

PRE-TEACHING CONCERNS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study was done to investigate the types and intensity of teaching concerns preservice teachers have during their coursework and how these are connected to early field experiences (EFE). A survey was conducted comparing preservice teachers in an on-campus versus an on-site course at a local elementary school. Participants (N = 99) were asked about 26 types of concerns and these groups were compared; only one significant difference was found, that the on-campus group had more general teaching concerns than the on-site group. Fuller's (1969; 1974) research on immature versus mature teaching concerns was corroborated by the survey items and factor analyses, although no change over time was found. School-based field experiences were significantly listed by both groups as being the most useful experience in their teacher education; therefore, it is recommended that opportunities be created for preservice teachers to participate in EFEs.

Keywords: preservice teacher, teaching concerns, early field experience

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Thesis statement

All teachers have concerns as they begin intensively learning about the field. The types and intensity of concerns may vary over time. Concerns often begin about the self and progress to concerns about the specific teaching task, culminating with concerns about pupils' learning (Fuller, 1969; 1974). Since the goal of teaching is to educate students, "an important task for teacher education is helping teachers to implement their concerns about pupils since better teaching is probably associated with concerns about pupils rather than concerns about self" (Fuller & Bown, 1975, p. 40). How can teacher preparation programs help resolve early concerns about self and teaching tasks to encourage teacher growth and progress to helping students learn? How can teacher preparation programs be improved to prepare teachers more effectively to be successful in educating students? Are early and extensive field experiences a possible improvement to be made in many teacher preparation programs? If these questions can be answered, perhaps it will contribute to the betterment of teacher preparation programs so that they may be more useful for teachers-to-be and, consequentially, their future students.

Statement of the Problem

Many studies have been done on pre-service/student teachers, new teachers, and their concerns/problems, but not as many on how these are connected to early field experiences. This signals a gap in the literature that this study may help remedy.

Terminology Definitions

For continuity throughout the discussion, a brief definition of major terminology is provided here. The definition of terminology that is used infrequently will be embedded within the text.

Early Field Experience (EFE)

Research refers to “early field experiences” in a variety of ways. Some research is very general in its use of this term, referring to anything from freshman (Maxie, 2001; Suleiman, 1998; Trepanier-Street, 2007) through senior year of college (Capraro, Capraro, & Helfeldt, 2010; Harty, Anderson, & Enochs, 1984), and anything from just observations (Denton, 1982; Heinemann, Obi, Pagano, & Weiner, 1992; Dueck, Altmann, Haslett, & Latimer, 1984) through hands-on classroom teaching (Gimbert, 2001; Heath, 1994; Dueck et al., 1984; Knight, 1975; Scherer, 1979; Wingfield & Ramsey, 1999).

Some research even refers to student teaching as an early field experience; these references have been excluded from this study because student teaching and early field experiences are considered distinct in this research. Even early field experiences prior to student teaching vary in the amount of detail provided regarding their definition.

According to Huling and ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education (1988), in an early field experience, teacher candidates observe and work with real students, teachers, and curriculum in natural P-12 settings prior to student teaching.

Dodds (1989) provides a more detailed definition: “Early field experiences precede student teaching and are usually shorter. They provide chances to observe children and teachers, assist with small groups, tutor a single child, or find out about a school’s daily

operations” (p. 82). An additional and more extensive definition is provided by Capraro, Capraro, and Helfeldt, (2010):

Field experiences are defined as a variety of early and systematic P-12 classroom-based opportunities in which teacher candidates (TCs) may observe, assist, tutor, instruct, and/or conduct research. While field experiences generally occur in schools they may also take place in other settings such as community based agencies (p. 131).

The simplest definition found was that early field experiences are off campus teaching episodes in a school environment working with groups of students (LaMaster, 2001). For the purposes of this research, an early field experience (EFE) is a hands-on teaching interaction with students in a P-12 classroom occurring prior to student teaching for an extended period of time (i.e. at least throughout one semester). This would also allow teacher candidates to learn about a school’s daily operations (Dodds, 1989). The reader should note that the university at which this study was conducted also uses the terms “applications” and “methods” courses as early field experiences, but the term EFE will be used for the purposes of this paper.

Preservice Teacher

In this data set preservice teachers are defined as persons in college who, as of the time of this study, were intent on becoming teachers and were taking courses pertaining to this goal. For the purposes of this paper, preservice teachers have not yet started their student teaching. All references to students pertain to those persons enrolled in elementary or secondary schools whom preservice teachers educate in field experiences and will teach in the future when they become teachers (Assaf, Garza, & Battle, 2010;

Gimbert, 2001; Harty, Anderson, & Enochs, 1984; Kagan, 1992; Knight, 1975; LaMaster, 2001; Wagler, 2008; Wingsfield & Ramsey, 1999).

Student Teacher

In research and discussion and for the purposes of this study, student teachers are distinct from preservice teachers in that student teachers are further in their education than preservice teachers. Student teachers are intended to be working in a classroom as their main task for the semester, being at the school site essentially full-time (Hanline, 2010; Heath, 1994; Kagan, 1992; McCullough & Mintz, 1992; McDermott, Gormely, Rothenberg, & Hammer, 1995; Poulou, 2007; Scherer, 1979; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Wagler, 2008; Wilson & Cameron, 1996).

Cooperating Teacher

In research and discussion, cooperating teachers are distinct from preservice teachers in that cooperating teachers (also referred to in literature as mentor teachers) are those persons who are certified teachers whom preservice teachers work with during their EFEs and/or student teaching. They are models and mentors for preservice teachers in their field experiences (Becker, 2008; Bercik, 1992; Dodds, 1989; Fuller & Bown, 1975; Hanline, 2010; Heath, 1994; Heinemann et al., 1992; Kagan, 1992; Wagler, 2008).

Research Questions

Fuller (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975) developed a theoretical framework or conceptualization of how preservice teachers develop and mature over time. Fuller's research indicated that preservice teachers move through several stages of concerns as

they develop throughout their education, training, and service. Preservice teachers begin with no concerns as they have yet to be exposed or aroused to the realities of teaching (Fuller & Bown, 1975). From there, preservice teachers move on to focusing on self concerns, such as whether they are able to teach and what others will think of them. Beyond this, preservice teachers demonstrate concerns about the teaching task (e.g. lesson plans and time management). Both self and teaching task concerns are considered to be early, immature stages. The end stage is to be concerned with student learning, which is the most mature of the stages (Fuller, 1969; 1974).

Fuller's (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975) research suggests that in order to progress through these stages of concern to reach the end stage of concern with student learning (the importance being that by this stage, students will get the most out of their learning experience; Fuller & Bown, 1975), many EFEs are needed. First, EFEs are useful in arousing preservice teachers to the realities of teaching so they can begin developing concerns. Then, EFEs provide structured ways in which preservice teachers can work through the concerns to develop more mature concerns, thus leading to more successful teaching earlier on in their careers (Fuller, 1974). I begin to explore EFEs and their relationship to preservice teachers' teaching-related concerns through the following questions:

1. Does Fuller's (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975) developmental conceptualization of teachers and their concerns hold true for preservice teachers?
2. Do EFEs move preservice teachers through the early stage(s) of teacher concerns faster and/or more effectively than preservice teachers in similar classes

that do not involve EFEs? In other words, do preservice teachers in classes involving EFEs versus preservice teachers in similar classes that do not involve EFEs have different levels (based on a Likert scale) and types (according to Fuller, 1969; 1974) of concerns over the duration of a semester?

3. What types of experiences do preservice teachers find most helpful in their education? Are EFEs noted by preservice teachers as being valuable? Are they more valuable than other types of experiences?

Overview of the Research Project

Chapter two reviews literature about EFEs, teacher concerns, and preservice teacher experiences by decade and by evidence for the necessity of EFEs. Chapter three focuses on the research methodology of the study. Chapter four explores the results of the data analyses, and chapter five concludes the study by interpreting the results and examining the limitations and contributions of the study. Next steps in research are also suggested as well as an alternative model for the preparation of teachers-to-be.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

Teacher education has been studied to various degrees since the mid twentieth century. Even today, researchers have not reached a consensus about the best way to educate and retain teachers. This is especially troublesome considering that as many as 50% of teachers leave the profession within their first five years of teaching (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). What has been found in research is that early field experiences (EFEs) show positive outcomes for both teachers and their pupils (Bleicher, Correia, & Buchanan, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2000; LaMaster, 2001; Lortie, 1975; McDermott et al., 1995; McIntyre, 1983; Poulou, 2007; Scherer, 1979; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Wagler, 2008; Wingfield & Ramsey, 1999). If EFEs can help to better prepare teachers to face the realities of the occupation, they should be more heavily incorporated into teacher preparation programs. It stands to reason that EFEs can help alleviate teacher concerns and move them from concerns about themselves to concerns about pupils' learning, which is the primary purpose of education. Therefore, this review of literature investigates the theoretical framework of teacher development provided by Fuller (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975), the importance of EFEs, and how they support each other.

The structure of the review of literature is first by decade to provide an overall perspective of research and changes over time regarding EFEs; then the benefits of EFEs are summarized. This review seeks to identify what, if any, connections between students,

teaching-related concerns, and early field experiences have been made within the existing literature and where contributions from future research are needed.

Methods

The literature discussed in this chapter is a mix of quantitative studies, qualitative studies, and literature reviews. Literature discussed in this review were selected based on relevancy to teacher preparation, teacher concerns, and EFEs. Article searches were run through ERIC and PsychInfo databases. Keywords used were: field experiences, early field experiences, teacher preparation, teacher preparation programs, teacher concerns, and Fuller. Other articles were selected that were pertinent from the author's previous coursework. Additional articles were pulled from the references of pertinent articles found through the previous methods. Literature that focused primarily on student teaching and beginning teachers were excluded.

Review by Decade

Foundations of Teacher Preparation and Early Field Experiences

Field experiences have been a part of teacher education as long as there have been schools of teacher education. In the mid to late 1800s, when these schools were being established, there was a wide variety of early field experiences; some included observations, some also included occasional lesson teaching with little preparation by the preservice teacher, and some had a lot more opportunities and independence for practice teaching. However, rhetoric about field experiences has not been consistent within teacher preparation programs nor with societal expectations of teachers over time (Adler,

1984). Even as the 1900s continued and field experiences placed more emphasis on social sciences and social issues in teaching, they were still embedded in programs that predominately emphasized technical skills and scientific research. While rhetoric shifted towards more hands-on early field experiences, in reality, observational hands-off experience was still being emphasized (Adler, 1984).

John Dewey began to investigate these discrepancies in the early 1900s and began to publish his findings in the 1930s (Adler, 1984). He noted that there were predominately two types of early field experiences: apprenticeship, which equipped teacher with tools and skill sets in teaching and management by shadowing an experienced teacher; and laboratory, which was practical application of theory into practice through hands-on experiences that involved less supervision and more independence. At the time, the focus was primarily on apprenticeship experiences. Dewey argued that laboratory experiences were more important and that they were not intended for the development of immediately proficiency, but rather improvement over time (Adler, 1984). He argued that if students gain immediate skill, it often comes at the cost of the power to continue growing; in other words, they may have more immediate success, but their skills may never improve beyond that point and they may end up being disappointed and disengaged from teaching (Dewey, 1964).

Dewey (1964) claimed that laboratory experiences should be systematically designed in order to be optimal for preservice teacher learning. They should begin with observations and assisting teachers with reflection and independent thinking; from there, the preservice teachers could progress one-on-one work with pupils, then focus on

technical skills and planning, then actual and intensive teaching with maximum liberty. Only after all of this has been done should they move on to student teaching. He supported this notion with the evidence that all professional schools (e.g. for doctors and lawyers) give typical and intensive, not detailed and extensive, practice to their students. Dewey argued that teachers needed to focus on independent thinking and reasoning skills in order to process and learn from their own mistakes and to holistically and scientifically correct their teaching habits (Dewey, 1964).

One of the issues Dewey (1964) found with field experiences was that they did not take place in ideal conditions, as the preservice teacher was never planning more than one unit at a time and was frequently, if not constantly, under supervision. They are usually not as responsible for classroom conditions, discipline, and outcomes as the cooperating teacher. Dewey (1964) described this as “learning to swim without going *too* near the water” (p. 317). He found this is likely to continue through student teaching as well. However, he also argued that preservice teachers cannot equally focus on both content and management at the same time anyway, and that they should be focusing on the classroom as a whole. Unfortunately, this leaves them unprepared to deal with their own future classrooms (Dewey, 1964). Therefore, while early field experiences are vital to teacher education, they need to be consecutive, systematic, and connected to coursework in order to build a preservice teacher experience towards being an effective teacher.

Pre-1970s: Phillip W. Jackson

Dewey's work in the 1930s continued to influence other researchers of teacher education. Phillip Jackson's research in the late 1960s added more to the discussion in terms of context, teacher roles, and the multiple responsibilities teachers must juggle all at once. Jackson (1968) demonstrated that it is not just teaching skills that preservice teachers are missing, but more importantly, they are not ready to deal with a full classroom and all of the responsibilities therein. Preservice teachers must learn to deal with time, crowd, and responsiveness issues, which they do not often face even in student teaching. Actions made by teachers are rapid and frequent; "the teacher engages in as many as 1000 interpersonal interchanges each day" (Jackson, 1968, p. 11). They also have many roles to fill, such as that of a gatekeeper (managing the flow of dialogue), supply sergeant (sometimes granting special privileges to certain students), official timekeeper, traffic cop, judge (pertaining to simultaneous academic and behavioral judgments and how to communicate them), and prison guard (allowing certain freedoms with real limits to involuntarily committed students).

Preservice teachers may also not realize the features of school life that impact teaching (Jackson, 1968). Teachers must consistently deal with issues pertaining to delay, denial, interruption, and social distraction. It is both difficult and skillful to predict how each individual student will respond to these issues. Dealing with these issues requires patience, which oftentimes must be practiced; teachers must be able to temporarily disengage and/or re-engage from emotions to address immediate situations as every action connotes a positive or negative value to students (Jackson, 1968). This balancing act is not something that can be learned overnight, or even in a semester of student

teaching; preservice teachers require consistent exposure so that they are prepared for the realities of teaching from the teacher's perspective. In sum, preservice teachers must be able to think of classrooms as social systems (as cited in Good, 2009) and have repeated exposure so that they can properly handle all aspects of classroom life. Jackson's (1968) work laid a foundation for studying teachers and students in context; in the next decade, Fuller (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975) went on to explore this in more depth to study preservice through full-time teachers and their concerns about teaching.

1960s-1970s: The Work of Frances F. Fuller

Fuller (1969) pioneered a theoretical framework for the problems with teacher preparation in the 1960s and examined the need for early field experiences. Fuller's research indicated that preservice teachers move through several stages of concerns as they develop over time. In the first stage, these students start out with no concerns as they are not aroused to any challenges involved with teaching (Fuller & Bown, 1975). From there, preservice teachers move on to focusing on self concerns, such as whether they are able to teach and what others will think of them. Beyond this, preservice teachers demonstrate concerns about the teaching task (e.g. lesson plans and time management). Both self and teaching task concerns are considered to be early, immature stages. The end stage is to be concerned with pupil learning, which is the most mature of the stages (Fuller, 1969; 1974). Fuller argues that it is important to move students towards pupil concerns because "better teaching is probably associated with concerns about pupils rather than concerns about self" (Fuller & Bown, 1975, p. 40). Fuller and Bown (1975)

even go so far as to imply that the initial focus on the self is a weakness that should be shortened or eliminated.

Fuller (1974) argues for the need for multiple early field experiences for a number of reasons. Fundamentally, she argues that preservice teachers do not know enough about teaching to be concerned about its realities; therefore, students will not be able to develop and resolve their concerns until they begin experiencing classrooms from a teaching perspective (Fuller, 1974). Her research implies that more hands-on experiences with teaching should help preservice teachers resolve self concerns and promote pupil concerns (Fuller & Bown, 1975). Fuller and Bown (1975) also argue that teachers are frustrated and angry in teacher education because their teaching preparation needs are not being adequately met and they do not know what to expect. Early field experiences can meet these needs and bridge the gap between when the preservice teacher was a K-12 student themselves and when they will be a teacher (Fuller & Bown, 1975). These experiences also arouse preservice teachers to process feedback, which allows them to approach teaching more realistically so they can have more chances to learn from mistakes and improve their teaching (Fuller, 1974).

1970s-1980s: The Contributions of Dan C. Lortie

Lortie (1975) echoed both Jackson (1968) and Fuller (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975) in his concerns about adequately preparing preservice teachers to enter the teaching profession. Lortie also argued that teaching issues need to be addressed early in order to prepare students for the reality of teaching. He points out that preservice teachers have spent the last 16 years of their lives in school, so they believe they can imitate teachers to

be good teachers. However, they are only shallowly learning about teaching using intuition and imitation while they are students themselves; they have not previously been developmentally ready to fully understand teaching or teachers, which leads to their underestimation of the difficulties of teaching (Lortie, 1975). This unrealistic optimism (as termed by Weinstein, 2008) is a problem that early field experiences may help address by addressing the realities of teaching early.

The early field experiences would also help preservice teachers decide early on if they truly want to be a teacher. If they do not, it is not too late to switch into another major. If they do want to be a teacher, EFEs help confirm their desire and ability to become teachers (Lortie, 1975). This is especially necessary because induction into teaching is short and not highly developed when compared to other occupations. Teachers are often forced to be individualistic in the 'sink or swim' mentality, which prevents the profession from having a common technical culture, i.e., a common set of optimal skills and habits, knowledge, values, and viewpoints of teaching. This is also aided by the fact that practical preparation courses portray unrealistic expectations and do not foster coping mechanisms and solutions for problems. Since teachers are forced to be individualistic and there is no common culture, it is difficult to develop strategies to raise the performance level of the group of teachers they are surrounded by, which poses a threat to the quality of the teaching profession (Lortie, 1975). The hope is that EFEs can encourage preservice teacher collaboration, which can then translate to group collaboration when they enter the occupation. Related to this, Lortie (1975) argued that EFEs should help reduce anxiety and develop better skills needed for successful teaching

and that these would be the only opportunities to allow for such development because new teachers are isolated and fully responsible as soon as they begin teaching full-time, and are held to the same expectations as veteran teachers.

Lortie (1975) also hoped that EFEs could address the realities of teachers' workloads and responsibilities early on so preservice teachers are prepared for what they will have to work with when they become full-time teachers. He also noted that formal instruction of pedagogy (i.e., pedagogical instruction in a university setting) should probably take place after one has had EFEs and/or teaching experience in order to build the currently lacking technical culture and exchange more well-grounded ideas with peers. This was supported by Lortie's (1975) study of Five Towns teachers; in his survey of how teachers learned how to teach, formal pedagogical instruction received a low percentage, similar to the percentages found for recreational work and motherhood experiences. Highest on the list was classroom experience (two thirds of teachers listed this, and often noted they learned by trial-and-error); again, this speaks to the need for multiple field experiences involving actual teaching practice. He also found that 38% of teachers learned their skills from other teachers, reiterating once again that field experiences involving cooperating teachers are beneficial for teacher learning. Later research done by Kagan (1992) supported Lortie's work and also discovered that EFEs would allow for the learning of additional procedural knowledge that is often not provided in university coursework.

Another important component of research done in the 1970s addressed the importance of self-concept and self-efficacy for teaching, and how EFEs could address

this need. This research was occurring at a time when research was starting to move away from the analysis of simple input and output variables of student achievement and starting to move towards more fully understanding the complex nature of how teachers can affect student achievement (Good, 2009). Bandura's (1978) discussions of self-efficacy show that the belief in how well one can teach is reciprocal with behavior; therefore, if teachers have higher self-efficacy in teaching, they will often be better teachers. This self-efficacy can be improved with multiple teaching experiences so that preservice teachers feel more prepared and confident to enter the occupation. Research by Scherer (1979) demonstrated that students with EFEs may have a lower self-concept at the beginning of field experiences as they face the reality shock of teaching, but also that EFEs help them resolve these conflicts and shocks by teaching the role expected of teachers earlier in their education. Students with EFEs demonstrated less conflict in self-concept by the end of their student teaching, revealing latent positive effects in self-concept, which correlated significantly with cooperating teachers' and supervisors' ratings of their performance on teaching competencies.

1980s-1990s: Continued Research by David Berliner and Others

Researchers continued to study self-efficacy and beginning teacher issues in the 1980s. This was a time when the reform swung from open choice back towards reaction to the nation's apparent inability to compete with other countries in *A Nation at Risk* (Good & Braden, 2000). Reformers pushed for more of everything except for choice, but unfortunately it was more of the same mediocre curriculum, so this reform ended up failing as well (McCaslin & Lavigne, 2010). Berliner (1986; 1988) found that teachers

were being evaluated too harshly, and many more researchers continued to discover that preservice teachers were not being adequately prepared to enter the profession. More support for the use of EFEs was also established through additional research.

Berliner (1988) highlighted five main stages of teacher development from novice through expert. The only stage that is pertinent to this discussion is novice, as these are the raw recruits, often student and first-year teachers. Berliner (1988) argued that real-world experience is more important than verbal information and that only minimal skill should be expected from novices as they have not had much experience and have been taught rules and terminology out of context. Berliner (1988) supported the need for EFEs when he stated, “novices need extensive time in the field to make sense of classroom life” (p. 60). He also noted that teachers are often expected to have reflective practice, but it is hard to be reflective and gain competency without experience, which again speaks to the need of EFEs. Berliner (1986) also notes the importance of studying expert teachers because they demonstrate skills (e.g. automation of procedures, inferential student schema, and higher order categorization of problems) that cannot simply be taught in coursework, but must be experienced and developed over time. He stated that solving problems of classroom organization and management in sensible ways took no less than five years for the majority of teachers; this suggests that preservice teachers with more EFEs might get a head start on those without EFEs in working towards this expertise (Berliner, 1986).

Berliner’s research echoes that of Fuller’s by promoting the need for EFEs and demonstrating a progression of teacher development that occurs over a long period of

time, much like Fuller's levels of concerns. Applegate and Lasley (1986) also support Fuller's statements by noting that teachers do not understand realities or responsibilities when they enter the job; they are often too idealistic. This unrealistic optimism was substantiated by Weinstein (1988), who found through a survey of preservice teachers that they believed they would experience less difficulty than the average first-year student. Weinstein argued the need to prevent this reality shock and recommends having teachers educated in a cohort in order to have more opportunities for social comparison to reduce optimistic biases. Similar to research from previous decades, EFEs were found to provide the opportunity for students to "determine their suitability for the teaching profession and assess their desire to enter it" (Dueck, Altmann, Haslett, & Latimer, 1984, pp. 34-35). They were also still found to give students a more realistic perception of a teacher's role and gave them more confidence in their teaching (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). Denton (1982) similarly found that EFEs were associated with making teacher education programs more "realistic, practical, and stimulating" (p. 19).

This evidence is especially important due to the high and sometimes contradictory demands placed on teachers. Alder (1984) noted that, "teachers are expected to apply techniques that are regarded as neutral, objective, and beyond human involvement" (p. 13); yet they are also still held accountable to community (local and national) demands. This makes teachers powerless in policy and structure, and thus less likely to be reflective. These arguments, along with Berliner's (1988) evidence that novice teachers are often evaluated too harshly, showed the need for EFEs so that students could work through their beginning concerns/fears and move towards being reflective early on so they can

continue to develop and become more successful teachers over time. However, this research was gathered at a time when research was starting to move back towards studying input and output variables, focusing less on observational analyses; therefore, while more research was being compiled, less was actually being understood about how and why teachers affect student achievement (Good, 2009).

1990s-2000s: Resurgence in Fuller-related Research and More Educational Reforms

The 1990s saw several reform statements that continued to make teacher education more strenuous and difficult for teachers and students to meet demands. The *Prisoners of Time* report in 1994 claimed that even after 11 years, the same problems in education still existed as in 1983 (Good & Braden, 2000). Concurrently, *Goals 2000* was established, which set very high standards that were expected to be met in less than a decade. Then the *National Education Summit* (1996) pushed for higher standards, technology use, and small group instruction. Despite these reports and reforms, student performance still did not improve. It also exacerbated the achievement gap between impoverished and affluent students (McCaslin & Lavigne, 2010). These strict standards and increasingly high expectations left teachers even more unprepared and their needs were often not met in a timely or orderly manner. This further reiterated the need for EFEs in teacher preparation.

Resurgence in literature that supports Fuller's original work is seen in the 1990s. Kagan (1992) completed a literature review of 40 studies that took place between 1987-1991; she found that many of the studies described a similar progression of concerns as Fuller's stages (from self to pupil concerns) and Berliner's stages of teacher development

(novice through expert). One problem with this literature review, however, was that the literature did not share common variables, thus making it difficult to provide generalizations. Kagan (1992) also groups preservice and first-year teaching together into one developmental stage because she argues teacher preparation programs fail to address the needs of either. She argues for less oversimplification of teacher education and emphasizes the need for extended interaction with pupils, connection of theory to practice, and more focus on self-reflection (Kagan, 1992).

McCullough and Mintz (1992) found that entry level students (second year students) and student teachers (fifth year students) had different types of teaching concerns. Entry level students focused on self-concerns (personal) and student teachers were more focused on teaching and some pupil concerns (instructional). These data are based on what questions these students chose to ask a practicing teacher in an interview. The five-year program studied by McCullough and Mintz (1992) was designed to allow preservice teachers to reflect on their role and concerns before becoming teachers, helping them to effectively deal with concerns throughout teaching. Karge, Sandin, & Young (1993) found that teachers progressed from self to teaching task concerns by the end of their first teaching year. Their results implied that classroom-based experiences should occur throughout the entire teacher preparation program, beginning with procedural and management lessons and progressing towards more complex strategies, which would account for student developmental growth. Heath's (1994) research supports Fuller and Bown (1975) in that preservice teachers were most concerned about surviving and the feelings their pupils have toward them.

McDermott, Gormely, Rothenberg, and Hammer (1995) compared student teachers with many hours of prior practicum experience with graduate students who had no prior practicum experience and found that students with prior experience were more concerned with pupils' learning and less concerned about what others thought of their teaching (self concerns) than did students without prior experience (although both groups still showed some concern about all of these). Wilson and Cameron (1996) found that students in the final year of a teacher preparation program addressed a greater amount of issues and more complex issues concerning pupil learning than first year students. These students were concerned about relationships with their pupils early on, but any mentions of relationships by students in their final year were primarily related to pupil outcomes. Clement (1999) found that student teachers are overly stressed, which prevented them from improving in their performance, and the top four concerns of student teachers were self-concerns.

The implications of teacher preparation programs through these studies were not only to include EFEs, but also that they were failing to address the needs of preservice teachers in an adequate, timely, or orderly manner. As mentioned previously, Kagan (1992) made numerous suggestions for how to improve these issues based on the 40 studies she reviewed. McCullough and Mintz (1992) found that if teachers were not given time to reflect, they focus more on technical skills and lose sight of the broader teaching perspective. Karge (1993) notes that EFEs would help make the transition from being a student to student teaching to induction smoother and easier. In terms of addressing preservice teacher concerns, McDermott et al. (1995) suggested that methods courses be

integrated with classroom teaching. In the 1990s, it was still found that beginning teachers are expected to perform the same as experienced teachers, which is unrealistic (Reynolds, 1995).

However, it should be noted that even if teachers receive some type of field experience, this does not speak to the quality or quantity of experiences they receive. Many teachers do not have field experiences until their last year or even last semester of college when they are about to graduate and become full-time teachers. Even those teachers who participate in earlier field experiences do not necessarily benefit from them. Early field experiences that involve mere observation are not enough; imagine learning to ice skate just from watching and taking notes on the Olympics (Huling & ERIC, 1998). Prospective teachers have problems with classroom and time management, how to meet diverse needs of students, and not knowing what to expect (Applegate & Lasley, 1986). These must all be addressed if an early field experience is to be useful for a teacher candidate.

There are other difficulties in the school system that prevent quality early field experiences from taking place. If there are too many teacher candidates in a particular program, this can make the quality of placement in a field experience difficult. To have a permanent relationship between a college or university and a P-12 school requires time, resources, commitment, collaboration, and data collection to see if goals are being accomplished. This does not always happen. Creating quality early field experiences also requires sensitivity and change over time; just because a teacher educator may have once been a teacher does not mean that what they needed in their training reflects what current

teacher candidates need in their current training. Dedicated university faculty are needed to collaborate across relevant courses in order to connect course material to the practicum setting without redundancy and in a manner that chronologically makes sense (Huling & ERIC, 1998). Not all EFEs incorporate these essential components and therefore may not all be meeting the needs of preservice teachers.

Capraro, Capraro and Helfeldt (2010) add that explicit purposes of the early field experience must be explained to the teacher candidates and they must be supported and evaluated by exemplary cooperating teachers and faculty to ensure these purposes are being met. Applegate and Lasley (1986) also support the notion of setting clear goals and expectations for all members involved in the early field experience. Researchers suggest that the early field experiences be developmentally sequenced from simple to complex ideas throughout the teacher preparation program, addressing issues and strategies known to cause difficulty to new teachers and connecting to course curricula (Bercik, 1992; Capraro, Capraro, & Helfeldt, 2010; Lortie, 1975). These experiences should also be mastery-based, not vicarious, which again speaks to the need of having them frequently and throughout the duration of the teacher preparation program so mastery can be established (Poulou, 2007). These components are all important in developing high-quality EFEs, but the fact is that not all EFEs follow these guidelines and therefore may not all be effective.

Fuller and Bown (1975) also noted that field experiences of any kind can be great sources of stress for preservice teachers. This is likely due to the constraints of their teacher preparation program in terms of differences in values presented by the college

and the school they are learning in and complex relationships between the preservice teacher, the cooperating teacher, and the college professor/supervisor. Being surrounded by these experts and being asked to do a variety of tasks they may not yet be comfortable with are likely to cause feelings of inadequacy (Fuller & Bown, 1975).

EFEs, despite potential flaws and drawbacks, continued to demonstrate positive effects for preservice teachers in this decade. Suleiman (1998) found that first-hand experience in classroom dynamics and demands was essential for preservice teachers; Suleiman argued they needed the maximum amount of opportunities possible for learning and growth by learning and participating in realistic expectations and complexities of schools. Kagan (1992) found that, without EFEs, beginning teachers are often frustrated and demonstrate a lack of understanding about pupils and their needs. “As a result, most novices become obsessed with class control, designing instruction, not to promote pupil learning, but to discourage disruptive behavior” (Kagan, 1992, pp. 154-155). This shows again that EFEs are important towards moving preservice teachers and teachers through Fuller’s stages of concerns in order to be more effective teachers in helping pupils learn. Not only did students with more EFEs progress more quickly through Fuller’s stages of concerns in the research done by McDermott et al. (1995), they also grew significantly more confident and cooperating teachers perceived them to be better prepared than students without EFEs. Wingfield and Ramsey (1999) also found an increase in science teaching self-efficacy after completing a methods course in a P-12 classroom.

The large volume of research done during this decade, including more observational studies but less large-scale studies of classroom processes, resulted in a

compilation of general principles of effective teaching by Jere Brophy (as cited in Good, 2009). This research includes both heuristic views of teaching and particular aspects of teaching that can vary by context. These general principles include: promoting teacher expectations, creating proactive and supportive classrooms, providing opportunities to learn, aligning curriculum goals with content, making content coherent, promoting thoughtful discourse, scaffolding students' ideas and task involvement, allowing ample time for student practice and application of concepts, and using goal-oriented assessments (as cited in Good, 2009). These general principles of effective teaching are important to note when structuring effective EFEs to help push preservice teachers towards focusing more student achievement gains.

2000s-2010s: The Era of No Child Left Behind

Issues progressed in the new millennium when the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) was passed in 2001. While this reform attempted to address issues created by the last decade of reform, NCLB has failed and has turned motivation from validated success in *A Nation at Risk* to fear avoidance (McCaslin & Lavigne, 2010). Impoverished students were over-stimulated and affluent students were under-stimulated, generating more problems with motivation to learn and doing nothing to reduce the achievement gap (McCaslin & Lavigne, 2010). Using high stakes tests alone to judge student or school improvement was shown to have negative effects (e.g., McCaslin, 2006; Nichols & Berliner, 2007; Stipek, 2006). Additionally, students were not viewed as being social learners, which also lead to reform failure as affective components were left out of standards and policies (McCaslin, 2006; Stipek, 2006). All of this confusion with

persistent high demands and critiques of students, teachers, and schools led to strong feelings of demoralization (Payne, 2008).

Therefore, it is not surprising that researchers continued to find that preservice teachers were still not being adequately prepared for real world teaching. Research collected by Levine (2006) indicated that 62% of teachers surveyed did not feel adequately prepared for the realities of the classroom. Becker (2008) also found that preservice teachers still did not understand the realities and workload of full-time teachers. She also found that preservice teachers knew how to write lesson plans, but not how to implement them. Several researchers listed a number of problems with which novice teachers were having trouble. Becker (2008) found the following list of problems teachers faced that had been inadequately addressed during teacher preparation: managing behavior, being physically safe in violent schools, understanding culturally diverse families, teaching kids with limited English and disabilities, helping children without family support, using technology in classrooms, managing and organizing day-to-day activities of teaching, and making decisions. Darling-Hammond (2000) found that teachers with less preparation tended to be less satisfied and had greater difficulties planning curriculum, teaching, managing, adapting, and diagnosing students' learning needs. Their students learned less and were more frequently blamed by these teachers if the teaching was not effective (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

As Gimbert (2001) stated in her support of EFEs, "A cycle of observing-teaching-reobserving-reteaching facilitates preservice teachers' understanding of the principles of teaching and learning" (p. 34). She also found that the professional development school

EFE she studied helped move preservice teachers through Fuller's stages of concern. Students in an early experience studied by LaMaster (2001) said that the experience impacted their approach to teaching and that the greatest perceived benefit was gaining perspective about the school and students. The undergraduates also felt the EFE decreased their apprehension and made them feel more comfortable in a school environment. The high school students reported that they enjoyed having the undergraduate preservice teachers teach (98%) and they had more fun in the class with the undergraduate teachers than with their own teachers (85%). The high school teachers noted the positive impact the undergraduates had on their students and that the teachers learned new strategies from the undergraduates (LaMaster, 2001).

More support for the importance of self-efficacy was found in research during this decade as well. Mastery experiences of teaching in schools were found to enhance teaching self-efficacy, whereas vicarious experiences are rated very low as a perceived source of teaching efficacy; this shows that EFEs need to involve not only being in classroom settings but also in actual teaching. Strong efficacy beliefs are important in order to help students continue throughout their education and teaching and it produces more satisfied and empowered teachers (Poulou, 2007). Wagler (2008) found differences in qualities of teaching between low and high self-efficacious inservice and preservice teachers. Positive outcomes were seen for both inservice and preservice teachers who had high self-efficacy, such as greater commitment and confidence, more student-directed teaching strategies, self-reflection, and enthusiasm. Wagler (2008) also found that field

experiences helped to raise self-efficacy if the observed teacher model was seen as successful and the model taught productive coping and teaching techniques.

2010-present: The Era of Race to the Top

The most recent reform policy, *Race to the Top* of 2010, is now holding states accountable and encouraging them to compete with each other for government funding. However, states must play by the rules of the Secretary of Education Arne Duncan, as he is the sole decider of who will receive funding (McCaslin & Lavigne, 2010). While this reform is too recent to be fully examined, it does not appear to be an improvement on any of the other previous reforms as goals are not adequately defined nor what tasks should be done by whom (Ravitch, 2010). Context has still not been considered, which is fundamental to understand what changes in educational policy will work for whom (Cuban, 2010). Due to these issues and increasing levels of frustration by educators, a large focus during this decade is the power struggle between government and education.

Another focus in research is multicultural teacher education and meeting the needs of diverse students. As Assaf, Garza, and Battle (2010) pointed out, there has been a steady increase in student diversity, yet prospective teachers are still predominately White, monolingual, middle class females from rural or suburban households. Research indicates the need for EFEs in multicultural schools in urban settings with opportunities for cohort discussion as this demonstrated an increase in positive teacher attitudes and beliefs about diversity (Akiba, 2011; Assaf, Garza, & Battle, 2010). Therefore, it is no longer enough for people to be committed to teaching as a career goal; they must also be committed to culturally and linguistically diverse settings and students (Gomez, Strage,

Knutson-Miller, & Garcia-Nevarez, 2009). Still, nearly half of university-based teacher preparation programs do not require a social foundations or multicultural education course of 3 units or more; this means that teachers are not being adequately prepared in terms of equal opportunity, social justice, or preparing their students for political participation (Neumann, 2010). Some attempts to address multicultural education in teacher preparation programs are cited as being largely superficial; one or two courses exploring surface level differences is not enough for a preservice teacher to truly understand diverse populations (Assaf, Garza, & Battle, 2010). This is supported again by Singer, Catapano, and Huisman (2010) who found that new teachers who are highly qualified under NCLB were surveyed and did not feel they were highly qualified to teach all children, especially those in urban schools. Teachers did rate themselves as more qualified if they had EFEs in urban schools, however. Therefore, Singer, Catapano, and Huisman (2010) also argue for a need to reform teacher education to consider culture and diversity, which can be at least partially addressed through EFEs in culturally diverse and/or urban settings.

Several studies again supported the need for EFEs in terms of a reality check (Gomez et al., 2009) and being identified by preservice teachers as their most valuable learning experience (Hanline, 2010). Rust (2010) also cites Gladwell (2008) as stating that 10,000 hours of practice are needed to develop expertise in any field. While students may have a lot of hours in schools observing teachers as students themselves, they are not doing this from a developmentally prepared standpoint with the expressed purpose of

becoming teachers; therefore, they have little experiential knowledge of teaching (Rust, 2010). This harkens back to Lortie's (1975) research as well.

The research of this decade also focused on minimizing the use of whole-class instruction (as opposed to small-group or one-on-one instruction) and on adding value to the meaning of content instead of just memorization. Similar findings were found regarding effective teaching strategies as in the previous decade. Notably, new research was done that echoed earlier research, but did not use earlier research, thus demonstrating a failure to integrate research over time (Good, 2009).

Conclusion

Factors that must be considered in this study and in properly preparing teachers, especially early in their education, are how teachers develop over time. Two prevalent theories on this are presented by Fuller and Berliner. Fuller's concerns-based theory of teacher development argues that teachers go through a series of stages from no concerns through concerns about pupil learning (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975). Fuller argues that early field experiences are necessary to give teachers more chances to learn and improve. This also helps to arouse teacher candidates to the real demands of teaching. Berliner (1988) also presents stages of teacher development and argues that one cannot expect too much sophistication from teacher candidates too soon. He, too, suggests the need for early field experiences to develop competency.

Problems in teacher education that have been seen in the past are reflected in each decade and still hold true today. Teachers are often not adequately prepared and are sometimes taught in contrast to reality. Teacher education programs have not met the

needs of their students in timely or orderly manner. Too much is expected of novice teachers too quickly. Teachers place the most value on hands-on field experiences in their preparation program, but the variation in the types of experiences they receive are vast (Dodds, 1989; McCadden & Rose, 2008). Despite the variation in EFEs, research has consistently indicated their necessity throughout the 1900s and 2000s in improving teacher preparation.

The Need for Early Field Experiences

If early field experiences are constructed in an effective, useful manner (e.g., Burch & James, 1985; Dodds, 1989), the benefits of these experiences for teachers are numerous and substantial. The affective benefits for teachers are especially considerable. Studies have shown that early field experiences increase teachers' confidence, self-esteem, satisfaction, and motivation (Bleicher, Correia, & Buchanan, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2000; McDermott et al., 1995; McIntyre, 1983; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). They also have higher self-efficacy (Poulou, 2007; Wagler, 2008; Wingfield & Ramsey, 1999). There are also latent positive effects in teachers' self-concept (Scherer, 1979). These experiences decrease teacher candidates' apprehension and anxiety by making them more comfortable as an authority position in a school environment (LaMaster, 2001; Lortie, 1975; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). These positive affective outcomes likely result from being introduced to real-world experiences regarding differences between children and classrooms, teacher stressors, and varied contexts and populations (Bleicher, Correia, & Buchanan, 2006; Fuller, 1974; Knight, 1975; Lortie,

1975; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). This helps teacher candidates overcome the initial shock of leading a classroom (Scherer, 1979; Weinstein, 1988). These experiences also increase teacher candidates' commitment to the field because they can determine their suitability and desire to enter the profession (Dueck et al, 1984; Lortie, 1975; McIntyre, 1983; Suleiman, 1998).

Teacher candidates get the chance to develop useful teaching skills in these experiences and can practice and improve them over time (Fuller, 1974; Gimbert, 2001; Suleiman, 1998). It is important for teachers to apply skills and theories (e.g., instruction, teaching, leadership, management, adaptation, connections to course material) in a realistic setting (Denton, 1982). If an early field experience is designed effectively, it also helps teacher candidates gain better reflective skills (Sailors et al., 2005). Preservice teachers can also have more opportunities for collaboration (Lortie, 1975; Wingfield & Ramsey, 1999). On-site experiences allow teacher candidates to build relationships by learning from more knowledgeable others, working hands-on with students, and interacting with the community (Sailors et al., 2005; Suleiman, 1998). This is especially important for diverse and urban settings (Heinemann et al., 1992; Wingfield & Ramsey, 1999). This also benefits the students: students have been shown to have higher achievement levels when teacher candidates have had extended field experiences (Burch & James, 1985; Darling-Hammond, 2000).

It is important to remember, however, that EFEs are most useful when they are high in quality. EFEs should incorporate hands-on and mastery-based involvement, not just mere observation (Huling & ERIC, 1998; Poulou, 2007). Clear goals and

expectations need to be set (Applegate & Lasley, 1986; Capraro, Capraro & Helfeldt, 2010) and ways to outlet stress should be provided (Fuller & Bown, 1975).

Communication and organization between preservice teacher, school and university faculty is key, as is alignment with teacher preparation program curricula so that preservice teacher needs are met in a timely and efficient manner (Bercik, 1992; Capraro, Capraro, & Helfeldt, 2010; Lortie, 1975). Without these factors, EFEs may not be as effective for preservice teachers in preparing them for teaching.

In sum, the literature proposes that EFEs, even if they are flawed, have positive outcomes for preservice teachers. Teacher candidates with these experiences have also been shown to have better outcomes than candidates without these experiences. Theories by Fuller (1969; 1974; Fuller & Bown, 1975) and Berliner (1986; 1988) emphasize the importance of early field experiences in teacher preparation to progress developmentally as teachers. All evidence points to the notion that these experiences can make teachers more reflective and better prepared for running their own classrooms.

The connection between preservice teachers, teaching-related concerns, and early field experiences is empirically grounded. However, I was unable to find literature that examines how non-field specific courses (also referred to as “foundations courses” at the university studied) taught on campus versus in the field affects the intensity and quality of preservice teacher teaching concerns. The study presented here contributes to the literature by effectively bringing together these variables in order to gain a more complete picture of whether Fuller’s developmental theory still applies today and if

concerns change in intensity and quality over the duration of a semester in the same or similar courses in an EFE versus on campus.

Hypotheses

Through research on the relationship between EFEs and preservice teachers' teaching concerns, the following outcomes are hypothesized:

1. Fuller's developmental conceptualization of teachers will be supported with the data. In other words, a difference will be found between self/teaching task concerns and student learning concerns as measured by survey (described subsequently in Chapter Three).

2. A significant difference in the intensity (as measured via Likert scale) and quality (as measured by comparing self/teaching task versus student learning concerns) between preservice teachers taking courses on campus versus in the field (on-site) will be found.

a. Preservice teachers in the courses on campus will have more self/teaching task concerns while students in the course on site will have more student learning concerns by the end of the semester. This would demonstrate a progression in Fuller's developmental conceptualization of teachers.

b. At the pre-semester evaluation, preservice teachers in both on-site and on-campus courses will show similar intensity of concerns. Preservice teachers in the courses on site will have a higher intensity of concerns at mid-semester than preservice teachers in the on-campus courses because they have been aroused to the realities of teaching whereas the students on campus have not. By end-semester, it is expected that

both on-site and on-campus preservice teachers will again show similar intensity of concerns because on-campus preservice teachers have still not been aroused to the realities of teaching or feel that they know enough to handle anything, whereas on-site preservice teachers will have had the opportunity to resolve some of these concerns through their field experience.

3. For all preservice teachers, it is expected that the most helpful experience during their teacher preparation will have been related to field-based (classroom) experiences involving hands-on teaching. This would demonstrate the importance of EFEs and corroborate previous research.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

Methodology

Study Participation

Participants. Students who were recruited to be participants for this study (a total of 99, described subsequently) were undergraduate students at a large research-based university in the southwest. The majority of participants were between the ages of 18-21 (79%); 12.12% were in the age group of 22-25, 5% were between 26-29, and 4% were aged 30 or over. The gender breakdown of the participants was 87% female, 12% male, and 1% (one participant) who chose not to reveal their gender. In terms of ethnicity, 84% of participants selected that they were White and 13% indicated that they were Hispanic or Latino/a; 1 participant each selected that they were African-American (1%), Asian or Pacific Islander (1%), and Multi-Ethnic (1%). All participants indicated they had a GPA of 2.5 or higher; 11% were in the GPA range of 2.5-2.9, 55% were in the GPA range of 3.0-3.5, and 34% had a GPA over 3.5. While exact population statistics could not be found pertaining to this sample (i.e., preservice teachers), the sample closely represents the population of public school teachers in Arizona as data of fiscal year 2011 indicate that this population is 83% White, 12% Hispanic, 2% African-American, and less than 2% each of Native American and Pacific Islander, respectively (Arizona Department of Education, 2011). This population data also shows that that 23% are male and 77% are

female. While this population data is not identical to the sample, it is similar in that a vast majority of the Arizona teaching population is female.

Forty-four participants (44%) indicated they would be enrolled in Teaching Methods in Spring 2011 and 40 participants (40%) indicated they would not be; the remaining 15 participants (15%) were in the on-site course and therefore were ineligible to answer the question because they do not follow the traditional path from college courses to Methods to student teaching (although five participants indicated they would not be and one participant indicated they would be enrolled in Methods in the spring, their responses were not considered for this question). When asked to indicate how many college credits they had earned, many participants struggled to estimate how many based on questions and comments they made to the researcher, but of those who did provide an estimate, they averaged 80.5 college credits earned and 19.8 College of Education credits earned. See Table 3.1 below for the breakdown of what grades participants want to teach:

Table 3.1
Participant answers to the question, “What is the grade you hope to teach?”

Option	Percentage
Preschool or Kindergarten	1.0%
Grades 1-2	37.4%
Grades 3-4	38.4%
Grades 5-6	15.2%
Grades 7-8	4.0%
Grades 9-10	6.1%
Grades 11-12	6.1%
Beyond Grade 12	1.0%
Multiple grades in the same year (special education, art, music, etc.)	7.1%

*Three original participants selected the option “I do not plan to teach”; all were removed from the study data.

A vast majority of the participants indicated they had prior experience in teaching; 92% indicated they had some experience teaching informally (by their definition of teaching, including after-school programs, summer camps, etc.). Some participants, 4%, indicated they had some certified teaching experience as well. Three responses were annotated to indicate less than a year of experience (two responses for informal experience and one response for certified experience); these were included in the “zero” years of experience category. Of the participants who indicated an answer to whether they had some experience teaching informally (n = 89), 8.3% had no experience, 32% indicated they had

1-2 years of experience, 33% indicated they had 3-4 years of experience, and 27% indicated they had 5 or more years of experience. Of the participants who indicated an answer to whether they had some certified teaching experience, 53% indicated they had no certified teaching experience, 3.1% indicated they had 1-2 years of certified teaching experience, 1.0% indicated they had 3-4 years of certified teaching experience, 0% indicated they had 5 or more years of certified teaching experience, and 43% indicated they had no years of certified teaching experience, but had taught informally.

Courses. Students were recruited from three different courses at a large research-based university in the southwest. Two were from sections of EDP 358: Psychological Measurement in Education. One section was taught by instructor A at a local elementary school, the other was taught by instructor B on campus. The third course from which students were selected is EDP 301: Child Development, which was taught on campus by instructor A. The two sections of EDP 358 were selected to compare the difference between the same course taught on a university campus versus in the field (i.e. at a school site). The field (on-site) version of EDP 358 was offered for the first time during the semester the data were collected. Students enrolled in this course volunteered to be part of the pilot on-site experience. EDP 301 was selected to compare differences between similar courses (i.e. courses with a similar distribution of students) with the same instructor on campus (EDP 301) versus on site (EDP 358). It was found that some students ($n = 6$) were concurrently enrolled in EDP 301 and EDP 358 on campus; these students were placed into a fourth category in order to ensure that each between-subjects

comparison was truly independent. Since placement of students into each course was not under the control of the researcher, this study is quasi-experimental.

Eligibility. Students who were enrolled in EDP 358 and/or EDP 301 and signed the informed consent form (see Appendix A) were considered eligible for this study (N = 102). However, of the eligible students, three were removed because they did not wish to become teachers upon graduation and therefore their responses about teaching concerns were not valid for the purposes of this study. The final number of participants in this study is N = 99. Of the 99 participants in this study, 38 (38%) were enrolled in EDP 358 on campus with instructor B, 15 (15%) were enrolled in EDP 358 on site with instructor A, and 40 (40%) were enrolled in EDP 301 on campus with instructor A. Six participants (6%) were enrolled in both EDP 358 on campus with instructor B or EDP 301 with instructor A concurrently and were considered independently in analyses. For further analysis, students were grouped by whether they were on campus (EDP 358 on campus, EDP 301 on campus, and both; n = 84, 85%) and on site (EDP 358 on site; n = 15, 15%).

Data Collection Procedures

All students in EDP 358 on and off campus and in EDP 301 who were present on the first day of data collection were given a general overview of the study, its purpose, and an assurance of anonymity from their instructor, teaching assistant, and the researcher. If they consented to participate, they were asked to sign the informed consent form (see Appendix A), fill out the demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B), and were asked to complete the first survey (see Appendix C). Students who were not present on the first day of data collection were still given the option to participate at subsequent

collection times, but no other students chose to be added to the study. Students who chose to participate completed surveys during the first week of the Fall 2010 semester, at mid-semester, and during the last week of the semester. The survey measure was distributed and collected towards the end of the class periods during which the surveys were administered. Data were collected in August, October, and December of 2010. Data collection included survey measures (described subsequently) that were administered in class. Students were given as much time as needed to complete the survey, at which point they were collected. In total over the three data collection periods, students spent a total of about 45 minutes participating in this study.

Revisions

The original project plan included a more longitudinal study that involved surveying groups of students over the duration of two semesters, Spring 2010 and Fall 2010. However, due to time constraints, only the pilot of the survey (see Appendix D) was administered in the Spring 2010 semester to a smaller sample of preservice teachers. Slight edits were made based on participants' suggestions of what other concerns to include; these were combined with existing items for clarity but were not included in data analysis.

The researcher made some slight alterations to the survey format after the first survey was given (time 1, beginning of semester) by adding the Likert-type scale to the top of the second page to make it easier for participants to complete for the mid- (time 2) and end-semester (time 3) surveys (see Appendix C). The researcher also added a section to the mid- and end-semester surveys to determine which participants were enrolled

concurrently in two of the courses being studied, as it was discovered after the first survey administration that some overlap in course enrollments existed.

Instruments

Survey Measure

Pre-Teaching Survey. The 30-item Pre-Teaching Survey was developed from research done by Fuller (1969) about preservice teacher concerns and new teacher concerns (see Appendix C). An additional four questions were generated from a survey done by Harris and Associates (1990) on beginning teacher concerns. Final additions were made by the researcher to address more recent teaching issues (e.g. standardized test scores) and to generate an equal number (13 each) of Likert-type questions that addressed self and teaching task concerns and student learning concerns. These 26 questions were rated on a Likert-type scale of 1-7 from very strongly unconcerned (1) to very strongly concerned (7). Reliability analyses for these items were high (time 1: $\alpha = .94$; time 2: $\alpha = .94$, time 3: $\alpha = .96$). Four open-ended response questions were included at the end of the survey to determine if there were any concerns the survey did not cover, what preservice teachers were most and least concerned about, and what experience(s) preservice teachers felt were most helpful in their teacher education. All open-ended response questions (27-30) were generated by the researcher.

The levels of concerns Likert-type scale (1-7) were treated as interval data because the scale was ordered and they represent a progression from 1 to 7 (very strongly unconcerned to very strongly concerned, respectively). The types of concerns Likert-type scale (T TS ST S, coded as 1-4 respectively) were treated as interval data because the

scale was ordered and they represent a progression from 1 to 4 (T representing the least mature types of concerns through S representing the most mature types of concerns). A codebook was developed by the researcher (see Appendix E) to categorize and code the data for analysis. This included categories and codes for demographics and survey responses. To establish reliability, two coders coded 10% of the data. After discussions, the correlation of the scaled items (questions 27-29, treated as Likert-type interval scale data from 1-4, described subsequently; see Appendix C) ranged from 0.87-1.00 and the percentage agreement for the dichotomous data (question 30, described subsequently) was 87%. All of the data used were coded by the researcher.

Data Analyses

The items rated on a Likert-type scale were analyzed as non-directional (two-tailed) to determine if concerns increased or decreased in strength over the duration of one semester (see Appendix C). The Likert-type scale responses were treated as interval level data. The first three free-response questions (numbers 27, 28, and 29) were analyzed by whether the responses indicated self or teaching task concerns (T) or student learning concerns (S), or a combination of the two. This resulted in a scale being created, from solely self or teaching task concerns (T) to predominantly self or teaching task concerns with some mention of student concerns (TS) to predominantly student concerns with some mention of self or teaching task concerns (ST) to solely student concerns (S). Examples of (T) included solely mentioning items from questions 1-13 and examples of (S) included solely mentioning items from questions 14-26.

Many participants listed more than one concern in a given statement; depending on the prevalence of (T) and (S) concerns placed them into the (TS) or (ST) categories. An example of a (T) statement is, “I am most concerned with outside factors such as school policy, parents, finding my place within the school, being taken seriously.” This statement references the topics addressed in items 7, 8, and 10 (Appendix C); “being taken seriously” is also a concern about oneself. An example of (TS) is, “Raising student achievement scores, because I know how important they are for schools, and wouldn't want to screw up.” This participant indicates their concern with their own ability (or lack thereof) to raise scores and how that might affect the school's appearance, which indicates both self and teaching task concerns (T), but since raising student achievement scores (item 21) is categorized as a student learning concern (S), this is categorized as (TS). An example of (ST) is, “Assessment [*sic*] & understanding from students - I feel the [*sic*] I am not yet prepared to assess students.” While assessment and understanding are two (S) concerns, the participant indicated that they personally did not feel prepared, adding an element of (T) concern. An example of (S) is, “Raising test scores; there is a lot of pressure placed on students.” This is linked to item 21 as was the (TS) example given previously, but in contrast to that example, this statement shows no indication of being concerned with the self or teaching task; the participant only demonstrates concerns about students. Another good example of (S), which was commonly stated in various formats, is: “Students' learning - that's why I'm teaching.” This is linked to item 14 and shows a strong concern about the students and no direct connections to concerns about oneself or a teaching task.

The last free-response question (number 30; see Appendix C) was analyzed by what terms were mentioned; these terms were grouped into seven different categories and analyzed dichotomously by whether or not the response fit into each of these groups. The seven different categories were: School Field Experience (SFE), Non-School Field Experience (NSFE), Observation (Obs), Influence of Other People (OP), Course with Field Work (CF), Other Coursework (Crs), and Not Able to Code (NC). SFE was coded when terms such as “hands-on,” “working in classrooms,” and “teaching” were mentioned. NSFE, in contrast, was coded when terms such as “volunteering” and “camp” were mentioned. However, if both “hands-on” and “volunteering” were mentioned, for example, both SFE and NSFE were coded. Obs was coded for any mention of observations, and OP was coded for any mention of working or talking with cooperating teachers, peers, professors, etc. CF was coded for mention of courses such as EDP 358 (only on-site) and TTE 300, both of which are courses which involve some type of fieldwork in K-12 classrooms. In contrast, Crs was coded if a different course was mentioned that does not involve fieldwork; some examples of these include EDP 301 and SERP. Any other mention of a specific skill or content knowledge being learned or shown to them (e.g., learning reading skills) was also coded as Crs. Any open-ended responses that were too vague to understand or were unclear were coded NC; a common example of this was “going into classrooms” as it is unclear whether this is Obs or SFE.

Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) were run to compare among classes and to compare on-campus versus on-site, at three different time points (beginning, middle, and end of semester), on levels of concern (using a Likert-type scale of 1-7, treated as interval

data) or on types of concerns (T TS ST S, coded as a Likert-type scale from 1-4 and treated as interval data; see Appendix C). The EFA method is commonly used in psychometric multiple-item testing instruments and measures the latent variables (factors) that account for the variation among a set of observed measures (in this case, items 1-26; Brown, 2006). This method was chosen in order to summarize the relationships among the 26 question items into a smaller set of variables to determine if there were latent dimensions and use as dependent measures in analyses. These factors were then used in subsequent ANOVA tests, thus conserving degrees of freedom and improving power against making a Type I error (Thompson, 2004). The EFA was not run orthogonally (it was not rotated) in order to stay true to the data and because the researcher allowed for correlations among factors, which is acceptable for the dependent variables used in subsequent analyses.

Repeated-Measures ANOVA tests were run to compare among classes and on-campus versus on-site, at three different time points (beginning, middle, and end of semester), on levels of concern (using a Likert-type scale of 1-7, treated as interval data), using the factors created in the factor analysis, or on types of concerns (T TS ST S, coded as a Likert-type scale from 1-4 and treated as interval data; see Appendix C). Two Within-Subjects ANOVAs were used to analyze overall and specific concerns with the between-subjects independent variables being the classes (on-site 358, on-campus 301, on-campus 358, and both on-campus courses) or on-campus versus on-site; the within-subjects independent variable being the times of survey administration (beginning, middle, and end of semester); and the dependent variables were the level of concerns

broken down into two factors using factor analysis from the 7-point Likert scale on 26 items (described previously), or the types of concerns (T TS ST S) on a Likert-type scale of 1-4 treated as interval data for the three items (questions 27-29).

Phi correlations were run for the seven categories of question 30 (described previously; see Appendix C) as the categories were coded dichotomously (see Appendix E). The independent variables were on-campus versus on-site and the three time intervals.

Conclusion

Data for this study were collected from 99 students who intend to become teachers upon graduation across three different courses on two different sites. Data were collected in three waves during the Fall 2010 semester using a survey measure (see Appendix C). Data were analyzed to look for relationships among EFEs and preservice teachers' teaching concerns, as well as what types of experiences preservice teachers have found the most helpful in their teacher education thus far. Chapter Four discusses the analyses and findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Research Question 1: Does Fuller's developmental conceptualization of teachers and their concerns hold true for preservice teachers?

To determine if preservice teachers were concerned in general, means were calculated for each of the grouped items at each of the times of survey administration. Items 1-13 were grouped to represent (T) concerns, and items 14-26 were grouped to represent (S) concerns. See Table 4.1 for data.

Table 4.1

Means of concerns at three survey times

Survey	Items	Concerns	N	Min Mean	Max Mean	Mean	Std Dev
Time1	1-13	T	99	1.31	6.38	4.43	.864
Time1	14-26	S	99	1.31	6.62	4.90	.958
Time2	1-13	T	78	2.31	6.38	4.35	.851
Time2	14-26	S	78	2.23	6.85	4.98	.980
Time3	1-13	T	71	1.31	6.31	3.91	.943
Time3	14-26	S	70	1.31	6.69	4.42	1.10

Valid N (listwise): 66

Based on the Likert-type scale of 1-7 (1 indicating very strongly unconcerned, 4 indicating neutral, and 7 indicating very strongly concerned; see Appendix C), the means of the concerns show that participants consistently slightly worried or concerned about both (T) and (S) concerns. The only exception to this is time 3, where participants were slightly below neutral for (T) concerns, demonstrating a very slight lack of concern about self/teaching tasks at time 3. As preservice teachers displayed concerns, exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were run to look at trends and compare relatively higher to relatively lower values.

An EFA was run for each of the three times of survey administration to determine if the items in the survey instrument (see Appendix C) measured the variables of self/teaching task (T) versus student learning (S) concerns, i.e., to see if each item measured the appropriate construct. The intended goal was for items 1-13 to measure (T) and items 14-26 to measure (S). The missing data were replaced with a mean to be inclusive of all respondents. Everyone missing data for an entire collection time was deleted from the analysis of factors. For each data collection time, factor 1 indicated overall general teaching concerns and factor 2 indicated (T) concerns as positive and (S) concerns as negative values.

At time one (pre), 50% of the variance was explained by the first two factors. All items showed factor loadings above 0.43 on factor 1 (named “general teaching concerns”). On factor 2, loadings for items 1-13 were all positive except item 1, indicating that they could all be grouped as (T) concerns except for item 1. Also on factor 2, loadings for items 14-26 all negative except for item 19, indicating that these items could all be grouped as (S) concerns except for item 19. Factor 2 was named “teacher versus student concerns” with higher scores indicating greater self/teacher-focused concerns and less student-focused concerns. See Table 4.2 for data.

Table 4.2
Component Matrix at time 1 (pre-instruction survey)

	Components	
	1	2
pr1cntrl	.571	-.040
pr2crit	.529	.495
pr3eval	.538	.462
pr4prot	.513	.395
pr5adq	.746	.099
pr6sbknw	.709	.195
pr7pwr	.473	.354
pr8sit	.595	.103
pr9time	.543	.126
pr10conf	.557	.135
pr11anx	.432	.372
pr12like	.698	.165
pr13cowr	.749	.105
pr14ppll	.819	-.144
pr15pplf	.653	-.230
pr16adpt	.753	-.152
pr17inst	.774	-.048
pr18test	.759	-.128
pr19grd	.625	.187
pr20undr	.799	-.082
pr21scrs	.594	-.144
pr22bkgr	.519	-.426
pr23att	.778	-.300
pr24cont	.676	-.361
pr25estm	.755	-.296
pr26fair	.748	-.210

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

At time two (mid), 49% of the variance was explained by the first two factors. All items showed factor loading above 0.36 on factor 1 (like time 1, named “general teaching concerns”). Items 1-13 all loaded positively except for item 8 on factor 2, indicating that they could all be grouped as (T) concerns except for item 8. Items 14-26 all loaded

negatively except for item 17, indicating that they could all be grouped as (S) concerns except for item 17. Time 2, factor 2 was named “teacher versus student concerns” as it was in time 1. See Table 4.3 for data.

Table 4.3
Component Matrix at time 2 (mid-semester survey)

	Components	
	1	2
pr1cntrl	.422	.346
pr2crit	.357	.519
pr3eval	.523	.283
pr4prot	.460	.503
pr5adq	.686	.278
pr6sbknw	.586	.146
pr7pwr	.627	.107
pr8sit	.570	-.194
pr9time	.678	.141
pr10conf	.568	.218
pr11anx	.326	.368
pr12like	.715	.327
pr13cowr	.703	.269
pr14ppll	.778	-.149
pr15pplf	.658	-.181
pr16adpt	.710	-.361
pr17inst	.692	.063
pr18test	.707	-.068
pr19grd	.673	-.041
pr20undr	.796	-.203
pr21scrs	.563	-.159
pr22bkgr	.613	-.204
pr23att	.740	-.359
pr24cont	.783	-.185
pr25estm	.816	-.215
pr26fair	.772	-.285

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

At time three (post), 57% of the variance was explained by the first two factors. All items showed factor loading above 0.47 on factor 1 (like time 1, named “general teaching concerns”). Items 1-13 all loaded positively, indicating that they could all be grouped as (T) concerns. Items 14-26 all loaded negatively, indicating that they could all be grouped as (S) concerns. Time 3, factor 2 was named “teacher versus student concerns” as it was in time 1. See Table 4.4 for data.

Table 4.4
Component Matrix at time 3 (post-semester survey)

	Components	
	1	2
pr1cntrl	.629	.204
pr2crit	.496	.471
pr3eval	.695	.161
pr4prot	.648	.350
pr5adq	.719	.154
pr6sbknw	.676	.143
pr7pwr	.470	.699
pr8sit	.559	.597
pr9time	.481	.224
pr10conf	.648	.212
pr11anx	.486	.349
pr12like	.652	.337
pr13cowr	.783	.190
pr14ppll	.835	-.210
pr15pplf	.779	-.329
pr16adpt	.817	-.298
pr17inst	.757	-.326
pr18test	.743	-.296
pr19grd	.708	-.304
pr20undr	.720	-.123
pr21scrs	.692	-.259
pr22bkgr	.646	-.252
pr23att	.771	-.182

pr24cont	.732	-.209
pr25estm	.780	-.255
pr26fair	.702	-.105

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In sum, for all measurement times, factor 1 encompassed general teaching concerns. All items that were intended to measure (T) concerns, items 1-13, loaded together on factor 2 (named “teacher versus student concerns”) with the exception of item 1 in the pre-survey data and item 8 in the mid-survey data. All items that were intended to measure (S) concerns, items 14-26, all loaded together with the exception of item 19 in the pre-survey data and item 17 in the mid-survey data. Therefore, the data support hypothesis one because almost all the data line up with the factors they are intended to measure, showing that self/teaching task concerns (T) and student learning concerns (S) are measured by the items of the survey (see Appendix C) and are relevant to Fuller’s developmental conceptualization of teachers.

Item 1 (class control/management) may not have loaded as (T) in the pre-survey data because some participants may have perceived it as more of an (S) concern, e.g., being concerned about controlling a class so that all students have the opportunity to learn. This is echoed by one participant’s pre-survey comment about what they are most concerned about: “Classroom management because it has such an impact on the entire class.” Another pre-survey concern that supports this was, “Classroom management because some students can’t learn in chaos.” Item 8 (future school situation; including school plant, facilities, rules, and policies) may not have loaded as (T) in the mid-survey data because perhaps it was perceived in a way as to how the school situation affects the students’ learning as opposed to how it would affect the preservice teacher. Items 17

(instructional design) and 19 (grading of students) may not have loaded as (S) in the mid- and pre-survey data, respectively, because they could also potentially be considered as (T) concerns. Both instructional design and grading of students could be interpreted as teaching tasks or concerns that the respondent could not design instruction or grade adequately.

Research Question 2: Do preservice teachers in classes involving EFEs versus preservice teachers in similar classes that do not involve EFEs have different levels and types of concerns over the duration of a semester?

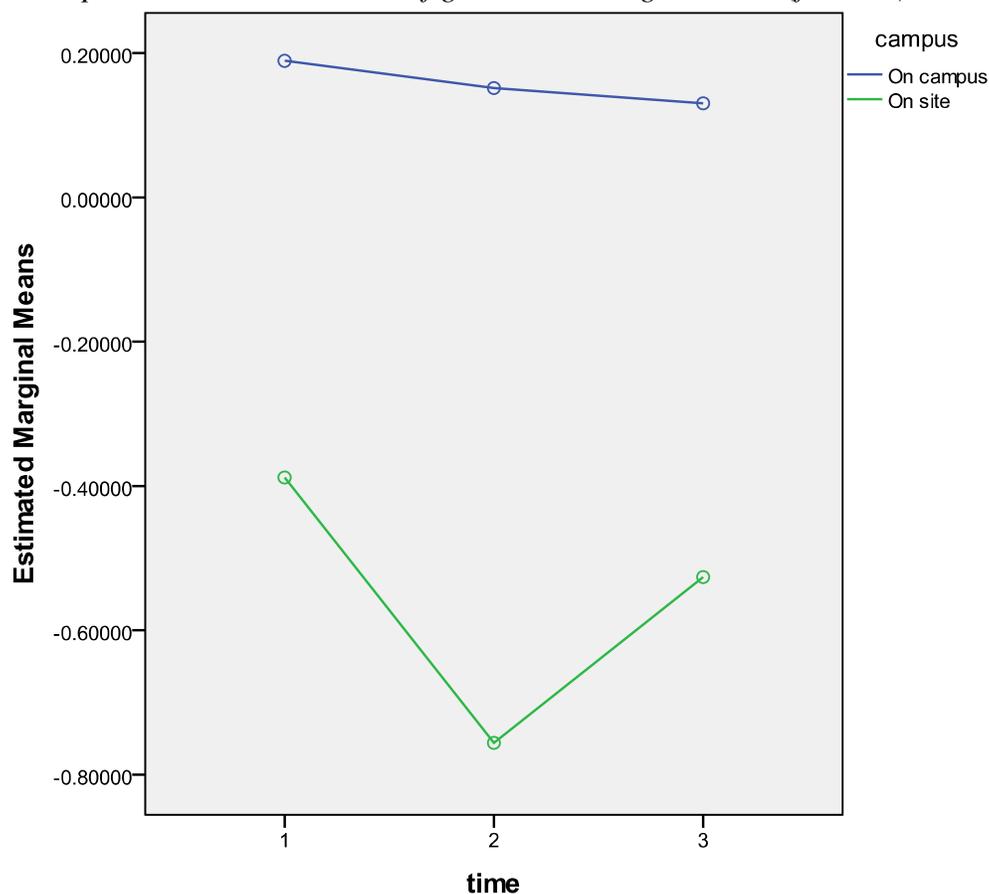
All classes were compared to each other on the factors and open-ended survey item coded (see Appendix E), but since no significant differences were found, the ANOVA tests were run by grouping the EDP 358 on campus, EDP 301, and participants in both classes together as an “on-campus” group, and EDP 358 on-site was compared against this as the “on-site” group. Comparing on-campus versus on-site participants also more clearly addresses the research question. The 2x3 Within-Subjects ANOVA test was run with the on-campus versus on-site groups as the between-subjects independent variable and the three times (pre, mid, and post) as the within-subjects independent variable. The dependent variable for the ANOVA tests were the first two factors of the EFA to compare general teaching concerns at each of the three times (factor 1) and (T) versus (S) concerns at each of the three times (factor 2).

For factor 1, general teaching concerns generally drop at time 2 (i.e., participants showed more self/teaching task concerns at times 1 and 3; see Figure 4.1), but the results

did not show a significant change over time. However, when the on-campus versus on-site groups were compared, a significant difference was found between the groups. The on-campus group showed overall higher means (i.e., more general teaching concerns) than the on-site group (i.e., fewer general teaching concerns); $F(1,64) = 9.27, p = .003$. See Figure 4.1 for a graph of the data.

Figure 4.1

On-campus versus on-site means of general teaching concerns (factor 1)

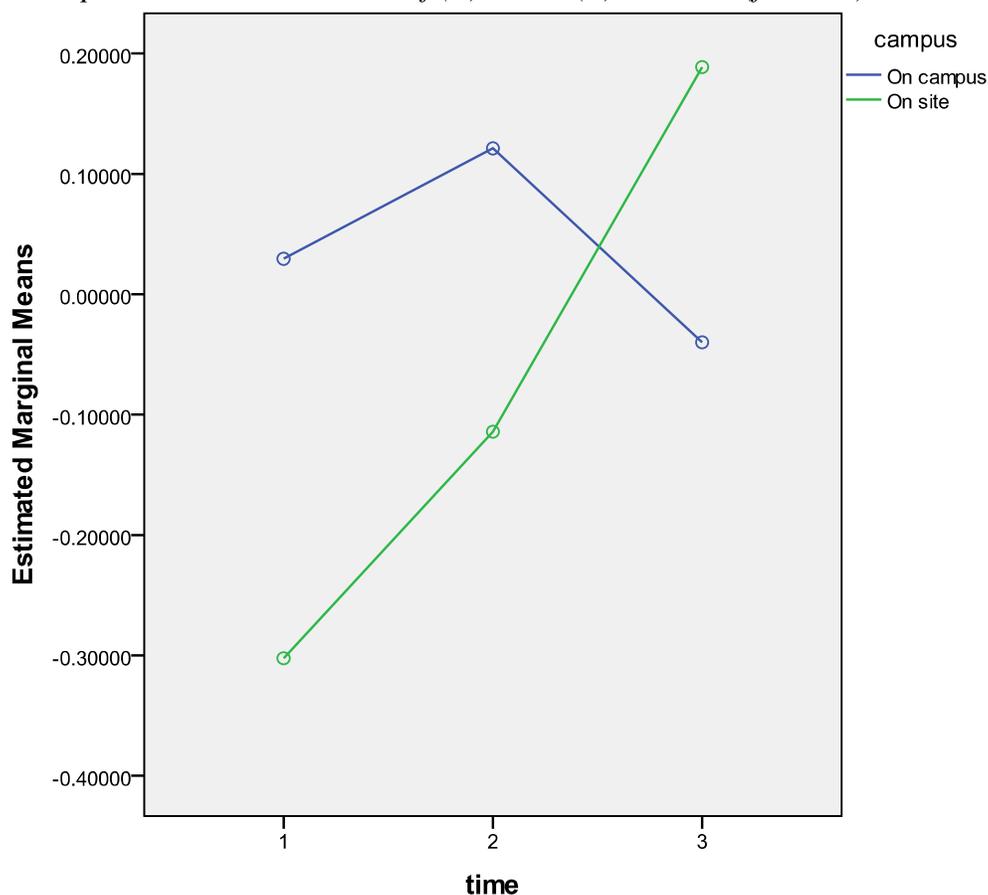


No significant difference was found between the on-campus and on-site groups over time for factor 2. The higher score values (positive) indicated more (T) concerns; the most

were seen at time two on-campus and increased to (T) at time three on-site, but it was not a significant difference from the other times; see Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2

On-campus versus on-site means of (T) versus (S) concerns (factor 2)

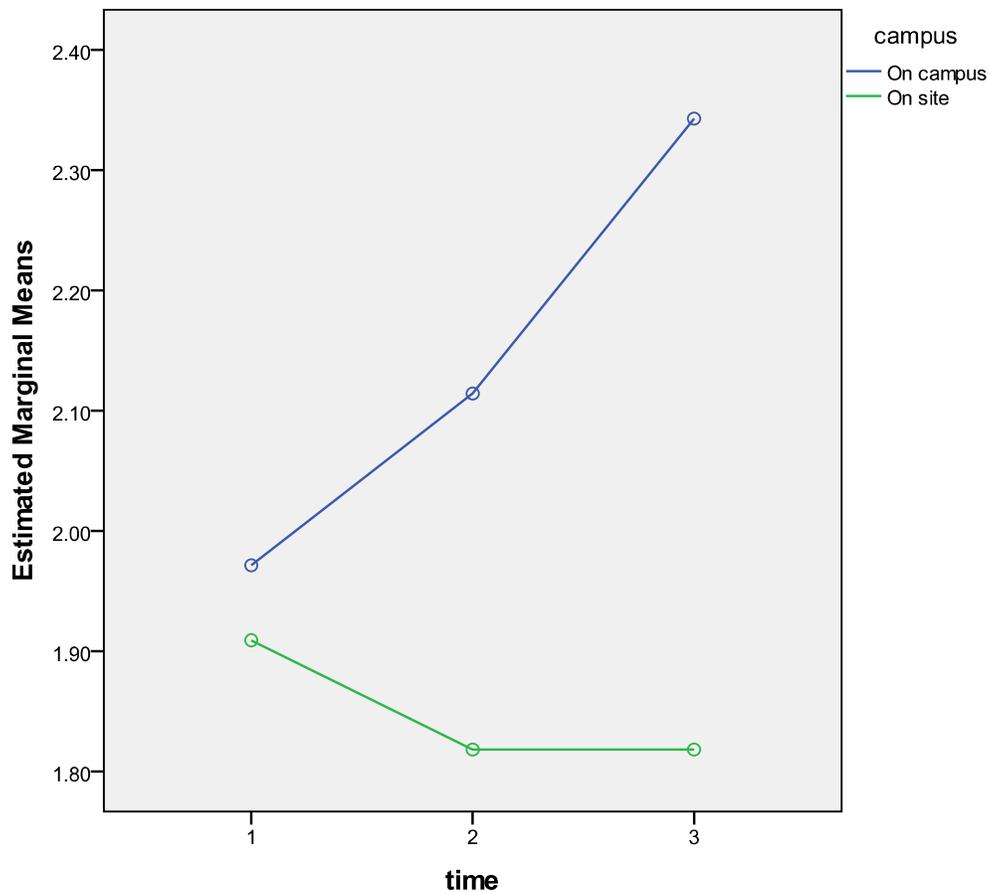


In this sample, factor 1 (general teaching concerns) showed that on-campus participants had more positive means (more general teaching concerns; not significant) and on-site participants showed more negative means (fewer general teaching concerns; not significant) at all three times; there was a greater difference seen at times two and three, but no statistically significant differences were found. Factor 2 (self/teaching task versus student learning concerns) showed that on-campus participants generally showed

more positive means (i.e., greater self/teaching task concerns; not significant) except at time three, while on-site participants showed more negative means (i.e., greater student learning concerns; not significant) except at time three.

A second 2x3 Within-Subjects ANOVA test was run with the on-campus versus on-site groups as the between-subjects independent variable and the three times (pre, mid, and post) as the within-subjects independent variable. The dependent variable for the ANOVA tests was the Likert-type scale of 1-4 (T, TS, ST, S) for each of items 27-29 (see Appendix C). No significant changes were found over time or between on-campus and on-site groups for items 27-29. However, for the sample, on item 28 (“What aspect of teaching concerns you the most and why?”), the on-campus group generally showed an increase from (TS) towards (ST) concerns over time, while the on-site group was mostly stable at (T) and (TS) concerns over time; see Figure 4.3.

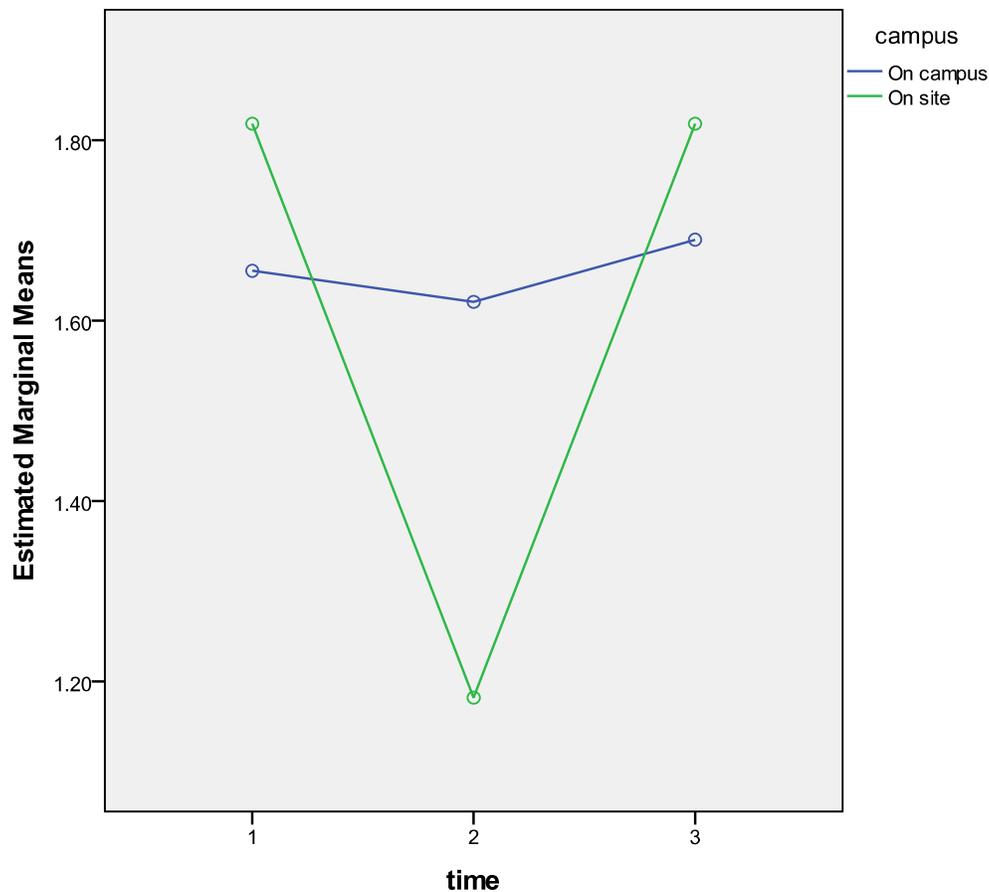
Figure 4.3
Types of concerns for item 28, on-campus versus on-site



For this sample on item 29 (“What aspect of teaching concerns you the least and why?”), the on-site group generally showed more change (i.e., a dip in time two towards primarily self/teaching task concerns) while the on-campus group was mostly stable around (TS) concerns; see Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4

Types of concerns for item 29, on-campus versus on-site



Due to a lack of significant differences found, the researcher chose to examine years of previous experience (see Appendix B) compared to types and intensity of concerns over time. An independent-measures one-way ANOVA was run to determine if there were any differences in factors 1 and 2 based on years of previous experience; no significant differences were found. A chi-square analysis was run to compare questions 28 and 29 (see Appendix C) against years of previous experience; no significant differences were found.

In sum, no significant differences were found between classes, so on-campus versus on-site groups was examined. No significant change over time was found on any of the items, although concerns generally dropped at time 2. The only significant difference was between the on-campus and on-site groups on factor 1 (general teaching concerns); the on-campus group had more general teaching concerns than the on-site group (which showed a dip in concerns at time 2). No significant differences were found between groups on factor 2. Considering few significant differences were found between on-campus and on-site groups, years of previous teaching experience were compared on the same dependent variables. However, none of these results were significant either. Based on the data described previously, hypothesis two was not supported because almost no statistically significant differences were found over time or between on-campus or on-site participants. General trends do not support the notion that on-campus participants had more (T) concerns and on-site participants had more (S) concerns by the end of the semester. For the second portion of hypothesis two, the data show the opposite of the prediction; the on-campus group showed statistically more general teaching concerns than the on-site group, whereas it was hypothesized that the reverse would be true.

Research Question 3: What types of experiences do preservice teachers find most helpful in their education? Are EFEs noted by preservice teachers as being valuable? Are they more valuable than other types of experiences?

To answer this question, phi correlations were used to compare the responses for item 30, which asked participants what experience had been most helpful in their teacher education thus far (see Appendix C). The responses were coded dichotomously for seven categories (described in chapter three) and were compared to determine which categories were mentioned more frequently. The seven different categories were: School Field Experience (SFE), Non-School Field Experience (NSFE), Observation (Obs), Influence of Other People (OP), Course with Field Work (CF), Other Coursework (CrS), and Not Able to Code (NC). The between-subjects independent variable were the two campus groups (on-campus versus on-site), as previous tests indicated that there were no significant differences between class groups. The independent variable was each of the times (pre, mid, post), which were run as separate phi correlations. The dependent variable was the dichotomous coding for the seven experience categories (see Appendix E).

For the pre-survey (time 1), a significant relationship (difference) was found between campus groups and some item 30 codes. The on-site groups mentioned experiences coded as SFE ($\phi(1, N = 89) = -.27, p = .005$) and CF ($\phi(1, N = 89) = -.65, p < .001$) more frequently than the on-campus group. They also mentioned NSFE ($\phi(1, N = 89) = .27, p = .010$) and Obs ($\phi(1, N = 89) = .22, p = .039$) less frequently than the on-campus group. No significant difference was found for the OP, CR, or NC categories. For the mid-semester survey (time 2), some significant differences were found between the campus groups and item 30 codes; the on-site group mentioned SFE ($\phi(1, N = 66) = -.25, p = .039$) and CF ($\phi(1, N = 66) = -.43, p = .001$) significantly more than the on-

campus group. They also mentioned Obs ($\chi^2(1, N = 66) = .26, p = .037$) less than the on-campus group. No significant differences were found for the NSF, OP, CR, or NC categories between groups at time 2. For the post-semester survey (time 3), the on-site group mentioned NC ($\chi^2(1, N = 53) = .45, p = .001$) more often than the on-campus group and they mentioned Obs ($\chi^2(1, N = 53) = .28, p = .042$) and CR ($\chi^2(1, N = 53) = .32, p = .020$) less than the on-campus group. No significant differences were found for the SFE, NSF, OP, and CF categories between groups at time 3.

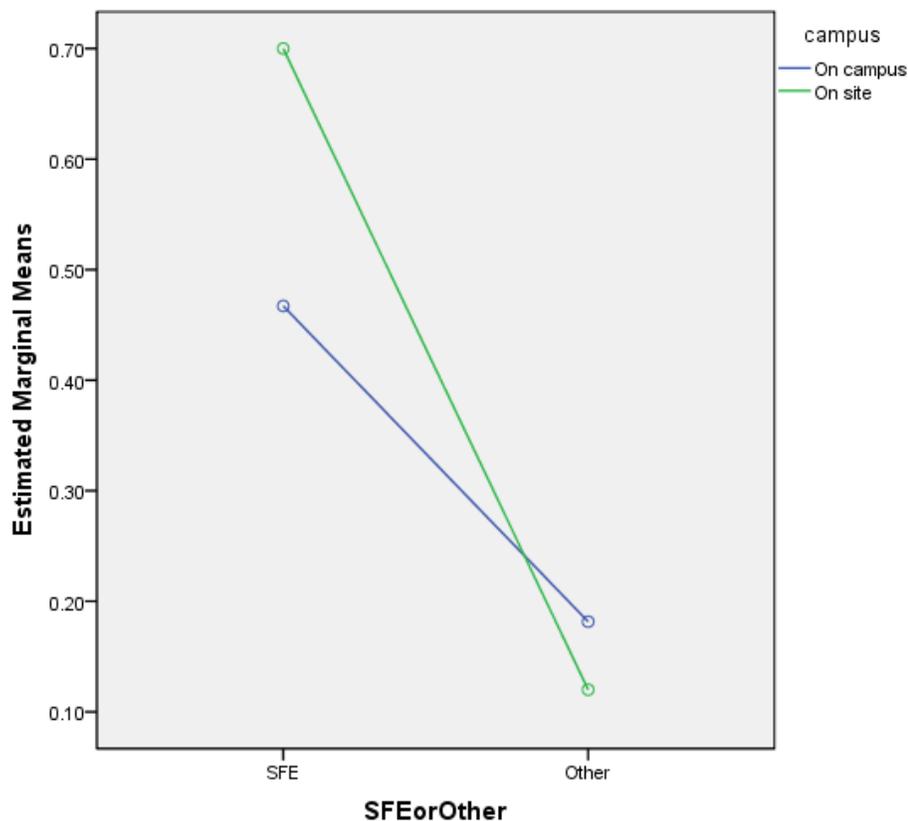
In sum, the on-site group mentioned SFE and CF more often than the on-campus group except on the post-semester survey. The on-site group also mentioned NSF and Obs less frequently than the on-campus group at each time. No difference was found between groups for OP at any survey administration time. The CR category also showed no difference between groups except on the post-semester survey, where it was mentioned less frequently in the on-site group. The NC category also showed no difference between groups except on the post-semester survey, where it was mentioned more frequently in the on-site group.

The mention of SFE compared to all other experiences mentioned (NSF, Obs, OP, CF, CR) was compared across all times. NC was not included in this analysis as some could have potentially been categorized as SFE and some as other experiences. First, SFE was examined independently to see if the variable changed significantly over time; none of the changes over time were found to be significant, so the variable was collapsed into one sum variable. The proportion of SFE and the proportion of other responses coded within all valid responses across all survey collection times (pre, mid,

and post) was calculated to compare the proportion of times SFE was mentioned compared to the proportion of times other experiences were mentioned. Once these proportion variables were established, an ANOVA was run to compare on-campus versus on-site as well as the whole sample. In the entire sample, proportionally, SFE was mentioned about half the time ($M = .51$) as compared to other experiences mentioned ($M = .17$). This is a statistically significant difference: $F(1, 89) = 59.93, p < .001$. There was also a significant interaction effect found between the proportion of SFE mentioned and campus location: $F(1, 89) = 6.94, p = .010$. As seen in Figure 4.5, both on-site and on-campus mentioned SFE as being important significantly more often than other experiences, though on-campus had proportionally more mentions of other experiences than on-site. In sum, SFE was mentioned proportionally more often than other experiences combined, regardless of campus differences.

Figure 4.5

Proportion of SFE mentioned versus other experiences for on-campus and on-site groups



Based on the data discussed previously, hypothesis three was fully supported because it shows that experiences coded as SFE (i.e., school-based, hands-on field experiences) are mentioned proportionally more often than any other type of experience, indicating these are the most helpful types of experiences that preservice teachers mentioned.

In conclusion, hypotheses one and three were fully supported by the data, but hypothesis two was not at all supported by the data. Chapter five presents discussion and interpretation of the data in more depth.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the research findings from pre-teaching concern surveys (see Appendix C). Comments are made regarding the sample and the survey. This chapter then goes on to describe the implications and limitations of this research and offer suggestions for the direction of future research in each area. It concludes with a discussion on preservice teacher concerns and early field experiences (EFEs).

Comments on the Sample

A strength of this study is that the researcher had full access to each of the three classes studied (EDP 358 on-campus and on-site and EDP 301). However, not all participants were consistently in attendance during each of the three survey administration times nor did all on-campus preservice teachers agree to participate. The number of participants in each course was also unequal as EDP 358 on-site had $N = 15$ while EDP 358 on-campus had $N = 38$, EDP 301 had $N = 40$, and students in both EDP 358 on-campus and EDP 301 were $N = 6$. The difference in class size between the on-site and on-campus courses was inherent to the design of the courses as EDP 358 on-site was a pilot course. The self-selection of participants to take each of these courses may have also contributed some bias to the study and could not be controlled for. A few additional participants filled out surveys but never signed the informed consent form (see Appendix

A) or indicated they did not wish to teach in the demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B) and were therefore ineligible for this study.

Comments on the Surveys

Based on the review of participant responses to the survey, it appeared that some participants had difficulty filling out the survey correctly. In some lines, more than one Likert scale number was circled; in others, none were circled (i.e. the participants skipped a question either intentionally or unintentionally). It should be noted that when more than one Likert scale number was circled for a given item, the response was treated as missing data. There may have also been issues in recall of what the Likert scale of 1-7 represented, especially on the pre-semester survey where the scale was not repeated on the back to remind participants what each number indicated. Interestingly, there were a lot of answers scratched out and questions missing responses on the second (mid-semester) survey. It is unclear to the researcher why this discrepancy existed. Also, some participants responded to questions 1-26 but left the open-ended questions 27-30 empty (see Appendix C); this could indicate a general apathy for the survey or a focus on other more pressing matters that they wanted to attend to, which could skew the results.

Incomplete or missing free responses also made it more difficult for the researcher to fully interpret why participants were concerned about some items or issues over others.

Additional limitations pertain to the content of the survey. Some of the items included could have measured both (T) and (S) concerns depending on how they were interpreted by the participants; their reasoning for their answer selections was not asked.

One participant asked the researcher what “concern” meant; they indicated it could mean, (1) that the overall topic is important and must be focused on, or (2) they were personally worried about whether or not they could deal with this topic. The researcher indicated that either perspective was acceptable, although rationale (2) was more heavily emphasized. However, this could lead to some errors in the data analysis. While both rationales are acceptable, rationale (1) could indicate a stronger (S) focus while rationale (2) could indicate a stronger (T) focus. This could affect the way higher Likert scale choices might mean; a 7 on the scale could indicate that they thought the topic was very important, or it could mean the participant was personally concerned about their ability to deal with that particular topic. This also may have led to some of the unexpected factor loadings in the EFA.

Research Question Analyses

Research Question 1: Does Fuller’s developmental conceptualization of teachers and their concerns hold true for preservice teachers?

Hypothesis 1: A difference will be found between self/teaching task concerns and student learning concerns as measured by survey.

Implications. Based on the means of the survey items, preservice teachers showed a slight concern for both (T) and (S) concerns at each of the survey administrations times; all means were over 4.0 (neutral) with the exception of (T) concerns at time 3 ($M = 3.9$). This may indicate an error in the sampling data as this mean is very close to neutral, or it could indicate a slight resolution of self/teaching task concerns by time 3.

Based on the data presented, Fuller's claims for early, more immature concerns (self and teaching task concerns) compared with later, more mature concerns (student learning concerns) were supported by the data. All items that were intended to measure (T) concerns, items 1-13, all loaded together with the exception of item 1 in the pre-survey data and item 8 in the mid-survey data. All items that were intended to measure (S) concerns, items 14-26, all loaded together with the exception of item 19 in the pre-survey data and item 17 in the mid-survey data. This also supports the items that were taken from Harris and Associates, Inc. (1990) and the items that were generated by the researcher.

Limitations. As to why items 1, 8, 17, and 19 did not load with what was predicted, this could be explained by error in the data. Item 1 was only slightly negative at -0.04, as was item 8 at -0.19. Item 19 not highly positive at 0.19, and item 17 was even less positive at 0.06. These are not significant loadings (i.e., not above or below 0.30), so the researcher is not as concerned about these items, especially considering they did not load as predicted for only one of the three survey times each. Other reasons why they could have loaded in this manner are described previously in chapter four.

Directions for Future Research. The data were only analyzed as (T) versus (S) concerns; (T) was a combination of both self and teaching task concerns. These two concerns were combined and analyzed as one because they are both considered to be early and immature concerns by Fuller (1969; 1974). However, further research could be done by dividing these concerns into self versus teaching task versus student learning concerns and analyzing them separately. This might show more of a progression in types

of concerns as preservice teachers might move from self survival concerns to concerns about how to teach (teaching task), which cannot be distinguished within this data. As discussed previously, it might also be important to distinguish between whether preservice teachers were concerned about a topic because they thought it was important or because they thought they could not adequately address the topic. The differentiation here might be between concerns (former) and anxieties (latter); more research should be done on both to obtain a better picture of what preservice teachers are thinking and feeling in order to more successfully address their educational and preparatory needs.

Research Question 2: Do preservice teachers in classes involving EFEs versus preservice teachers in similar classes that do not involve EFEs have different levels and types of concerns over the duration of a semester?

Hypothesis 2: A significant difference in the intensity (as measured via Likert scale) and quality (as measured by comparing self/teaching task versus student learning concerns) between preservice teachers taking courses on campus versus in the field (on-site) will be found.

Implications. In this sample, the data show that on-campus participants had more general teaching and self/teaching task concerns (although not statistically significant) and on-site participants showed fewer general teaching and more student learning concerns (although not statistically significant) at all three times (except for self/teaching task concern trends at time three); there was a greater difference seen in general teaching concerns at times two and three, but no statistically significant differences were found. This is the reverse of what was predicted in hypothesis two. This could indicate that on-

campus participants might not feel as prepared for teaching because they had more overall general teaching concerns and they were more self/teaching task focused (although not statistically significant). In contrast, on-site participants may have felt slightly more prepared as they had fewer general teaching concerns and leaned slightly more towards student learning concerns (although not significantly). However, this could also be due to the self-selection of the participants who chose to take the pilot on-site course; perhaps they already had some inclination towards student learning concerns. The researcher thought that, based on the research of Kagan (1992), perhaps previous years of experience would show more of a difference in intensity and types of concerns as opposed to on-campus versus on-site groups; however, these differences were also not significant.

No significant change over time was found on any of the items, although concerns generally dropped at time 2 (October). The only significant difference was between the on-campus and on-site groups on general teaching concerns; the on-campus group had more general teaching concerns over time than the on-site group (which showed a dip in concerns at time 2). No change over time may have been seen due to the short time period being studied (one semester). The on-site group may have showed a decrease in general teaching concerns at time two because they were feeling more prepared and confident based on their experience thus far, but may not have yet felt overwhelmed by their responsibilities (which might then explain why general teaching concerns rose towards time 3). On-campus participants may have had more general teaching concerns over time because they were being aroused to more teacher education issues over time,

whereas the on-site participants may not have showed this overall increase over time as they were working through and resolving some of these issues.

Limitations. A phenomena that was not addressed by this study was that of unrealistic optimism (as termed by Weinstein, 1988), which is a problem that early field experiences may help address by addressing the realities of teaching early. Weinstein (1988) found, through a survey of preservice teachers, that they believed they would experience less difficulty in teaching than the average first-year teacher. Anecdotally, an instructor noted that this was a phenomenon that was seen more with the on-site group. Applegate and Lasley (1986) and Fuller (1974) also note that teachers do not understand realities or responsibilities when they enter the job; they are often too idealistic. Wagler (2008) found that general teaching efficacy decreased over time for preservice teachers, which might indicate initial over-optimism; a general drop in factor 1 concerns at time 2 for this study may support Wagler's (2008) notion. However, Wagler (2008) also found that personal teacher efficacy (which relates to factor 2 of this study) increased over time for preservice teachers; this was not supported by this data. This unrealistic optimism may have contributed to the results, but was not analyzed specifically in this study.

As described previously, the survey questions were only broken down into self/teaching task (T) and student learning (S) concerns. Some questions might have been coded as purely teaching task (e.g. lesson planning) as opposed to self concerns if they were analyzed separately. This might demonstrate some progression in concerns, but because these concerns are still considered to be immature, they were not broken down further. Additionally (as described previously), participant self-selection into the courses

surveyed may have skewed the data in some way. The relatively small sample size of each group and of the overall study ($N = 99$) may also have skewed the data. Only three courses at one university were examined; studying more courses with more participants at more universities may have yielded different results. Something else to consider that the researcher did not control for was what was being taught in class the day and week that the surveys were administered. This might have skewed the results towards feeling less concerned (because they knew about the issue) or more concerned (because they were aroused to the issue but had not resolved it).

Research has shown that preservice teachers studied later in their education (e.g., student teaching or first year of professional teaching) showed more progression towards student learning concerns (Karge, 1993; McCullough & Mintz, 1992; Wilson & Cameron, 1996). The participants who were studied for this survey were predominantly juniors (with a few seniors and sophomores) and therefore might show a significant difference between those who had on-campus versus on-site courses later on in their teacher education (i.e., student teaching). Fuller (1974) and other authors (Duffield, 2005; Kagan, 1992; Karge, Sandlin, & Young, 1993) argue that teachers may not develop concerns about student learning until they have taught for several years; therefore, the short duration of this study was a large limitation to the results found and might explain why no significant differences were seen between on-campus and on-site participants over time.

Directions for Future Research. As noted previously, a more longitudinal study is important to consider for future research in order to determine how concerns may change

over longer periods of time when comparing those who have had EFEs and those who have not. A larger, more diverse sample would also allow for a more accurate portrayal of the population of preservice teachers. Studying the presence of unrealistic optimism as discussed previously would also be important to gain insight towards why participants may have answered in the manner they did. It would be important in the discussion of how important EFEs are to determine if they could address the issues involved with unrealistic optimism or not.

Research Question 3: What types of experiences do preservice teachers find most helpful in their education? Are EFEs noted by preservice teachers as being valuable? Are they more valuable than other types of experiences?

Hypothesis 3: For all preservice teachers, it is expected that the most helpful experience during their teacher preparation will have been related to field-based (classroom) experiences involving hands-on teaching.

Implications. Research question and hypothesis three were fully supported by the data. The on-site group mentioned School Field Experience (SFE) and Course with Field Work (CF) more often than the on-campus group as the most helpful experience during their teacher education thus far, except on the post-semester survey. This makes sense because the on-site group was currently in an SFE and CF, whereas the on-campus group was not as likely to be in one of these in the semester being studied. The on-campus participants were more likely to be in a Non-School Field Experience (NSFE; such as volunteering on their own time) and Observation (Obs; possibly as part of other coursework, which they may have also mentioned as CR). It therefore makes sense that

the on-campus group mentioned NSFEE and Obs more frequently than the on-site group at each time. No differences were found between groups for CR except on the post-semester survey, where it was mentioned more frequently in the on-campus group; this may have been where Obs were mentioned with CR. No difference was found between groups for the Influence of Other People (OP) at any survey administration time; this is likely because all groups had the opportunity to interact with peers and professors, so other people were equally likely to be viewed as helpful to both groups. The No Code (NC) category also showed no difference between groups except on the post-semester survey, where it was mentioned more frequently in the on-site group. This may have been because many of the codes for the post-semester survey (coded as NC) may have actually been SFE or CF explaining the difference in those codes for the post-survey. Examples of NC in the post-semester survey that could have possibly been SFE and/or CF are “in class experience,” “time in the classroom,” and “fieldwork.” These comments are not clear enough to indicate if the classroom experiences were based on a course (CF) or if they were hands-on experiences with kids (SFE) as opposed to observations (Obs). Eight responses reflected similar comments as these; therefore, had these been coded SFE and/or CR, this might have influenced the results.

In the entire sample, proportionally, SFE was mentioned about half the time ($M = .51$) and as compared to other experiences mentioned ($M = .17$); this difference is statistically significant. There was also a significant interaction effect found between the proportion of SFE mentioned and campus location; both on-site and on-campus mentioned SFE significantly more often than other experiences, though on-campus had

proportionally more mentions of other experiences than on-site. It makes sense that on-site participants mentioned SFE more (as noted previously) because they are currently in one, but it is important to note that this means they are finding it helpful. The on-campus group may not be mentioning SFE as much (although they still significantly mention it) because they haven't had the same opportunities, such as being on-site for the course. Despite the six other codes used to categorize participant free responses to what experience they have found to be the most helpful, hands-on and school-based experiences were noted as being the most helpful to all participants; this demonstrates the importance of EFEs from the perspective of preservice teachers and corroborates previous research (Dodds, 1989; Fuller & Bown, 1975; Lortie, 1975).

Limitations. As noted previously, some answers were slightly ambiguous; researcher bias may have been introduced in the coding (although inter-rater code reliabilities were fairly high), and the NC category contained many responses that could have fallen under categories and possibly swayed the results. An important limitation to note is that participants frequently did not indicate how or why the experiences they listed were helpful, even though the question did ask them to explain why.

Directions for Future Research. Something interesting to research would be whether school-based experience or other hands-on experience (e.g., tutoring students on campus, doing modules of lessons in front of peers) is considered more helpful to preservice teachers. These were categorized together as SFE for the purposes of this study, but analyzing them distinctly might provide more insight as to what specific types of experiences are more helpful for preservice teachers. Additionally, it would be

important in future research to determine how and why these experiences are helpful for preservice teachers. These experiences could contribute to preservice teachers' preparation, knowledge base, comfort, confidence, motivation, or reduction in concerns and/or anxieties. These experiences may have also been helpful in allowing preservice teachers to determine if they truly desire to enter the teaching profession.

Conclusion

Preservice Teacher Concerns

According to the data, overall, concerns did not change over time or based on whether participants were on-campus versus on-site. Levels (based on 1-7) and types (T TS ST S) for the most part did not significantly change over time or between classes, although some general trends were seen. More research would have to be done with a larger sample and across various teacher preparation programs longitudinally to more fully determine if differences truly exist. Therefore, it is unknown if preservice teachers' concerns change in intensity or type based on on-campus or on-site experiences; based on the duration of one semester, they do not change.

Additional research could be done to determine how to resolve survival concerns and promote pupil concerns. Fuller and Bown (1975) suggested that a way to do this would be to change the situation to be less threatening so self-concerns are not thereby generated or exacerbated; this would require further study to determine how to implement this. Fuller and Bown (1975) also suggest providing materials, information, and experiences (e.g., microteaching, personal assessment of students' needs, counseling) to

help resolve these concerns. Fuller and Bown (1975) imply that the initial focus on self is a weakness that should be shortened or eliminated; however, the researcher would like to note that this is not the suggestion that is being made in this discussion. Rather, it is being suggested that in order to more effectively work through it to progress to further stages, EFEs should start earlier to allow more time and consideration for reflection and development. As Kagan (1992) notes, “the initial focus on self appears to be a necessary and crucial element in the first stage of teacher development” (p. 155). EFEs and their importance are discussed in more detail subsequently.

Early Field Experiences

EFEs have been demonstrated by data to be the most useful aspect for preservice teachers in their teacher education. There are strengths and weaknesses to having EFEs in a teacher education program, but based on research and the data collected, the strengths appear to greatly outweigh the weaknesses. It should be noted, however, that the importance of EFEs does not imply that all teacher education should be on-site; there is something to be said for having an on-campus experience as well. Rather, the researcher is suggesting that EFEs be made more available to preservice teachers in order to help them feel more prepared in dealing with the realities of teaching through hands-on experiences. This also does not necessarily mean that EFEs create better teachers, but that, at this point in their program, preservice teachers find them to be most helpful; therefore, it appears they should be incorporated into teacher preparation.

If EFEs were to be mandated or at all included in teacher preparation programs, they must be hands-on and appropriately structured to meet the needs of preservice

teachers. Field experiences should be progressive, sequential, well-timed, and should emphasize reflection and choice-making (Dodds, 1989). Being progressive, sequential, and well-timed pertains to organizing the teacher preparation curricula in such a way as to address the concerns that preservice teachers have, building from predominantly self concerns to teaching task and eventually to student learning concerns (Fuller, 1974). Also, teacher education should build from understanding theory and psychology to being able to engage in independent and well-reasoned thinking; only after these foundations are established should students have observations and then hands-on field experiences (Dewey, 1964). This would allow for developmental growth in a simple-to-complex sequence (Lortie, 1975), and EFEs should take place throughout a teacher's education in order to ease the transition from being a student to teacher induction (Karge, 1993). Having EFEs throughout the educational program could also incorporate Gimbert's (2001) suggested cycle of "observing-teaching-resobserving-teaching" (p. 34) to better understand the principles of teaching and learning. EFEs should also challenge and confront prior beliefs about teaching and should allow for extended interaction with students (Kagan, 1992).

As shown in prior research, EFEs are not only important to help a teacher determine their suitability and desire to enter the profession (Dueck et al., 1984; Lortie, 1975; McIntyre, 1983; Suleiman, 1998), but it also has been shown to have numerous positive outcomes, which should be studied further. Research has shown that EFEs can improve a preservice teacher's confidence (Darling-Hammond, 2000; McDermott et al., 1995; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Wagler, 2008), self-efficacy (Poulou, 2007; Wagler,

2008; Wingfield & Ramsey, 1999), and self-concept (McIntyre, 1983; Scherer, 1979).

They have also shown to improve preservice teachers' comfort with teaching and has led to decreased apprehension and anxiety (LaMaster, 2001; Lortie, 1975; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). While the following was not studied in this particular data set, the researcher also encourages that EFEs should include multicultural and diverse experiences, especially in urban schools, to arouse preservice teachers to the different needs of these populations and encourage their preparedness and comfort in working with these populations (Assaf, Garza, & Battle, 2010; Becker, 2008; Gomez et al., 2009; Heinemann et al., 1992; Neumann, 2010; Singer, Catapano, & Huisman, 2010; Suleiman, 1998).

Therefore, regardless of whether EFEs truly do move a preservice teacher through levels of concern as defined by Fuller (1969; 1974), they have been demonstrated by the data and by research to be the most useful aspect of teacher education and should therefore be encouraged and implemented in teacher preparation programs. As long as these experiences are well-structured and made meaningful for preservice teachers, incorporating a logical developmental sequence and hands-on practice with diverse student populations, the researcher recommends that EFEs become a part of all teacher preparation programs to the greatest extent possible.

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA HUMAN SUBJECTS PROTECTION PROGRAM
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

For IRB Office Use Only:

APPROVED BY UNIVERSITY OF AZ IRB
 THIS STAMP MUST APPEAR ON ALL
 DOCUMENTS USED TO CONSENT SUBJECTS.
 DATE: 06/10/10 EXPIRATION: 06/09/11

Project Title: Pre-Teaching Concerns

You are being invited to take part in a research study being conducted by The University of Arizona and asked to read this form so that you know about this research study. The information in this form is provided to help you decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part in the study, you will be asked to sign this consent form. If you decide you do not want to participate, there will be no penalty to you, and you will not lose any benefit you normally would have.

WHY IS THIS STUDY BEING DONE?

The purpose of this study is to compare the experiences of students with different preparations for the teaching profession.

WHY AM I BEING ASKED TO BE IN THIS STUDY?

You are being asked to be in this study because you are a student in ED P 301 or ED P 358, are interested in pursuing a degree in education, and plan to teach.

HOW MANY PEOPLE WILL BE ASKED TO BE IN THIS STUDY?

Overall, a total of 76 participants will be enrolled at two classroom sites.

WHAT ARE THE ALTERNATIVES TO BEING IN THIS STUDY?

This is not a treatment study. The alternative is not to participate.

WHAT WILL YOU BE ASKED TO DO IN THIS STUDY?

Your participation in this study will last up to one year and includes three visits: at the beginning of the semester, at mid-semester, and at the end of the semester. The procedures you will be asked to perform include surveys, each lasting no more than 30 minutes in length.

You may be removed from the study by the investigator for these reasons:

- If you drop this course
- If you are no longer a student at the University of Arizona
- If you change majors and are no longer interested in pursuing a teaching degree or certification

ARE THERE ANY RISKS TO ME?

The things that you will be doing have no more significant risk than you would come across in everyday life. Although the researchers have tried to avoid risks, you may feel that some questions/procedures that are asked of you will be stressful or upsetting. You do not have to answer anything you do not want to.

ARE THERE ANY BENEFITS TO ME?

There is no direct benefit to you by being in this study. What the researchers find out from this study may help other people in the future who choose to pursue a career in the teaching profession.

WILL THERE BE ANY COSTS TO ME?

Aside from your time, there are no costs for taking part in the study.

WILL I BE PAID TO BE IN THIS STUDY?

You will not be paid for being in this study.

WILL INFORMATION FROM THIS STUDY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

Information about you will be stored in a locked file cabinet; computer files will be protected with a password. This consent form will be filed in an official area. The instructor of this course, Dr. Burross, will not know who is or is not participating in the research and will not have access to the signed consent documents.

Information about you will be kept confidential to the extent permitted or required by law. People who have access to your information include the Principal Investigator and research study personnel. Representatives of regulatory agencies such as the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and entities such as the University of Arizona Human Subjects Protection Program may access your records to make sure the study is being run correctly and that information is collected properly. The institution(s) where study procedures are being performed (University of Arizona, Wright Elementary School) may also see your information. However, any information that is sent to them will be coded with a number so that they cannot tell who you are. If there are any reports about this study, your name will not be in them.

WHOM CAN I CONTACT FOR MORE INFORMATION?

You can call the Principal Investigator to tell him/her about a concern or complaint about this research study. The Principal Investigator, Sara Engelder, B.S., can be called at (520) 621-7828. You may also contact the Principal Investigator's department head, Dr. Thomas Good, at (520) 621-1814.

For questions about your rights as a research subject; or if you have questions, complaints, or concerns about the research and cannot reach the Principal Investigator or want to talk to someone other than the Investigator, you may call the University of Arizona Human Subjects Protection Program office.

- Local phone number: (520) 626-6721
- Website (this can be anonymous: <http://orcr.vpr.arizona.edu/irb/contact>)

MAY I CHANGE MY MIND ABOUT PARTICIPATING?

You have the choice whether or not to be in this research study. You may decide to not begin or to stop the study at any time. If you choose not to be in this study, there will be no effect on your student status, evaluation, etc. You can stop being in this study at any time with no effect on your student status, evaluation, etc.

STATEMENT OF CONSENT

I agree to be in this study and know that I am not giving up any legal rights by signing this form. The procedures, risks, and benefits have been explained to me, and my questions have been answered. I know that new information about this research study will be provided to me as it is available and that the researcher will tell me if I must be removed from the study. I can ask more questions if I want, and I can still receive medical care if I stop participating in this study. A copy of this entire, signed consent form will be given to me.

Subject's Signature_____
Date**INVESTIGATOR'S AFFIDAVIT:**

Either I have or my agent has carefully explained to the subject the nature of the above project. I hereby certify that to the best of my knowledge the person who signed this consent form was informed of the nature, demands, benefits, and risks involved in his/her participation.

Signature of Presenter_____
Date_____
Signature of Investigator_____
Date

APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME _____

Demographic Questionnaire

Please clearly circle one answer that most applies to you for each question or fill in the blank if applicable.

What is your age?

- a) Under 18
- b) 18-21
- c) 22-25
- d) 26-29
- e) 30 or over

Are you:

- a) Female
- b) Male

What ethnicity do you most identify with?

- a) White
- b) Hispanic or Latino/a
- c) African-American
- d) Asian or Pacific Islander
- e) Native American
- f) Multi-ethnic
- g) Other: _____

What is your current known GPA?

- a) Under 2.0
- b) 2.0-2.4
- c) 2.5-2.9
- d) 3.0-3.5
- e) Over 3.5

Do you expect to be enrolled in Methods in the spring? (On-campus students only)

- a) Yes
- b) No

How many undergraduate credits have you earned to date? If unsure, please estimate:

How many College of Education credits have you earned to date? If unsure, please estimate: _____

Please continue answering the questions on the back...

NAME _____

What is the grade you hope to teach? (Circle one)

- a) Preschool or Kindergarten
- b) Grades 1-2
- c) Grades 3-4
- d) Grades 5-6
- e) Grades 7-8
- f) Grades 9-10
- g) Grades 11-12
- h) Beyond Grade 12
- i) Multiple grades in the same year (special education, art, music, etc)
- j) I do not plan to teach

How many years of teaching experience do you have (including informal teaching such as summer camps, after-school programs, and anything else you would consider “teaching”)?

- a) 0
- b) 1-2
- c) 3-4
- d) 5 or more

How many years of certified teaching experience do you have?

- a) 0
- b) 1-2
- c) 3-4
- d) 5 or more
- e) I do not have certified teaching experience, but I have taught informally (as described in the question above).

Thank you for your time!

APPENDIX C: PRE-TEACHING CONCERNS SURVEYS

NAME _____

Pre-Teaching Survey

Transitions in life (e.g. the first year of college, the first year of a new job, etc.) often create some anxiety, more for some people than others. There is nothing wrong with having concerns about a new situation; when we want to do well, we are bound to have some concerns! Some people may start with no concerns about teaching, but as you spend more time in classrooms some issues and concerns may develop; conversely, the opposite may be true. We are interested in your development as you enter the classroom. We will ask you to discuss your concerns at three points during this semester: at the beginning of the semester, at mid-semester, and at the end of the semester.

When you view yourself as a teacher, how concerned are you with the following aspects of teaching? Please circle the corresponding number for each item below.

	Very Strongly Unconcerned 1	Strongly Unconcerned 2	Unconcerned 3	Neutral 4	Concerned 5	Strongly Concerned 6	Very Strongly Concerned 7			
1. Class control/management				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Evaluation / criticism from superiors (supervising teachers and school principals)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Self-evaluation				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Emotional or physical self-protection				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Teaching adequacy				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Having adequate subject matter knowledge				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Finding a place within the power structure of the school				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Future school situation (including school plant, facilities, rules, and policies)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Budgeting time effectively				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Conferences with parents				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Being anxious, stressed, or uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Being liked by students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Relationships with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Students' learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Students falling behind their peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Methods of adapting subject matter to individual students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Instructional design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Assessment of student learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Grading of students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Understanding students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Raising student achievement scores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Students' backgrounds affecting their ability to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Giving attention to all students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Teaching students enough content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Improving students' self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Being fair and unbiased towards students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Free response questions (Feel free to use the back of this paper if there is not enough room.)

27. What aspects of teaching, if any, concern you that were not included in this survey?
28. What aspect of teaching concerns you the most and why?
29. What aspect of teaching concerns you the least and why?
30. What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why?

NAME _____

Please check which of the following courses you are currently taking this semester:

___ EdP 358 (on-campus) ___ EdP 358 (on-site) ___ EdP 301 (on-campus)

Mid-Semester Pre-Teaching Survey

Transitions in life (e.g. the first year of college, the first year of a new job, etc.) often create some anxiety, more for some people than others. There is nothing wrong with having concerns about a new situation; when we want to do well, we are bound to have some concerns! Some people may start with no concerns about teaching, but as you spend more time in classrooms some issues and concerns may develop; conversely, the opposite may be true. We are interested in your development as you enter the classroom. We will ask you to discuss your concerns at three points during this semester: at the beginning of the semester, at mid-semester, and at the end of the semester.

When you view yourself as a teacher, how concerned are you with the following aspects of teaching? Please circle the corresponding number for each item below.

	Very Strongly Unconcerned 1	Strongly Unconcerned 2	Unconcerned 3	Neutral 4	Concerned 5	Strongly Concerned 6	Very Strongly Concerned 7			
1. Class control/management				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Evaluation / criticism from superiors (supervising teachers and school principals)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Self-evaluation				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Emotional or physical self-protection				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Teaching adequacy				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Having adequate subject matter knowledge				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Finding a place within the power structure of the school				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Future school situation (including school plant, facilities, rules, and policies)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Budgeting time effectively				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Conferences with parents				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Being anxious, stressed, or uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Being liked by students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Relationships with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Students' learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Students falling behind their peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Methods of adapting subject matter to individual students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Instructional design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Assessment of student learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Grading of students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Understanding students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Raising student achievement scores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Students' backgrounds affecting their ability to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Giving attention to all students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Teaching students enough content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Improving students' self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Being fair and unbiased towards students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Free response questions (Feel free to use the back of this paper if there is not enough room.)

27. What aspects of teaching, if any, concern you that were not included in this survey?
28. What aspect of teaching concerns you the most and why?
29. What aspect of teaching concerns you the least and why?
30. What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why?

NAME _____

Please check which of the following courses you are currently taking this semester:

___ EdP 358 (on-campus) ___ EdP 358 (on-site) ___ EdP 301 (on-campus)

End-Semester Pre-Teaching Survey

Transitions in life (e.g. the first year of college, the first year of a new job, etc.) often create some anxiety, more for some people than others. There is nothing wrong with having concerns about a new situation; when we want to do well, we are bound to have some concerns! Some people may start with no concerns about teaching, but as you spend more time in classrooms some issues and concerns may develop; conversely, the opposite may be true. We are interested in your development as you enter the classroom. We will ask you to discuss your concerns at three points during this semester: at the beginning of the semester, at mid-semester, and at the end of the semester.

When you view yourself as a teacher, how concerned are you with the following aspects of teaching? Please circle the corresponding number for each item below.

	Very Strongly Unconcerned 1	Strongly Unconcerned 2	Unconcerned 3	Neutral 4	Concerned 5	Strongly Concerned 6	Very Strongly Concerned 7			
1. Class control/management				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Evaluation / criticism from superiors (supervising teachers and school principals)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Self-evaluation				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Emotional or physical self-protection				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Teaching adequacy				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Having adequate subject matter knowledge				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Finding a place within the power structure of the school				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Future school situation (including school plant, facilities, rules, and policies)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Budgeting time effectively				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Conferences with parents				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Being anxious, stressed, or uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Being liked by students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Relationships with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Students' learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Students falling behind their peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Methods of adapting subject matter to individual students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Instructional design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Assessment of student learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Grading of students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Understanding students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Raising student achievement scores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Students' backgrounds affecting their ability to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Giving attention to all students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Teaching students enough content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Improving students' self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Being fair and unbiased towards students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Free response questions (Feel free to use the back of this paper if there is not enough room.)

27. What aspects of teaching, if any, concern you that were not included in this survey?
28. What aspect of teaching concerns you the most and why?
29. What aspect of teaching concerns you the least and why?
30. What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why?

APPENDIX D: PILOT SURVEY

NAME _____

Pre-Teaching Survey

Transitions in life (e.g. the first year of college, the first year of a new job, etc.) often create some anxiety, more for some people than others. There is nothing wrong with having concerns about a new situation; when we want to do well, we are bound to have some concerns! Some people may start with no concerns about teaching, but as you spend more time in classrooms some issues and concerns may develop; conversely, the opposite may be true. We are interested in your development as you enter the classroom. We will ask you to discuss your concerns at three points during this semester: at the beginning of the semester, at mid-semester, and at the end of the semester.

When you view yourself as a teacher, how concerned are you with the following aspects of teaching? Please circle the corresponding number for each item below.

	Very Strongly Unconcerned 1	Strongly Unconcerned 2	Unconcerned 3	Neutral 4	Concerned 5	Strongly Concerned 6	Very Strongly Concerned 7			
1. Maintaining discipline				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Evaluation / criticism from superiors (supervising teachers and school principals)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Self-evaluation				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Emotional or physical self-protection				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Teaching adequacy				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Having adequate subject matter knowledge				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Finding a place within the power structure of the school				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Future school situation (including school plant, facilities, rules, and policies)				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Budgeting time effectively				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Conferences with parents				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Ability to gain control of classes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Being liked by students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Relationships with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Students' learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Students falling behind their peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Methods of adapting subject matter to individual students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Instructional design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Assessment of student learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Grading of students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Understanding students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Raising student achievement scores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Students' backgrounds affecting their ability to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Giving attention to all students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Teaching students enough content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Improving students' self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Being fair and unbiased towards students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Free response questions (Feel free to use the back of this paper if there is not enough room.)

27. What aspects of teaching, if any, concern you that were not included in this survey?

28. What aspect of teaching concerns you the most and why?

29. What aspect of teaching concerns you the least and why?

30. What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why?

APPENDIX E: CODEBOOK

#	Variable name	Description	From	Codes
PART I: Demographics				
For all variables, leave empty cells (no response or N/A) blank				
1 = yes				
2 = no				
1	idcode	ID number	Created	Beginning with 1 = EDP 358 on-campus Beginning with 2 = EDP 358 off-campus Beginning with 3 = EDP 301 on campus
2	Idcode2	ID number added later for students who were concurrently enrolled in EDP 358 with Instructor B and in EDP 301 with Instructor A	Created	Beginning with 4 = in both EDP 358 on campus (Instructor B) and EDP 301 on campus (Instructor A)
3	campus	Indicates if students were taking the surveyed course on campus or on site (off campus)	Created	1 = On campus 2 = On site (off campus)
4	instr	Instructor of course	Created	1 = Nicki Instructor B 2 = Heidi Instructor A
5	consent	Consent given?	Consent	1 = yes (all yes in final) 2 = no
6	age	Student age	Demo	1 = Under 18 2 = 18-21 3 = 22-25 4 = 26-29 5 = 30 or over
7	gender	Student-provided gender	Demo	1 = female 2 = male

8	ethnicity	Student-provided ethnicity	Demo	1 = White 2 = Hispanic or Latino/a 3 = African-American 4 = Asian or Pac Islander 5 = Native American 6 = Multi-ethnic 7 = Other
9	gpa	Student-provided current known GPA	Demo	1 = Under 2.0 2 = 2.0-2.4 3 = 2.5-2.9 4 = 3.0-3.5 5 = Over 3.5
10	methods	Student-provided expectation to be enrolled in Methods in the spring (On-campus students only)	Demo	Blank = N/A or no response 1 = yes 2 = no
11	ucredits	Student-provided undergraduate credits earned to date	Demo	Value (open-ended)
12	cocredits	Student-provided College of Education credits earned to date	Demo	Value (open-ended)
13	grade	Student-provided grade hoped to teach *Three columns allowed (grade1, grade2, grade3) as some students chose more than one grade range.	Demo	1 = preschool or Kindergarten 2 = Grades 1-2 3 = Grades 3-4 4 = Grades 5-6 5 = Grades 7-8 6 = Grades 9-10 7 = Grades 11-12 8 = Beyond Grade 12 9 = Multiple grades in the same year (special ed, art, music, etc.) 10 = I do not plan to teach (removed from final)

14	exper	Student-provided years of teaching experience (including informal teaching such as summer camps, after-school programs, and anything else you would consider “teaching”)	Demo	1 = 0 years *or less than one year* 2 = 1-2 years 3 = 3-4 years 4 = 5 or more years
15	certexp	Student-provided years of certified teaching experience *Note: in analysis, may want to combine 1 and 5 as many may have missed it (many filled out experience but then marked 1 instead of 5 for this question)	Demo	1 = 0 years *or less than one year* 2 = 1-2 years 3 = 3-4 years 4 = 5 or more years 5 = No certified teaching experience, but have taught informally (see exper)
PART II: Survey				
		Format of naming survey questions # = Survey question # Letters after = abbreviated descriptor of question For all variables, leave empty cells (no response or N/A) blank	Created	PREFIX: pr = pre-test mi = mid-test po = post-test
16	1cntrl	Class control/management	Survey	1 = very strongly unconcerned 2 = strongly concerned 3 = unconcerned 4 = neutral 5 = concerned 6 = strongly concerned 7 = very strongly concerned
17	2crit	Evaluation/criticism from superiors (supervising teachers and school principals)	Survey	See code 16 above

18	3eval	Self-evaluation	Survey	See code 16 above
19	4prot	Emotional or physical self-protection	Survey	See code 16 above
20	5adq	Teaching adequacy	Survey	See code 16 above
21	6sbknw	Having adequate subject matter knowledge	Survey	See code 16 above
22	7pwr	Finding a place within the power structure of the school	Survey	See code 16 above
23	8sit	Future school situation (including school plant, facilities, rules, and policies)	Survey	See code 16 above
24	9time	Budgeting time effectively	Survey	See code 16 above
25	10conf	Conferences with parents	Survey	See code 16 above
26	11anx	Being anxious, stressed, or uncomfortable	Survey	See code 16 above
27	12liked	Being liked by students	Survey	See code 16 above
28	13cowrk	Relationships with co-workers	Survey	See code 16 above
29	14pplrn	Students' learning	Survey	See code 16 above
30	15pplfall	Students falling behind their peers	Survey	See code 16 above
31	16adpt	Methods of adapting subject matter to individual students	Survey	See code 16 above
32	17instr	Instructional design	Survey	See code 16 above
33	18test	Assessment of student learning	Survey	See code 16 above
34	19grd	Grading of students	Survey	See code 16 above
35	20undr	Understanding students	Survey	See code 16 above
36	21scrs	Raising student achievement scores	Survey	See code 16 above
37	22bkgr	Students' backgrounds affecting their ability to learn	Survey	See code 16 above
38	23att	Giving attention to all students	Survey	See code 16 above

39	24cont	Teaching students enough content	Survey	See code 16 above
40	25estm	Improving students' self-esteem	Survey	See code 16 above
41	26fair	Being fair and unbiased towards students	Survey	See code 16 above
42	27nincl	What aspects of teaching, if any, concern you that were not included in this survey?	Survey	(Open-ended response) Blank = No response
43	28most	What aspect of teaching concerns you most and why?	Survey	(Open-ended response) Blank = No response
44	29lst	What aspect of teaching concerns you least and why?	Survey	(Open-ended response) Blank = No response
45	30help	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why?	Survey	(Open-ended response) Blank = No response
PART III: Coding				
		Format of naming survey questions # = Survey question # cd = code For all variables, leave empty cells (no response or N/A) blank	Created	PREFIX: pr = pre-test mi = mid-test po = post-test

46	27cd	What aspects of teaching, if any, concern you that were not included in this survey? [The explanation is on a continuum: T TS ST S progressing from purely self/teaching task concerns to student concerns.]	Created	T = self or teaching concern TS = predominantly self/teaching concern with some student concern present ST = predominantly student concern with some self/teaching concern present S = student concern Blank = unable to code or no response
47	28cd	What aspect of teaching concerns you most and why? [The focus in coding is on the “why” explanation on a continuum: T TS ST S progressing from purely self/teaching task concerns to student concerns.]	Created	See code 46 above
48	29cd	What aspect of teaching concerns you least and why? [The focus in coding is on the “why” explanation on a continuum: T TS ST S progressing from purely self/teaching task concerns to student concerns being mentioned. This will be analyzed opposite of 28code.]	Created	See code 46 above
49	30cdSFE	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; SFE = Hands-on fieldwork, working in a classroom or school, actual teaching/practice, implementing lessons, and practicum]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no

50	30cdNSFE	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; NSF = non-school experiences working with kids, volunteering, working at day care/after school programs/camp]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no
51	30cdObs	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; Obs = Observations]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no
52	30cdOP	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; OP = Relationships and interactions with other people including teachers, mentors, professors, and peers. Also includes listening and sharing ideas, collaboration, and feedback.]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no
53	30cdCF	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; CF = coursework that includes some type of early field experience and/or observation such as TTE 300 and EDP 358 off-campus.]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no
54	30cdCrs	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; Crs = coursework that does not include any on-site fieldwork or observations (e.g. EDP 301, SERP, etc.), any type of specific skill or content learning mentioned, projects or assignments, being told examples, and being shown demonstrations.]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no

55	30cdNC	What has been the most helpful experience during your teacher education so far and why? [Coded by types of experience; NC = other type of response given that does not fall into one of the other codes listed above (e.g. “going into classrooms” – cannot determine if it is SFE or Obs.)]	Created	1 = yes 2 = no
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