966) also observed a latent culture which seemed to remain until the recently induced lawyer faced the demands of practice.

#### Socialization after Training: Mechanisms of Social Control

Socialization does not stop abruptly upon entry into an occupation. As socialization continues after training, individuals may respond differently to the same socialization stimuli. A variety of mechanisms exert control over the behavior of the newcomer. Formal mechanisms include codes of ethics which exist in written



form and in licensing and certification regulations. Informal mechanisms consist of criticism by colleagues and gossip. Specifically, informal mechanism refers to collegial evaluation that members of an occupation make of each other. Although these evaluations are unofficial, individuals are strongly identified with or abruptly rejected by their occupational group as a result. The seeking of collegial approval gives colleagues a high degree of control over the individual's behavior (Hall, 1948).

#### Organizational Socialization

Occupational roles are characteristically present within an organizational setting. Individuals who are accepting new occupational roles inherently bring with them the capacity for changing the organization. Since socialization is a continual process, the learning of specific skills and role orientations continues as neophytes begin membership in new social units, such as organizations. Socialization is the process by which new members are taught the organizational traditions. Experienced colleagues guide new members to conform to the organizational standards of their new social unit. Both the entrance into a specific occupation or job and the change to a new one involve very specific training and, for the individual, the integration into a new organizational form. Examining organizational socialization can enlighten our understanding of the teacher

Induction process. Attention will be given to organizational variables which affect an individual's experience in a new organizational setting.

Organization socialization is concerned with the process by which new participants in an organization acquire status and new positions (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). According to Schein (1968) this process of "learning the ropes" is continual throughout one's career. Distinguishing between occupational socialization and organizational socialization, the indoctrination into a particular profession or trade describes occupational socialization, and organizational socialization is concerned with changes in roles within an organization.

The process of organizational socialization is a complex one. To make analysis easier, this study will examine it in three different aspects: its characteristics, stages, and socializing agents.

The major characteristics of organizational socialization are likely to be ones of disorientation and apprehension. The newcomer may feel that she or he may say or do the wrong thing. Initially, the beginner may be without a map of time and space in the new organization. So much is new that recruits will generally experience a sensory overload. Coming face to face with the activities, values, and culture of the new institution creates a

condition in the individual described as "reality shock" (Hughes, 1958).

In his discussion of organizations, Etzioni (1961) described the mechanisms through which new members are socialized. Socialization in educational organizations has been characterized by a predominate amount of expressive socialization, that is, preparation without training. As individuals progress closer to occupational roles in educational organizations, expressive socialization decreases until instrumental socialization --preparation which includes training -- receives greater emphasis (Etzioni, 1961). Expressive socialization is not emphasized in law and medical schools, where training prevails. During the training for occupational roles in educational organizations, "much of the limited expressive socialization which takes place is unorganized, and is sometimes an unintended consequence of other processes such as interaction with peers and senior members of the profession" (Merton, 1957, p. 41-42).

Socialization includes several stages. According to Merton (1957) the process of organizational socialization begins in a stage called "anticipatory socialization." This term refers to the common phenomenon that people will have some ideas about the job they are going to do and the nature of the place in which they will do it, before they even acquire a job. Anticipatory socialization may be

illustrated as a phenomenon occurring prior to entry into formal training situations. Individuals aspiring to enter formal occupational roles or groups may bring with them conceptions and misconceptions. Previous exposure to the occupation is likely to vary the amount and kind of anticipatory socialization an individual brings into formal occupational training (Pavalko, 1971).

The phenomenon of anticipatory socialization also occurs during the training process. A major component of this aspect of socialization during training is informal inputs such as role models. However, in the case of very visible occupations, some individuals may have inaccurate conceptions and unrealistic expectations of what individuals in the organization actually do on their jobs (Pavalko, 1971). It is also possible that formal socialization practices may convey information regarding ideal practices, rather than practices which the newcomer will actually experience. Furthermore, anticipatory socialization may lead beginners to reject the norms, values, and roles presented during training. Other researchers refer to this stage as "pre-arrival stage" (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1974).

When the individuals are hired into the organization, they enter the "encounter stage." During this stage the experience of reality shock is a critical event. As the individual enters the organization, the "reality shock"

shapes the individual's long-term response to the organization (Hughes, 1958; Van Maanen, 1976). Individuals, during this transition period, learn the technical and social requirements from colleagues, superiors, and subordinates as quickly as possible to reduce the anxiety produced by the situation (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

The unmet expectations experienced during the encounter stage are described by Hughes (1958) and Van Maanen (1976) as "reality shocks" and described by Louis (1980) as "surprises." As the newcomer attempts to balance her or his anticipations about the new role with subsequent experiences, Louis (1980) described several types of surprises:

1. Conscious expectations about the job are not fulfilled in the newcomer's early job experiences.
2. Errors in assumptions about the job and about oneself emerge. The newcomer must cope with the recognition that these assumptions may be different from her or his previous perceptions.
3. Features of the job are unanticipated and unconscious job expectations are unmet.
4. The newcomer fails to anticipate or accurately forecast internal reactions to a particular new experience.
5. Cultural assumptions brought from previous settings as operating guides in the new setting fail to work.

Newcomers cope with these surprises and unmet expectations in several ways. They rely on information and

interpretations from others to help them "make sense" of the experiences (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Louis, 1980), they recall their past experiences in dealing with surprises (Louis, 1980), or they are guided by personality characteristics such as attitudes toward authority (McDonald & Elias, 1980).

As the newcomers gradually become "inside members" of the organization, they are privileged to hear privy information and become part of some informal networks. This insider status describes the final organizational socialization stage referred to as the "metamorphosis" stage (Van Maanen, 1976), or "change and acquisition" stage (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1974). This final stage of organizational socialization focuses on the changes in the individual. In other words the recruit makes the role her or his own and attempts to comply with the role or modify the role dictated by the organization.

Included in the examination of organizational socialization is the component of socializing agents. These change agents may occupy formal or informal roles, and may exert influence directly or indirectly (Lippitt, 1968). The socialization agent strives for an internalized self-direction in the person becoming socialized, with initiative for self-control and continuing development.

The components of the socialization structure can be seen as two groups of agents: Those who assume an informal

role -- staff members, peer groups, secretaries, parents, and relatives -- and those who are delegated to take a formal socialization responsibility -- supervisors, mentors, owners, elected personnel, specialists, and administrators.

Various techniques are used by socializing agents to control behavior and to transmit rules, values, beliefs, and skills. Some general techniques include use of rewarding, inciting, instructing, disciplining, denying a privilege, withholding support, and evaluating (Whiting et al., 1966).

Socialization agents can also be thought of as either direct or indirect agents. Policy makers and program designers have indirect contact with those in occupational roles. They may work indirectly through supervisors, supporters, mass media, or other peers. As policies and programs are designed and implemented, the quality of the socialization of those in occupational roles is established. When policy makers and program designers have only a hazy picture of the actual process of social interaction, then the quality of socialization suffers.

Lippitt (1968) indicated the most serious concern affecting socialization agents is a lack of dialogue about socialization goals. The major barrier to dialogue seems to have several facets. Perhaps socializing agents want to preserve their own autonomy, or feel anxious that they are not accomplishing as much as they would like or feel they are expected to, or feel apologetic about being too

Idealistic or philosophical, or feel too overloaded by the responsibility. This study explored the impact of socializing agents on first-year teachers.

#### Summary of Occupational/Organizational Socialization

The focus throughout this study was the relationship of the individual to an occupational role, and the organizational effect and the individual's effect on the socializing process and thus on the occupation or profession itself. Occupational socialization can be viewed as the primary post-adolescent phenomenon for fitting individuals into the present society, the anticipatory socialization of the individual being the primary socializing influence, or the individuals' creative abilities reshaping occupational values. Organizational socialization, as a sub-area of occupational socialization, is concerned with changes in roles or locations within an organization. Socialization agents can be an influential component in the socialization process as they initiate self-direction and self-control in those who are socialized.

#### TEACHER SOCIALIZATION

Research and development agenda for the Eighties recommended that pre-service, beginning teaching, and advanced in-service levels be considered along one inclusive continuum (Greenberg, 1983; Hall & Hord, 1981). In the past



these stages have been investigated as separate fields of study. Currently they are being recognized as complementary stages of the whole system. The function of this section will be to review existing literature on the pre-service training of beginning teachers emphasizing field-based student teaching experiences and relate these findings to the experiences of beginning teachers. Field-based pre-service preparation and induction programs are potentially important connecting experiences in the development of beginning teachers.

The process by which an individual is inducted into the teaching profession must be viewed as a process of socialization (Popkewitz, 1979; Zeichner, 1980a). This process includes practicing and learning the skills of teaching as well as incorporating the values and behavioral patterns of the profession into daily routines (Lacey, 1977; Zeichner, 1980a; Zeichner, 1984).

Following a brief rationale and definition of the concept of teacher socialization, this section will review theoretical viewpoints on teacher socialization, formal and informal influences on teacher socialization, stages of teacher socialization, pre-service preparation of teachers, the impact of the first year of teaching, and outcomes and the factors that influence those outcomes of beginning teacher socialization as outlined by Veenman (1984).

### Rationale and Definition

The needs and concerns of those who enter the teaching profession have become a public issue in the midst of a reform cycle. In addition to the focus on pre-service teacher education (Barnett, 1975; Zeichner, 1980a), programs for beginning teachers are also priority agenda items in the major reports directed toward the improvement of teaching in schools. The Carnegie Forum (1986) has recommended assistance for beginning teachers to uphold high standards of learning and teaching. As an impetus for gaining professional status for teaching, the Holmes Report (1986) suggested an increased emphasis be placed on the status of beginning teachers. This study's focus is then a timely and recognized one.

The concept of teacher socialization is based on definitions similar to the conceptual definitions of socialization theory, specifically definitions concerning occupational and organization socialization. Teacher socialization includes not only learning to teach, but also an acceptance of the values, attitudes and concerns of the teaching profession (Lacey, 1977). The process of teacher socialization is "one of learning, unlearning, and adjusting new and old behaviors so that role occupants (new teachers) perform in such a manner that role expectations and institutional expectations are met" (Cruse, 1979, p. 10). The process of teacher socialization has been viewed to

begin at various periods: during the individual's university training (Hoy, 1968; Lortie, 1975), or starting with student teaching (Friebus, 1977; Hoy and Rees, 1977; Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981), or as they enter the school system (Becker, 1951; Eddy, 1969). This study examined teacher socialization as beginning teachers enter the school system as full-time first-year teachers.

The socialization of teachers is also related to organizational perspectives. It is interdependent upon individuals within the school system (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Teachers must work within the organization of the school. As organizations, schools can be viewed as either rational bureaucracies or loosely coupled systems. Schools are more frequently viewed as rational bureaucracies with rigid administrations, set goals, and formal rules that determine the roles members within the organization are expected to fill (Becker, 1951; Eddy, 1969; Edgar & Warren, 1969).

Other authors have viewed schools as loosely coupled systems (Welck, 1976; Sergiovanni, 1984). As loosely coupled organizations, schools do not operate according to a blueprint. Sometimes rules are followed and other times they are ignored. The blueprints exist for legitimate reasons, and structural elements are loosely linked to what actually occurs.

### Viewpoints on Teacher Socialization

Relevant to the study of teacher socialization are the relationships between individuals and institutions. Teacher education programs can be improved through an increased understanding of what is involved in becoming a teacher. (Popkewitz, 1979).

Teacher socialization has been studied most frequently from the functionalist tradition. Most studies on the socialization of teachers have emphasized accounts of how the individual complies or adjusts to the constraints of social structures. The socialization process is unidirectional when university training and school sanctions mold the development of the teaching perspective. The student teacher is described as a passive individual who is indoctrinated to the norms of the institution (Popkewitz, 1979; Zeichner, 1980a; Tabachnick, 1981).

Although a plethora of research exists in support of the functionalist tradition, recent research has provided evidence which indicates individuals entering the teaching profession are actively involved in their socialization. The concept of socialization can define people as both active, creative participants and passive recipients of values (Popkewitz, 1976). While student teachers are necessarily constrained by structural limitations, they can also become participants in shaping their identities in the socialization process (Tabachnick, 1981; Zeichner, 1984).

Zeichner states "... there is overwhelming support... that teacher education students do not simply react to the people and forces around them" (Zeichner, 1984, p. 17). Student teachers may resist institutional pressures to conform by varying their teaching practices and values from institutional norms. Beginning teachers creatively change their teacher role to fit their own needs as well as allow the demands of others to socialize them into their teacher roles (Gehrke & Yamamoto, 1978).

Lortie (1973) and Zeichner (1980a) have presented several positions on the key processes stressed in functionalist studies of teacher socialization. The process outlined in this section of the study attempts to assess teacher socialization during the student teaching experience. This information will serve as a reference point during the examination of first-year teachers. The emphasis is on the following processes: the self-socializing aspect of student teaching, teacher socialization which stresses the internalization of values held by sanctioning colleagues, peer influences, students as socializing agents, the influence of nonprofessional agents like friends and spouses, the ecology of the classroom, and the bureaucratic structure of schools.

Lortie (1966, 1975) has argued the position that biography as opposed to formal training is the key element in teacher socialization. He stated, "socialization into

teaching is largely self-socializing; one's personal dispositions are not only relevant, but, in fact, stand at the core of becoming a teacher" (Lortie, 1975, p. 79). The many hours neophyte teachers have spent in the classroom internalizing teaching models is a major influence shaping their new teaching role (Lortie, 1975). As individuals consider teaching as a profession, the major influence shaping their conception of teaching is their articulation of this latent culture. Their latent culture is influential during and after the training process. Because pre-service training provides little opportunity of a "shared ordeal" between experienced teachers and new teachers or between the university and the public school, new teachers may, in effect, socialize themselves as a result of this psychological isolation (Lortie, 1975).

In a study involving neophyte teachers, Edgar and Warren (1969) viewed socialization as a "power process." The evaluative power of supervisors exert a powerful influence on beginning teachers. These neophytes gradually internalize the values held by sanctioning colleagues. Since the cooperating teacher is in close contact with the student teacher, beginning teachers see them as influential socializing agents (Friebus, 1977). The influence of the cooperating teacher may also be present during the first few years of teaching (McAulay, 1969). However, Zeichner (1980a) pointed out "that while on the surface the potency

of the cooperating teacher's influence seems apparent, in each of the studies cited above the shifting of teacher attitudes and behaviors toward those of their cooperating teachers was a general phenomenon" (p. 7).

A study of a teacher education program (Yamamoto et al., 1969) found that student teachers felt practical experiences were more beneficial to learning-to-teach than academic experiences. Trainees were led to adopt the professional identity characteristic of the group. Such mentor emulation is reinforced when trainees frequently observe their trainers actually performing the occupational role and are observed performing approximations of the role by the trainers (Simpson, 1967; Bucher & Stelling, 1977).

College supervisors have evaluative power over student teachers. However, due to the limited time college supervisors spend in the classroom, they "coach" more than supervise (Friebus, 1977).

Other teachers, in a limited way, act as socializing agents for beginning teachers by providing emotional support and clerical direction (Friebus, 1977; Karmos & Jacko, 1977). New teachers frequently turn to trusted, experienced colleagues for personal and professional survival. When neophyte teachers are certain their competence will not be questioned, or when they perceive no alternative for survival, they tend to seek assistance and support from a few select colleagues (Newberry, 1977; Ryan, 1978; Isaacson,

1981). Zelchner (1980a) concluded that "the peer subculture is not very important because of a lack of opportunities for student teachers to interact in more than limited ways" (p. 9).

Although literature concerning the role of students as socializing agents is somewhat sparse, studies have concluded that students play an active role in the movement from student teachers into the role of teachers (Friebus, 1977). Haller (1967) found that students helped shape the way beginning teachers interacted with their students. Through a Skinnerian process of operant conditioning, students exert a powerful influence on teacher's language. Teachers receive psychic rewards from students. Such rewards can be more influential in shaping teacher behavior than evaluative power (Lortie, 1975). Students provided the student teacher with a sense of success or failure.

The influence of nonprofessional agents on aspiring teachers and beginning teachers is also limited. While Karmos and Jacko (1977) demonstrated that friends, parents, and spouses provide personal and emotional support to student teachers, Friebus (1977) concluded that conflicts may occur as student teachers experience the demands of teaching and the demands of spouses and dating partners simultaneously.

Teachers' actions are limited by structural characteristics and environmental conditions of the



classroom (Jackson, 1968; Dreeben, 1973; Doyle, 1977). Structural characteristics may include "multidimensionality, simultaneity, immediacy, unpredictability, and history" (Doyle, 1980, p. 505). Copeland (1980) and Doyle (1977) provided some experimental evidence which identified the primary influence as the ecology or the environment of the school. Although the influence of the cooperating teacher has been documented (Friebe, 1977), Copeland (1980) argued that the student teacher's shift in attitudes and behaviors may be the result of "shaping forces exerted by the ecological system of the classroom" (p. 197). However, Zeichner (1980a) concluded: "... they still view the student teacher as a passive role performer" (p. 13).

Centered around the work of Hoy and his concept of pupil control ideology, the socialization of student teachers emphasizes dominant beliefs and practices characteristically associated with the bureaucracy of the schools. Hoy (1967, 1968, 1969) and Hoy and Rees (1977) found that pupil control ideologies of student teachers were generally more custodial and significantly more bureaucratic in their views at the end of their student teaching experience. Zeichner (1980a, p. 15) cautioned that "the movement toward custodial and bureaucratic perspectives was a general phenomenon," and attempts must be made to investigate these attitudinal changes in various contexts.

This review of the literature does acknowledge that student teachers are actively engaged in controlling their professional socialization (Zeichner, 1980a), and at the same time, are influenced by a variety of socializing agents. The recent focus has been on the constant interplay between individuals and the institutions into which they are socialized (Zeichner, 1980a; Crow, 1987). Most of the researchers supporting this dialectical model have reported from a student teaching perspective. Research on beginning teachers which challenges traditional socialization perspectives exists (Tabachnick, et al., 1983), but additional research is necessary (Zeichner, 1980a).

Lortie (1973) concluded that the process of teacher socialization is "undoubtedly a complex process not readily captured by a simple, one-factor frame of reference" (p. 488). This study included only two of Bronfenbrenner (1976) levels of analysis: the micro-system, an immediate setting in which occupants engage in particular roles for particular periods of time (e.g., the classroom), and the meso-system, the interrelationships among the major settings in which an occupant engages in a role (e.g., the school and the university). Through a qualitative examination of teacher socialization as suggested by Lacey (1977), Zeichner (1978), Popkewitz (1979), and Tabachnick et al. (1983), this study was designed to provide a rich description of beginning

teachers' experiences within a cooperative field-based setting.

#### Formal and Informal Socialization

Beginning teachers, as they are concerned with issues of their own survival, are socialized by formal and informal elements (Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981). The elements of formal socialization into the teaching profession begin in pre-service training, followed by job interviews and the formal induction process of school district and building orientation, and finally, in the supervision of new teachers by administrators carried out in several formal observations and conferences (Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981).

State certification and university requirements formally socialize aspiring teachers and certified teachers by specifying that they complete specific courses and practicum experiences. In most cases the institution's responsibility for formal training of the individual ends with a successful graduation.

Formal socialization continues during the induction process with job interviews and with orientation procedures which diverge into "multiple induction patterns" (Ryan, 1979a). Formal observations and conferences conducted by administrative personnel are meant for the improvement of teaching.

Pease (1967), Lortie (1975), Ryan (1979), and Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981) have noted the profound effect of early influences on informal socialization. Informal influences include organizational structures and settings, colleagues (Briscoe, 1972; Lortie, 1975; Newberry, 1977; Ryan, 1978; Pataniczek, 1978), cooperating teachers (Hoy, 1967; Friebeus, 1977), and university supervisors (Soares & Soares, 1968). Isaacson (1981) concluded that informal organizational supports were perceived to be of great significance to beginning teachers and were viewed by them as more crucial to their survival of the induction phase than formal means of organizational or personal assistance.

#### Phases in Teacher Socialization

Teachers generally proceed through their professional socialization in a series of phases. These "status passages" have been labeled as "dream, play, and life" (Wright & Tuska, 1968), referring to career choice, teacher training, and beginning teaching. The earlier phases of teacher socialization have been described in terms of "anticipatory socialization" (McArthur, 1981) during the teacher training phase. Willower (1968) described the later phase of teacher socialization as the beginning teacher becoming an "old pro." A teacher has reached the final phase in professional teacher socialization when she or he

"decides that only other teachers are important" (Waller, 1932, p. 389).

During student training, from the beginning to the student teaching practicum, a series of activities influence the students. Several studies suggest stages during this phase (Haberman, 1983). Haberman (1983) hypothesized that students will move in a reverse order of what one might naturally expect: from professional decision-maker, to insightful analyst, to self-evaluator, to learning skills director, to reality-centered, to ritualistic imitative. White (1979) views the training phase analogous to an audition: reading the script, learning the moves, rehearsing, living the part, and finally, performing.

As trainees in the teaching profession put theory into practice, McArthur (1978) observed "reality shock" with a group of beginning secondary teachers. The practicing teachers reported an increased custodial attitude toward students. Similar observations of "reality shock" in beginning teachers have been reported by Day (1959) and Morrison and McIntyre (1967).

During the socialization of teachers, McArthur (1979) concluded that the most significant adjustment occur within the first few months of teaching. Following the phase of "reality shock" is a four year plateau phase during which teachers adjust and internalize the values of the teaching subculture. Socialization after the first year is much less

traumatic and much more professionally satisfying (McArthur, 1979).

Efforts have been made to ease teacher socialization. Programs are being implemented which link university "theory" with the "practice" of cooperating teachers or school bureaucratic settings. Some universities have developed models of supervision (Cohn, 1981), while other educators strongly believe that extended field-based experiences will better prepare students before leaving the university classroom (Frey & Murphy, 1982). These programs have the potential to integrate the theory and practice of teaching. The present study had the goal of observing and analyzing beginning teachers who have completed field-based experiences in extended programs.

#### Pre-service Preparation of Teachers

In spite of the many recommendations published over the past fifty years, Smith (1980) wrote that "... the basic pedagogical program (has) remained practically unchanged" (p. 89). However, it is important to have a brief look at current literature which has examined the formal training process prior to the induction of beginning teachers into the teaching profession.

In 1929 Mann proposed a limited form of teacher preparation when he spoke of the need to "provide means for the special qualification of teachers for our Common School"

In order to "elevate the character of the common schools" and to "increase their efficiency" (p. 263). Given the plethora of recommendations concerning changes in teacher education programs, one should find some professional consensus for the form of teacher preparation. A brief exposition of some of the reform proposals are discussed in Keith (1987) and Bush (1987).

Historically, solutions to problems involving workers have been sought in the training process or education of employees (Kennedy, Cruickshank, & Meyers, 1976). Similarly, the student teaching experience has been found to be a useful component in preparing beginning teachers (Hermanowicz, 1966). Recent survey and follow-up studies of teacher education graduates from a wide variety of institutions report that teachers view their student teaching experiences to be the strongest element of their training programs (e.g., McDonald & Elias, 1980; Schwanke, 1980).

However, other researchers have argued that student teaching does not play a significant role in teacher development. Lortie (1975) concluded that the latent culture developed through prior classroom experience largely determines a student teacher's performance. Petty and Hogben's (1980) findings supported the theory that teacher socialization is largely complete before formal teacher education begins. While discussing the effects of

university training on teacher education students, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) provided a scenario that suggested other socializing agents reverse the views learned during university training. Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) pointed out that

the substance of particular student teaching programs, the characteristics of specific placement sites, and the place of student teaching in the overall pre-service preparation programs necessarily affect the form and outcomes of student teaching socialization (p. 34).

Although field-based instruction is generally assumed to be necessary and useful (Howey et al., 1978), serious questions are being raised about the continuations of traditional field experiences. The effects of field experiences have been described as a "complicated set of positive and negative consequences" (Zeichner, 1980, p. 7). For example, it has been observed that the more time students spend in the field, the more conservatively rigid they become (McArthur, 1978). Additionally, Glassberg and Sprinthall (1980) noted that the results from a substantial body of empirical research indicated "student teachers became more authoritarian, rigid, impersonal, restrictive, arbitrary, bureaucratic, and custodial by the end of their student teaching experience" (p. 31).

The typical teacher training program today provides for a certain amount of general education, specified method courses as well as child growth and development and



educational psychology courses, and a period of student teaching varying from six to sixteen weeks before certification. Each student works under the direction of a supervising teacher and is also supervised by university personnel. The training programs traditionally terminate when the teacher candidate becomes eligible for certification. Method courses are generally taken prior to the student teaching experience.

Investigations conducted on the traditional field experiences of pre-service teachers conclude that student teachers are socialized into the profession by the patterns of school practice (Johnston & Ryan, 1983), practice a limited range of instructional behaviors (Doyle, 1977; Copeland, 1980), and become involved with learning which is not commonly supported by both schools and universities (Popkewitz, Tabachnick, & Zeichner, 1979).

Graduates of pre-service education programs agree on the strengths and weakness of their preparation. Graduates conclude they are inadequately prepared for handling discipline problems, and that educational coursework emphasizes theory over practical applications (Ryan, 1970; Joyce & Clift, 1984). Additionally, criticisms of teacher education programs have indicated a lack of instructional diversity in coursework (Joyce et al., 1977), and have indicated limitations in comprehending school organizational dimensions (Joyce et al., 1977).

The idea of an additional year of training in the form of classroom teaching and subsequent graduate work at the university for beginning teachers can be traced back to 1919 and more recently to the 1930's at the University of Cincinnati and Cincinnati Public Schools. Currently, clinical internships are being planned, implemented, and monitored as pre-service teacher education programs (Barnett, 1975; Doyle, 1985; Griffin, 1985). Continuing the practice of student teaching assumes that teacher education programs can become more effective (Barnett, 1975; Howey, et al., 1978). Power (1981) concluded that "it can be speculated that teacher training has a greater impact on the professional socialization of teachers than has been realized" (p. 213).

Since the knowledge base of present teacher education practices is limited, Howey (1977, 1983) has called for a research commitment to describe better what is occurring in teacher education. Educators must do a better job of assessing the effects of teacher education programs. Universities and schools should work together to improve teacher education (Hall, 1982), and investigations of clinical experiences should be conducted (Joyce & Clift, 1984).

Ahead of and in response to reform recommendations, some extended or alternative preparation programs have been developed and implemented. Documentation and evaluation of

these programs is minimal. Current evidence indicates many students completing the teacher education field-based programs will enter the teaching profession (Andrews, 1983). Examples of pre-service program descriptions which are available include the University of New Hampshire (Andrews, 1981), University of Kansas (Scannell & Guenther, 1981), Grambling State University (Mills, 1984), Doane College, (Dudley & Helger, 1983), Portland State University (Driscoll & Strouse, 1987; Carl, 1985), University of Maryland (Spekman & Kohl, 1980), Austin College in Texas (Steinacher, 1979), and University of Nevada (Kunkel & Dearmin, 1981).

Investigations of CPEP (Cooperative Professional Education Program) interns have been conducted (Driscoll, Strouse, & Peterson, 1987; Nagel, 1987). At the conclusion of the internship, concerns of the graduates shifted from "survival" language phases to language containing specific teaching and learning examples. CPEP student teachers communicated different satisfactions for teaching, rationales for instructional decisions, and overall perceptions of teaching success than those teachers who completed a traditional program (Driscoll, Strouse, & Peterson, 1987). Nagel (1987) reported that pre-service teachers can learn to reflect upon their teaching and use this information to improve future instruction. Extending

the field experience did not cause the interns to move to concerns-with-students at a faster rate.

### The Impact of the First Year of Teaching

For many beginning teachers, the first year of teaching is exciting and successful. For most, however, "the first year is complex and difficult" (Ryan, 1980, p.5). Most beginning teachers report an apparent conflict between what they learned during training and the responsibilities of their first teaching assignment. For many first-year teachers, survival depends on allegiance to the status quo. The idealistic notions of the neophyte teachers are tempered by the realism of their responsibilities (Hannam, Smyth, & Stephenson, 1976). Beginning teachers must balance their need for success with decisions concerning their relationships with students, experienced teachers, and supervisors (Abraham, 1954).

There is a plethora of descriptive information on the first year of teaching. Johnston (1978) studied the professional literature devoted to this topic between the years 1930 and 1977. These and other more recent studies will be briefly reported here and elsewhere in this literature review. As a part of his study, Johnston analyzed and then categorized all the published materials into five distinct classifications: (1) advice written by principals and experienced teachers on the first year of

teaching -- especially discipline (Hale, 1931; Abraham, 1954; Bell, 1971; Shadick, 1972); (2) self-reported experiences of first-year teachers (Rost, 1939; Grinnell, 1940; Leiberman, 1975); (3) scholarly essays on the first year of teaching (Eddy, 1969; Fuchs, 1969); (4) reflective interpretations of first-year teachers' experiences (Ryan, 1970); and (5) quantitative (e.g. Fuller & Brown, 1975; Tisher, 1978; McDonald & Elias, 1983) or qualitative (e.g., Berliner, 1976) studies of the first year of teaching.

Lortie (1965) described the first year of teaching as confrontation. The beginning teacher must respond to this challenge. Lortie (1965) has compared the efforts of first-year teachers trying to gain mastery in their classroom with Robinson Crusoe's fight for survival:

The beginning teacher may find that prior experience supplies him with some alternatives for action, but his crucial learning comes from his personal errors; he fits together special solutions and specific problems into some kind of whole and at times finds leeway for the expression of personal taste. Working largely alone, he cannot make the specifics of his working knowledge base explicit, nor need he, as his victories are private (p. 59).

The "shock of the familiar," as Ryan (1970) described the first year of teaching, came when the beginner changed from student to teacher. Ryan (1980) reported that new teachers experience shock from a variety of sources. They find motivating students difficult and are overconfident as disciplinarians. Estimating the amount of time and work

necessary to prepare for teaching and to keep up with administrative tasks surprises them. Teaching is not as easy as they envisioned.

Because of the cellular nature of schools, beginning teachers spend most of their time apart from their colleagues. The beginning teacher faces problems, makes decisions, and evaluates her or his progress without the benefit of others. The neophyte teacher experiences similar organizational structures which create task situations similar to those which veteran teachers experience. These situations seem to be an unacknowledged ritual of socialization into the teaching profession.

Other studies have documented the newcomer's move from the realm of theory in the university classroom to the reality of teaching (Hannam, Smyth, & Stephenson, 1976; Rothstein, 1979). New teachers are expected to perform as permanent teachers (Marashino, 1971), receive inappropriate assignments (Fuller & Brown, 1975), are perceived as a threat by experienced teachers (Ryan, 1982), feel isolated from other staff members (Griffin & Hukill, 1983), and feel uncertain about their own competence (Clewett, 1984).

For some, however, the first year of teaching may also be rewarding. Beginning teachers are pleased to note that their students achieve academic success. When given an opportunity to make instructional decisions, some neophyte teachers enjoy being an autonomous adult (Ryan, 1970).

### Outcomes of Beginning Teacher Socialization and Factors that Influence those Outcomes

Research concerning the outcomes of teacher socialization has produced consistent conclusions. In a comprehensive review of the literature on teacher socialization, Wells (1984) reported that following the initial teaching experiences, teacher education students shift from their progressive and liberal views. In order to be an accepted member of the educational system, beginning teachers socially adjust to the traditional educational values and attitudes. Research emphasizing the various aspects of teacher socialization has concentrated in three areas: university training, the school bureaucracy, and the impact of role models on the neophyte (Wells, 1984).

As this literature review documents the impact of socialization upon teachers, it will be limited to those outcomes and factors previously outlined by Veenman (1984) and those previously described in this chapter: attitudes and behaviors, problems, socializing agents, and concerns.

Attitudes and Behaviors. Beginning elementary and secondary teachers have experienced significant shifting of attitudes. The following research conclusions illustrate this shifting of attitudes. First-year teachers can become more custodial in their attitudes toward student management (McArthur, 1978). The sanctioning power of supervisors has caused some teachers to shift toward those attitudes held by

those of the evaluator (Edgar & Warren, 1969). Day (1959) and Lagana (1970), utilizing the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI), concluded that beginning teachers became more authoritative in their attitudes toward students. Many of these findings substantiate the notion of "reality shock" for first-year teachers. Such a dramatic shift from the liberal ideas held during training to traditional patterns offered in many schools suggest that idealism is replaced by realism.

Several researchers have concluded that, after pre-service preparation, beginning teachers no longer express progressive and liberal attitudes. Utilizing the Pupil Control Inventory (PCI), Hoy (1968) found that beginning teachers shift to more traditional views of education. McArthur (1978) later replicated Hoy's study.

Custodial attitudes are exhibited by beginning teachers when they choose to be less permissive, be less democratic, and use a more impersonal approach in maintaining classroom control (Hoy, 1968). As first-year teachers begin their assignment, a custodial orientation appears to confront them (Hoy, 1968). In a longitudinal study of teacher socialization using the Pupil Control Ideology Form, McArthur (1978) studied the first five years of teaching and concluded that the time of most adjustment in terms of teaching occurs during the induction phase. Similar



observations of the "reality shock" phenomenon in beginning teachers have been reported by Day (1959) using the MTAI.

Additionally, as beginning teachers gain experience, studies have indicated that attitudinal shifts toward authoritarianism (Lagana, 1970) and realism (McArthur, 1978; Blase & Greenfield, 1982) occur. Formal and informal socialization influence such attitudinal shifts.

Utilizing the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) to study the initial attitudes of 779 beginning teachers in 45 western Pennsylvania school districts toward students and teaching, Lagana (1970) found that age had a bearing on the degree and direction of the attitude changes. The unfavorable attitude change -- characterized by tension, distrust, and hostility -- decreased as the age level of the beginning teachers increased.

Waller (1932) described teaching as an occupation that restricted development of those entering the profession. During the mid thirties strict community norms governing teacher behavior and social influences inherent in the teaching role itself restricted teacher socialization. Although his seminal work analyzed teaching as a career, he discovered that some of these forces frequently led to loss of creative powers and attitudinal and behavioral rigidity.

Garrison's research (1972) supported the view that attitudinal change is a ramification of the socialization process. By accepting traditional values and attitudes

toward education, beginning teachers are socialized into the work force of the educational system (Becker, 1951; Eddy, 1969; Rothstein, 1979).

Blase (1985) summarized factors contributing to changes in teacher attitude and behavior related to the teacher's instructional perspective. Using qualitative methodology drawing from two case studies of teachers, he described the following factors influencing socialization: student diversity, complex problems, group leadership methods, interactions with undermotivated students, teacher expectation, authoritarianism, survival orientation, objective framework, role demands, administrative expectations, parental expectations, and personal qualities.

As beginning teachers experience the realities of teaching, they must adjust to entirely different psychological and structural environments than they experienced during pre-service training. Due to the complex nature of teaching, new teachers develop social strategies to survive and grow. Lacey (1977) described these strategies as "internalized adjustment," (accepting or conforming to the values and practices); "strategic compliance," (not being convinced but deciding to go along with the practices operating for now); and "strategic redefinition," (trying to change or reform the school situation). In the case of the last strategy the new teacher, acting as her or his own socializing agent, is

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resistant to the school situation and creatively finds a solution.

Research also exists which has observed minimal attitudinal and behavior shifts between training and the end of the first year. Lacey (1977), Petty and Hogben (1980), and Power (1981) observed that the attitudes and practices of some beginning teachers are somewhat resistant to change due to weak socialization pressures. The shifting from progressive to traditional attitudes in teaching perspectives during the first year did not occur in all teachers.

In summary, the first year of teaching for many teachers does not result in positive attitudinal growth. Instead, the trend tends to note shifts in attitudes from idealism to realism. Such a regression in attitudes is one which does not involve all teachers nor does it involve a shift to the same degree. The realities and responsibilities of the first teaching assignment may blunt the idealistic perspective of beginning teachers.

Problems. Over the last two decades studies have indicated that the first years of teaching are a critical and often difficult transition point in teacher development (Ryan, 1979; Tisher, 1978). A high degree of reliability regarding teachers' perceptions of their problems was noted by Dropkin and Taylor (1963). Numerous investigations have been conducted to determine the problems faced by beginning

teachers (Lagana, 1970; McIntosh, 1977; Applegate, Johnston, Lasley, Mager, Newman, & Ryan, 1977; Adams & Martray, 1980; Cruickshank, 1981; McDonald & Elias, 1983; Veenman, 1984; Nias, 1984). A linear examination of these studies will be reported in this section. Most of these results are based on self-report of teachers; that is, beginning teachers' perceptions.

Studying the perceived problems of beginning teachers, Dropkin and Taylor's (1963) data indicated that teachers respond to an inquiry about their problems in a highly consistent fashion. Seventy-eight of one-hundred elementary education majors with first-year teaching experience responded to a seventy item questionnaire. Each respondent ranked the problems and indicated the degree of difficulty. The problems in descending order of difficulty were: discipline, relations with parents, methods of teaching, evaluation, planning, materials and resource, and classroom routines. On the whole, the average beginning teacher felt she or he can handle her or his problems although there were wide individual differences. These results are in accord with findings of similar studies such as that made by Wey (1951). Wey studied ninety-five secondary school first-year teachers who were asked to report at three regular intervals the difficulties they were encountering.

The top seven critical problem areas identified by forty-six beginning teachers interviewed by Lagana (1970)

included "difficulty in maintaining classroom control, inadequacy of determining learning level of students and providing for individual differences, apathy of students toward learning, lack of student respect for teachers, large class size, burden of clerical work and planning, and insufficient guidance and poor supervision" (p. 36).

According to Ryan (1977), the common problems of first-year teachers as they adjust to the role of teacher included disciplining and grading students, dealing with parents, adjusting to the particular school, focusing on the actual teaching assignment, and adjusting to the physical demands of teaching.

Classifying data from twenty-five teachers who were in their first three months of teaching, Shelley (1978) found that 63 percent of their problems were managerial, 18 percent were instructional, 8 percent were related to communication, and 11 percent were "other." The teachers also reported that they had worked through most of their problems alone and, when they sought help, had asked other teachers, usually at the same grade level.

In an interview with four beginning teachers, Howey (1979) illustrated the types of problems encountered in such areas as discipline, time management, and lack of feedback. On a list of difficult problems experienced by a first-year teacher, the poor ability of first-year teachers to make subjective judgments about the effectiveness of their

teaching experience was the most difficult problem (Ryan, 1979). Other difficult problems included the interference of personal matters in professional performance and isolation -- physical, social, and professional.

In a comprehensive review of research regarding problems of beginning teachers, McDonald's and Elias's (1980) volume of over four hundred pages concluded that a comprehensive understanding of neophyte problems is necessary prior to designing teacher induction programs. The problems of beginning teachers were classified into two major dimensions: whether it originates within the teacher or from an agent outside the teacher, and whether the teacher or others have the resources, skills, or means to solve the problem. Four classes of problems of beginning teachers were categorized:

1. Endogenous and under the teacher's direct control  
Preparation of lesson content, instructional materials, instructional plans  
Establishing rules and routines  
Managing, conducting and evaluating instruction
2. Endogenous and not under the teacher's direct control  
Unconscious anxiety or fear  
Subconscious effects of attitudes and values  
Reactions to life-threatening situations or attacks
3. Exogenous and under the teacher's direct control  
Organization of required curriculum for class being taught  
Requests for materials, assistance or direction

Scheduling meetings with parents  
 Fitting instruction to a variable school  
 schedule

4. Exogenous and not under the teacher's direct control  
 Visits by supervisors or angry parents  
 Outbursts or attacks by emotionally disturbed children  
 Fire drills  
 Announcements over the public address system  
 General curriculum of school  
 Students assigned to classes (p. 151)

McDonald and Elias (1980) also reported that beginning teachers experience problems in a series of stages. Each stage must be solved successfully by the neophyte. Classroom management and the mechanics of instruction are associated with the first problem stage. As teachers become more confident, problems of more in-depth planning, long term organization of instruction, and of students' progress are solved. If teachers are not afraid to risk continued professional development, the final stage sets a foundation for progressive improvement.

Veenman (1984), in an extensive study searching international literature regarding the perceived problems of beginning teachers, examined eighty-three studies from nine countries at the elementary and secondary levels. He found the top five most seriously perceived problem areas of beginning teachers to be classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, and relations with parents. Many of the

results were generated from questionnaires and are therefore self-reported problems.

Turner (1967) examined factors that appear to be important antecedents to teacher problems. These characteristics "are important in that they suggest, but do not conclusively establish, the kinds of beginning teacher behaviors out of which difficulties develop" (p. 255). A lack of warmth and understanding and poor staff relations may create uneasy or disturbed relationships with students, teachers, parents, and supervisors. Relatively disorganized teacher behavior -- lack of "business-like behavior" -- may be a key factor in predicting difficulties with discipline. Related to the above factors, the inability to problem solve may contribute to these difficulties.

In a related study, Adams and Martray (1980), using factor analysis on the Teacher Preparation Evaluation Inventory and correlating these factors with the Teacher Concerns Checklist, assessed teachers' perception of problems encountered in their professional roles. Their data indicated that consistent correlates of teacher-perceived problems were teacher concerns about self and teaching tasks. These correlations suggested that teachers with higher concern levels also reported more severe problems in teaching.

An almost unanimous difficulty of all beginning teachers is discipline and classroom control. Although



differences in educational systems and social contexts of the schools create a diversity in statistics, Lagana (1970) reported that 83% of the elementary and secondary beginning teachers experienced problems with class discipline. Among the 46 beginning elementary teachers, 79% reported inadequacy of determining learning level of students and providing for individual differences. Other problem areas identified by these teachers included apathy of students toward learning (71%), lack of student respect for teachers (65%), overcrowded conditions and large class size (65%), burden of clerical work and planning (59%), and insufficient guidance and poor supervision (58%).

Self-report data and teacher perceptions render important information about teaching, but more objective data is needed to support it (Griffin, 1985). The literature reported to date needs amplification, specifically, a description of existing variables such as teaching split-level classes, the impact of hiring after the start of the school year, mentor systems of support, and an analysis of a match between clinical experience grade level and assignment grade level.

Socializing Agents and Role Models. The influence of educational socializing agents has been reported in occupational socialization research. As new teachers begin their work, unfamiliar situations challenge them on a daily basis. Such unfamiliarity creates self conscious emotions.

Their attitudes are shaped by how other people relate to them through the encouragement and support they receive and perceive. Such support is gauged through interaction with others and through the beginning teachers' perceptions. Beginning teachers' perceptions of self are influenced by relationships with other teachers and school personnel (Bennis, 1973).

Various socializing agents affect the development of first-year teachers, but there is a lack of consensus concerning their influence (Tabachnick et al., 1983). Despite the existing research which support the influence of institutional forces on beginning teachers (Day, 1959; Wright & Tuska, 1968; Edgar & Warren, 1969; Hoy, 1968; Lagana, 1970; Hanson & Herrington, 1976; Gaede, 1978; McArthur, 1978), studies also exist which demonstrate that some beginning teachers are not passively molded by institutional forces (Bartholomew, 1976; Zeichner & Tabachnick 1981; Power 1981). Petty and Hogben (1980) concluded that anticipatory socialization was the most influential socializing agent. However, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985) concluded that additional studies are necessary which explore the socialization of specific beginning teachers in various contexts. Lortie (1975) recommended that research efforts assess the impact of various agencies on beginning teachers under unique conditions.

Recent analysis of research on beginning teachers concluded that "Knowledge about the beginning teacher and the process of learning to teach consists of intuition, personal wisdom, advice and recollections" (Johnston & Ryan, 1983, p. 138). Other authors also have stated that "very little is known about the actual dynamics of this transition period in terms of the details of what it is like and how teachers go through it" (McDonald, 1980, p. 42). Educational researchers have not come to a consensus regarding socializing agents and mechanisms (Zeichner, 1983). Lortie (1973) called this complexity the "riddle of teacher socialization" (p. 488).

Applegate and others (1977), in a large scale investigation of the development of eighteen new teachers, found people who were very supportive toward beginning teachers and those who were nonsupportive. The socialization of beginning teachers was supportive if the people around them were cooperative, problem solvers, reinforcers, advice-seekers, socializer-sunshiners, and empathizer-confidants. Making some inferences and value judgments, Applegate and others reported several "hunches" about the influence others have for first-year teachers:

1. As the year progresses, the extent to which others have been perceived as supportive/nonsupportive influences the degree to which the first-year teacher feels successful/unsuccessful.
2. The degree to which others perceive the first-

year teacher as being supportive/nonsupportive influences the degree to which the first-year teacher receives others' support/nonsupport.

3. Initially, first-year teacher's perceptions of support/nonsupport are influenced by her or his self-image and self-esteem. The degree and nature of the influence may vary.
4. First-year teachers expect others to understand their problems. Failure of others to accept the first-year teacher's perspective is seen as lack of support.
5. The degree to which a first-year teacher feels comfortable with the decisions she or he makes influences the degree to which others' questions and actions are perceived as threatening and nonsupportive.
6. Most first-year teachers hesitate to seek support because they believe such actions are indicative of ignorance and incompetence.
7. "Others" who are viewed as being unskilled at interpersonal relations appear to be more nonsupportive than supportive (p. 59-60).

While investigating first-year teachers, the current study identified supportive personnel which aided the neophyte's socialization.

In a comprehensive review of teacher socialization literature reported by Wells (1984), one of the factors that influences the socialization process of teachers is the impact of role models on the neophytes as they internalize the teaching models exposed to them from elementary school through college. Similarly, in order to address several specific questions related to the socialization of beginning teachers, Zeichner (1983) researched the influences of particular people and institutional characteristics on

beginning teachers. The following literature on beginning teachers includes these socializing agents: the role of the experienced teacher, persons with evaluative power, institutional characteristics of schools, students, ecological characteristics of classrooms, role of the university, lateral roles and other nonprofessional factors, and personal characteristics.

As new teachers entering the school learn that they are part of a group of colleagues, the experienced colleagues become a source of guidance. Experienced colleagues are viewed by some researchers as influential socializing agents (Grant & Zeichner, 1981; Howey, 1983). "Like new workers in all work settings, they are largely dependent on their more experienced colleagues to teach them the procedures for coping with the demands made upon them by their supervisors and subordinates" (Eddy, 1969, p. 106). In a study of seventy-two first-year teachers surveyed by Grant and Zeichner (1981), forty-eight (67%) cited coworkers as their primary source of support. McIntosh (1977) found that beginning teachers perceive experienced teachers at their own grade level as their most appropriate source of extended assistance. However, beginning teachers will try to cope on their own if the formation of a relationship with an experienced teacher at the same grade level is not possible.

Newberry (1977), in her examination of twenty-three teachers, concluded that experienced teachers significantly

contribute to the development of expectations for student achievement. She also found that when beginning teachers went to experienced teachers to seek help, they sought the teacher who taught at the same grade level and who held the same teacher role identity. Most of the influence occurred informally as beginning teachers "interact(ed) with teachers outside actual classroom teaching situations" (Newberry, 1977, p. 14). Beginning teachers might also seek assistance from experienced teachers if they share teaching perspectives (Zeichner, 1983), or work in a school with an open architectural design (Hanson & Herrington, 1976).

Isaacson (1981) questioned the impact of experienced teachers in the development of beginning teachers. Even when structures exist which have the potential to significantly influence beginning teachers' socialization, some beginning teachers cope on their own. In McDonald's (1980) Educational Testing Service study, he concluded that beginning teachers solve their own problems very much by themselves. When beginning teachers hesitated to ask experienced teachers for help it was generally because they were fearful of being viewed as incompetent.

Administrative supervisors are potentially powerful socializing agents, but their contribution is limited due to low contact time with teachers (Lippitt, 1968; Burden, 1979; Grant & Zeichner, 1981; Isaacson, 1981). When beginning teachers realize evaluations will have personal

consequences, those with evaluative power become important socializing agents (Edgar & Warren, 1969). However, Isaacson (1981), Grant and Zeichner (1981) and Tabachnick et al. (1983) questioned the significance of the principal in the development of beginning teachers. Zeichner (1984a) suggested that administrator influence "is exerted primarily through selection and recruitment rather than through socialization on the job" (p. 23). Ways in which principals influence beginning teachers, as reported in a study at the University of Wisconsin (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1983), included principal direct control (supervision), bureaucratic control (rules and hierarchical social relations), and technical controls (evaluation and rewards).

The institutional characteristics of the school are significant determiners of teachers' performance in the classroom. Fenstermacher (1980) concluded that beginning teachers are more significantly influenced by institutional characteristics during induction than during any other time. Additionally, open spatial arrangements, other organizational properties of the schools, and bureaucratic rules and regulations have attempted to dictate controls over teachers' work (e.g., school curriculum, discipline management, and legal labor processes) (Dreeben, 1973). Welck (1976) suggested that teachers frequently ignore these controls and concluded that schools are "loosely coupled systems." Reporting the results of a case study, Zeichner

and Tabachnick (1983) found three of the four teachers studied minimized the impact of bureaucratic rules.

The important role of students in determining teacher socialization received support from Haller (1967) and Doyle (1979). Given the typical isolation of teachers from their colleagues and supervisors due to the cellular nature of schools (Lortie, 1966), students' expectations and behaviors have an increased opportunity to influence beginning teachers (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). Reporting the results from his study at Wisconsin, Zeichner (1983) stated that "we were continually impressed with the very crucial role played by students in strengthening or modifying the teaching perspectives that were brought to the first year" (p. 22).

The ecological system of the classroom is "that network of interconnected processes and events which impinge upon behavior in the teaching environment" (Doyle & Ponder, 1975, p. 183). Beginning teachers who are successful uniquely adapt behaviors which are appropriate to particular situations (Doyle, 1979; Egan, 1982). Learning to teach involves "learning the texture of the classroom and the set of behaviors congruent with the environmental demands of that setting" (Doyle, 1979, p. 51). The social context of the classroom can exert constraints and positive pressures on the actions of teachers.



The role of the university in the socialization of beginning teachers has been interpreted from several perspectives (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). Researchers have charged that first-year teachers are not encouraged to continue their ties with the university (Howsam, et al., 1976). In fact, following pre-service training, university professors spend very little time in the classrooms of first-year teachers. However, beginning teachers report that conversations with former cooperating teachers and university coursework notes have been useful (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1983). In these cases the effects of the university were sustained through the first year of teaching (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). As beginning teachers continue to draw upon skills and perspectives developed during their university training, the question of the degree of influence becomes important (Zeichner, 1983).

In terms of the influence of persons in lateral roles and other non-professional factors, Gehrke's (1981) results provided some insight. Her analysis of eleven beginning teacher interviews and observations collected over a period of five years has been summarized:

1. Individual teachers relate selectively to the various potential reference groups, and
2. the relationships develop and change over time depending on the context and on the individual's needs and perceptions (p. 37).

Applegate et al. (1977) and Zeichner (1983) cited instances of both supportive and nonsupportive influence from spouses, parents, and roommates.

Finally, beginning teachers bring their unique biographical histories to their first year. Beginning teachers shape their teacher role identities by assimilating present situations with biographical events from their past (Crow, 1987). Personal experiences from their youth and recent past affect how beginning teachers are socialized (Zeichner, 1983). Closely related to personal characteristics is the fact that beginning teachers have accumulated 16,000 hours each as students. This close contact with teachers in the workplace, according to Lortie (1975), has a major impact on teacher role identities and performance.

In summary, studies exist which emphasize the role of more experienced teachers (Eddy, 1969), principals (Edgar & Warren, 1969), or students (Haller, 1967) as socializing agents. New teachers may imitate the practices of those whom they feel are successful teachers (Willower, 1968; Hoy & Rees, 1977). Other studies indicate that beginning teachers, since they may be isolated from other staff members, learn through trial and error (Lortie, 1966). However, beginning teachers are not considered to be their own sole socializing agents (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1983). Applegate and others (1977) concluded: "what emerges from

these interviews of beginning teachers is a strong sense of the uniqueness of each teacher's experience" (p. 26).

Summarizing the influence or lack of influence of various socializing agents on beginning teachers, Zeichner (1983) drew the following conclusions:

1. Principals offer little direct assistance to beginning teachers and the neophytes rarely seek support and advice from those who formally evaluate their work.
2. Experienced colleagues offer support and advice to beginning teachers only under certain conditions. Most of the socializing influence of experienced colleagues seems to occur indirectly through the beginners' observations of the "artifacts" of the work of their experienced colleagues.
3. Student responses to beginning teachers seem to play a significant role in strengthening or modifying teaching perspectives brought to the first year.
4. Beginning teachers are able to insulate themselves from bureaucratic controls when they are inclined to do so.
5. The most pervasive and powerful factor in determining the level of institutional constraints may be technical control exerted through the timing of instruction, the form of the curriculum, curriculum materials, and the architectural design of the school (pp. 45-46).

Concerns. Research on teacher concerns is based largely on survey techniques. The connection between socialization and professional concerns of beginning teachers has been made by several researchers (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981; Ryan, 1982). Additional studies have been made of factors related to teacher concerns for

prospective and experienced teachers (Adams & Martray, 1981).

Fuller (1969) conceptualized a developmental sequence of teacher concerns: (1) non-concern with the specifics of teaching as a pre-teaching phase, (2) concern with self and survival during the first few years of teaching, and (3) concern for impact on students as the teacher gains experience. Fuller and Brown (1975) refined Fuller's initial conceptualization. The three phases were redefined into three stages -- survival, tasks, and impact. The survival stage focuses on the teacher's personal concerns such as class control, being liked by students, and one's own adequacy. The second stage, mastery of tasks, focuses on management of daily routines and mastering curriculum materials. Impact concerns focus on meeting the instructional, emotional, and social needs of students and refocusing teaching techniques. Experienced teachers tend to characterize student-focused concerns and exhibit a great sense of competence in the teaching role (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Brown, 1975).

Hall and Jones (1976) have postulated that the sequence through which teachers normally progress is predictive: from concerns about self, to concerns about tasks, to, finally, concerns about student impact. Beginning teachers should pass through these stages of concern sequentially if their concerns are answered at each stage successfully

(McDonald & Elias, 1980). Investigating the concerns of first, third, and fifth year teachers, Adams and Martray (1981) found self-concerns to decrease and teacher task concerns to increase with experience.

The sequence predicted by Hall and Jones (1976) was also a conclusion made by Briscoe (1972). Reporting the results taken at the beginning of the year and near its final days, four out of five highest-ranked concerns expressed by first-year secondary teachers in selected Michigan public schools were related to classroom discipline -- a survival stage concern. Glassberg (1979) concluded that teaching efficacy will be enhanced when beginning teachers move beyond the first and second stages of concern.

Although the generalizations emerging from research on beginning teacher concerns have suggested that neophytes progress through the stages sequentially, Pataniczek (1978) reported on a group of beginning secondary teachers whose highest concern at the beginning of the year was having an impact on students. Although survival concerns were identified as a priority, the beginning teachers considered other concerns a higher priority. The beginning teachers in Pataniczek's study were all graduates of the Secondary Education Pilot Program at Michigan State University. These graduates were generally well satisfied with their teaching preparation and had an average of over one-thousand hours of

experience with school-age youngsters prior to their first year of teaching.

Summarizing several studies of new teacher concerns, Aspy (1969) concluded that survival was more important than competence for most new teachers. Scheduling, organizing the day, functioning within the school system, disciplining students, and finding teaching resources and materials were important new-teacher concerns. In contrast, advanced teachers are characterized by concerns about the impact their instruction has on students, about collaborating with other professionals, and about teaching as a profession (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977). As new teachers enter the induction phase of their socialization, the study of concerns is important. Insight into what beginning teachers face can guide induction program development. Because CPEP trained teachers have gone through a year-long internship, this study noted whether beginning teacher concerns move across the continuum faster, or in the same order, or begin at the same stage.

### INDUCTION PROGRAMS

In addition to a review of socialization and beginning teacher literature, another body of literature is critically necessary as this study seeks to understand the experiences of these teachers: that is, clinical induction experiences and induction programs. Three distinct phases have been

commonly identified in the education of a teacher (Tisher, 1980): pre-service, induction, and in-service. This study is concerned with the kinds of support first-year teachers received during the induction phase. Supervisors suggest induction programs act as socializing agents for the neophyte teacher (Schlechty, 1985; Galvez-Hjornevik, 1985). This section of the literature review will examine the state of current practice focusing on state mandated programs, the involvement of institutions of higher education, and district level programs.

#### Rationale and Description

During the induction phase of teacher socialization the goal is to formally and informally implant school standards and norms so the conduct of those entering the teaching profession will reflect those norms. Frequently, school standards are utilized to assess the performance of new teachers (Schlechty, 1985). However, if the teaching profession is to reform, perhaps schools should strive to "provide the support and assistance necessary for the successful development of beginning teachers who enter the profession with the background, ability, and personal characteristics to become acceptable teachers" (Huling-Austin, 1985, p. 3).

Since the primary objective of induction programs is to offer assistance to the new teacher, "an obvious concern is

Identifying and describing precisely the experiences of beginning teachers so that assistance would be most helpful to the new teacher" (Odell, 1986, p. 26). A descriptive analysis of the experiences of beginning teachers in a variety of contexts is necessary prior to the development and implementation of an induction program. A recently released RAND Corporation report supports the creation of adequate induction programs and, additionally, supports supervised induction to protect children from incompetence (Darling-Hammond & Wise, 1987).

Recommendations have been made that the induction experiences of beginning teachers be systematically described (Christensen, Burke, Fessler, and Hagstrom, 1983). As new teachers move from the fully supervised pre-service training to assume full-time responsibilities of the classroom, formal induction programs are necessary (Hall, 1982; Griffin, 1985). Investigating the conditions in the workplace (Zeichner, 1982) and the impact of specific induction practices on the development of teachers (Hall, 1982; Zeichner, 1982; McCaleb, 1985) may provide important clues for understanding who or what influences the performance of beginning teachers.

Descriptions of induction programs have been reported in recent educational literature. While some studies of induction programs have been examined as part of pre-service training (McDonald & Elias, 1980), other studies have



investigated programs in which the school districts are largely responsible for induction experiences. Induction programs prior to 1982 have been described and analyzed by McDonald (1982). McDonald described three general types of induction programs: schemes which rely on mentors (experienced teachers), a comprehensive system of assessment and improvement of competence, and systems which prepare teachers to conduct a detailed and prescribed curriculum.

Other studies have recommended characteristics of organizational supports which may improve the induction phase (Lewis, 1979):

1. reduced workload;
2. release time;
3. opportunities for discussion with other beginning teachers;
4. opportunities for observation of other teachers, and opportunities to understand relationships with other staff and the community; and
5. a mentor formally assigned to assist the beginning teacher.

Support for beginning teachers has included formal, informal, and job-embedded support (Grant & Zeichner, 1981). Although there was some type of formal orientation for the seventy-two beginning teachers surveyed by Grant and Zeichner (1981) at the beginning of the school year, there was very little evidence of prolonged formalized induction efforts. The most influential and most valued support

occurred informally through "conversations with other teachers, friends, and parents...and through reading teacher Journal(s)" (p. 109). The majority of these beginning teachers suggested that formal support be specific to the school setting. Very few teachers expressed a desire to observe more experienced teachers or to be given an opportunity to visit other first-year teachers' classrooms.

Many authors have identified goals for induction programs (Fox & Singletary, 1986; Huling-Austin, 1986a; Varah, Theune, & Parker, 1986), provided detailed descriptions for beginning teacher induction programs (Hall, 1982; Tisher, 1982; Hoffman et al., 1985; Huling-Austin, 1985), and described the effect of certain induction programs (Hoffman, Edwards, O'Neal, Barnes, & Paulissen, 1986; Houston & Felder, 1986). Induction programs are being evaluated (Elias, 1980; Schlechty, 1985) and areas of concern have been identified, but the conclusions appear to be based on the participants' perceptions of program impact rather than actual observations (Hoffman, Edwards, O'Neal, Barnes & Paulissen, 1986; Huffman & Leak, 1986; Galvez-Hjornevik, 1986).

So many state induction programs are currently being developed that the November, 1985 issue of Educational Leadership, the January-February 1986 issue of Journal of Teacher Education, the July-August 1986 issue of Kappa Delta Phi Record and the Winter 1987 issue of Action in Teacher

Education are devoted to induction issues. Additionally, a national directory of induction programs was produced by the Association of Teacher Educator's Commission (Huling-Austin, 1986) in conjunction with the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. The Association of Teacher Educator's Induction Commission has published reviews of literature on teacher induction and reports on the activities of single induction programs.

#### State Mandated Induction Programs

Since 1980 the state legislatures of Arizona, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Washington have mandated the establishment of programs for beginning teachers (Ashburn, 1987). Other new projects have been described in Nevada, New Mexico, Pennsylvania (Defino & Hoffman, 1984; Galvez-Hjornevik, 1985) and California (Shulman, 1986).

The state of Oregon has piloted the Mentor Teacher program established by the 1987 Legislature (Oregon Education, 1987). Mentor teachers were trained during a two-day training session at Western Oregon State College prior to the opening of the school year. Fifty-six school districts are involved in the pilot program which is expected to include all first-year teachers next year.

### The Role of Institutions of Higher Education in Professional Teacher Induction

Institutions of higher education, in cooperation with other educational organizations, have a responsibility to link pre-service preparation with induction experiences (Edwards, 1984). The goals for each phase should reflect common thinking.

Five content strands can be identified from a summary of the literature on teacher socialization: (1) orientation, (2) psychological support, (3) acquisition and refinement of teaching skills, (4) retention, and (5) evaluation (Zeichner, 1983; McDonald, 1980; Huling-Austin, 1986; Fox & Singleterry, 1986). An important first step in satisfying these goals is accomplished by integrating the new teacher into the professional and social fabric of the school district and neighborhood community. Improving beginning teachers' professional self-esteem and sense of professional well-being will ease long-standing concerns about isolation, self-doubt, and stress (Lortie, 1966; Ryan, 1970; Odel 1986). Helping beginning teachers to identify and solve teaching problems, develop skills for self-reflection, and expand their awareness of teaching methods will ease the transition from the pre-service program to the world of teaching. Induction programs must also provide incentives which encourage teachers to remain in the teaching profession. Finally, induction programs

must specify policies and procedures which, while conforming to due process requirements, will improve or screen out weak teachers (Huling-Austin, 1986).

Institutions of higher education and their faculty can make significant contributions so the above goals are realized. Higher education faculty, in cooperation with local school districts or state departments of education, should design orientation programs and activities. They should support higher education counseling which will provide specific training to school district personnel responsible for counseling beginning teachers. Faculty should engage in field observations and support teams to assist the new teachers as concerns develop. Finally, institutions of higher education faculty should consider how they can work with local school personnel as powerful socializing forces through the new teachers' colleagues.

Several colleges and universities currently have cooperative programs with local school districts to affect positive induction outcomes. For example, there are Emporia State University (McEvoy & Morehead, 1987), Doane College (Hegler & Dudley, 1987), Cleveland State University (Zaharias & Frew, 1987), University of Oregon (Rossetto & Grosenick, 1987), and Portland State University (Driscoll & Strouse, 1986). Additional colleges and universities involved with cooperative programs are listed in the

national directory produced by the Association of Teacher Educators Commission (Huling-Austin, 1986).

Portland State University, in collaboration with the Beaverton and Portland School Districts, has developed a Cooperative Professional Education Program (CPEP). CPEP is a two-phase program which provides seminars and clinical experiences beginning with pre-service and extending into the first year of teaching. During Phase One of the program students are carefully screened and assigned to master classroom teachers who serve as "mentors" to PSU students. The students are also assigned a PSU coordinator who provides support for both the student and the teacher. Additionally, a support team, comprised of the mentor teacher, the building principal, the PSU coordinator, and the student's university supervisor, meet regularly to monitor the progress of both student and program. The students attend instructional seminars taught by PSU and school district personnel. Each student develops an Individualized Learning Plan (ILP) which ensures that university performance standards are achieved, and which guides the student's professional growth. The focus of an ILP parallels the objectives taught in the traditional teacher preparation program. Phase Two of the program is currently in the planning stage. Portland State University and school district representatives are studying available models of support for beginning teachers.

### Local School District Induction Programs

Local school districts' induction programs are often instituted as part of an appropriate staff development process. Since it is generally not possible to train highly professional teachers prior to their first teaching responsibilities, local induction programs are designed to focus on the competencies essential to teaching success (McDonald, 1980).

Collecting data on local school district induction programs, the ATE Commission on Teacher Induction (Huling-Austin, 1986) surveyed beginning teacher programs in 1,100 school systems in seventeen states. Some type of district initiated induction program was offered in 112 of these school districts. Generally, the primary purpose of local induction programs was an orientation to the school district and nearby community. The evaluation process, a second major purpose of local induction programs, facilitated career advancement systems. These programs generally contained some aspect of assistance or support in terms of collegial encouragement or specific training.

### Summary of Induction Programs

Generally, the induction program models focus on orientation sessions, mentor support systems, and the assessment of the observable instructional skills of beginning teachers. Eddy (1979) concluded that the major

purpose of the induction program is largely ceremonial. Eddy stated: "The role of teachers as those who are supposed to conform to rules and regulations themselves and to transmit these to the children is made explicit" (p. 122).

Current induction programs can significantly contribute to altering the socialization of beginning teachers. McDonald (1982) concluded that additional studies are necessary which seek to understand what beginning teachers feel such as their anxieties and problems. Additional studies should investigate those components of training and support systems which address the concerns of beginning teachers. McDonald stated: "Such knowledge can be obtained only by a comprehensive and directed program of research and development, by detailed observations of programs, and by evaluating elements of these programs" (p. 167).

### SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

Rooted in socialization theory, this literature review focused upon the degree to which an individual is induced in some measure to conform willingly to the ways of "the role of the other." Outlined in this review were the processes of adult, occupational, and organizational socialization as the teacher candidates enter into the teaching profession. The teacher socialization process was investigated based



upon socialization theories, literature from other professions, and student teaching research.

Outcomes of teacher socialization and factors which influence those outcomes were also discussed. Included were attitudinal changes in beginning teachers, disciplinary problems encountered by beginning teachers, individual and institutional agents which influence beginning teachers, and key concerns expressed by beginning teachers.

In this review of the literature, socialization was described from various viewpoints: (1) functionalism -- as a process which indoctrinates or "institutionalizes" the neophyte into the occupational role; (2) latent culture -- as a process in which an individual's anticipatory socialization is seen as the most significant influence on professional or organizational development; and (3) dialectical -- as a process in which the individual is an interactive participant in the socialization process.

Each theoretical or conceptual perspective offered a different explanation of socialization. Functional theory and latency theory suggest that socialization is unidirectional and deny the existence of tension that exists between the individual and the institution. On the other hand, dialectical socialization holds to the tradition of how the individual, through her or his creativity and skills, gradually transforms the social order.

Functionalism asserts that individuals are "fit" into

teacher roles through pressures exerted on them by institutions to adapt to professionally desirable behaviors. Beginning teachers acquire the culture of the teaching profession by dropping certain patterns of behavior and accepting new norms. On the other hand, institutions can be viewed as catalysts for activating the latent beliefs held by beginning teachers.

Despite the efforts of many educational researchers which demonstrate that beginning teachers have similar kinds of problems (Veenman, 1984), express similar concerns (Johnston & Ryan, 1983), and are influenced by similar socializing agents (Zeichner, 1983), and despite the "reality shock" experienced by many beginning teachers (Veenman, 1984), beginning teacher socialization is "highly context-specific and dependent in each case on unique combinations of the personal characteristics and resources of individual beginning teachers and the varying encouragements and constraints posed by the situations in which they work" (Zeichner, 1983, p. 34).

#### CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF SOCIALIZATION

The social phenomenon of teacher induction is constantly changing. Like other social features in our complex society, the process of teacher socialization is a series of events in which themes are difficult to discern. As teacher socialization is being investigated, attempts

must be made to identify basic principles from which a comprehensive description of the induction process can be developed. Orderly investigations of the teacher induction phenomenon should be conducted. These investigations should attempt to gain the perspective needed to interpret the data so precise contributions can be made to teacher and occupational socialization research.

The literature review concerning teacher socialization was not limited to functionalistic theory. However, a general structural-functional model of socialization -- Figure 1 -- developed by Hess (1971) served as a heuristical device for collecting, organizing, and interpreting the data. This traditional conceptualization of socialization provided a linkage between social structures and individual beginning teacher behaviors. Rather than examine only one component of the socialization process such as the link between the socializing agents and the object of socialization, this study viewed teacher induction from a more comprehensive perspective. The Hess model of socialization detailed the structural components of the socialization process. Therefore, this model served as the conceptual framework for analysis of several salient variables of teacher socialization. Utilizing the model to organize the teacher induction phenomenon, the study presented a comprehensive view of socialization. Each

first-year teachers. Limitations of the model will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Included in the model are the following components:

1. the beliefs and customs which are integral to the socialization of beginning teachers;
2. the socializing agents;
3. the contextual environmental factors;
4. the content transmitted by socializing agents;  
and
5. the behavioral outcomes.

## General Model of Socialization

1. An environmental structure of some sort -- political, social educational, for example -- which has formal responsibility for the inductees.

2. A body of beliefs, attitudes, values, skills, laws, and customs which are integral to the operation of instructional structures.

3. Designated agents, both individual and institutional, who act in behalf of the society in dealing with the inductees.

4. Objects of socialization, initiates into social units or institutions.

5. A process of teaching and learning, in which content is transmitted by socializing agents to the inductees.

6. Behavioral outcome in the form of expressed attitudes and acceptance of norms and conformity with the values of the social system.

7. System-sustaining behavior, including support of the goals of the system and attempts to persuade others to accept its norms.

## This Study's Adaptation

1. school setting  
school culture  
(norms, values, and school ceremonies)  
teaching behaviors  
teaching approaches  
classroom management

2. CPEP beliefs  
CPEP competencies  
building/district values

building/district regulations and responsibilities

3. university supervisor  
building principal  
peer (experienced & beginning teachers)  
significant others  
students

bureaucratic controls  
ecology of the classroom  
biographical histories

4. CPEP teachers

5. knowledge and skill bases  
support & reinforcement  
advice  
materials and resources  
sanctions

6. changes in concerns  
CPEP outcomes goals  
district/building outcomes and goals  
outcome goals related to the teaching profession  
adjustment/compliance

7. rewards/recognition  
encouragement to belong  
involvement in functions  
professional membership

Figure 1. Conceptual model of socialization.

## CHAPTER III

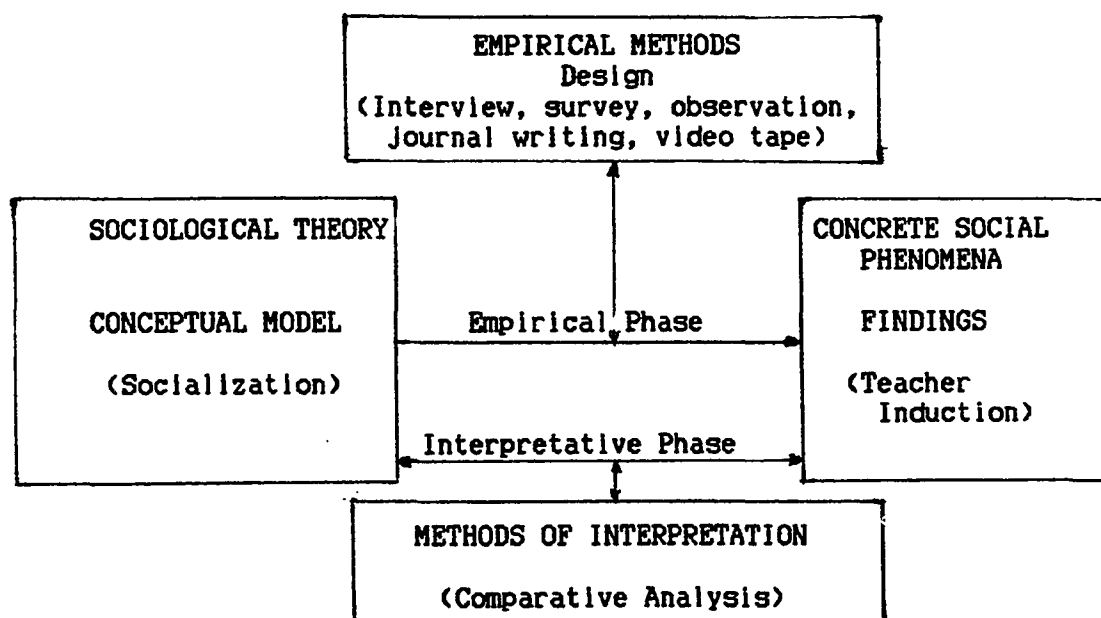
### METHODOLOGY

The purposes of this chapter are to (1) describe the basic research process which underlies the study, (2) identify and discuss the research questions which were developed from the socialization model, (3) describe characteristics of the subjects of the study, and (4) specify the instrumentation utilized to collect the data.

### DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Riley (1963) examined the methods actually used as concrete examples of sociological research. These studies employed many different methods for assembling and organizing facts and various ways of interpreting them as they seek to explain social behavior and man's relationship to man.

The research design for this study is the basic research process utilized in many sociological studies. The components of this process, identified as fundamental components of sociological research (Riley, 1963), include empirical methods, sociological theory, concrete social phenomena, and methods of interpretation (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** Diagram of research processes

In this study the flow between the sociological theory and the social phenomena was bi-directional. Facts gathered about teacher induction were compared with socialization theories.

The research process started with a conceptual model. This study adapted Hess's (1971) conceptual model of socialization to the teacher induction phenomena. The conceptual model of socialization determined what questions were asked by the researcher and determined how the instrumentation would yield answers to these questions.

Utilizing an exploratory research design, facts were gathered about beginning teachers' behaviors, problems, and

concerns. The design of the study included interviews, observations, questionnaires, journal writing, and videotaping. The research findings were reported as recurring patterns and categories in the data.

By working back and forth between theory and data, this study related the data to the conceptual model setting the new facts into the context of socialization theory. Tools used in seeking clues to new ideas included insight into social relationships, logical reasoning, mathematics, and creative imagination.

This study can be described as an exploratory case study. Therefore, the research questions will focus mainly on "what" questions (Yin, 1984). A case study, as defined by Yin (1984), is an empirical inquiry that:

1. investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when
2. the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which
3. multiple sources of evidence are used. (p. 23).

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to describe the extent of socialization as observed by the investigator and reported by the first-year teachers, the General Model of Socialization (Hess, 1971) has been adapted to this study. Each socialization



component was related to the induction experiences of first-year CPEP teachers (Figure 1).

The socialization components of environmental structures, designated agents, and the process of teaching and learning generate the first research question.

1. What are the socialization structures and processes, formal and informal, which shape teachers' perceptions of their first year of teaching?

As the institution seeks to maintain the system through a body of beliefs and customs, beginning teachers report problems.

2. What are teachers' perceptions of teaching problems encountered and what adjustments are made during their first year of teaching?

As the beginning teachers seek to conform with the values of the institution and support the goals of the system, they are influenced by role models, institutional demands, evaluation systems, and environmental structures. Learning is likely to be exhibited as a change in behavior expressed in the form of changes in attitudes and concerns.

3. What are the common concerns shared by these beginning teachers during their first year of teaching?

## SUBJECTS

The subjects were first-year teachers who had completed an alternative teacher education program offered by Portland State University and the Beaverton School District. This

program, the Cooperative Professional Education Program (CPEP), is a collaborative field-based yearlong teacher education program which directly involves public school personnel with university faculty to improve and extend clinical preparation of potential teachers.

The subjects were contacted at the end of their internship in June 1986 in order to solicit their cooperation for the study. Six subjects volunteered to be involved in the study pending their being hired in teaching positions in the fall of 1986. Each volunteer was committed to a yearlong interview and observation schedule in exchange for feedback from a university observer. In early September, 1986, the subjects were contacted by phone to ascertain employment status. By that date three subjects had found teaching positions. By late September one more subject had gained a classroom teaching assignment. In addition, building administrators for each subject were contacted in regard to the study. The time and place for an interview were arranged immediately following confirmation of employment as was a final commitment for the study from the subject and administrator.

#### INSTRUMENTATION AND PROCEDURES

This study combined qualitative and quantitative methods. Zeichner (1980) recommended such a combination for building the knowledge base for teacher education programs.

Zeichner (1980) stated that "methodologically, this would entail the employment of research strategies that enable the penetration of the complex and interrelated world of field-based experiences" (p. 52). Additionally, Zeichner (1980) argued that "It is likely that the creative combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in the study of field-based experiences offers the greatest potential for providing the kind of knowledge base that is needed for program development" (p. 53). Furthermore, he stated that "researchers who examine field-based experiences should take advantage of the potential inherent in such a strategy" (p. 53). Huling-Austin (1987) stated that "it is critical that research on induction programs involving multiple factors operating in multiple contexts be conducted from a variety of perspectives, using multiple approaches and methodologies" (p. 16). To understand the interactions within complex contexts such as schools, Griffin (1985) suggested a blend of scientific inquiry. He stated: "...I believe it absolutely necessary that we make much more vigorous use of methodologies that blend and explain, that answer and provide needed detail, and that name and describe" (p. 45).

To help deal with the problems of establishing validity and reliability, Yin (1984) suggested using multiple sources of evidence. Data for this study included: (1) interviews, (2) direct observations, (3) surveys, (4) video-tapes, and

(5) Journals. The advantage of using multiple sources of evidence facilitated the validation of results. Data was mainly gathered through semi-structured interviews and survey data. Comments generated while the teachers were viewing their video-tapes, observations from field-notes, and notes from their Journals were secondary data. The secondary data was gathered to validate interview and survey data.

#### Phase One - Interviews, Surveys, and Observations

Data were collected in three phases. Phase One included three components: the collection of information using an interview protocol (APPENDIX B), a concerns survey (APPENDIX G), and a classroom observation. The semi-structured interviews, conducted by the researcher, were approximately one to one and a half hours in length and scheduled within the fourth through the sixth week of school. Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed. A review of the literature, the research questions, and discussions with university advisors and student teacher supervisors assisted the development of the interview questions.

The interview was selected because of its flexibility and adaptability to individual situations. Borg and Gall (1971) concluded that follow-up questions as to the context and meanings attributed to responses provide more data and

greater clarity. The interview was also utilized to measure the attitudes and attitudinal changes which may have occurred during the first year of teaching. The interview format allowed for the teachers to address facts as well as express opinions about events. They became "informants" rather than respondents.

The skilled interviewer, through the careful motivation of the subject and maintenance of rapport, can obtain information that the subject would probably not reveal under any other circumstances. ... The semi-structured interview is generally most appropriate for interview studies in education. It provides a desirable combination of objectivity and depth and often permits gathering valuable data that could not be successfully obtained by any other approach. (Borg & Gall, 1971, pp. 212, 214)

The initial interview was guided by a series of questions relevant to enjoyable times, concerns and problems of first-year teachers, considerations first-year teachers gave to room arrangement, management routines and teaching basic skills, and personal observations including professional development, support systems, reality of the teaching position and their own teaching evaluation. The probes stressed the sources of problems, concerns and satisfactions felt during the first month of teaching, the influential or supportive persons in each participants' life, and qualities and skills desired for a successful first year of teaching.

The post interview (APPENDIX C), near the end of the teachers' first year, probed successful experiences and

problems, considerations given to classroom arrangement, student management and scheduling, socializing influences, and self reflection of their teaching.

The manner in which the interview questions directly or indirectly addressed the three research questions for this study is illustrated in TABLE I.

The concerns of the first-year teachers were measured by the Stages of Concern About the Innovation Questionnaire (SoCQ) (Hall, George & Rutherford, 1977). This was administered concurrently with the initial and post interview. The survey was chosen to describe the incidence or the prevalence of concerns. Yin (1984) suggested the survey strategy in this instance is "advantageous." Other researchers consider the use of the SoCQ as an appropriate procedure for assessing concerns in research and evaluation studies (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977). Goetz and LeCompte (1984) suggested the use of survey instruments to demonstrate the existence of common attitudes toward and beliefs about education. Surveys thus provide material for both process and values data.

The SoCQ portion of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hall, Wallace & Dossett, 1973) probes the subjects' perspectives of their role as teacher. CBAM was developed by staff members of the Institutional Program of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education to document the concerns expressed by adopters of various

TABLE I  
RESEARCH QUESTIONS LINKED TO INSTRUMENTATION

Question	Initial interview questions		Post interview questions	
1. What are the socialization structures and processes shaping teachers' perception?	6,7,8,10, 12		7,8,9,10, 11	observation (structures)  video-taping (sources)
2. What are teachers' perceptions of problems and what adjustments are made?	2,3,4,5 13	survey data	2,3,4,5, 6	observation (adjustments)  journal (problems)  video-taping (adjustments)
3. What are the common concerns shared by these teachers?	1,9,11, 14	survey data	1,12,14	observation (behavioral outcomes)  video-tape and journal (concerns)

educational innovations. Newlove and Hall (1976) defined concern as "the mental activity composed of questioning, analyzing and re-analyzing, considering alternative actions and reactions, and anticipating consequences" (p. 6). The staff at the University of Texas Research and Development Center described an innovation as "the generic name given to the issue, object, problem, or challenge, the thing that is

the focus of concern" (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977, p. 5).

In working with individuals involved in change, Hall, George, and Rutherford (1977) found concerns about the change to be an important dimension of the process. In the research at the University of Texas Research and Development Center, the generic name given to the challenge, "the thing that is the focus of the concerns," (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977, p. 5) is the innovation.

The SoCQ has been utilized to measure concerns about an innovation in a variety of educational settings (Huling et al., 1983). Describing the beginning teacher as the "user" and the innovation as the first year of teaching, Hidalgo (1987) adapted the SoCQ to measure the concerns of beginning teachers in an urban setting. For this study the innovation was the first-year elementary teachers who had been CPEP prepared.

When administered during the change process, the SoCQ measures seven kinds of concerns that individuals experience with varying intensities. These range from early concerns about "self," such as adequacy to teach; to concerns about "task," for instance the day-to-day tasks of teaching; and finally, to concerns about "impact," for example the effect of their work on students (Brown & Fuller, 1975). The SoCQ consists of 35 items which the respondents rate by using an eight-point Likert scale. Subjects respond with a score of



0 indicating "irrelevant" and a score of seven indicating "very true for me now." Five items represented each of the seven Stages of Concern: awareness, informational, and personal related to "self concerns," management related to "task concerns," and consequence, collaboration and refocusing related to "impact concerns" (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977).

Additional information will be useful when interpreting the results of the SoCQ. Different concern stages as well as intensities will depend on the teachers' involvement during their induction experience. The teachers may perceive certain demands as being more important than others at various times in the school year. Their knowledge concerning teaching and their previous experiences may influence concern intensities.

Estimates of internal reliability (alpha coefficients) for the SoCQ range from .64 to .83. Test-retest correlations range from .65 to .86. A strength of the SoCQ is that the questionnaire items are written so that they can be applied to any educational innovation. The items remain the same, thereby preserving the factor structure (Huling, 1983). "The general conclusion is that the SoC Questionnaire accurately measures Stages of Concern About the Innovation. In fact, the SoC Questionnaire appears to do an even better job than other measures and clinical judgments" (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977, p. 10).

Convincing demonstrations of the validity of the SoCQ have been conducted (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977). Correlations of peak stage estimates and rank order of the SoCQ percentile scores support the validity of the SoCQ. "A series of validity studies provide increased confidence that the SoCQ measures the hypothesized Stages of Concern" (Hall, George & Rutherford, 1977, p. 20).

The SoCQ also provided space for an open response (Newlove & Hall, 1976). The teachers were asked to describe their three most significant concerns. After collecting the data, each significant statement was analyzed to see which of the seven Stages of Concern were reflected. Not all seven stages were expressed, but only those concerns which the teachers considered to be of highest priorities.

The manner in which the survey addressed the three research questions for this study is illustrated in TABLE I. The SoCQ was chosen to illuminate the changes of concerns expressed by CPEP prepared teachers during their first year of teaching,. Several related questions were addressed: Because of their year-long internship, do they move along the level of concerns faster than traditionally expected? Are there other factors which influence their concerns?

Classroom observation provided a profile of the professional day of the first-year teacher. This profile included teaching behaviors, student behaviors, decision making processes, and teacher interactions in formal and

Informal contexts. Behaviors and interactions were observed in the context of the faculty lounge as well as during instructional times, and classroom environment. This information was recorded at two-minute intervals throughout the school day from approximately eight a.m. to the end of the school day for the children. According to Goetz and LeCompte (1984), these periodic intervals provide sufficient information for interpreting the teachers' shifts in topics and for visualizing the contextual mood of the classroom. Other observations included the physical setting of the school and classroom, duty schedule, and other routines.

The direct observations of the first-year teachers' day provided some relevant information concerning behaviors and environmental conditions. Such observations also served as yet another source of evidence in this case study (Yin, 1984). Yin stated "...observations of an organizational unit add new dimensions for understanding either the context or the phenomenon being studied" (p. 86). Although observation traditionally has been viewed by practitioners as a nonjudgmental strategy for acquiring data to depict social groups, Goetz and LeCompte (1984) suggested it has been used in educational studies for description and interpretation.

### Phase Two - Videotapes and Journals

Phase Two included the collection of information through videotaping and journal writing. A videotape recording of at least one instructional lesson was taken about mid-year (February). The video was viewed by the subjects and their analysis was transcribed. The teachers were asked to articulate their thinking about what they saw themselves doing. No specific questions were posed. They were asked to talk about rationales for their teaching as viewed, to comment on what they saw as satisfactory and unsatisfactory, and to stop the viewing whenever they had a question or comment. As the subjects commented on the process of their teaching, the data collected was intended to identify the idea sources for their teaching which shaped their perceptions. Additionally, the commentary was intended to illuminate the concerns expressed during the interview and survey. The videotapes were also used to ensure the accuracy of observation notes.

Goetz and LeCompte (1984) labeled this non-interactive strategy as "stream-of-behavior chronicles." An accurate, minute-by-minute account of what a participant does and says "generates invaluable process data for investigations where researchers are concerned with factors as manipulation of materials and varieties of teacher styles" (p. 143-144).

The subjects were asked to keep journals from about mid-year to the end of the school year. These journals

provided additional descriptive data which shadowed the data generated from the interviews and surveys. The data collected was utilized to examine changes in attitudes and expressions of problems and concerns. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) suggested that such "researcher-stimulated archives" as teacher diaries, logs, and recollections provide "invaluable resources for baseline, process, and values data" (p. 153).

#### Phase Three - Post Interviews and Surveys

During Phase Three, a post interview protocol (APPENDIX C) generated from data collected during the previous phases, was scheduled the last two weeks of the school year. A final SoCQ was also administered at that time.

#### Human and Ethical Considerations

Human and ethical considerations were established to protect the anonymity of the subjects. Code numbers were used during interviews, on all surveys, observations, and video-tapes. All proper names were marked off the journals. Permission was also given by the interviewee prior to each audio-recording. These tapes were destroyed upon completion of this study. Since excerpts from the interviews and written responses from the concern surveys were used verbatim throughout this study to illustrate an issue or note an exception, all proper names and places were omitted.

## ANALYSIS

### Interview Analysis

Analysis began during data collection. After the interview data collection, transcripts were examined several times, and recurring themes were identified for content analysis. Pertinent data were categorized and separated according to theme. Assertions were then developed and checked for validity by seeking confirming evidence as well as evidence which did not conform. Comparisons between the beginning and the end of her first year of teaching were made for each subject. Comparisons were also made among subjects. These comparisons were used to explore expressed levels of concerns, to determine differences or changes in attitudes, to identify formal or informal social structures which influenced these first-year teachers, and to examine problems and adjustments used to solve the problems. In addition, the comparisons were used to determine what factors contributed to their socialization and to analyze the outcomes of teacher socialization.

### Survey Analysis

When completed, the 35 item SoCQ was scored by computer, and a graphic profile of concerns constructed. Interpretation of the SoCQ data identified the highest stage score (Peak Stage Score Interpretation) and examined the complete profile (Profile Interpretation). The profile

clearly shows which stages are highest (most intense) and those which are lowest (least intense). Analyses also included an examination of the differences between the concerns of the first-year teachers and changes that occurred in those teachers who taught split-level classrooms, or were assisted by support systems, or who began teaching after the beginning of the school year.

As individuals begin to use the innovation, Hall, George, and Rutherford (1977) hypothesized that "the concerns of those involved with the change develop from being most intense at Stages 0, 1, and 2 to most intense at Stage 3, and finally to most intense at Stages 4, 5, and 6" (p. 34). Furthermore, they stated: "If the innovation is a positive one and there is support for its implementation, an individual's concern profile plotted over time should have the form of a progressive wave motion from left to right" (p. 34).

The respondent's SoCQ profiles are analyzed according to the guidelines contained in Measuring Stages of Concern: A Manual for Use of the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (Hall, George & Rutherford, 1977), and A Manual for Assessing Open-Ended Statements of Concern About an Innovation (Newlove & Hall, 1976).

### Observational Analysis

The data collected from the class observations was categorized into instructional and non-instructional responsibilities. The field-note data was coded and frequency counts of the phenomena were recorded in the different categories. Utilizing these data for each teacher, patterns were identified and compared as distributions of behavior. These results were integrated with other findings drawn from this study.

### Videotape and Journal Analysis

Analysis of the videotapes and Journals included the generation of summation data as the first-year teachers viewed videotapes of their teaching in a "stimulated recall" session and periodically reflected on their teaching. Categories of commentary emerged from the teachers' remarks. The concept of clustering as described by Miles and Huberman (1984) was utilized in the attempt to better understand the phenomenon by grouping and then conceptualizing objects that had similar patterns or characteristics.

In summation, the data sources for this study were: (1) interviews, (2) concern surveys, (3) class observations, (4) interviews based on the subjects' commentary of their videotapes, and (5) teacher journals.

Four first-year teachers were interviewed near the beginning and during the last several weeks of the school



year. The SoCQ was administered following each interview. Classroom observations and video taping occurred about mid-year. The teachers were encouraged to record their concerns during the second portion of the year. These data were analyzed and reported relative to the research questions.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter summarizes the results of the study and discusses the major findings. First, a summary of the environmental context in which the four individuals worked as first-year teachers, the socializing agents and their influence, and behavioral outcomes will be presented. Second, the problems and adjustments experienced by these first-year teachers will be reported. Finally, the concerns expressed by each teacher will be examined. The names in all of the cases are pseudonyms.

The findings will be substantiated by a summary of the data collected utilizing tables, charts, and selected excerpts from the interviews. Reporting the results with excerpts from the interviews provides variety and richness of the individual and contextual differences in the data. Such detailed descriptions capture the emotions which characterize the feelings of first-year teachers in the sample.

## DESCRIPTION OF INDUCTION EXPERIENCES

### Research Question Number One

Descriptions of beginning teachers' induction experiences depend on the specific context in which they work. In each instance the induction process is related to the school context and culture and to the unique influences and interaction of people. The following is a description of how specific beginning teachers are socialized into particular school contexts. These case descriptions help to formulate generalizations about the socialization structures and processes which shape these specific teachers' perceptions of their first year of teaching.

Following a brief overview of the research results, each case study will be presented utilizing the Hess (1971) socialization model (Figure 1). The results will highlight environmental contexts, socializing agents, content transmitted by the agents, and behavioral outcomes.

1. What are the socialization structures and processes, formal and informal, which shape teachers' perceptions of their first year of teaching?

The four subjects were women teachers ages 26, 28, 30, and 38. Two worked in large suburban school districts, one worked in a large rural school district, and one worked in a metropolitan inner city school district. The communities in which the teachers served varied from single parent, low income, racially mixed neighborhoods to neighborhoods which

were comprised of predominantly white middle class professionals and managers. All four teachers worked in self-contained classrooms with minimal departmentalization for physical education, library, computer literacy, or music. Two teachers were assigned mentors. Two others were assigned to split-level classrooms. One teacher was assigned to a split-level classroom two weeks following the opening of the school year after the teacher already had her own first grade classroom. The other teacher assigned to a split-level classroom began her job three weeks into the school year one day after accepting her position. Neither teacher spent a full day observing her newly assigned students prior to accepting full responsibility for the instruction. Three teachers were the only first-year teachers in their buildings. The internship experiences varied from their teaching assignments. One accepted a position in the same building of her internship, but taught a grade higher. Another's first-year assignment exactly matched her internship experience: that is, same building and same grade level. One teacher with a split-level classroom interned with a split-level classroom at exactly the same levels in a similar suburban school district. The other teacher with a split-level assignment interned in a rural setting teaching a different grade level in a single grade level classroom.

The hiring variables of support systems and split-level classes influenced the teaching experiences of these first-year teachers. At the start of the year the two teachers who had been assigned mentors found them to be helpful as they provided ideas and materials. However, at the end of the year these teachers felt the mentors were not their main idea source. Those teachers without mentors asked questions of other staff members and received support from the principals and teachers outside the building. The first-year teachers did feel frustration in that they were expected to know how the system worked from the start. In general, all the first-year teachers felt comfortable as beginning teachers.

The commentary of the teachers as they viewed videotapes of their teaching indicated that they referred to former support teachers, other teacher peers, in-service workshops, and themselves as sources for teaching ideas. They most often attributed ideas to themselves, and these expressions were accompanied by an affect of confidence and enthusiasm. Former support teachers were mentioned as the next most frequent source of ideas.

All four teachers' perspectives were shaped by a wide variety of influences. Their perspectives tended to relate to students and other staff members in a personal rather than impersonal manner. They were more open-minded and humanistic than custodial toward students. They wanted to

be more creative, and they promoted independence with covert control rather than overt bureaucratic control. However, several perspectives did change. Three of the four teachers began the year with students in rows but finished with small group clusters. The situation of one teacher resulted in her changing her management routines and instructional practices. The factors which influenced their perspectives included conversations with other teachers, the school's culture, the school's setting, and parental involvement.

Evidence of all three social strategies were exhibited: internalized adjustment, strategic compliance, and strategic redefinition. The social strategies exhibited by these four first-year teachers appears to be situationally specific. The constraints of the school culture, time constraints, personal constraints, and personal preferences all contributed to the social strategies each teacher utilized.

Additional results are summarized utilizing the socialization components adapted for this study. These components include environmental structures, designated agents, and the content transmitted by the agents. The tables in APPENDIX D and APPENDIX E present a summary of these results. These tables outline rich descriptions for the discussions in the following sections.

The environmental and instructional structures which influence the socialization of first-year teachers are reflected in behavioral outcomes. These behaviors were

expressed in attitudes. At times they accepted the norms and conformed with the values of the social system. On other occasions they resisted change and proposed alternative standards and values. System-sustaining behaviors included support of the goals of the system and attempts to persuade others to accept its norms. All four teachers were members of the Oregon Education Association. These results are succinctly presented in APPENDIX F as instructional behaviors, instructional focus, management behaviors, social strategies, and system sustaining behaviors.

### Stephanie

The Setting and Environmental Context. Stephanie was a twenty-eight year old teaching a third-fourth split-level classroom in a large rural school district. One of eight school elementary buildings in the district, Stephanie's school enrolled about 489 students from grades K - 6 with 24 certified staff members. The building is shaped like an 'E,' with classrooms stretching out from the main stem. The library, offices, faculty room, student cafeteria, and gym are located on the main stem. Her internship was a third-fourth grade split-level classroom in a similar nearby suburban school district but in an open classroom school. She began her one year assignment three weeks into the

school year, taking over for a teacher who accepted a district level curriculum position.

Stephanie's fully self-contained classroom was entered from an outside breezeway near the end of the middle arm. The rectangular classroom contained counter space with a large sink, the entrance door, drinking fountain, and a restroom along the east wall. On the opposite wall were windows with a heater located underneath them. Taking up about three-fourths of the space of the north wall was the blackboard. Stephanie called this wall the front of the room. The teacher's desk was in the left corner between the west and north walls. One computer, bookshelves, two tables --one for studying and with baskets for assignments--and a clothes rack hugged the south wall. Two large tables were situated near the sink for group work. Hanging from the light fixtures and on wires stretching from the north to south wall were recent art projects.

Stephanie taught twenty-one students. The students were seated near the window side of the classroom in a rectangle with six desks along the east and west sides, four desks along the north side and five desks connecting the southern border. Third and fourth grade students were seated intermixed. Twelve of the students were third graders, seven of whom were girls. Of the nine fourth graders, three were girls. The ethnic composition of the students was predominantly Caucasian.



The school community has a mix of parents who are middle class professionals, managers, and well paid skilled trades workers and technicians. The community is largely residential with some light industry. Most parents appeared to commute to work to surrounding suburban areas or to the nearby metropolitan area.

The students left the room for physical education, lunch and noon recess, and afternoon recess. Stephanie returned to the classroom while the students were in PE to return papers. During lunch she monitored her class in the cafeteria until they finished eating and then ate her own lunch with four other staff members in the faculty room. She supervised her own recess with four other staff members whose classes were also at recess.

#### Socializing Agents and Content Transmitted.

Stephanie's support system included friends and family, intern mentor teacher, the staff, and principal. Her main support came from her family and friends. She was dating a teacher and "bounced a lot of ideas off of him." She felt her last year's mentor teacher was also "really supportive." "I feel like I can call her anytime and she will help me." Although Stephanie didn't really have a close relationship with the staff, she felt comfortable asking them for advice. "I didn't have any qualms about that." However, several members of the staff were very "competitive" and at least one was "negative." The support of friends and family, last

year's mentor teacher, and staff remained throughout the year. At the beginning of the year Stephanie included the principal as a support member. "My principal is wonderful. I can ask her anything. She's very approachable." However, at the end of the year Stephanie's opinion of the principal changed. "I didn't always feel real comfortable talking to my principal. I tried."

The principal was supportive of Stephanie's teaching. Since Stephanie experienced many observations during her internship, she expressed a frequent need for additional feedback from the principal. When she was unable to obtain this reinforcement, she looked elsewhere for instructional advice. As the school year advanced, Stephanie felt frustrated by the lack of feedback, and became increasingly hesitant in asking the principal for assistance. Since this was also the first year of administrative responsibilities for the principal, Stephanie may have sensed this anxiety in the principal.

Stephanie's perception of her most enjoyable experiences were getting to know the kids and interacting with them. She liked being in control of the class and seeing changes in student behavior in a positive and organized way. Her biggest successes were ideas borrowed from her last year's mentor teacher -- Friday letters and Readers Theater. It was easier for her to teach spontaneously, when she could adjust her lessons to what the

students were doing and saying and when they discovered the information themselves. Using some of her own ideas to develop a computer unit and developing a relationship with the kids were her most satisfying experiences.

The major scheduling considerations at the beginning of the year were departmentalized programs, transitions, and teaching science and social studies. At the end of the year Stephanie's solutions felt comfortable for her. "I did a really good job with my schedule. I really like it a lot." Flexibility, using natural transition periods of recess and lunch, and "knowing how the kids are going to act at different times of the day" enabled her to adjust the schedule. The ideas were basically Stephanie's, but she admits "I collected those ideas last year (during the internship)."

Behavioral outcomes. Stephanie wanted a controlled atmosphere, but realized the importance of student independence. Student control was an initial focus due to her late arrival into the classroom. However, her emphasis quickly shifted to teacher concerns as she looked for new materials and instructional methods. As she became more comfortable in the classroom, she incorporated learning styles instruction into her lesson plans.

Stephanie "Jumped" right into the new position with no planning time. She knew the previous teacher was well liked by the students, so she kept the same room arrangement and

maintained the schedule. As she felt more comfortable, she made adjustments to fit transitional needs. Initially she felt uncomfortable in negative situations with other staff members and would leave to avoid confrontations. She voiced her dislike for the competitive nature of the teachers, but complied with the situation. There was very little sharing of materials and instructional ideas. Near the end of the year she hoped that some of her excitement and positive attitude would motivate other staff members. When she introduced a new unit in late May, her response was "I'm good for them (staff members)."

Stephanie's relationship with the students was personal. Her control was created primarily through participatory management. She developed control through a variety of management routines: sustained silent reading to start the day, reinforcing the positive, and giving the students the responsibility to decide if they want to be on task, or if she would provide management solutions. By the end of the year Stephanie felt less tolerant and was considering assertive discipline techniques. "I'm a little less tolerant right now, but my expectations are the same." She stated her reason as "I really think I am getting tired." She attributed the source of her management ideas to that of her internship mentor teacher.

The role of the teacher in the eyes of Stephanie was to help the students to be responsible for their own learning

by encouraging participation and by being positive. "I've really been inadvertently trying to be positive." She viewed herself as a positive influence with the staff as well. "I get really excited and tend to be more up about teaching than anybody in that school."

No instructional or supervisory responsibilities were added to her work load. Stephanie did volunteer to represent the school on a district art committee.

### Jill

The Setting and Environmental Context. Jill was a twenty-six year old teaching a first-second split-level classroom in an inner city school within a large metropolitan school district. She was assigned to teach this position two weeks into the school year after having begun a first grade class of her own. One of 60 elementary schools in the district, Jill's building enrolled 589 students from grades Pre K - 5 with about 34 certified staff members. Her school is an older rectangular shaped two story brick building with a large fenced school yard. The interior of the building was brightly painted with students art and storybook characters. The basement level contained the cafeteria and maintenance facilities. Located on the main floor were most of the lower grade classrooms as well as the main office, computer lab, auditorium and gymnasium.

The upper grade classrooms were located on the second floor. Her internship was in a rural setting teaching kindergarten.

Jill's classroom was at the end of a long hall in a remodeled library next to several other first-second grade rooms. This long and narrow room provided ample space for work stations, student desks, and group sitting. The teachers desk was near the back where the students entered the classroom. Moving around the room in a clockwise order, the students would find a wash sink next to the door. The left wall contained cubbies for clothes and open shelving for teacher supplies. The front of the classroom was well lit by windows, and contained several work stations and a carpeted area for group work. Jill spent her instructional time in this area working from a portable blackboard. Under the windows were additional storage compartments. The right wall was mostly windows and old hot water radiators. A wire hung across the short dimension of the room holding student-made flags. The students sat at desks facing each other in groups of six. The arrangement of her classroom was limited to interior spaces. Jill used her own ideas collected from previous nonprofessional teaching experiences and from observations during her internship of classroom setups in other buildings.

There were eighteen students in this classroom, thirteen of whom were girls. Ten of the students were first graders, eight of which were girls. Of the eight second

graders, five were girls. The ethnic composition of the students was racially mixed with three Caucasian and fifteen Black. Jill mentioned that every student qualified for the government breakfast and lunch subsidized program.

The school is located next to a busy street and across from a city park. The school serves a community of retired couples, young families, and homogeneous socio-economically skilled workers. The community includes a few moderately affluent parents and a few who qualify for welfare. The school is surrounded by single family homes, duplex dwellings, and small apartment complexes.

An aide was assigned full time to her room until around Christmas when her help was cut back to thirty-five minutes during math instruction. Jill supervised her class all day except for a half hour duty free lunch. The students left the room twice a week for physical education and music and half the class left every day for the Write to Read computer program. Each day around ten o'clock all the students left the room for a ten-minute restroom break.

Socializing Agents and Content Transmitted. Jill's support system evolved informally. Throughout the school year she sought support and advice from close friends who were also first-year teachers, experienced teachers in another building where she had worked before, last year's mentor, another beginning teacher in the building who was teaching the first grade, and her team leader. Most of her

support came from outside the building. "In the building I did not feel like I had a lot of support." She met with other beginning teachers who taught in other schools and felt comforted to know that other people were going through the same situations and shared similar feelings of being overwhelmed and just being frustrated. "We are in this together, and we're going to make it." The team leader provided building organizational advice while the others made instructional and management suggestions.

Throughout the year Jill enjoyed being with kids and felt good seeing the kids doing something they really enjoyed. At the beginning of the year teaching was easiest when they did the same things each day and for long stretches of time. At the end of the year she began to feel at ease with assimilating the first-grade curriculum. She was successful with math and reading programs, with seeing growth in the kids and with her classroom management system. Jill's most satisfying experience was "just feeling really confident that I can do it again."

Considerations for scheduling evolved from the need to integrate first-second grade curriculums, to minimize interruptions from students leaving the room for departmentalized programs, and to create a somewhat relaxed flow for the students during transitions. "I guess one of my real things was to integrate the curriculum so that we weren't madly changing subjects all the time."



In building her relationship with students, one of her goals was to provide effective and adequate organization so "the kids will be self-sufficient in the room." She provided enough limitations so that the students would be able to handle each situation. Although she did not want to stand out as an authority figure, she realized that kids must be involved in decision making while knowing that she had the final authority. This perception was expressed by her at the beginning and ending of the school year. My observations confirmed this problem-solving approach. Her behaviors appeared to be calm, smooth, and calculated. She pointed to her personal experience as her main influence.

Behavioral Outcomes. Although survival was certainly important for Jill, throughout the year she focused on the developmental needs of her students. Even as she was coping with the split-level classroom, her choice of curriculum and room arrangement indicated a student focus. Jill volunteered for committee work to fulfill what she described as her "survival need to belong."

Jill's prior experiences and observations assisted her in complying with the abrupt move to teach a split-level classroom three weeks into the school year. During the fall interview she frequently voiced frustrations toward the staff, school environment, and principal but outwardly developed and adjusted strategies to comply with the situation. She developed procedures which were not

consistent with her underlying beliefs, but conformed to the policies of the school. She continued this strategy even at the end of the school year as she reluctantly filled out the permanent records for each student. Jill did adjust to the management practices of the school and willingly volunteered for various committees.

Jill viewed her main role of teacher as one of teaching problem solving and positive communication. She realized the needs of the students and wanted to prepare them for their next year. Her main concern was producing growth in kids. As she stated: "...so the kids could be independent and getting their needs met....so it (the classroom) is organized for kids to be responsible and to make choices." At times Jill did not conform to the expectations of experienced teachers. However, she did look for cues on how to act from other staff members.

To help her feel at home, she met with a team of first grade teachers. "And that to me was a survival thing." She was accepted by the staff. "I have had several teachers comment that they did not even know that I was a first-year teacher this year." Given her situation and setting she felt prepared. "(I) felt really positive about my internship and I felt really well prepared. A lot more than if I would have just done the methods classes."

No additional responsibilities were assigned to her work load. Each staff member was expected to volunteer for

two committees. Jill choose the Human Relations Committee and the Kindergarten Advisory Committee.

### Tinna

The Setting and Environmental Context. Tinna was a thirty-eight year old teaching the fourth grade in a large suburban school district. One of 26 elementary schools in the district, Tinna's school enrolled 414 students from grades K - 6 with about 23 certified staff members. Tinna's school layout was a one level 'I-I' shaped building with classrooms along the extending arms and library, office space, faculty lounge, and some classrooms along the connecting arm. The building was one of the older schools in the district. A cafeteria extended the right arm and the playground was behind the cafeteria. Her classroom was nearly all the way down the right arm. Her internship was in the same school in the third grade.

Tinna's classroom was rectangularly shaped with an entrance/exit door near the back of one long side. Windows were placed along the entire opposite side. As one entered the room, a sink and counter were immediately on one's right with a large table a few feet away. Along the back wall was a clothes rack. Tinna had her desk near the back of the room touching the window. A blackboard extended across the entire front wall of the classroom. Tinna taught from a podium positioned to the left front of the room. Along the

wall on the door side of the room student projects were displayed and above those Tinna tacked the classroom rules.

Tinna taught twenty-seven students plus four ELC students who came into her room for differing amounts of time. Fifteen of her students were boys. The students were seated at movable desks toward the front and middle portions of the room which by midyear were arranged in seven groups of four or five. At the beginning of the year the students sat in four rows across the room. Her major considerations for room arrangements were to ensure order and promote student interaction. "I tried to group students that had behaviors or study habits that were strong in those areas with students that were weaker to get the feeling that they could help each other." Tinna attributed these arrangements to herself, her last year mentor teacher, a class she took, a cooperative learning book, and the Child Guidance Counselor who did group work in her room. Tinna thought she would start the next school year with the students in rows until she could determine the best groups.

Although the school community is near the corridor of highly-skilled, well-paid professionals, most residents are moderately affluent or in the lower middle socioeconomic group. The school is in a suburban community about ten miles from a large metropolitan area of half a million people. Light industry and small business are located along a major traffic corridor one block from the school. The

student population appeared to have few talented and gifted students. The principal, who was an experienced administrator newly assigned to his position, related: "We are missing the top quarter percentile of the students here."

Throughout the school day students left the room for reading, physical education, computer keyboarding, library skills, and violin practice. The music teacher came into the room twice a week and the librarian read once a week. Tinna did not supervise students during her half hour lunch break, during music, or physical education. She supervised her students' AM and PM recesses.

Socializing Agents and Content Transmitted. Tinna was assigned a mentor, also a fourth grade teacher, during her first year of teaching. Tinna found the mentor teacher supportive especially at the beginning of the year, but later Tinna looked for advice and support from other staff members. Her last year's mentor teacher and the principal impressed her the most. "The second half of the year I really didn't notice her (Tinna's current mentor teacher) as much." "I think that my last year's mentor helped a lot on that (scheduling) at the start of the year." "I feel that I have had some positive input from the principal. I feel that he has been very supportive." A relative also influenced her teaching. "I would give anything for my aunt to be able

to come into my classroom for a while,...I think she is the ultimate teacher."

Tinna found the most enjoyment as a teacher when her students felt open, were interested, and when she felt everything was running smoothly. It was particularly enjoyable for her when "we really built up a good rapport," "when I was making contact with them," and when "my students felt comfortable enough for 'appreciations and resentments'." She measured success by smooth routines. "I feel successful when my timed tests in math were down to a science." "Success is staying right on schedule." "I feel good about my mornings because I have my routines half in place." When her students showed her personal appreciation or when they felt good about themselves, Tinna felt satisfied as a teacher.

Considerations for scheduling were based on three factors: activity level of the kids, major interruptions like physical education and music, and district requirements. Since school was an hour longer for these fourth graders, Tinna worked in an extra recess for the students and gave them plenty of "in class" physical activity. "I also planned to give them time for movement." Her mornings were chopped up because of physical education and music, so math was scheduled in one chunk of time in the morning and reading in the afternoon. Due to a district-wide testing program in math and reading, Tinna

adjusted the schedule so that her students could prepare for and take each exam. Tinna's last year's mentor and another fourth grade teacher helped her to finalize her schedule.

Behavioral Outcomes. Tinna's primary role was to maintain order and control in her classroom. Her initial focus was to set behavior expectations. Her concern shifted toward the end of the year to a student orientation as she focused on creating student academic growth. She wanted to be more creative and learn a wider variety of instructional approaches.

Since Tinna was the "only" beginning teacher in the building, she found herself expressing personal opinions less than normal. However, at times she challenged the "unfair" treatment her students received at the hand of another teacher, but complied with the constraints posed by the situation. When parents challenged her position, she retained private reservations and adapted to the situation. She did openly ask and receive permission for an afternoon recess. Other teachers questioned her control and curriculum but the principal granted her request. This redefinition of the situation enabled her class to increase afternoon concentration and motivation.

When asked to rate herself as a manager, Tinna thought she was "a participation person." However, she began the year on the other end of the scale: as a "dictator." She wanted to make sure that she had control. She was a firm

believer in positive reinforcement rather than more rigid expectations. She tried to use a lot of praise. "I...think that clamping down makes behavior worse. I think that by using positive reinforcement...it's a lot better." As the year progressed, Tinna felt a need for more creative solutions and lesson plans that would increase student involvement. "If I had more tricks in my bag, some more creative lesson plans, then they would be more involved." "As I become more confident, I see myself starting maybe a little bit low key. I want to make sure they know who was boss." The graduate course work, last year's mentor, and personal reading influenced Tinna's management strategies. She emphasized the course work taught by her university supervisor as having the most influence on her management style.

Tinna's role as a first-year teacher was to create intellectual growth in her students and to be responsible for what happened in the classroom. She thought focusing on classroom management at the beginning of the year would assist achievement. As the year progressed, curriculum became her focus. However, her personal evaluation at the end of the year revealed a continuing focus on management. "I'd like to be better at teaching behaviors in here." "I would like to be better at classroom management."

In Tinna's relationships with other staff members, she said less than she normally would. "I think that I just



keep my mouth shut a lot of times." As a beginning teacher she wanted to get along with the staff. "I really believe in being positive with one another." Tinna did not feel "in the know" as much as she would have liked. Since many of the upper-grade teachers were male and managed their classes very strictly, Tinna really did not associate with them. "I don't think I want to be a part of that group, and I don't feel comfortable with that." However, she did have friends in the building. She had a great deal of respect for a kindergarten teacher. "I feel very close to her, and I don't think she is in the know either, 'cuz she's too busy."

She felt a lot was expected of her. "I don't know how to read test scores very well. I had to go to meetings. I have a student in my room that should be in Special Ed." She found morning supervision very difficult "because my mind is not focused on my morning." She appreciated her involvement with the school improvement program and encouraged others to become involved. "I can see that the people on the committee are doing the things that need to be done... so maybe we (all) aren't doing our jobs so well." Tinna also enjoyed being a volunteer gymnastic coach for an after-school exercise program.

### Kate

The Setting and Environmental Context. Kate was a thirty year old who taught second grade in a large suburban

school district. One of 26 elementary schools in the district, Kate's school enrolled 451 students from grades K - 6 with about 28 certified staff members. Kate's principal was also just beginning her first administrative assignment. The building is 'E' shaped with classrooms located on both sides of each of the three arms. Along the main corridor are the cafeteria, offices, and the gymnasium. Although many classrooms are separated with floor to ceiling movable curtains, Kate felt more comfortable retaining a self-contained classroom. Her internship was at the same grade level in the classroom next door.

Her small classroom was in a pod of upper grade classrooms and located in the center of the middle arm. The classroom's shape resembled a rectangle with a large piece of one corner missing. As one entered the classroom from the north, storage cabinets were located along the wall to the right and a clothes rack along the wall to the left. The front of the classroom was along the west wall on which hung the blackboard and bulletin board used to display instructional concepts. Much of the blackboard was covered with rules, assignments, student water paint posters and teacher instructions. An audiovisual station separated these boards. Near the teacher's desk located across the room from the entrance was another bulletin board used to display student projects and seasonal entertainment activities. The curtain was along most of the east wall.

In front of the curtain were homework baskets, two old computers which the students could dismantle, and library materials relating to current science and social studies topics. The teacher spent most of her instructional time in front of the blackboards. An overhead projector was used when visual instruction was necessary.

Kate taught twenty-four students of whom fourteen were girls. Her class was one of three second grade classrooms. The ethnic composition of the class was Caucasian.

The students were either arranged by rows or clustered. At the beginning of the year the students were seated individually in rows. "I decided on having them individually in rows...I was just worried about a talking problem and traffic patterns." At the end of the year her students were clustered to provide floor space for group work. "I have more room for the kids to sit on the floor to do different activities. There is just more space. Another reason I have done that is that the kids like to work together. They are social. As long as I have good management strategies, it works out just fine....And I want them to enjoy learning." Several large tables were available near the exit door for science projects and group work. The arrangement of her classroom was influenced by her concern for student learning, Emmer and Evertson's book Organizing and Managing the Elementary Classroom, and other teachers in the building.

Kate's students left the classroom for recess, lunch, physical education, and music. During morning and afternoon recesses she remained in her room preparing the next lessons and helping with school work. She was required to monitor her students in the cafeteria during their lunch and to supervise them after school until they boarded their buses. She ate lunch with about one quarter of the other staff members.

The school is located in an expanding, economically prosperous residential area. Many of the parents were skilled professionals in managerial or trade positions and moderate middle class to affluent technicians in the computer industry.

Socializing Agents and Content Transmitted. At the beginning of the year Kate was formally supported by a mentor and informally supported by staff members. She met with the mentor twice a week for social purposes and practical suggestions. Her unofficial help was the rest of the staff. They gave her "hints" at lunch time and stopped in after school to encourage her. She was the only beginning teacher on the staff. At the end of the year she found the informal support to be the most influential. Although she was friends with a second grade teacher, not a lot of sharing went on with the other second grade teachers. "We didn't team very well this year...there was not a lot of opportunity hardly ever to share ideas, but I would have

liked to." Other staff members also supported her informally. "Some of the other teachers here, I consider them support persons because I can talk with them freely." Formally, mentor support did not work out. "I didn't know when it was an appropriate time (to ask questions), and if there ever was a problem...Well, it just didn't work out very well." Kate did mention the influence of the principal. "I was afraid that I would never really be able to talk to and confide in the principal because I consider her my boss. But she doesn't come across that way at all. She is very, very supportive."

Kate enjoyed being with kids, and she felt successful when the students learned. Classroom management was easiest for her. "I mostly enjoy being with just the kids. I like teaching a lesson that was very challenging to the students...to help them understand." "After the first few weeks, the students were doing just what I wanted." She was very satisfied with the parental conferences and with the attitudes of the kids. "I was very satisfied when they (parents) have positive comments about me." "The attitudes of the kids is satisfying...They even made up a song for me."

Initially, Kate arranged her class schedule so that the students were at their desks so she had a lot of free time to test kids for reading and math placement. As the year progressed, she found herself feeling squeezed for time.

"...trying to get all this stuff in. I was spending too much time in the beginning." The planned breaks and pullout programs did not allow for changes in the schedule. "I have to work around already set schedules."

Behavioral Outcomes. Confident in her teaching ability, Kate in her first few months focused on arranging the room for workable traffic patterns and creating a schedule which provided for smooth transitions. Kate did not want to waste any instructional time because doing so would cheat the students. Kate often voiced a need for the students to be independent thinkers. She felt very secure as a first-year teacher and creatively planned new lessons so that her students would become more involved.

At the beginning of the year Kate was openly distressed by after school bus duty and office demands on her time. However, she complied with the administrative wishes. As she walked students down the halls, to encourage independence she allowed more flexibility than other teachers in the building. Although some of her responsibilities may not have been instructionally beneficial, she willingly developed into the kind of person the situation demanded.

Her relationships with students elicited their respect through understanding. She arranged the classroom with their needs in mind. Using practiced and modeled management routines, she developed control of the classroom and the

respect of the students. She encouraged independence. "I want them to be as independent as they can." She was influenced by her internship mentor, classroom observations during her internship, her sister who is also a teacher, and Emmert and Evertson's book. Kate described her management style more like a dictator at the beginning of the year and as a participation manager at the end of the year. "So I was a dictator at first. And that is because I was afraid. I wanted to be strict." In June the students were part of the decision making process. "I don't let them make decisions, but I let them be part of it. And that has really helped them grow."

Her role as a teacher was to be creative and consistent. "I want to get more creative. The more creative things get, the more enjoyable they are and more successful they are." "I feel if I had more instruction on how to teach it, more techniques under my belt, than I could do a better job. The more creative I could be in that area the better." One aspect of creativity was being efficient. "That is real important to me." As a classroom leader, she felt it important to think before talking. "I have to be sure of what I'm going to say and know what is going to happen next and how it is going to affect the child." Her experiences during the internships influenced these assessments.

In addition to bus duty and staff treat week assignments, which were the only noninstructional responsibilities added to her daily routine, she chose to become the building science facilitator. She worked with another teacher and appraised the experience as "good for me." Supervising bus duty and making staff treats on a rotating basis created anxiety as she reflected on all the other work to be accomplished. She felt some of the new teacher activities, meetings after school, and district in-service programs also interrupted what she was supposed to do. "There were quite a few of those that I didn't know were going to come along."

#### Summary of Socialization Structures and Processes

Several institutional characteristics and contextual factors contributed to the socialization of these teachers. First, the organizational nature of the schools shaped their perceptions. Constraints such as Tinna's class size, diversity and size of the student population for Jill, Stephanie's feeling of isolation due to an exterior classroom entrance, and clerical demands and pull-out programs shaped their perceptions. Each teacher also found that time was an imposed constraint. Supervision responsibilities, meetings, and paper work were often seen as impositions on their planning time.



The second contextual factor was the physical demands necessary to maintain energy levels for teaching. Physical demands were expressed more frequently by those who taught split-level classrooms. They were worried about getting enough sleep, maintaining energy levels as they motivated students to learn, and maintaining their mental health. However, even with the threat of more stress, they pressed for more creative lesson plans and instructional practices.

The sociodemographics of the school settings and hiring times did not appear as crucial factors in the teachers' socialization. Although the teachers voiced initial frustrations concerning these variables, they appeared to adjust. Additionally, after an initial period of adjustment, any mismatch the teachers experienced between their internship and first-year assignment was not a primary socializing influence. The teachers who did not teach in the same building or at the same grade level in which they interned had successful teaching experiences. Each felt successful and pleased to have accomplished so much.

Due to the dynamics of the socialization process while learning-to-teach, some values and beliefs which were developed during CPEP training conflicted with those values and beliefs operating at the school-site level. The teachers adjusted to, complied with, and at times redefined the expectations of the district and building.

Designated agents transmitted content which influenced these teachers' socialization. The primary socializing influences were situationally specific. Although they frequently attributed ideas to themselves, their students, and other teachers, former support teachers were mentioned as the major source of ideas. The teachers telephoned or met with their intern mentors throughout the year for project and management ideas, to talk, for support, advice, and logistical concerns. Additionally, the intern program was used as a reference on several occasions as a key idea source. The major sources of socializing influence were located within the formal training process.

The students were the second major source of socialization. Students in the upper grades of the split-level classrooms lacked motivation to learn. This fact prompted their teachers to adjust instruction and curriculum materials. Additionally, the students expressed a need for additional time to work, for meaningful rewards, and for consistent discipline. The students sensed the classroom as being their own and praised the teacher for caring. These results agree with Friebus's (1977) conclusions regarding the influence of students on student teacher's professional identity. The first-year teachers in this study indicated that their students played an important role in legitimizing their professional identity. Also echoing Friebus's conclusions, the praise earned from the

students played a role in providing these neophyte teachers with a sense of success. Haller (1967) concluded that a beginning teacher's repeated interactions with students to some extent shaped the teacher's behavior. As reported in the interview data and noted during the observations, these interactions influenced the first-year teacher's daily instructional tasks and attitudes about teaching.

While other socializing agents were factors in the teachers' socialization, the final major socializing influence was other teachers. By year's end these first-year teachers consistently mentioned teachers in other schools, but not teachers in their own schools, as a major source for ideas and support. Becker (1961) concluded peer subculture was a strong influence in the process of occupational socialization. Although Jill occasionally received "a sympathetic glance" from the only other first-year teacher in her building and Tinna received support from an experienced first-grade teacher in her building, the teachers in this study generally did not seek advice and support from teachers in their building. The reasons for this lack of collaboration with building peers were situational. Both teachers who taught split-level classrooms felt "dumped on." Applegate and others (1977) suggested that first-year teachers expected others to understand their problems. In this study the failure of

other staff members to understand their problems may have been seen as lack of support.

There were other situational reasons for the lack of collaborations with building staff. The large staff and physical size of Jill's building prompted her to seek assistance from some groups outside the building. One teacher in Stephanie's building was consistently making negative comments about teaching, so Stephanie generally decided to avoid her rather than confront her, and as a result she also avoided the other teachers in the building. Tinna felt more comfortable seeking advice from female teachers. All of the upper grade teachers in her building were male. Additionally, Tinna respected the management style of her new principal, while other experienced teachers did not. These differences may have contributed to a lack of collaboration.

Echoing the conclusions of Lortie (1966, 1975), the tensions these teachers felt were also reinforced by the cellular organization of the school. Contacts between beginning teachers and experienced teachers were hampered during the school day. These teachers ate lunch with their students or ate with only a handful of other teachers due to a rotated lunch schedule, had supervision duties before and after school, taught in rooms located away from other classrooms of the same grade level, and were isolated by the buildings' structures.

The confidence these teachers felt and the perception they had for what it meant to be a teacher disagreed with the behavior they saw in other teachers in their building. Bennis (1973) suggested the beginners' perceptions of self are influenced by relationships with other people. When the experienced teachers were negative or lacked motivation, these beginning teachers were influenced by this relationship and sought advice from others in different schools. In one instance, Stephanie could not find support at her own grade level. She eventually tried to cope on her own or sought the assistance of a peer. These findings are consistent with those of McIntosh (1976) and Isaacson (1981). McDonald (1980) also concluded that when there was no institutional influence to help them solve their problems, beginning teachers appeared to solve them on their own. As these teachers confronted problematic situations for which they could find not institutional or collegial assistance, they searched for creative means to solve their problems.

Edgar and Warren (1969) argued that the socialization of beginning teachers was influenced by those who had evaluative power over neophyte teachers' performance. During this "power process," the beginning teacher was gradually influenced by supervisory views. The results of this study did not find evidence to support this process. The former mentor teacher appeared to have replaced the

principal or team leader as the "sanctioning evaluator." Isaacson (1981) suggested that since the informal agents were viewed by the teachers as more crucial to their socialization than the formal agents (principals), teachers tended to ask informal agents. Grant and Zeichner (1981) questioned the significance of the principal in the development of beginning teachers and concluded that the training process and induction ritual were more vital. These teachers certainly held a high regard for their training.

The research of Applegate and others (1977) offers an explanation for why the mentor support for these beginning teachers waned as the school year progressed. Applegate and others suggested that first-year teacher's perception of support/nonsupport is influenced by her or his self-image and self-esteem. As the year progressed, these teachers felt more confident. As their self-image and confidence improved, they did not seek mentor advice and support.

Behavioral outcomes and system-sustaining outcomes are a reflection of the contextual factors and the agents which influenced the socialization of these beginning teachers. Due to the lack of planning time, inflexible schedules, clerical demands, and role responsibilities, the teachers were consistently focused on the issues related to efficiency and organization. Additionally, they were concerned about the consequences their instructional

practices had on students. Therefore, they had a desire to explore new teaching techniques.

The personal evaluation of the teachers reflected a positive tone. The tone which accompanied expressed sentiments about their professional experiences was also exhibited in their professional involvement. The tone was indicated by their yearlong enjoyment and pleasure in teaching, and pride in their work and accomplishments. Examples of their sentiments provided clear indications of confidence: "I really feel good about my teaching," "I feel very successful," "It has been a great year," "The students are pretty positive toward me in their attitudes," and "I am probably the best first-year teacher you are going to see." Additionally, considering the constraints of time, the teachers were professionally involved and expressed a desire for future personal improvement. They expressed plans and desires to earn master's degrees, to attend summer school, or to enroll in high-interest seminars. The teachers attended a variety of conferences and shared ideas acquired while attending district staff development programs. Two teachers were considered as curriculum content specialists within their respective buildings.

The self-perceptions of these four beginning teachers displayed significant changes as their first-year teaching progressed. By the end of the year, they became increasingly self-critical about their teaching while

maintaining a tone of confidence. This attitude change was reflected in their descriptions of specific aspects of their instruction and its impact on students. Several teacher's expressions of lack of self-awareness, due to the pace of teaching and the constraints of non-instructional responsibilities, emerged. These expressions were accompanied by a desire for observations and assessment from sources outside the school district. This finding was congruent with their concern for revising their instructional practices.

#### PROBLEMS AND ADJUSTMENTS

As the institution seeks to maintain itself through the transmission of a body of beliefs and customs, beginning teachers report problems.

##### Research Question Number Two

2. What are these teachers' perceptions of problems encountered and what adjustments are made during their first year of teaching?

Reporting the problems of these first-year teachers will involve (1) a comparison of problems expressed early in the school year with problems described near the end of the year based on the frequency of reported problems, (2) an overall ranking of the problems expressed, and (3) an analysis of each subject's problems given her situation.



The problems reported after three or four weeks of teaching focused on instructional management and efficiency. Many of the problems were related to the lack of time, materials, and resources. TABLE II provides a matrix of the expressed and observed problems of the teachers based on the frequency with which the teachers reported the problem.

For these first-year teachers time was a premium and a problem. They felt unorganized, overwhelmed, and at times unprepared. Planning for their new role as a classroom teacher required that they organize student seatwork, prepare for each lesson, know the curriculum, plan the

TABLE II  
RANK ORDER OF PERCEIVED PROBLEMS  
(NUMBERS INDICATE EXPRESSED PROBLEM FREQUENCY)

Fall		Spring	
Planning time	10	Working with other staff	14
Scheduling	9	Planning time	12
Isolation	8	Materials/Resources	8
Materials/Resources	6	Isolation	7
Poor supervision	6	Physical demands	6
Individual diff.	4	Motivating students	6
Discipline	4	Scheduling	6
Physical demands	4		

schedule, prepare for transitional times, plan their work around their personal life, adjust the schedule, or just find time to think and relax.

Building a workable schedule was a problem due to the nonflexible nature of the school organization or the specific situation into which the teacher was assigned. These teachers stated the problem as "managing the schedule and curriculum together," "these 20 minute periods drive me crazy," "too many interruptions by pull out programs and other curricular needs," "getting all the subject areas in," and "planning for a split." The teachers appeared to adopt and adjust a schedule suitable for their situation, as the problem expressed at the beginning of the year was mentioned less frequently in the spring.

As all the teachers attempted to build an instructional schedule, providing for individual student differences evolved into a major problem. Kate wanted to correctly place the students for math and reading, and Stephanie wanted to provide instruction which met the learning style needs of each student. Teaching a split-level classroom complicated this problem. Both Stephanie and Jill realized that the upper grade of the split-level classroom began to feel insecure. The third graders in the three-four split-level classroom and the first graders in the one-two split-level classroom became the leaders of the class by midyear. Jill reported that the second graders in her split-level classroom felt "frustrated being put in the same room with first graders." At the end of the year Stephanie

and Jill questioned the upper graders' advancement into the next grade.

Educational research has reported isolation as a problem of first-year teachers. In all but one situation the teachers felt isolated. They reported, "I just feel isolated out here," "I have to work to meet the staff," "I'm expected to know how things work," "I'm not in the know as much," "Everybody goes their own way," and "I feel isolated without hallways." The feeling of isolation decreased as the year progressed.

The relations with other staff members appeared to create frustrations as the year progressed. The teachers expressed a variety of problems related to staff relationships. These problems ranged from "felt like they dumped their kids on me" to "did not feel the other teacher was being fair to my student." At the end of the year every teacher expressed similar frustrations. Although each teacher felt comfortable with her teaching role, friction with other staff members was expressed more frequently than any other problem at the end of the school year.

At the beginning of the year the teachers found instructional materials and resources lacking. This problem grew out of a lack of classroom textbooks and desks, not enough board space because the room was full of desks, no curriculum guides for certain subjects, few aides to assist in the classrooms, and workshops which provided little

instructional application. The concern for materials and resources increased as the year progressed due to an increased awareness of what was available. The first-year teachers wanted to develop more creative instructional activities.

Discipline was a consistent problem for one teacher. She wrote about discipline in her journal nearly every day and mentioned at the end of the school year a need to "get better at classroom management." Although discipline was recorded more frequently as a problem at the end of the year, when it was referenced the problem was always followed by a problem solving adjustment. The teachers knew they were less tolerant, at times inconsistent, and that time constraints affected their choice of management strategies in the classroom. Several teachers read books to find solutions while another took a class.

At the beginning of the year three teachers clearly identified clerical demands as a problem. This problem was certainly tied to the demands on their time. They expressed "not understanding the meaning of office demands," "confusion about interpreting student files," "unsure what to do with stuff from the office," and "frustrations with all this stuff." This problem was virtually absent at the end of the year, except one teacher expressed a problem filling out the permanent records.

The physical demands of full-time teaching were more prevalent during this first year of teaching than during the internship. They were tired and exhausted due to "repeatedly staying on top of kids" and nervousness. Every teacher worked over the weekends and as a result were concerned about their mental health. Although they brought work home, the physical demands of teaching were eased by taking weekend trips, joining a fitness organization, and volunteering to coach gymnastics after school.

Although the problem of lack of administrative feedback and supervision decreased during the year, the teachers realized a need for assistance. Some thought the solution was to ask for feedback from sources outside the district while others thought they should visit other classrooms in the school. Formal supervision and communication with the principal was a problem for every teacher except one.

The problems which appeared unanswered at the end of the year were related to managing student performance and behavior and adjusting to the norms of the current teaching staff.

Based on the reported frequency of each problem fall and spring, the most common problems of these first-year teachers were lack of planning time, difficulties in working with other staff members, inflexible scheduling, feeling isolated, securing materials and resources, dealing with discipline, and adjusting to the physical demands of

teaching. Other problems reported were the lack of supervisory feedback, the need to provide for individual student differences, keeping up with clerical demands, motivating students, learning new methods of teaching, and fulfilling the assigned responsibilities.

Although there were some shifts in the priority of problems from the fall to the spring, the problems generally remained teacher-focused rather than student-focused. There was a gradual shift from managing and controlling student behavior toward motivating the student toward academic productivity. As the teachers quest for solutions broadened, the demands on their personal resources increased. They developed a tendency to challenge their peer staff members on matters relating to discipline philosophy and teaching style.

Reviewing the context of each subject in relationship to their expressed problems provides an interesting perspective. TABLE III summarizes the problems reported by each subject in the fall, in the spring, and when reported at both times.

Several "drifts" can be noted by examining the rows of data in TABLE III. Generally, the lack of supervision increased as a problem. The teachers wanted additional feedback concerning their instruction. They expected to be supervised as part of the socialization process. Perhaps this expectation originated from their past experiences or

TABLE III  
SUBJECT SUMMARY  
PROBLEMS EXPRESSED DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR

Subject	Context	Fall only	Spring only	Both	Not Expressed
1. Steph	rural split began late no mentor	Assessing stdt	Discipline Rel w/ parents Motivate stdts Not prepared Looking for job ***Working w/staff Indiv dlff	*Phys dem Meth of tch **Planning Clrm rout Isolation Supervision ***Scheduling ***Materials/Resources	Responsibil Clerical dem Large class
2. Jill	city split began late no mentor	Discipline Clrm routines Supervision Responsibil	Motivate stdts Materials/res Indiv dlff	*Phys dem **Planning Clerical dem Not prepare Isolation ***Scheduling ***Wk w/staff	Rel w/parent Meth of tch Assess stdt Lg class Look for job
3. Tinna	suburb 4th gr. mentor	Clerical dem Responsibil	Meth of tch Clrm routines Supervision Look for job ***work w/staff	*Phys dem Discipline Rel w/par Indiv dlff **Planning ***Materials Lg class ***Scheduling Isolation	Motivate std Assess stdts Not prepared
4. Kate	Suburb 2nd gr. mentor	Meth of tch Clerical	Responsibil ***Work w/staff ***Materials/res ***Schedule	Indiv Diff **Planning Supervision	Assess stdts Clrm rout Lg class Isolation Not prepare Look for job Rel w/parent Discipline Phys demands Motivate std

- \* 3 of 4 subjects expressed the problem both in fall and spring.  
 \*\* All 4 subjects expressed the problem both in fall and spring.  
 \*\*\* All 4 subjects expressed the problem only in the spring.

during their internship during which they were frequently observed. "Loose" rather than "close" supervision was characteristic of the principals, team leaders, and on site mentor teachers.

A second drift can be noted: isolation. Due to the contextual environment and other specific situations, each subject began to feel isolated. The situations which contributed to isolation included the outside classroom entrance and late assignment of Stephanie, the large staff in Jill's school, the placement of Kate's classroom away from similar grade levels, and Tinna's gradual loss of mentor support. As a result, the teachers did not build strong working relationships with other staff members. The first-year teachers were expected, in their perception, to know the cultures and organizational aspects of the school.

A deeper understanding of what happened can be found by comparing those teachers who were assigned mentors and those who were not. Mentor support influenced these first-year teachers' experiences early in the school year, but this influence decreased as the year progressed. Tinna's and Kate's mentors appear to have assisted in managing their clerical demands. However, scheduling continued to be expressed as a problem throughout the year. Although the mentors provided the teachers support and advice, they appear to have unsuccessfully provided solutions to teacher-focused problems. Perhaps as a result, working with



other staff members became more pronounced as a problem. In addition, the beginning teachers, having completed an extended field-based internship, may have felt secure and capable enough to challenge the teaching norms perpetuated by the experienced teachers. At the end of the year, the teachers critically analyzed their own instructional experiences, and with confidence and enthusiasm they often attributed teaching ideas to themselves.

Since the two teachers who taught split-level grades also assumed the positions after the beginning of the school year, these variables were analyzed together. Differences and similarities appeared when comparing split-level/late hiring and regular classroom grade level instruction. The teachers who had split-level assignments reported problems which were generally similar to the other teachers who taught single grade level classrooms (e.g., planning, physical demands, and working with staff). However, initially the problems reported by the teachers who taught split-level classrooms varied from those who did not. This variance can be largely attributed to differences in the school context. Jill experienced more pronounced scheduling difficulties since her internship was at the kindergarten level. Jill found that she had to adopt new discipline routines and adapt to the organizational policies of her school because these routines and policies were different from those she experienced during her internship.

Stephanie's internship appeared to have adequately prepared her for teaching a split-level classroom. Initially, Stephanie expressed problems which were primarily student-oriented (assessing student work and varying instructional methods to match the students' learning styles), whereas Jill reported problems which were primarily teacher-oriented (e.g., responsibilities and clerical demands). At the end of the year, both teachers reported similar problems, but Stephanie was more receptive to teaching a split-level classroom again. Stephanie enjoyed doing the split-level classroom. "I mean the whole thing (teaching the split-level) is enjoyable. I loved doing it." Jill, on the other hand, was "forced" to accept the late assignment and found the experience "frustrating."

#### Summary of Perceived Problems

Many of the problems reported by these first-year teachers were also reported in Veenman's (1984) comprehensive review of beginning teacher research. Veenman found that disciplining the class, motivating students, planning for individual differences, assessing student work, and relating with parents as the most frequent problems reported by beginning teachers. The teachers in this study did not echo the same priorities.

The most commonly self-perceived problems of these first-year teachers were lack of planning time, difficulties

In working with other staff members, inflexible scheduling, feeling isolated, securing instructional materials and resources, dealing with discipline, adjusting to the physical demands of teaching, lack of supervisory feedback, providing for individual differences, keeping up with clerical demands, motivating students, learning new methods of teaching, and fulfilling the assigned responsibilities. Discipline and class control were not unanimously found to be the most difficult problem, as reported in beginning teacher research (Lagana, 1970). These teachers were not more custodial in their attitudes toward discipline, as Hoy (1968) concluded, but described themselves as "participation managers."

The problems focused on student-oriented teacher behavior and teaching tasks. Collaboratively working with other members of the staff was the most frequently reported and experienced problem during the second half of the school year. Since these first-year teachers were confident and mature, they tended to challenge the values and beliefs of the other teachers and would not subject themselves to an "initiation" process.

The teacher socialization goals for students under their charge were consistent throughout the year: "students will be self-sufficient," "independence and involvement in decision making," and "concentration on problem solving." The independent attitude learned by the teachers during

their internship was exhibited in their teaching. They wanted their students also to be independent thinkers.

Those teachers with assigned mentors did not express different problems than those teachers without mentors. Mentors did appear to suggest solutions which eased the problem of clerical demands. Gray and Gray (1985) reported that beginning teachers can become competent and confident enough to function without mentor help. The teachers who taught split-level grades reported similar problems, but their primary problems were scheduling difficulties and lack of planning time.

When teachers expressed problems, they generally accompanied their statement of the problem with specific adjustments. Having completed a year-long internship, these teachers felt secure and capable enough to analyze critically their instructional experiences. They read books, reread their notes, and recalled experiences from their internships. They also talked regularly with other teachers, friends, and relatives outside of the building, regularly met or talked with internship mentors, discussed solutions with the principal, and tried solutions of their own design.

As the teachers adjusted to the problems of first-year teaching, they experienced some consequences. When they attempted to strategically redefine their problems, they

experienced comments and political pressure from other staff members, and received remarks from the principals.

### CONCERNS

#### Research Question Number Three

As beginning teachers seek to conform to the values of the institution and support the goals of the system, they are influenced by role models, institutional norms, evaluation systems, and environmental structures. Learning is likely to be exhibited as a change in behavior expressed in the form of changes in attitudes and concerns.

3. What are the common concerns shared by these beginning teachers during their first year of teaching?

Using the data collected and processed from the Stages of Concern Questionnaire, interpretations were made at several different levels of detail and abstraction. A number of observations are reported in TABLES IV through VI. The data relevant to this question were interpreted first by group analysis and then by individual analysis. A clinical picture was provided by examining the percentile scores for all seven stages in Figures 3 through 6, and by interpreting the meaning and the interrelationships of the different highs and lows. This profile analysis provided not only insight into the types of concerns that were most intense, but also provided insight into the affective stance that each teacher took during her first year of teaching.

Interpretation of the high score is directly based on the Stages of Concern About the Innovation definitions that were presented in Chapter III. TABLE IV presents the intensities in percentile scores for each stage of concern by comparing initial and final results. The analysis compared initial group intensities with final group intensities. A high percentile score indicates a relative intensity of concern.

TABLE IV  
STAGE OF CONCERN PERCENTILE SCORES  
FOR THE FIRST YEAR OF TEACHING

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Initial Fall Results							
Subject	0	1	stage 2	3	4	5	6
Stephanie	37	60	57	30	92	48	*94
Jill	37	54	14	60	*90	68	77
Tinna	46	60	52	*90	82	31	77
Kate	53	72	78	95	96	55	*99
Final Spring Results							
Stephanie	10	48	41	65	*86	68	81
Jill	23	48	28	52	*92	55	65
Tinna	29	48	25	73	71	55	*92
Kate	23	63	45	88	96	80	*99
-----							

\* - Indicates a peak stage score

Stage 0 - Awareness	Stage 3 - Management
Stage 1 - Informational	Stage 4 - Consequences
Stage 2 - Personal	Stage 5 - Collaboration
Stage 6 - Refocusing	

Additional analysis of group data is interpreted in TABLE V. This table profiles the number of individuals in each stage of concern who reported that stage as their highest intensity.

From a holistic perspective, these first-year teachers generally expressed a peak concern in Stage 3, Stage 4, or Stage 6. High Stage 3 concern is indicative of intense concern about management, time, and logistical aspects of teaching. High Stage 4 and Stage 6 are indicative of the most intense concerns relative to the lower stages. As mentioned in Chapter III, beginning teachers or non-users of

TABLE V  
FREQUENCY OF HIGHEST CONCERN STAGES  
FOR BOTH SURVEYS FROM EACH TEACHER

	Stage of Concern						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Number of Individuals	0	0	0	1	3	0	4

the innovation would exhibit the most intense concerns at Stages 0, 1 or 2. The first year of teaching has been a positive one for these teachers as the progressive wave motion illustrates in Figures 3 through 6. The most intense concerns were at Stages 4, 5, and 6. Although a choppy wave, this left to right wave motion more closely typifies the experienced users and renewing users. Beginning users'

or nonusers' concerns typically tail off in Stages 4, 5, and 6 (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1977).

Generally these beginning teachers indicated lower levels of concern at the end of their first year of teaching than at the beginning of the year. The three survival stages -- awareness, informational, and personal -- were lower at the end of the year because the socializing agents appear to have influenced these teachers. However, their concern for collaboration (Stage 5) generally increased as the year progressed. Although all the teachers expressed a relatively high concern for the consequence of their teaching, they also noted an increasing concern about working with colleagues. They wanted to share ideas and work collaborately with colleagues, but found the task frustrating.

The tailing-up of Stage 6 during the initial and final surveys might imply that each teacher had new instructional ideas that she wanted to use. They may have felt that their ideas were more practical than those used by other teachers. Although there was a tailing-up of Stage 6, these teachers were not showing resistance to teaching or a concern about obtaining other ideas. They appeared frustrated for a chance to try out some ideas of their own. This may not be surprising since these teachers also had relatively intense student-oriented concerns (high Stage 4 scores).



Additional interpretations were developed by examining each teacher's initial and final Stages of Concern Questionnaire peak stage score (TABLE VI).

TABLE VI  
INDIVIDUAL STAGES OF CONCERN AT THE BEGINNING  
AND NEAR THE END OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

Subject	Questionnaire date	Stage of Concern						
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Stephanie	(Initial)	37	60	57	30	92	48	*94
	(Final)	10	48	41	65	*86	68	81
Jill	(Initial)	37	54	14	60	*90	68	77
	(Final)	23	48	28	52	*92	55	65
Tinna	(Initial)	46	60	52	*90	82	31	77
	(Final)	29	48	25	73	71	55	*92
Kate	(Initial)	53	72	78	95	96	55	*99
	(Final)	23	63	45	88	96	80	*99

\* - indicates the peak stage score

Stephanie's initial scores indicated she had a positive attitude toward teaching (Figure 3). In fact, she tended to feel comfortable about the details of teaching and appeared competent to meet the demand of teaching. She had concerns about the consequences of her teaching for students rather than her own survival. The high Stage 6 score, especially at the start of the school year, indicated she had many logistics issues regarding her teaching or her role as a teacher. Some of these logistical concerns were addressed during the school year. The spring questionnaire data

produced a similar wave motion with an increased concern for coordinating working relationship with other staff members regarding the effects of her teaching. Also increasing in intensity was her concern for the best use of information and resources. In writing her open-ended concerns she stated: "A new concern of mine is that of working in a team of teachers."

The field notes, interview data and survey results emphasized Jill's focus on the impact her teaching had on students (Figure 4). Jill's initial and final data indicated a consistent concern on the relevancy of her teaching for students. In the initial questionnaire she expressed, "I see so many things I'm not able to do that are important such as setting up programs for top students." At the end of the year she reiterated, "I am most concerned about the welfare and needs of children which are not being met through the channels of the public school system." She was a very confident teacher as evidenced by the video analysis and observational data. The low Stage 0, 1, and 2 scores indicated she did not appear to reflect concerns about obtaining other ideas, but the tailing up in Stage 6 indicated she had other ideas she would like to try.

Initially, Tinna had a relatively intense concern about time, logistics, or other managerial problems related to her first year of teaching (Figure 5). Tinna was concerned about "the extreme time commitment required. I have no aide

time and I'm expected to do virtually everything required to run my class plus all the extra duties and social obligations." Additionally, Tinna was somewhat concerned about students, but there was not intense concern about developing working relationships with other staff members. As she developed instructional and management skills during the year, her concern intensity shifted from logistics issues related to teaching towards ideas about how to improve her teaching. At year's end her concern was "developing appropriate lessons that are fun as well as educational and meeting the curriculum objectives."

Kate's highest intensity of concern throughout the year was a constant desire to learn other instructional and management approaches that might work better (Figure 6). Based on the experiences of her students, she wanted to modify her teaching strategies. She was determined to enhance what she already knew about teaching. In trying new instructional approaches, she maintained a high concern for having enough time to organize herself, manage everything that teaching requires, and excite her students about their part in the learning process. Kate's excitement for teaching was sometimes dampened as she tried to coordinate her effort with other staff members. The open-ended statements of concern underscored many of the concerns indicated in Figure 6. "It is very important for me to keep having fun. ... It is satisfying and successful," "I intend

to work hard at providing enjoyable lessons and activities in all of my units," and "My goal is to do the job to my satisfaction, but with as much efficiency as I can possibly muster."

An additional perspective was described by examining the concerns of those teachers who taught in split-level classes and those teachers who were mentored. Stephanie and Jill, who were in split-level classrooms, were intensely concerned about the consequences of their teaching. Their planning for both grades, caring concern, and awareness of effective instruction techniques may have intensified these concerns. Tinna and Kate, both mentored teachers, were concerned about issues related to trying new instructional ideas. The mentor teachers appeared to have addressed task concerns, but were unable to ease impact concerns.

#### Summary of Concerns

The teachers reported relatively high intensities for student-focused (task) and teacher-focused (impact) concerns. Fuller (1969) indicated that student-focused teachers exhibit characteristics of experienced teachers and teachers with a great sense of competence in the role. All of the teachers expressed a relatively intense concern for the consequences of their teaching, and as the year progressed, they also expressed an increasing desire to work collaboratively with colleagues. When describing curricular

concerns, the teachers generally described deficits or limitations in programs. At the end of the year, they were generally concerned about seeing their ideas put into practice or at least tried out. Their personal concerns generally decreased, and they were looking for new challenges and self-improvement aimed at increasing student productivity.

One possible explanation for these first-year teachers' high impact concerns has been noted by Adams and Martray (1981). They suggested the possibility that high intensities for impact concerns could be prompted by the fact that beginning teachers feel they should be highly concerned about the consequences of their teaching.

The teachers in this study did not experience their concerns in a particular sequence, nor did they resolve one concern before moving on to the next. Since the flow of the wave shaped curve in Figures 3 through 6 generally remained the same throughout the year, the teachers appeared to have dealt with their concerns simultaneously.

Those teachers who taught the split-level classrooms expressed the relatively highest intensity for their consequences of teaching, while those teachers with mentors indicated refocusing their professional development as the highest concern intensity .

Throughout the year the teachers maintained their goal for students to be self-sufficient problem solvers. As they

gained experience, their attitudes toward management remained participatory rather than shifting toward authoritarianism. They challenged themselves to be more creative rather than shifting to more conventional teaching techniques. Their perception of self in the teaching role appears to be consistent throughout the year, thus agreeing with the findings of Power (1981). Their above average age for first-year teachers may have had a bearing on the minimal attitudinal changes as reported by Lagana (1970).

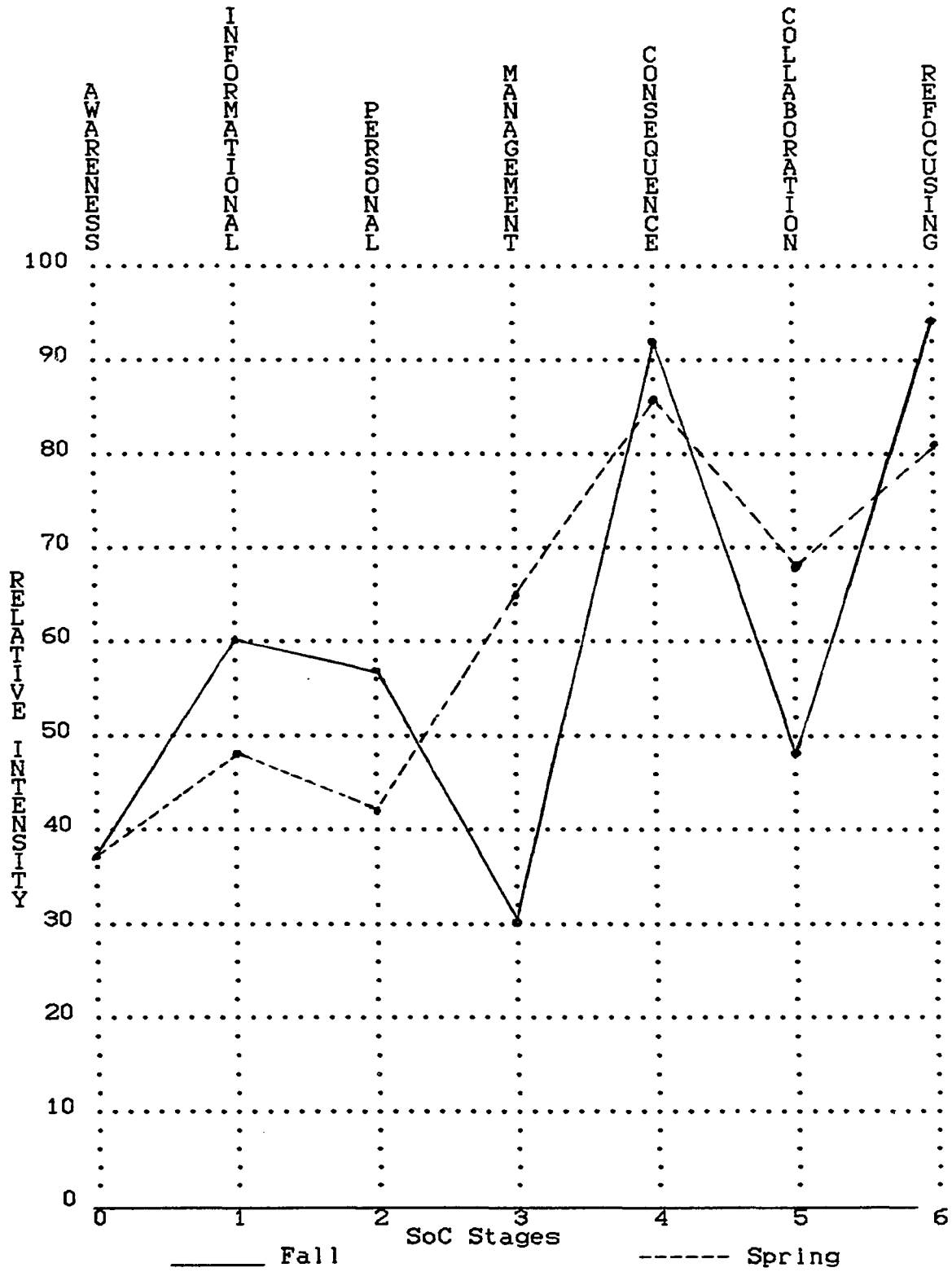


Figure 3. Individual concern profile: Stephanie

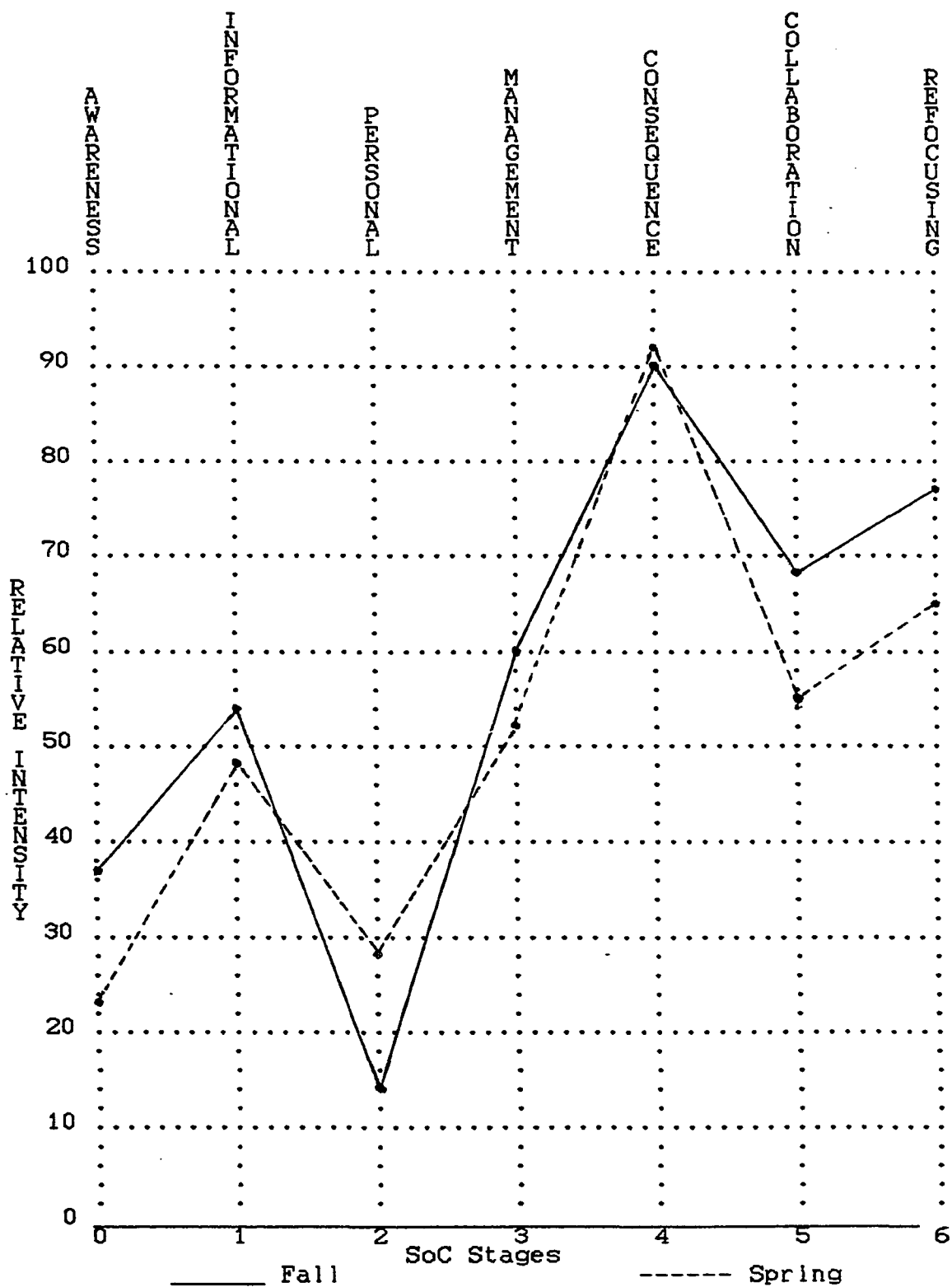


Figure 4. Individual concern profile: Jill



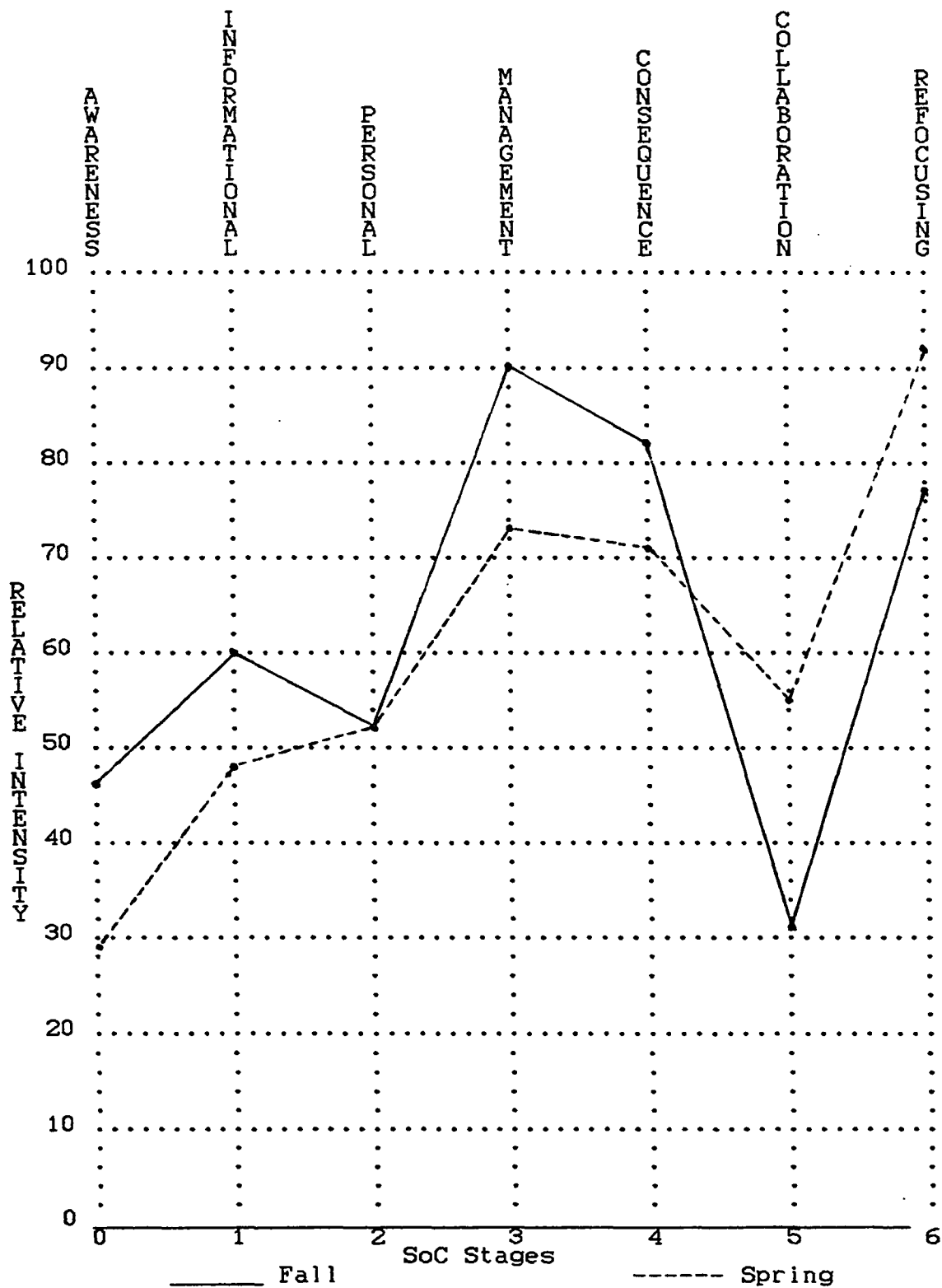


Figure 5. Individual concern profile: Tinna

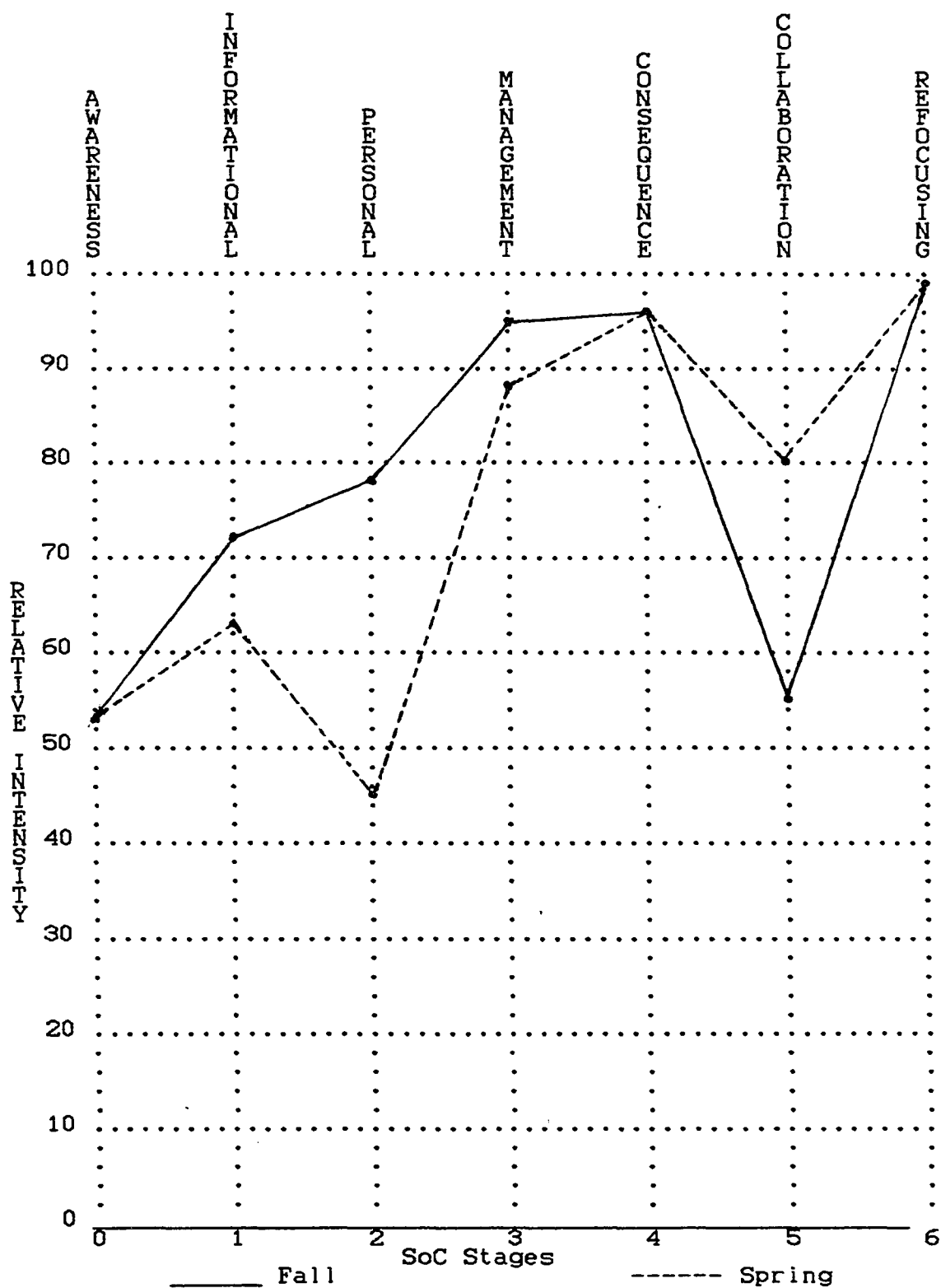


Figure 6. Individual concern profile: Kate

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter completes the research cycle. The chapter begins with a review of the problem statement, research design, findings, and conclusions. The focus then shifts to suggestions for future research into the socialization of beginning teachers to the teaching profession. The chapter concludes with a discussion of implications and recommendations.

As internship programs are developed and induction programs are implemented, researchers are calling for descriptive field studies. Particularly, studies are necessary which investigate contextual factors socializing first-year teachers who have been clinically prepared in field-based year-long internships. In referring to the impact of field-based experiences during pre-service teacher education, Zeichner (1980) concluded that

we (teacher educators) must begin to focus our concerns on the quality of these experiences as they are actually implemented in the field. In this regard, we need more research that seeks to illuminate what is learned during these experiences as they are now constituted. We know very little at the present about the subtleties of socialization during field-based experiences beyond the gross indicators of central tendencies (p. 52).

By addressing the impact of specific induction practices on beginning teachers, useful improvements can be made in induction programs. The problems and concerns of neophyte teachers have been previously identified in teacher induction literature, but it lacks precise, detailed descriptions of salient factors which socialize beginning teachers.

This study was designed to document and analyze the teaching experiences of four first-year teachers. These beginning teachers completed an extended field-based Internship -- CPEP (Cooperative Professional Education Program) -- offered at Portland State University. The teaching experiences were documented in terms of a conceptual framework drawn from socialization theory, occupational socialization theory, and teacher socialization research. Three questions were designed to research the socialization process: (1) What are the socialization structures and processes, formal and informal, which shaped teachers' perceptions of their first year of teaching? (2) What are the teachers' perceptions of problems encountered and what adjustments are made? (3) What are the common concerns shared by these beginning teachers?

A comparative case study analysis was utilized with a sociological research design to organize and interpret interview, questionnaire, observational, video tape, and journal data. These multiple sources of evidence identified

factors that explained beginning teachers' induction into the teaching profession, explored their experiences in terms of teacher socialization research, and examined the relationship between teacher socialization and occupational socialization.

Results of this study are summarized into the following findings:

1. The problems and concerns expressed by these first-year teachers resembled experienced teachers' problems and concerns.
2. The training received during the internship was not "washed out" by the school experience.
3. The intern mentor teachers and the internship program were the most influential socializing agents.
4. Salient factors in the socialization were the internship program, organizational constraints, and the physical demands of the role.
5. The teachers dealt with their concerns simultaneously.

#### Limitations of the Study

The sample of four female subjects limits generalizations beyond these subjects. Generalizability is also limited since all the subjects were part of CPEP, a collaborative field-based internship effort of Portland State University in Portland, Oregon and the Beaverton School District in Beaverton, Oregon. The exploratory design of the study selected the subjects from six volunteer CPEP teachers. The four teachers were hired into teaching

positions during the course of this study. No control or comparison groups were included; rather the focus was on gathering descriptions of experiences.

Since the information gathered from interview protocols, field notes, questionnaires, and journals passed through the subjective filters of the interpreter, pieces of information may be valued more highly or considered less significant than the teachers chose to emphasize.

### CONCLUSIONS

The entry of teachers into the profession has been described as a process of socialization (Lacey, 1977; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1983). This study's emphasis was on exploring the socialization of CPEP-prepared teachers as they entered the teaching profession. Given the view that the "beginning teachers socialization is highly context-specific" (Zeichner, 1983, p. 34), the generalizations regarding the conclusions are limited to this particular context.

The findings of this study have led to several conclusions regarding the nature of induction into the teaching profession. Additional conclusions relate to the socialization structures which shaped the experiences of these first-year teachers. They are organized in the following manner:

## Socialization during the First Year of Teaching

### First-year Teacher Socialization as Occupational Socialization

#### Socialization during the First Year of Teaching

As this study outlines its contribution to socialization theory, it is significant to note not all authors agree that the term "socialization" accurately describes the induction of teachers into the profession. Socialization is a "complex process not readily captured by a simple, one-factor frame of reference" (Lortie, 1973, p. 488). Zeichner (1983) examined whether the terms "institutionalization" or "socialization" best depicted the process of neophyte teachers adjusting to the norms and roles of the teaching profession. Lortie (1975) also questioned the use of the term "socialization" as a descriptor of the induction process.

The connotations of the term socialization seem somewhat askew when applied to this kind of induction, since they imply greater receptivity to a pre-existing culture than seems to prevail. Teachers are largely self-made; the internalization of common knowledge plays only a limited part in their movement into work responsibility. (p. 80)

The conceptual model of socialization adapted for this study assisted in the description of the beginning teacher induction process. The model was utilized to explore the salient factors -- the CPEP teacher intern program and

organizational constraints -- which socialized these teachers into their occupational roles.

CPEP Teacher Intern Program as a Socializing Factor.

One of the factors which significantly influenced these first-year teachers' socialization was their Internship. The Internship appeared to assist the first-year teachers as they were led to adopt the professional identity characteristics of experienced teachers. The teachers appear to have benefitted from mixing the theory of the seminars with the practical experiences of the classroom. Their pre-service experiences appear to have assisted these teachers' socialization into the profession. By frequently observing their mentors performing the occupational role, being observed by the mentors while teaching, experiencing the values and norms of the school, and performing the role of teaching for an extended time, the realistic nature of their training appears to have eased them into the reality of the classroom. The problems and concerns they reported as beginning teachers typified those of experienced teachers. As illustrated by their teaching and reported by their comments while viewing their video tapes, these first-year teachers behaved as experienced teachers.

Echoing the conclusions of McAulay (1960), the experiences of their Internship and the support of their mentors influenced their first year of teaching. However, the socialization process did not stop with the Internship.



Hall (1948) concluded that socialization continues through a variety of mechanisms, both formal and informal. In this current study formal mechanisms could have given the team leaders and principals a high degree of control over the teacher's behavior. However, the formal mechanism which exerted the most control was the internship, but in a delayed manner. In a comprehensive review of the teacher socialization literature, Wells (1984) supported the influence of university training and the impact of role models as critical factors in the socialization process. This study appears to substantiate the assumption of Barnett (1975) and Howey et al. (1978) that teacher education experiences are more effective when pre-service teachers spend more time observing and teaching in the classrooms. Because of the high degree of influence exerted by the cooperating teacher (McAulay, 1960; Yee, 1969) and the mentor teacher (Bova & Phillips, 1984), both the university and the schools should place a high priority on their training. Realizing their impact on teacher socialization, these key agents should continue to work cooperatively. The current study argues for the power of practitioners on beginning teachers.

#### Organizational Constraints as a Socializing Factor.

During their first year of teaching these four individuals experienced many successes, but not without feelings of frustration and isolation. The organizational nature of the

schools molded their practices and to some extent their beliefs. Supervision duties, clerical demands, and classroom paper work are examples of the contextual factors influencing their acceptance of the traditional roles of teachers. These factors are similar to those identified by Blase (1985). Blase reported that student diversity, institutional role demands, and administrative expectations were factors which influenced the instructional perspectives of teachers.

Other factors were influential in socializing these beginning teachers. Those individuals with formal responsibility for socializing the inductees (e.g., mentors) and the environmental contexts (e.g., scheduling and curriculum materials) influenced the teachers to adjust to the norms and values of the profession. These variables were influential in exerting control over the individual. In their study of beginning teachers Tabachnick and others (1983) concluded: "The most pervasive and powerful factor in determining the level of institutional constraints in all the schools was technical control exerted through the timing of instruction, the curriculum and curriculum materials, and the architecture of the school" (p. 72).

Organizational controls exerted some degree of influence over these beginning teachers. While the principals directed the activities of the schools, there appeared to be very little direct teacher supervision by the

principals. However, bureaucratic regulations and technical controls in the form of district-wide testing, curriculum materials, teacher supervisory responsibilities, the timing of instruction, school-wide student management procedures, and the architectural design of the school served to dictate to some degree how they worked. This study supported the conclusions of Wise (1979) in that organizational controls in the form of bureaucratic and technical controls impacted the socialization of these teachers.

The institutions also appeared to be a catalyst for activating the latent beliefs held by the teachers. In their drive toward adjusting to and complying with the role of being a teacher, the teachers became judges of their own performances. They were given opportunities to try ideas they always knew would work. When asked about the source of ideas, each teacher mentioned herself at least once as the source. Lortie (1975) concluded that as teachers found success in their own ideas, they developed self-confidence. This self-initiated socialization, perhaps activated by the latent beliefs held by these teachers, became an influential socializing agent especially when their views were supported by significant others. The confidence each teacher felt was facilitated by the success she experienced while using her own ideas.

Describing these Teachers' Socialization. While the teachers were not passive, neither did they take an overtly

active role in guiding their socialization. These beginning teachers creatively changed their teacher roles to fit their own needs as well as allowed the demands of others to socialize them to their teaching roles. While they were influenced by institutional constraints, they at the same time were active participants in the socialization process. Lortie (1975), Popkewitz (1976), Gehrke and Yamamoto (1978), and Zeichner (1984) each described this process of teacher socialization. The teachers accepted the values of the institutions, and, at the same time, shaped their own identities.

A five-year study conducted by Gehrke (1981) investigating the socialization of teachers concluded that "teachers adapt the teacher role to meet their own needs, while at the same time being socialized to the role demanded by others" (p. 34). Zeichner (1983, p. 40) concluded: "On the one hand, first-year teachers are seen as prisoners to the past (either anticipatory socialization or pre-service training) and, on the other hand, they are seen as prisoners to the present (institutional pressures emanating from the workplace)." This "interplay of individual intent and institutional constraint" (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985, p. 4) supported an interactive view of socialization. In the current study neither the functional view of socialization nor anticipatory socialization completely explained the

substantial contributions each teacher made during her induction.

The data described experiences which are supportive of the conceptions of socialization as an interactive process. The teacher's behavioral conformity varied with the context and situation. These results support the conclusions of Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) that beginning teachers can challenge institutional constraints. At times these teachers resisted the values of traditional and conservative teachers. On the other hand, they did not proactively seek assistance from staff members. By projecting their own unique teacher role identities, they gave some direction to their socialization while at the same time responding to institutional forces. Socialization was a dynamic process. As interactive socialization suggests, the individuals in society adjust to the forces occurring in their world as well as creatively transform their own environments (Wentworth, 1979).

As the socializing agents attempted to move teachers to accept the norms of the profession, there appeared to be a conflict between the autonomous needs of teachers and the organizational demands of the school. This tension fostered an interactive socialization process. The tension which existed between the teachers and institutional norms encouraged some active interactions. The socializing influence worked both ways. The socialization of these

beginning teachers consisted of a constant interaction between the teachers' intentions and the demands of the institutions. Such an interplay facilitated the expression of new ideas while at the same time maintained the traditional quality of the institution.

Socialization implies much more than teachers complying with authority figures and satisfying institutional demands -- as functionalism would suggest (Brim & Wheeler, 1966). If the teachers had internalized all of the norms of the district and school culture, the process would have been one of institutionalization, not socialization (Zelchner, 1980a). In some instances these teachers accepted the status quo, embracing the traditional attitudes and practices. On the other hand, the teachers covertly resisted some traditional beliefs and practices. Faithfully grading every student's paper, finishing all the clerical tasks, taking every assigned responsibility seriously, and conscientiously preparing for district-wide tests are examples of traditional beliefs these teachers covertly resisted. At other times they openly attempted to express and alter their experiences by creating an afternoon recess for their class, developing their own instructional computer packet, and redefining school-wide hall travel procedures to fit the needs of their class. The diversity of each situation and the creative ability of each teacher influenced her socialization. Veenman's (1984) summary of

teacher socialization is descriptive of these beginning teachers' socialization. "Teacher socialization is focused on the interplay between individuals' needs, capabilities, intentions, and institutional constraints" (Veenman, 1984, p. 162). Zeichner and Tabachnick (1983) developed similar conclusions as they interpreted their longitudinal case studies of four student teachers and beginning teachers.

They concluded:

Each of these individuals for different reasons reacted strongly against the constraints posed in their schools,... but because of the nature of the constraints,... they generally acted in ways demanded by their situation while maintaining strong private reservations about doing so.  
(p. 16)

As these new teachers strove to meet the needs of their students and manage the tasks of teaching, they had to decide to adapt to, conform with, or redefine their relationship with students, experienced teachers, and supervisors. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1983) suggested several reasons why first-year teachers may not have utilized strategic redefinition for the dominant mode of response as a social strategy. The reasons specific to this study include their ability to cope, their mature sensitivity to the political environment, and the positive impact of their students on their teaching. The strength of these teachers' interactive socialization could be linked to strong teaching perspectives developed during the training process.

### First-year Teacher Socialization as Occupational Socialization

As beginning teachers experience new roles, they begin to share an occupational identity. An occupational identity is built by accepting and internalizing the knowledge and skills of the profession. As new teachers develop a commitment to the values, norms, and traditions of the school as an organization, and create new values, they continue to build this identity. In this way the induction experiences of first-year teachers can be linked to occupational socialization.

Occupational socialization theory ponders the same question as teacher socialization: does the individual have a major role in creating her or his occupational identity or do occupational influences cause the individual to internalize the values of the occupation? Occupational researchers have not agreed. Kohn (1971) argued that individuals actively use initiative, thought, and independent judgment in their work. Lortie (1959) posited a latent culture which impacts the occupational socialization of beginning lawyers, and Wentworth (1979) described an interactive socialization process.

Conclusions drawn from this study suggest teacher socialization may be linked to occupational socialization through several variables included in socialization theory.



These variables include training, formal and informal mechanisms of control, and stages of socialization.

Training. Several conflicting conclusions and interpretations have emerged concerning occupational training. Does occupational schooling lay the groundwork of basic knowledge and skill, or does occupational training fully prepare each trainee (Bloom, 1985)? One interpretation may argue that occupational training provides all the knowledge and skill necessary, while another suggests the school experience only generates idealism. In teacher socialization literature Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) asked a related question: "are the effects of university teacher education 'washed out' by school experience" (p. 7)? As these first-year teachers experienced full-time employment, their training was not "washed out."

Pre-service training was an influential component in the socialization of these beginning teachers. In the context of the medical profession Gordon (1976) concluded that during the training process, interpersonal values -- support, recognition, and independence -- are important variables in the socialization process. These teachers experienced strong interpersonal ties during their training and first year of teaching through the support of their intern mentors. The independence they felt appeared to be a function of their selection into CPEP and their successful

completion of the requirements of the intern program. If university training had such a socializing impact on these teachers, then perhaps studies should explore in more depth university culture and occupational training.

Mechanisms of Social Control. The socializing forces which influenced the teachers' development are generally those which occupational socialization has described as most influential: reference groups, code of ethics, collegial evaluations, authority figures and supervisors, and occupational associations (Kohn, 1969; Pavalko, 1971; Gold, 1974).

In considering teacher socialization, formal mechanisms include a code of ethics assessed by sanctioning members based on a set of standards, licensing procedures based on knowledge and skills, and certification regulations based largely on academic training (Isaacson, 1981). In the context of this study formal mechanisms of support were rare in the experiences of the teachers. This finding is similar to those in occupational socialization literature (Inkeles, 1969). Lippitt (1968) cited several reasons for the lack of formal support mechanisms in occupational socialization: (1) policy and program designers do not fully understand the social interaction process, (2) workers may want to preserve their own autonomy, and (3) other agents may not be interested, be too busy, or feel threatened. The principals and team leaders were informed about the process of

teaching, but appeared to have their calendars full managing the school. The teachers found the mentor relationship helpful, but by mid-year indicated that they were advising the mentor. When asked for feedback concerning the formal support they received, the teachers suggested additional supervision and increased instructional feedback. Additionally, they wanted to observe other classrooms in the building and outside the district.

Informal mechanisms include the collegial evaluation that members of an occupation or school make of each other (Inkeles, 1969; Isaacson, 1981). Informal organizational supports were viewed by the teachers in this study as more crucial to their socialization than were formal means of assistance. When these teachers needed instructional and organizational assistance, members of the staff and significant others informally interpreted the systems and provided understanding. In the current study the teachers valued the principal's support when they were behaving informally -- notes placed in their staff boxes and praise when passing each other in the hallway. Merton, (1957), Becker (1961), and Mumford (1970) found that during occupational socialization in the medical profession, those who interacted directly with trainees -- most frequently informally -- tended to significantly influence occupational identity.

Stages. Occupational socialization and teacher socialization suggest that the socialization process includes several stages or phases. Most teachers entering the profession experience "anticipatory socialization" followed by "reality shock," followed later by a "consolidation" phase. McArthur (1981) described the stages in teacher socialization as initiation, internalization, and evolution. Occupational stages include the "pre-arrival stage," then the "encounter stage," followed by the "acquisition stage." After passing through the initial stages, McArthur (1981) concluded that experienced teachers reach a plateau. This leveling out was noted as an internalization of teaching values. Conclusions drawn from this study indicated that these beginning teachers did not move through the stages. Instead, based upon their teaching behavior and the problems and concerns they expressed, they behaved as experienced teachers. Such internalization may have been a result of their training and of the selection process. When these teachers focused on professional development, and when they attempted to modify their existing role in the organization, they advanced to the final stage (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1974). These beginning teachers focused on themselves as teachers by being intensely concerned about the consequences of their teaching.

By concluding these first-year teachers behaved as experienced teachers is not to suggest that every feature of the job was anticipated. They did experience some surprises. Some typical encounter stage surprises were experienced: the filling out of permanent records, clerical demands, and student placement. As the school year progressed, they had learned to cope with surprises by relying on information and interpretations from their mentors and intern mentors or by recalling their training. Similarly, Louis (1980) concluded that newcomers cope with unmet expectations by relying on information from others and recalling past experiences.

One aspect of occupational socialization is organizational socialization. Organization variables which affect an individual's experience in a new organizational setting are status and position (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) or privilege, status, and power (Kohn, 1969). These beginning teachers enjoyed being the new teacher. They felt socialized into the organization. They were not concerned about their status as beginning teachers. They stated: "I like being a first-year teacher. I want to remember how excited I was," "I never felt I was low on the pole," "I guess I'm happy with my status," and "People treat me with a lot of respect and that makes me feel good."

### Extending the Study

In this section several propositions have been generated, limitations of the socialization model used to organize the data have been identified, and additional research questions have been addressed.

Proposition Number One (specific to this study). When schools and universities are partners in the development of teaching practices, then probably the effects of the university are not "washed out" by school experience, but are in fact strengthened by school experience.

Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) have offered three commonly accepted scenarios for teacher and occupational socialization: (1) the progressive influence of university training to a traditional shift during their inservice experience, (2) the low impact of formal training and teaching experience and the high impact of biography, and (3) the partnership of schools and universities. Since the cooperative internship of these first-year teachers had such an impact, the results of this study support the third scenario. The teachers reported their former mentor teachers as the primary socializing influence. The main mechanism of control noted by the teachers during their first year of teaching was what had been learned from the internship program. During their internship, with support team supervision, they were pushed to employ personal discretion and independent judgment of their work. During

their first year of teaching, they continued to practice this model.

The values learned during the training process and those practiced at the school sites were occasionally incompatible. During the CPEP teacher selection process there was an emphasis upon problem solving and the ability to deal with ambiguous situations. After satisfying the screening criteria, as students they were encouraged to develop individual styles of teaching and to experiment with various teaching methods. They were encouraged to take an active role in determining the specific form and substance of their student teaching. During their first year these teachers continued to take an active role in finding solutions to their own problems. The norms of the schools, on occasion, dictated teaching style and encouraged uniform use of teaching methods. Although the schools' cultures urged the teachers to adapt to the practices common to their schools, the teachers found some practices were incompatible with their training. However, the practical experiences of their training in which the university and schools worked cooperatively prepared these teachers to deal with ambiguous situations. This study argues that universities and schools should work together. The goals of the schools must agree with the goals of the training program. School in-service personnel and teacher training educators worked cooperatively to promote learning so that training was not

"washed out" (Popkewitz, Tabachnick, & Zeichner, 1979; Power, 1981).

Proposition Number Two (general). A clinical partnership between teacher training institutions and participating schools will have a socializing impact on the teaching behaviors of beginning teachers.

Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) pointed out that "the substance of particular student teaching programs (e.g., expectations and requirements for students), the characteristics of the specific placement sites, and the place of student teaching in the overall pre-service preparation program necessarily affect the form and outcomes of student teaching socialization" (p. 34). In this study the teachers reported that training did alter the course set by anticipatory socialization or at least worked together with it. Echoing the findings of Zeichner (1983), these beginning teachers continued to draw upon skills and perspectives developed during university training experiences. The impact of the university and the school working together during pre-service was instrumental in the development of teaching behaviors used by these teachers during their first-year of teaching.

Proposition Number Three (specific to this study). Given similar training and contextual environments, CPEP trained first-year teachers will probably not experience discipline and classroom control as a priority problem.

As beginning teachers adapt to their roles, they report problems. The results of this study ranked student



discipline sixth as a problem. Previous research reported discipline as the priority problem for neophyte teachers (Veenman, 1984).

A CPEP goal is to develop cooperatively, with university and school support, highly successful beginning teachers. These first-year teachers consistently mentioned CPEP training as a source for classroom management techniques which contributed to the maintenance of classroom control. McDonald and Elias (1980) suggested beginning teachers experience stages of problems. Classroom management was listed as an initial-stage survival problem. This phase is followed by stages in which the first-year teacher must solve the problems of more in-depth planning, organization of the schedule, and of students' academic progress. These stages of problems included those reported in this study: that is, the need for more in-depth planning time and long-term organization of instruction. According to McDonald and Elias (1980), the problems reported by these beginning teachers resemble those of experienced teachers who are willing to risk continued professional development. Investigating CPEP-prepared teachers, Driscoll, Strouse, and Peterson (1987) reported a shift similar to this study's results: a shift from "survival language" problems to instructional concerns and student achievement. The CPEP training and support model appears to have provided these

new teachers with the essential skills to prevent, reduce, or manage many of the problems they confronted.

Their experiences in the CPEP Internship directly and indirectly socialized these beginning teachers. Since the teacher socialization process includes developing the skills of teaching, of which classroom management is an important component, CPEP -- directly through the training process, and indirectly through mentors, peers, and supervisors -- socialized these teachers into the teaching profession. The teachers attributed their classroom management skills to CPEP training and to the norms expressed by the mentors at the CPEP Internship site.

Proposition Number Four (general). Beginning teachers who adapt to the problems of the teaching role are likely to exhibit increased feelings of competence.

The four teachers in this study were very confident about their abilities and were very competent teachers. With mentor assistance, beginning teachers can acquire sufficient experience and competence (Gray & Gray, 1985). As these first-year teachers faced problems related to the teaching role, they consistently made adjustments. By the end of the year they became increasingly self-critical about their teaching role while maintaining a tone of confidence.

The ability to adapt to the problems of the teaching role enhances teacher self-esteem. As teachers successfully deal with problems in their teaching role, they experience

increased feelings of competence (Glassberg, 1980). When beginning teachers solve problems identified as higher developmental problems, they are likely to exhibit increased classroom competence and permit a greater degree of flexibility in their classrooms (Glassberg, 1980). The beginning teachers in this study exhibited confidence when they understood the needs of their students, successfully motivated their students, and assumed they (not the principal) should be responsible for discipline in their classrooms. They emphasized the importance of respect, of maintaining a flexible attitude, of managing individual differences, and of promoting academic and personal growth in their students. Glassberg (1980) has classified many of these problems as higher developmental problems.

Illustrative evidence for the competent self were reported in Smith (1968). Smith reported that the teacher who was generally self-confident also was able to generate solutions for her or his problems related to the teaching role. Supporting the conclusions of Smith (1968), the teachers in this study tended to solve problems related to their teaching roles without compromising their values and principles.

Proposition Number Five (specific to this study). If mentor support systems are utilized during both student teaching and first-year teaching experiences, then beginning teachers' concerns will more closely resemble experienced teachers' concerns, but only if the contextual factors remain relatively the same.

The training that Tinna and Kate received closely matched their first-year assignment: both taught in the same school in which they were prepared, both were assigned grade levels which closely matched their training, and both were mentored teachers during their internship and first year of teaching.

Research findings specify that proteges "learned from their mentors risk-taking behaviors, communication skills, political skills, and specific skills related to their profession" (Bova & Phillips, 1984, p. 18). In the field of business, proteges entering the work world discovered that people who succeeded were people willing to take risks. Proteges learned from mentors the "pet projects" of the upper echelon executives as well as the company values. In the teaching profession, many of the concerns of beginning teachers can be effectively address through mentor-protege relationships (Huffman & Leak, 1986). As beginning teachers experience the realities of teaching, it is important that they are supported by their experienced colleagues (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1985).

In mentor-protege relationships both individuals, acting as peers, are actively involved in the socialization process (Gehrke & Kay, 1984; Gray & Gray, 1985). Research studies of Becker (1961) and Mumford (1970) supported the findings that those who interact with trainees in the work setting tend to be influential in the socialization process.

Furthermore, colleagues can exhibit a high degree of control over the neophyte's behavior. An individual's socialization into a profession can be influenced by a colleague's approval or disapproval (Hall, 1948).

These first-year mentored teachers' concerns typified experienced teachers' concerns as identified by Hall, George, and Rutherford (1977). As concluded by McAulay (1960), the mentor teacher's socializing influence during student teaching can impact teacher role identity during the first year of teaching. Bucher and Stelling (1977) also reported that, in mentor-protege relationships, proteges have adopted the professional identity of their mentor teachers. Since teachers in this study spent time observing experienced teachers' classrooms and worked with mentors who taught at the same grade level -- both primary factors in addressing the concerns of beginning teachers (Huffman & Leak, 1986) -- they appear to have adopted the professional characteristics of the experienced teachers. Mentor teachers address the concerns of beginning teachers, encouraging them to take risks and advance in professional development (Huffman & Leak, 1986). Utilizing the analysis of Hall, George, and Rutherford (1977), these first-year teachers' relative concern intensities indicated a desire for professional development and typified experienced teachers' concerns.

Proposition Number Six (general).  
Clinically prepared first-year teachers will  
report relatively intense task and impact concerns  
during their socialization into teaching roles.

Several educational researchers have focused on the connections between socialization and professional concerns of beginning teachers (Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981; Ryan, 1982). Veenman (1984) suggested that research on teacher concerns is important in understanding teacher socialization. After reviewing the research on teacher concerns, Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981) concluded: "Although studies on teacher concerns seem to be phenomenological descriptions of individual experiences, they are, in reality, the closest we can come to an account of the effect of the socialization process on beginning teachers themselves" (p. 17). Studying the concerns of first-year teachers who were graduates of a personalized experienced-based teacher education program, Pataniczek (1978) found the group's highest concern at the beginning of the year was with having an impact on students. Other concerns ranked high by the group included issues relating to mastery of the teaching tasks: knowing students as individuals, meeting individual needs, organizing classrooms, and concern for student learning.

As indicated by their concerns, the first-year teachers in the current study were generally prepared for the realities of beginning their teaching careers. All four

teachers reported relatively intense task and impact concerns at the beginning and ending of the school year.

A Critical Look at the Conceptual Model of Socialization. A number of criticisms may be raised about the usefulness of the model of socialization employed for this study which guided the collecting, organizing, and interpreting of data. First, the model assumed that the teacher was a passive recipient, thereby discounting any potential contribution of the teacher. As a sole description of teacher socialization for these teachers, this model did not consider their autonomous nature. During pre-service training these teachers were encouraged to experiment with various teaching methods and to develop individual styles of teaching. These teachers continued to take an active role in developing their own teacher role identities. Although the model did not fully accommodate the interactive creative nature of these teacher, the model did acknowledge the personal learning the teachers may have acquired from past observations and experiences.

Second, since the functional theory of socialization assumes a relatively static society, the model may not have accommodated change to the educational system through creative or constructive means. The content of the internship program and the advice of the mentors encouraged creative problem solving and experimentation. The social activism of our age demands a renewed examination of the

traditional concept of socialization. Not all adults assume a relatively static society and, specific to this study, this assumption was not shared by these first-year teachers.

Finally, the traditional conceptualization of socialization assumes a homogeneous society. The cellular nature of our schools do not lend themselves to homogeneous attitudes and values. Consensus was evident in various situations for these teachers, but consensus was highly unlikely on all matters.

The model was a valid means to organize, describe, and analyze the data. However, a more complex, more individualized schematization is necessary to understand and explain the socialization of first-year teachers. The schema should accommodate institutional indoctrination, anticipatory socialization, self-socialization, and the interactive dimensions of socialization.

Additional Research Questions. The induction of first-year teachers involves a complex of interrelated phenomena. Additional research questions have surfaced which may be helpful in further comprehending its complexity. Among them:

1. What is the relationship between overcoming survival and management concerns and effective induction programs?
2. In schools where norms of collegiality and experimentation prevail, do new teachers prepared in traditional teacher education programs exhibit Fuller's progression of concerns?



3. What roles do teachers' organizations play in shaping teacher socialization?
4. Are the outcomes of teacher socialization linked to age, previous occupational experience, gender, or grade level?
5. Are there relationships between the specifics of the CPEP internship and beginning teachers' problems and concerns?
6. How does matching first-year teaching assignments with professional preparation affect the induction process?
7. Do CPEP prepared beginning teachers produce the same student learning outcomes or other outcomes in their classrooms as experienced teachers?
8. What impact do different types of school environments have upon the induction experiences of CPEP trained teachers?
9. What are the relationships between beginning teachers' socialization and staff collaboration?
10. When and how do prospective teachers learn about and practice planning? What kinds of planning do they practice?
11. Do induction programs contribute to or hinder new teachers' estimation of their own efficacy?

#### Suggested Changes in Methodology and Procedures

Subjects. Since the subjects were a small number of volunteers from the CPEP internship, additional subjects could be randomly selected from a wider range of grade levels. Care should be taken to isolate the variables of age, gender, and grade level.

Procedures. Instrumentation could be simplified through an interview protocol which probes additional factors influencing beginning teacher socialization and the outcomes of those factors. Utilizing what was learned from this study, the interview protocol could be more specifically designed to explore socializing agents, the content which is transmitted, and the uniqueness of their problems and accommodations.

A comparative research study which examines the relative concern intensities of teachers who have been traditionally prepared and those prepared in a CPEP internship would extend the knowledge in this area. This comparison would need to minimize bias in the recruitment and selection variable of CPEP interns.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations contribute to the field of teacher education and should be of interest to four major professional audiences: school site administrators who supervise beginning teachers, staff development administrators who organize in-service programs, governing bodies which regulate teacher training and teacher certification, and university personnel who design and supervise teacher preparation programs. Because of the limitations of this study,

the recommendations may not be representative of the needs of all beginning teachers.

#### Recommendations for School Site Administrators

1. Administrators, especially when they act as informal agents, are a socializing influence on beginning teachers. Those administrators in supervisory and evaluative roles should support beginning teachers through verbal and written praise, offer friendly advice and encouragement, and invite them to share ideas and plans. Administrators should invite the teachers to be full partners in the study of teaching and learning. Planning additional formal and informal observations has the potential of reducing the uncertainty of not knowing what occurs in the classroom and of inaccurate self-appraisals. Regular supervision lessens the collaboration and refocusing concerns, and ensures that beginning teachers are adequately coping with their teaching responsibilities.
2. Prior to providing release time for seminars and planning, administrators should accurately determine the concerns, problems, and specific growth needs of the beginning teachers. Such data

would be helpful in designing opportunities to meet these concerns.

3. The problems of beginning teachers have been well documented. Analysis of the problems of these beginning teachers suggests that administrators should create a climate in which the first-year teachers can be more effective. Their effectiveness will be enhanced by limiting the number of students in their classrooms, taking care when assigning students in their classes, carefully selecting extra-duty responsibilities which do not create additional clerical or physical demands, setting clerical expectations by arranging staff meetings well in advance, publishing upcoming clerical demands, and facilitating easy access to instructional materials and professional development resources.
4. School district induction programs should continue to provide orientation sessions and train mentors for sustaining formal and informal influences. Beginning teachers should have the opportunity to select the mentors who most closely match their instructional strategies and management philosophies. Monthly meetings with new teachers on a formal basis as well as in informal settings might sustain the collegial

relationship. Opportunities should be provided for support groups consisting of other first-year teachers in which they can share ideas and materials.

5. New teachers need to continue their observations of experienced teachers. Since novice teachers tend to teach as they have been taught and hence may be using instructional approaches which may limit their professional development, beginning teachers should be encouraged to continue observations of experienced teachers in a variety of settings as they practice various instructional strategies.
6. Administrators should provide time for planning and reflective thinking. Providing planning time for beginning teachers has the potential to improve their teaching behaviors and, as a by-product, ease their management concerns. Continued reflective thinking can be accomplished through journal writing and stimulated recall of video tape recordings. Neophyte teachers should be encouraged to discuss their thinking, perceptions, decisions, and intentions.

#### Recommendations for Staff Development

7. Novice teachers need time to study together,

share ideas and experiences, discuss problems, and generate solutions. They need time to observe each other and provide feedback to one another as a group problem solving effort. Collegial interactions with other beginning teachers as well as experienced teachers will enable beginning teachers to build interpersonal communication skills, to familiarize themselves with the clinical nature of supervision while practicing reflective thinking, and to build trust relations. A wide array of rewards should be offered which meets their needs. Beginning teacher staff development should be balanced with meeting the teacher's need for adequate planning time, privacy, and physical demands.

8. The behaviors of these first-year teachers expressed a high degree of autonomy. Perhaps this autonomy created the relatively intense concern and the high priority problem for working collaboratively with other staff members. Staff development programs should design cooperative measures which encourage the sharing of ideas and working collaboratively with experienced teachers.

#### Recommendations for Governing Bodies

9. As beginning teachers experience their first

year of teaching, they become knowledgeable sources for improving the profession. Governing and certification bodies must continue to coordinate feedback sessions. These agencies must continue to study the needs of beginning teachers. Continued feedback should be utilized to create or alter the rationales used to include certain behaviors as standards that teachers must meet.

10. One possible source of these beginning teachers' successful experiences might have been their intern training. Although additional studies should be conducted, governing agencies should require prospective teachers to spend quality time in the classroom prior to certification. These agencies should promote a linkage between the university and public schools during training and during the first year of teaching experience. A primary goal of this linkage is to ensure proper assignment of beginning teachers by matching their employment with their preparation. This recommendation calls for an expansion of the clinical component in professional training programs.

#### Recommendations for University Personnel

11. The first few weeks of teaching are

important. The university should continue observations of first-year teachers through their first year of teaching. University personnel could attend to "planning" models and assist the teachers in reflective thinking. Such cooperative efforts between the university and the employing school district will allow beginning teachers to be more effective. University personnel should behave as consultants. They should view the problems of the beginning teacher from the perspective of a sympathetic insider. Their service should serve the teachers' own ends by providing food for thought which is responsive to the perceived needs of the teachers. The neophytes should continually be exposed to educational concepts and guided in the integration of theory with practice.

Although the focus of this study was induction rather than pre-service teacher education, the study's recommendations have implications for teacher training. Pre-service teacher education and training could assist beginning teachers by addressing their problems and concerns and by creating an awareness of the socialization process.

12. Prospective teachers are prepared to work



with children and young people. However, much of their communication is also with parents and administrators. Building administrators should meet with prospective teachers to build rapport and discuss school procedures. Prospective teachers should attend parent organization meetings, write newsletters, and call parents.

13. University coursework during the internship should continue to encourage teacher thinking so that beginning teachers can be better prepared to ask questions of themselves and of their behaviors and practices. Perhaps such reflective thinking is the most suitable method of reforming the profession without changing the form or content.
14. Universities should encourage mentor programs with public schools. Prospective teachers should be paired with experienced teachers who share common teacher role identities.

These research findings must be interpreted in the context of the nature of the CPEP program. The curriculum content of the CPEP training program and the contextual factors of the school and district were contributing factors in the socialization of these first-year teachers. Further investigations should be conducted to explore teacher socialization outcomes in terms of specific dimensions of training programs, induction programs, and contextual

factors. Future research and development efforts should seek to understand the socialization of teachers in multiple contexts.

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APPENDIX A

SCHEMA FOR EXPLORING THE SOCIALIZATION  
OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

-----  
SOCIOLOGY/SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

-----  
SOCIALIZATION THEORY

Functionalist  
Latency  
Interactive

-----  
STAGES OF SOCIALIZATION

Adult

-----  
STAGES OF ADULT SOCIALIZATION

Occupational

-----  
OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

-----  
TEACHER SOCIALIZATION

Induction Preparation  
First-year  
-----

## APPENDIX B

### FALL INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. During your beginning weeks of school, what were you most enjoyable times?  
What was the easiest part or parts of your teaching?  
What were your most successful experiences?
2. During your beginning weeks of school, were there any major problems? If so, what were your major problems?  
What caused you the most difficulty?  
What was the least enjoyable?
3. When you arranged your classroom, what were your major considerations?  
Describe how you arranged the classroom.  
Did you use anyone else's ideas?  
Have you made any changes?
4. When you planned your daily schedule, what were your major considerations?  
Describe your daily schedule.  
Did you use anyone else's ideas?  
Have you made any changes?
5. What classroom management routines did you implement at the beginning of the school year?  
Describe your classroom management system.  
Did you use anyone else's ideas?  
Have you made any changes?
6. How are you teaching the basic skills?  
Describe your process.  
Did you use anyone else's ideas?  
Have you made any changes?
7. Is there anything that you are determined NOT to do during your first year of teaching? (Optional question: Is there something in your past, when you were a student or student teacher, which gave you negative feelings regarding the teaching-learning process that you intend never to do as a teacher?)  
Why?

8. Do you have a support system for this year?  
Describe them in terms of their roles.  
Have they been assigned? Does the district pay them?  
How are they helpful?  
What kinds of questions or concerns do you bring to them?  
If there is a void in your support system, what kinds of support would you like?
9. If you had a "free day" this week to use professionally, how would you use it?  
Why use it in that way?  
For what kinds of things do you need more time? Why?
10. How many hours per week do you spend professionally?
11. If you had a day of in-service, a day set aside to help you improve your teaching, what topic or what focus would you choose?  
Why?
12. Is the reality of this teaching position different from your internship?  
Explain: What did you expect? What is different?  
What could be added to the internship program?
13. Were there any responsibilities added to your instructional work?  
What are they?  
How do you feel about these additional responsibilities?  
Did you select them yourself? or negotiated?  
Have they helped you gain experience/knowledge?
14. How would you evaluate your teaching so far?  
Why? (Give a rationale for your explanation.)
15. Is there anything else you would like to mention regarding your first weeks of teaching?

## APPENDIX C

### SPRING INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. During your first year of teaching, what were your most enjoyable times?  
What was the easiest part or parts of your teaching?  
What were your most successful experiences?
2. During your first year of school, did you have any major problems? If so, what were your major problems?  
What caused you the most difficulty?  
What was least enjoyable?  
What changes would you implement next year to lessen or alleviate the problem?  
What situation effected your teaching the most?
3. As you arranged your classroom, what were your major considerations?  
What or who influenced your decisions for arrangements?  
Did you make any changes during this year? Why?  
Will you make any changes for next year?
4. As you plan your schedule next year, what will be your major considerations?  
What will your schedule look like? Describe it.  
Did you use anyone else's ideas?
5. What classroom management routines will you implement next year?  
Who or what influenced you the most?  
Where would you rate yourself as a manager--between participation management and dictator? Why?  
During your first weeks next year, is there anything you would add or change?
6. Is there anything you are determined not to do next year that you did this year?  
Who or what influenced this decision?
7. Did you have a support system for this year?  
Describe them in terms of their roles.

- Were they assigned or selected? How? If not, how?  
Were they helpful? How?  
What kinds of support would you like next year?  
How did you handle or adapt to your role as a  
first-year teacher?  
What did you do to help you feel comfortable with  
other faculty members?
8. Is the reality of this first-year different from your  
internship?  
Explain the difference(s), if any?  
Was there a match between your teaching assignment and  
your training?  
Are there any experiences which could have been  
included in your internship that would have been  
helpful?
9. Were there any responsibilities added to your  
instructional work?  
What were they?  
How were they added?  
How do you feel about these added responsibilities?  
Were any useful to your development?
10. What kinds of staff development were available to you  
this year?  
Were they beneficial? How?  
What would you recommend as being most useful?
11. React to the conditions of your work in terms of your  
workplace, status, experiences, assignment,...
12. What were your most satisfying experiences this year?  
What were your least satisfying experiences this  
year?
13. What do you consider to be your strongest content  
areas?  
What do you consider to be your weakest content  
areas?
14. How would you evaluate your first year of teaching?  
Why?  
What is needed to help you improve?  
Do you see this as a career? Why or why not?
15. Is there anything else you'd like to mention regarding  
your first year of teaching?

16. For teachers with split classes--As a first-year teacher I'd like you to reflect on teaching a split. Any great Joys? Frustrations? Benefits? What kind of preparation did you receive? How useful? What could have been done to help you be better prepared?

## APPENDIX D

### SUMMARY OF CASE STUDY FINDINGS (Using a Model of Socialization)

Name	Age	Std. Tchng Setting	First-year Assignment	Contextual Environmental Factors
1. Steph	28	suburban 3/4 split	rural 3/4 split 1 yr. assign. began 3 wks late no added resp. volunteer for art committee supervises recess and lunch	489 students (K-6) no formal support system self-contained classroom departmentalized PE/music outside entrance only 21 students (12 -3rd grade) high 3rd, low 4th commuting community parents middle class prof. parent night 1st day of tch only 1st year tchr in bldg textbook series different for each grade eat lunch with only 4 tchrs
2. Jill	26	suburban kindergarten	inner city 1/2 split switched to 1st on 3rd wk no added resp. volunteer for two committees no supervision	589 students (pre K-5) no formal support system self-contained classroom departmentalized PE/music large classroom 24 students (13 -1st) high 1st, low 2nd all students qualified for government lunch program along busy street faculty cliquish ate lunch with lower grade teachers



## APPENDIX D (continued)

Name	Age	Stud. Tchng Setting	First-Year Assignment	Contextual Environment Factors
3. Tina	38	suburban 3rd grade	suburban 4th grade same school as last year supervision for AM & PM recess volunteer for school improv. committee	414 students (K-6) mentor assigned self-contained classroom departmentalized PE/music/ remedial reading/violin/ library skills 27 students plus 4 ELC new experienced principal middle/low SES few TAG students in bldg district testing program reading & math only 1st year tch in bldg
4. Kate	30	suburban 2nd grade	suburban 2nd grade same school as last year supervision for lunch, after school bus volunteer for science facil- itator	451 students (K-6) mentor assigned self-contained classroom departmentalized PE/music 24 students open classroom structure classroom away from other 2nd grade rooms small classroom in new residential area moderate middle class only 1st year tch in bldg

## APPENDIX E

Fall (October)		Spring (May)	
Agents	Content transmitted	Agents	Content transmitted
1. <u>Steph</u>			
boy friend	ideas for teaching		
intern mentor	project ideas just talk management ideas	intern mentor	management ideas
other staff	management ideas routines room arrangement teaching split	other staff	asking questions not start unit in May her kid's behavior art committee ideas not always comfortable
principal	evaluation office support discipline ideas	principal	
herself	schedule	herself	computer instruction schedule for reading no Science at end of day theater production assertive discipline teaching experience
internship	observations negative attitudes of exp. teachers learning styles	internship	
textbooks	curriculum guides ideas written questions	textbooks	math/writing workbooks
students	need for management need for rewards	students	it's their room scheduling needs need for management consistency use assert. discipline w/ logical conseq.
biography	remembers going to school and workbooks	biography	negative attitudes of teachers she'd had
		previous tchr	arrangement of room change helps keeps enthusiasm for tch
		environment	schedule interruptions (recess, PE, music) isolated setting loud bathroom in room
		Univ. advisor	instructional advice

## APPENDIX E (continued)

Fall		Spring	
Agents	Content Transmitted	Agents	Content Transmitted
<b>2. <u>Jill</u></b>			
Intern mentor	words of wisdom		
other staff	curr. packages	other staff	lack of their support
(exp.)	what they were doing	(exp.)	feel frustrated
	instructional suggest.		Jill's teaching style
	management suggestions		was unique
			no staff cohesion
other staff	survival needs	other staff	comfort
(1st year)		(1st year)	similar feelings
other first	gripe sessions	other first	share ideas
year tchrs	support, assurance	year tchrs	classroom management
principal	office paper work	principal	support
			uneasy bldg atmosphere
			lack of social skills
herself	management system		
internship	classroom setup	internship	feeling comfortable
	instructional ideas		familiar w/ curr.
			schedule
			ideas for writing inst
students	different kids	students	more time to work
	need to adjust also		different management
	handled differently		
biography	room arrangement	biography	classroom management
		(center crawls)	teaching experience
			room arrangement
environment	interruptive	environment	clientele - kids/staff
	moving 2nd to "1st"		affect my teaching
		textbooks	pull curr together
			can use same in 1st/2
inservice	reading/writing	inservice	discipline/language

## APPENDIX E (continued)

Fall		Spring	
Agents	Content Transmitted	Agents	Content Transmitted
<b>3. Tinna</b>			
family (aunt)	instructional ideas		
	materials		
mentor	materials	mentor	supportive
	encouragement		materials
	ideas for parent night		reinforcing
	meet regularly		mostly 1st half of yr.
intern mentor	schedule	intern mentor	schedule
other staff	grouping ideas	other staff	how cover curr. with
			extra recess
			her class needs more
			control
principal	support	principal	positive input
			support of her ideas
herself	room arrangement	herself	room arrangement
internship	ITIP strategies		
	management strategies		
	group processes		
	ideas thru observations		
students	attention spans	students	need to help high/low
biography	philosophy of life		
	usefulness of testing		
reading	management strategies		
university sup	management ideas		
environment	number of students	environment	negative staff members
	not enough books/desks		number of students
	schedule already planned		keep mouth shut more
	AM supervision hard		district testing prog.
	district testing program		
		course work	group process
			children lit
			classroom management
		inservice	science
			1st year teachers
			spelling
			reading
			story telling
		parents	extreme views

## APPENDIX E (continued)

Fall		Spring	
Agents	Content Transmitted	Agents	Content Transmitted
<b>4. <u>Kate</u></b>			
family-sister intern mentor mentor	ideas on management the teaching day social time share materials practical suggestions formal (met 2 times a wk)	intern mentor	classroom routines
other staff	encouragement room arrangement advice prepare for coming events	other staff	just talk their dislike for one of her students room arrangement discipline supportive
principal	evaluations supportive	principal	
		herself	science facilitator students sit with back to her
internship	planning task analysis management/ITIP being too strict/quick to discipline what/how to teach	internship	conducting a class better than classes
textbooks	basic skills use them a lot	textbooks	teach out of text no curr guides for SS liked me a lot
		students	need for room arrgnt.
reading	room arrangement classroom management		
environment	set schedules paper work from office placement tests	environment	time on curr staff responsibilities demands after teaching day-meetings, survey
		parents inservice	said nice things new teacher science workshops computer education

## APPENDIX F

### SUMMARY OF BEHAVIORAL AND SYSTEM SUSTAINING OUTCOMES

Fall	Spring
Stephanie	
<u>Instructional Behaviors</u>	
concentrate on thinking skills	think the way (students) think
learning style instruction	likes teaching spontaneously
decide "what" to teach, then how	likes discovery approach
write word problems instead just +	lot of activities
teach beyond basal-need to apply	
<u>Instructional Focus</u>	
student	student
<u>Management Behaviors</u>	
being in control	sees self as participation manager
create student responsibility	and dictator-depends on day
prepare kids for independence	less tolerant now
rewards and incentives (stickers)	next year more assertive
wants to use assertive discipline	not going to nag
positive reinforcement	
<u>Social Strategy</u>	
internalized adjustment	strategic compliance
strategic compliance	strategic redefinition
<u>System Sustaining Behaviors</u>	
felt successful	want to share teaching tasks
very positive self evaluation	shared science workshop materials
receiving positive staff feedback	looked for better ways to teach
	volunteered for committee work
	plans to get masters degree
	considering sixth grade position
	same positive attitude for 5 yrs.
	taught computer class to staff

## APPENDIX F (continued)

Fall	Spring
Jill	
<u>Instructional Behaviors</u>	
wants integrated curriculum meeting developmental needs need to go through curr. guides meaningful instructional exp.	integrated curriculum set up like early childhood ed.
<u>Instructional Focus</u>	
student	student
<u>Management Behaviors</u>	
- need to get organized need for new management strategies	high management expectations stay out of power struggles w/ stdt self as primarily participation manager-sometimes dictator
<u>Social Strategy</u>	
strategic compliance	internalized adjustment strategic compliance
<u>System Sustaining Behaviors</u>	
last 8 days I've had a good day	felt successful with management close to other 1st yr teachers involvement with whole language organization other teachers didn't realize she was 1st year teacher worked on several committees attended variety of conferences

## APPENDIX F (continued)

Fall	Spring
Tinna	
<u>Instructional Behaviors</u>	
programs for high achievers plan for the kids needs lots of direct instruction wanted more group work caring - not isolate students - not put students down reliance on mostly textbook	wants more "hands on" learning wants more instructional variety wants creative lesson plans
<u>Instructional Focus</u>	
teacher control	teacher and student focused
<u>Management Behaviors</u>	
set behavioral expectations control focused on classroom procedures started with high degree of control then set classroom up to help stdt positive reinforcer taught students proper behavior consistent with behavioral problems	wanted order/control wanted everybody cooperating wanted to be better at teaching behavior self more as participation manager
<u>Social Strategy</u>	
internalized adjustment strategic compliance	strategic compliance strategic redefinition
<u>System Sustaining Behavior</u>	
interested in taking classes	wanted to teach different age group wants others to observe her wants to go to summer school thought she supported the mentor status not concern her going to get Masters Degree continually supported principal



## APPENDIX F (continued)

Fall	Spring
Kate	
<u>Instructional Behavior</u>	
classroom arranged with kids needs in mind (rows) wants more teaching techniques wants more creative lesson plans adjust schedule and curriculum to fit transitional needs	wants to improve Math instruction worked in groups more creative lesson plans
<u>Instructional Focus</u>	
teacher focus student oriented	teacher oriented student focused
<u>Management Behaviors</u>	
controlled classroom encouraged independence strict at first made up own rules consistent-think before discipline practiced, modelled and reinforced rules	classroom management was easy still concern for control develop student independence self as diplomatic manager not embarrass kids felt she was inconsistent
<u>Social Strategy</u>	
strategic compliance	internalized adjustment
<u>System Sustaining Behavior</u>	
sees self as 4th year teacher science facilitator wants to take course in classroom management	shared ideas with staff from in-services and conferences people treated me with respect wants to observe other teaching wants to share more ideas

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**These consist of pages:**

262-265, Concerns Questionnaire

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