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**The building principal and the professional knowledge of student
teachers**

Olson, Pennie Mack, Ph.D.

The University of Arizona, 1988

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THE BUILDING PRINCIPAL AND THE PROFESSIONAL
KNOWLEDGE OF STUDENT TEACHERS

by

Pennie Mack Olson

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the
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In the Graduate College
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1988

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA
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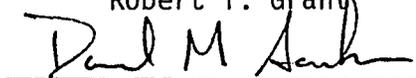
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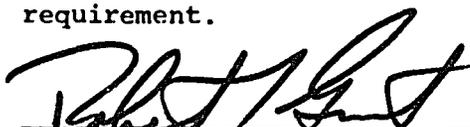
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ABSTRACT

Current research on student teaching indicates a need to go beyond student teacher beliefs and expectations and relationships with supervisors to investigate the contexts and contents of student teacher socialization. This study used an interpretive paradigm to examine the influence of the principal on the knowledge about being a teacher that a student teacher acquired. Interviews with 24 student teachers across their student teaching semester were subjected to content analysis procedures in order to identify what student teachers reported about the professional and organizational facets of teaching which occur outside of classrooms and the influence of the principal on the acquisition of that knowledge. Contrasts were drawn between student teachers working in buildings with principals who had been sensitized to their needs and student teachers working in buildings where no special effort was made to influence the student teaching experience. Data were reordered and reanalyzed on the basis of student teachers' reports of their relationships with the principal. Results indicated that the group of student teachers who reported the greatest amount of knowledge was that group which also reported the most positive involvement with the principal. If the principal

was actively involved with the student teachers, the student teachers were more knowledgeable about the professional and organizational facets of teaching and the school as a workplace than those student teachers who were placed in schools in which the principals were not actively involved. Merely providing information about student teachers was not enough to change the behavior of the principals; principals must be actively committed to assisting student teachers make the transition from student to teacher.

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

For prospective teachers, teacher preparation is their first formal encounter with professional modes of thought and action. It is a significant transition from thinking about teaching from a student's perspective to thinking about teaching from a teacher's perspective. Warren (cited in Charters, 1963) has proposed:

... the transition from college student to teacher entails a drastic role reversal for the individuals involved: from concern with abstract principles to concern with concrete application, from the rights and duties of a student to the reciprocal rights and duties of a teacher, from free and easy sociality to a position of isolation, from personal freedom to control, from a liberal to a conservative environment, and from semi-anonymity and limited responsibility to a highly visible position as a responsible adult in the community. (p. 752)

In today's complex educational systems, the transition for education majors from the campus classroom as students to their first years as teachers is a crucial one.

Statistics related to attrition in teaching reflect to some extent the difficulty of this transition. Bush (1965) reported that over 50 percent of those who received certification upon graduation were not teaching two years later. Schlechty and Vance (1983) estimated that from 40 to 50 percent of first-year teachers in 1983 would not be teaching in 1990; two-thirds to three-fourths would have left teaching by 1987. Henry (1986) reported that 26 percent of new teachers left teaching after the first two years and 60 percent left after five years. In addition, many of those currently teaching would make a different career choice if they could begin again. For example, Wangberg (1984) reported that in a 1981 survey by the National Education Association 36 percent of the teachers in the United States would not again choose teaching as a career, and a 1982 survey of New York teachers reported that 47 percent would not.

The need for research related to professional transitions in education has become more evident in recent years. Ryan (1970) asserted:

... teacher preparation tends to deal with what ought to be going on in the schools rather than what is actually happening. As a result, the beginning teacher comes to his initial teaching experience well primed about what should ideally

go on in the school.... However, when what he knows 'should be' bumps against his actual experience in the schools ... tension develops.
(p. 185)

McDonald (1980) stated that we have little information about how teachers pass through this transitional stage, other than to know that some apparently do so successfully and that some do not. Blase (1985) reported that teachers brought to the job naive and unrealistic assumptions, values, and goals. "Teachers in their beginning years considered themselves unprepared to respond adequately to the diversity they encountered..." (p. 242). Bird and Little (1986) found that for novices the progress from classrooms as education students to classrooms as teachers took place with little help.

Johnston (1980) pointed out several difficulties new teachers face that were not dealt with during student teaching. First, perceptions of what a school is, from a teacher's perspective, were limited to the schools in which their student teaching took place. Second, student teachers were usually prepared for a specific grade level or subject matter area; yet as new teachers they frequently were assigned to areas for which they had little or no training. Third, extracurricular activities which are often part of teachers' work were not part of the training

they received during student teaching. Finally, teaching is a mentally and physically demanding job; student teachers were not prepared for the strain of being in command, of being totally responsible for the entire school day. New teachers were "like athletes who have trained for the season by reading, writing, and discussing. They may know what to do, but their bodies cannot take the punishment of the game" (p.7). The authors concluded that "actually doing teaching, moment by moment, is different than they [first-year teachers] expected" (p. 9).

In addition to the ideal world of the "shoulds," preservice teachers need to learn about the real world of the schools. When student teachers enter a school, they are entering a complex work and social environment. In Teachers for the Real World, Smith (1968) pointed out, "Just as he needs adequate preparation in the knowledge, attitudes, and techniques of teaching, so does the teacher need to understand the principles, policies, and procedures of his organized profession" (p. 135). Sarason (1979) suggested that preservice teachers must be given preparation in what a school culture is, what it means to work with diverse people in diverse roles, and how tensions between the individual and "the system" are inevitable. Student teachers generally are involved only with classroom practices and are not socialized into "addressing the

problems of absenteeism, personal safety, student misbehavior, drugs and alcohol, parental dissatisfaction, and the like" (Goodlad, 1983b, p. 44), which frequently interfere with teaching; and they are not prepared to take an active role in school wide problems or improvement efforts. In a review of research about the process of induction for new teachers, Fox and Singletary (1986) found both experience and research indicated that teaching skill competence was not sufficient to ensure that teachers would stay in the profession. It appeared that increasing course requirements and field experiences did not protect new teachers from "reality shock" (Veenman, 1984).

Little research has been done in the area of preparation of student teachers for life outside the classroom. Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) concluded that few researchers examine how professional life is interpreted and acted upon by student teachers and that most studies focused on the student teacher beliefs and expectations, providing a limited understanding of the impact of the student teaching experience on professional development. In addressing these same issues, Goodman (1985) recommended that teacher education be viewed as a process of teacher socialization and that teaching not be isolated from the type of curriculum used in the schools, the question of who controls the curriculum, and how social

pressures influence both the classroom and the teacher. He explained, "Only when we understand and help our students [student teachers] to understand this socializing experience will we be educating future teachers rather than merely training them" (p. 46).

In teaching, the situations with which a teacher must deal are found not only in the classroom but also in the broader contexts of the school and the community. Classroom situations include instruction and management and control. The cooperating teacher is assumed to have the primary responsibility for introducing the student teacher to these areas. Extraclassroom situations include working with administrators and peers, working with professional organizations, and working with parents and other members of the community. Responsibility for introducing the student teachers to these aspects of teaching is unclear.

Purpose

The transition from student to teacher is difficult. Whether student teachers encounter a smooth transition, a disorderly experience, or something in between is generally dependent upon the level of preparedness of the student teachers and the preparedness of the school and the classroom to receive them. Student teachers work within institutional settings with other adults such as

administrators, other teachers, and parents as well as with students and their cooperating teachers.

The principal was chosen as the focus of this study for several reasons. Although the formal leader of the school, the principal has been almost ignored in research on the student teaching experience. Principals are seen as school leaders by virtue of the authority of their position (Barth, 1988), and some practitioners and researchers have argued that a strong principal wields considerable power for nurturance of a school ideology (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1982; Edmonds & Fredriksen, 1978). Rosenholtz, Bassler, and Hoover-Dempsey (1986) stated:

(T)he acquisition of skills related to teaching, the types of skills acquired, and the potential for skill development all depend in large measure on prevailing norms and patterns of interaction among school participants ... [and] principals set the tone of a school. (p.92)

Gronn (1983) reported that the principal's supervision of teachers' work was a source of pressure and direction for teacher behavior and change. Such research has influenced the conception of this study.

The purpose of this study was to examine student teacher interactions with the building principal. Specifically, this study was an investigation to determine

whether increasing the number of contacts and focusing the content of the interactions between building principals and student teachers increased the student teachers' awareness of extraclassroom situations encompassed in the job of teacher. This was a study of 24 student teachers conducted across the student teaching semester. Data were collected through interviews. The methodology for data analysis was based on an interpretive paradigm.

Questions to be answered by this study:

1. What do student teachers come to know about the professional and organizational facets of teaching and the school as a workplace which occur outside classroom?
2. What role does the principal appear to have in the acquisition of that knowledge?

Significance

This study served three purposes. First, the results of this study can be added to the emerging body of knowledge related to the socialization of student teachers and the development of teacher perspectives. Second, the impact of the building principal on the knowledge of the student teacher can have practical applications for school administrators and their level of involvement in the student teaching experience. Third, the results of this study can have implications for the methods used to induct

new teachers into the teaching profession in general and a local school district and school building in particular.

Limitations

1. Interviews with student teachers were self-reports of their knowledge of the profession of teaching and the school as a workplace.
2. Interviews with student teachers were self-reports of the sources of the student teachers' knowledge. These sources were not limited to the school or to the student teaching experience.
3. Definition of professional knowledge was limited to knowledge about the demands/requirements/expectations of the teaching profession and knowledge of the school as a workplace.
4. Professional knowledge was demonstrated verbally and limited to information student teachers considered most salient at the time of the interview. Therefore, the interviews do not demonstrate the total professional knowledge a student teacher might have.
5. Areas of inquiry in the interviews attempted to elicit student teacher professional knowledge at the school level rather than at the classroom level.

Summary

The process of becoming a teacher is complex and includes the interweaving of teacher, teaching profession, and educational setting. The difficulty and complexity of the transition from student to teacher provided the impetus for this study. In order to examine that transition more closely, the literature on student teacher socialization is reviewed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Learning to be a teacher is, in part, a process of socialization. Merton (1957) defined socialization as:

... the process by which people selectively acquire the values and attitudes, the interests, skills and knowledge -- in short the culture -- current in groups to which they are, or seek to become, a member. (p. 13)

Lacey (1977) elaborated three aspects of socialization for teachers which were implied by Merton's definition. First, selective acquisition not only differentiates teachers from non-teachers but also differentiates within the educational profession. Second, the culture acquired is relevant to teaching and often does not transfer to other situations. Finally, teacher socialization includes the development of a teacher perspective, that is, new ways of seeing and interpreting situations. Student teaching is generally assumed to be a critical time when the metamorphosis from the role of student to that of teacher, the socialization into the teaching profession, is expected to begin.

Research concerning the socialization of student teachers appears to cluster in particular categories. The first category is studies in which student teacher socialization is treated as part of the life-long process of teacher development. The second category is studies which report the acquisition of professional knowledge and skill during the student teaching experience. The third category of research pertaining to student teacher socialization clusters around teacher perspectives. The fourth category is studies which consider the institutional context of student teacher socialization. The final category investigates the interpersonal context in which student teacher socialization occurs. The following literature review examines these five categories.

Life-Long Process

Much of the literature reported within this category contains what have come to be considered classic studies in teacher socialization. Also included in this category are reviews of teacher development and socialization research.

Schoolteacher (Lortie, 1975) is frequently cited as a classic study about the process of teacher development. Lortie utilized several approaches and methods: historical review, national and local surveys, findings from observational studies by other researchers, and content analysis of intensive interviews. His discussion of

socialization began with a contrast between teaching and socialization into other occupations:

The comparative impact of initial socialization makes considerable difference in the overall life of an occupation. Where such socialization is potent, the predispositions of newcomers become less important through time; the selves of participants tend to merge with the values and norms built into the occupation. The opposite holds where socialization experience is weak; in that case, the attitudes, values, and orientations people bring with them continue to influence the conduct of work. (pp. 55-56)

Lortie found that socialization into teaching was weak. The transition from college student to responsible teacher was reported as abrupt, and private experiences were reported to be the most powerful. Learning-while-doing was relied upon heavily and what students learned was based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles. Student teaching seldom offset prior socialization from a student perspective and individualism was reinforced. This kind of professional socialization left "... room for the emergence and reinforcement of idiosyncratic experience and personal synthesis" (Lortie, 1975, p. 79). Formal socialization was not potent enough

to counteract pretraining impressions and beliefs nor did inservice experience encourage the development of new orientations to the profession.

"Becoming a Teacher" (Fuller & Bown, 1975) has also had an enormous impact on thinking in the field of teacher development. These authors reviewed empirical studies on the experience of becoming a teacher. Their approach was developmental and examined the teacher's "life span." In their discussion of preservice teachers, they reported that prior socialization influenced decisions to choose teaching as a career as well as expectations, behaviors, choice of teaching field, and persistence in the profession. A sequence of concerns was developed to describe dominant concerns of preservice teachers at various stages:

1. Pre-teaching concerns were those which included close identification with pupils. During this stage preservice teachers were often unsympathetic or hostile critics of the classroom teachers being observed.
2. Early concerns about survival included strong self-interest in class control, mastery of content, and supervisory evaluations. This stressful period often was exacerbated by constraints in teacher education programs.

3. Teaching situation concerns included recognition of the limitations and frustrations of teaching. There was anxiety about transferring their own learning to their teaching.
4. Concerns about pupils included worry about pupil learning and the social and emotional needs of the pupils. Preservice teachers were often unable to act on these concerns.

Fuller and Bown concluded that although empirical studies recognized differences in situations and in student teachers themselves, few intervention programs were created to discuss these concerns with student teachers or to help student teachers understand the classroom in which they worked. The authors argued that personal development should become an essential part of teacher preparation and student teacher concerns should be dealt with as they occur.

The Socialization of Teachers (Lacey, 1977) reported on a five-year research project about teacher socialization conducted in England. Socialization of student teachers was one part of this study. Data were gathered using participant observation and questionnaire techniques. Lacey delineated a sequence of stages in his discussion of the socialization of student teachers:

1. Honeymoon was a period of euphoria and heightened awareness arising from change in focus from student to teacher. During this stage the culture of the school often was misinterpreted, and student teachers were surprised and worried by what they observed.
2. Search for materials and ways of teaching involved elaborate preparation by student teachers to compensate for their lack of classroom control and lack of teaching ability. This required significant personal investment.
3. Crisis included feelings of failure to control the situation, reach pupils, and teach material. There was an emergence of protective reactions (e.g., blame the system, blame the child).
4. Learning to get by (or failure) was the adoption of strategies to deal with problems in the teaching situation. These strategies included
 - a. strategic compliance; that is, the student teacher complied with the [cooperating teacher's] definition of the situation and its constraints but retained private reservations about them,

- b. internalized adjustment; that is, the student teacher complied with constraints and believed they were for the best, and
- c. strategic redefinition; that is, the student teacher acted to bring about a change in the definition of the situation and/or its constraints.

Lacey found that student teachers changed as they made the transition from student to teacher. Some began to adopt methods, similar to those practiced in the school, for dealing with problems that ran counter to their own ideals. Student teachers' perceptions of their primary reasons for wanting to teach shifted from "idealistic" reasons such as service to reasons related to career and job satisfaction. Commitment to teaching decreased during student teaching; less than 40 percent expected to be working in the schools within 15 years of completion of their training. Student teachers were able to affect their own socialization through their choice of institution and then through choices in their program of preparation.

Feiman-Nemser (1983) reviewed literature which focused not just on student teacher socialization but also on the broader perspective of the learning-to-teach process. Her examination of formal and informal influences on learning to teach was organized chronologically around four phases:

pretraining, preservice, induction, and inservice. Of interest here were her conclusions relevant to preservice socialization. She concluded that learning to teach began long before an individual began a formal program of teacher preparation through experiences in childhood and years of experience as a student. Some of the researchers she reviewed argued that preservice programs were not powerful interventions and that schools were not organized in ways which supported on-the-job training. Feiman-Nemser proposed that if professional studies and schools cultivated "images of the possible and desirable" (p. 154), then preservice teacher education would be more powerful. The first five years of teaching were critical in teacher development with a special emphasis on the first year as the crucial formative year. Learning to teach was most directly influenced by informal sources; the most powerful was the experience of learning to teach itself. Feiman-Nemser concluded that in order to improve teaching and teacher education close attention must be paid to the content and context of the student teaching experience.

Harrington and Sacks (1984) delineated transitional stages in the process of becoming a teacher and specified interventions which could be used with student teachers to foster positive progress through these stages. Their research was supported by over ten years of experience in

working with student teachers. They identified six stages of development:

1. Anticipation occurred prior to student teaching and was characterized by eagerness, excitement, and nervous anxiety.
2. Entry was at the beginning of the placement when the student teachers experienced both euphoria and terror. They followed directions rigorously and often relied on previously learned teacher-like behaviors to "get through the lesson".
3. Orientation was the stage during which the student teachers often felt inadequate or incompetent as their awareness of the complexity of teaching increased. They did not differentiate among pupils as individuals.
4. Trial and Error was a period of vacillation during which student teachers attempted to teach the "right" way, to manage the classroom, and to assert classroom independence and autonomy. This was identified as the most lengthy stage.
5. Integration/Consolidation occurred when student teachers understood more fully the complexity of the teacher role, experienced more consistent effectiveness, and saw pupils as individuals.

6. Mastery was a stage few student teachers attained but many achieved it momentarily. It included understanding one's self as a teacher with strengths and weaknesses and recognizing that effectiveness may be achieved in many ways.

Interventions were matched to student teachers' concerns, both psychological and cognitive. Harrington and Sacks recommended this model to assist student teachers in assessing their own progress and identifying areas for their own improvement, thus fostering progress from one stage to another.

Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) considered socialization as a part of their more extended review of current research on the cultures of teaching. They found that while several groups or individuals have the potential for socializing the preservice teacher, experienced teachers were the most influential. Forces in the socialization of student teachers were limited by several factors: efforts were not unified, student teaching was brief, and beginners were not easily changed and appeared resistant to socialization efforts. Although "socialization" is neutral, teacher socialization was often seen negatively. The teaching cultures found in schools were not always restrictive; socialization was not always a negative experience. Feiman-Nemser and Floden concluded

that existing placement practices must consider these differences in teaching cultures, and student teachers must become actively involved in the socialization process.

The literature considered in this category presented a primarily developmental perspective of student teacher socialization. Student teachers had extensive informal socialization experiences prior to beginning their formal program of teacher education. The transition from student to teacher was discussed as stages in which changes in concerns and attitudes took place. The circumstances of student teaching were idiosyncratic and student teachers moved through the transition period at varying rates with diversified experiences and outcomes.

Professional Knowledge and Skill

This category contains literature reporting research relative to the kinds of knowledge and skill a student teacher acquires during the student teaching semester.

Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985) used three vignettes based on observations and interviews at the elementary level to examine the contribution of experience in learning to teach. The vignettes focused on three specific questions: what were the preservice teachers learning, how did these lessons relate to helping pupils learn, and to what extent did the lessons foster the capacity to learn from future experience. The authors identified three

pitfalls or types of inappropriate learning which arose during the experience of learning to teach. One pitfall was "unquestioned familiarity." Student knowledge about and familiarity with classrooms often limited student teacher openness to new experiences and new knowledge; that is, experience "may block the flow of speculation and reflection by which we form new habits of thought and action" (p. 56). A second was the "two-world" pitfall. Experiences in the classroom and university coursework were not always linked together in ways which had meaning and significance for student teachers. The availability of academic learning for use in classrooms often depended on knowledge of how to adapt it to concrete situations. The third pitfall was labelled "cross purposes." The legitimate purposes of teachers center on the classroom as a place for student learning rather than as a place for teacher learning. Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann concluded that to overcome the pitfall of unquestioned familiarity required that student teachers break away from the familiar and examine alternatives in order to recognize the influence of personal history on perceptions of classrooms. Overcoming the two-world pitfall required acknowledgment that teaching is "acting with understanding" and that assistance is needed in order for student teachers to connect knowledge with its application. The authors also

concluded that structural and normative changes in schools would be required to overcome the cross-purposes pitfall.

Russell (1986) investigated how student teachers developed "knowledge-in-action" [knowledge that is apparent in a professional's day-to-day actions (Schon, 1983)]. Data were collected from four student teachers through the use of observations and interviews. Particular attention was paid to the distinction between knowledge expressed in words and knowledge expressed in actions. The author found that student teachers had limited opportunities for reflection; that is, the recognition and exploration of puzzling teaching events and characteristics of the classroom. Such reflection was often discouraged during student teaching. Russell concluded that student teaching may be an inappropriate time in which to expect "knowledge-in-action" to be gained.

Zahorik (1986) identified three broad conceptual categories of good teaching and described how the needs of teachers and the developmental stages of teacher growth dictate which conception should be emphasized during preservice and inservice experiences. First, he proposed a Science-Research conception of good teaching which included doing what effective teachers do, following a tested model, and operationalizing learning principles. The major skills in this conception included specific,

detailed classroom acts such as getting students ready to learn; presenting information to be learned; checking students' understanding through questioning; providing practice with close monitoring; and reviewing at regular intervals. Second was a Theory-Philosophy conception of teaching which included implementing a theoretical model or philosophical model of teaching. The major skills in this conception included understanding the model and implementing a consistent, compatible set of behaviors suggested by the model to promote student learning. The third conception Zahorik proposed was an Art-Craft conception of teaching which included performing in creative, resourceful ways. The major skills were assessment, reflection, and application or invention. Zahorik recommended that emphasis on the major teaching skills from the Science-Research conception might be most appropriate for preservice teachers although skills they acquire should not be limited to this conception.

Schumacher, Rommel-Esham, and Bauer (1987) examined the extent to which generic objectives for preservice elementary teachers were common to university-based educators and school-based educators. Data were collected through use of the Teacher Knowledge and Beliefs Inventory (TKBI) developed by Virginia Commonwealth University. Respondents included 28 university-based educators and 30

school-based educators. Group profiles of crucial professional knowledge objectives differed significantly. While knowledge about students, the social context of schooling, and curriculum were considered more crucial by university respondents, school-based educators considered knowledge about teachers and teaching strategies more crucial. School-based respondents emphasized knowledge that related to immediate and daily teacher decision making while university-based respondents emphasized the general and theoretical knowledge underlying the framework of teacher decision making. Both groups rated highly the knowledge of content and disciplines as they relate to subject matter. Schumacher et al. concluded that student teachers need the theoretical and general knowledge emphasized by the university as well as the practical and particularistic knowledge emphasized by the school. Without both types of knowledge, student teachers could not integrate theory and practice or develop informed decision making.

Zeichner and Liston (1987) assessed an elementary student teaching program oriented toward reflection in teaching. Five curricular components comprise the student teaching program:

1. Teaching exposed student teachers to all aspects of the teacher's role in and out of the classroom.

2. Inquiry situated schools, curricula, and pedagogy within their socio-historical contexts.
3. Seminars broadened student teacher perspectives on teaching, considered rationales underlying alternative possibilities for classrooms and pedagogy, and assessed student teacher perspectives toward teaching.
4. Journals provided vehicles for systematic reflection on student teacher development and activities.
5. Supervisory Conferences focused on both classroom lessons and general development of student teacher perspectives.

Research studies examining this student teaching program found that student teachers were encouraged to view their student teaching context as problematic, to see teachers as moral craftspersons, and to clarify their own chosen perspectives concerning the teacher role. Several factors impeded this program. The historical view of student teaching as an apprenticeship made it difficult to establish the legitimacy of inquiry and reflection in a student teaching program. Student teachers resisted spending time away from the "more important" tasks of applying and demonstrating knowledge and skill. The structure of the roles of the university supervisors and the cooperating teachers was not conducive to this type of program. There was a lack of coherence and coordination in

teacher education program as a whole. And finally, most schools did not actively encourage teachers to engage in reflective practice.

Herrmann (1988) reported results of the first part of a three-phase study on preservice teachers' organization of knowledge about effective teaching. Seven elementary majors formed the sample for this study. Data were collected through interviews using an "ordered tree technique" which allowed subjects to display the concepts included in their knowledge structures and how these concepts were tied together in a network of relationships. The ordered trees were analyzed using a numeric measure and a coherence measure. The author found that some preservice teachers' knowledge structures became more extensive but less coherent over time, some became overburdened with newly learned concepts which were easily forgotten, and some experienced difficulty in understanding the relationships among concepts taught in various courses. Herrmann concluded that it may be necessary to spend more time explaining how concepts are interrelated and to develop ways for preservice teachers to use newly learned concepts more extensively.

The literature reviewed in this section presented a learning-based perspective for student teaching. Although teacher education programs emphasized the acquisition of

theoretical knowledge during student teaching, student teachers were often limited during this time to learning specific teaching strategies and techniques and demonstrating mastery of them.

Teacher Perspectives

The studies reviewed in this category cluster around the socialization of student teachers relative to teacher perspectives; that is, how teachers think about their work, such as purposes and goals, and how they act out those beliefs in classrooms (Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1984).

Tabachnick, Popkewitz, and Zeichner (1979-80) conducted an intensive study of a representative sample of twelve elementary student teachers. Data collection included individual and group interviews, observations of teaching, seminars, and supervisory conferences. They found that the activities and interactions of student teachers were quite limited. The student teachers had "little control over their classroom activities and engaged mostly in the routine and mechanistic teaching of precise short-term skills and in management activities designed to keep the class quiet, orderly, and on task" (pp. 16-17). Student teachers' interactions with children tended to be brief, impersonal, and focused on the immediate task. In their interactions with cooperating teachers, student teachers most frequently assumed passive roles and their

time was spent in discussing procedural or managerial issues rather than substantive ones. Tabachnick et al. concluded that, although teacher education programs stated that student teaching was to be a dynamic and open-ended process, the behaviors and beliefs of student teachers identified in their study contradicted those purposes. They recommended that alternatives to student teaching in its present form be developed.

Sinclair and Nicoll (1980) studied sources of concern and anxiety in student teaching and how these were expressed by student teachers while teaching and interacting with pupils and supervisors. Data were collected using repeated questionnaires (an A-trait scale and Pupil Ideology Control scale) with 84 preservice teachers and interviews with 28. The authors found that student teachers often believed student teaching was a test of their adequacy as a prospective teacher and tended to focus on whether they "passed" in their presentation of a lesson rather than what they learned. The attitudes of the cooperating teacher, university supervisor, school staff, and administrator with whom the student teachers worked greatly influenced how student teachers viewed themselves as teachers and how they were accepted by pupils. Anxiety levels were reduced somewhat across the experience, but attitudes toward classroom control became more custodial.

Sinclair and Nicoll concluded that more support and guidance were needed to provide satisfactory experiences for student teachers.

Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) expanded their previous work in student teacher socialization through a study documenting the range and diversity of existing perspectives and examining factors which contributed to the development of or changes in the perspectives of student teachers. Data were collected from thirteen elementary student teachers through the use of a teacher belief inventory, interviews, and observations. Interview data were also collected from cooperating teachers and university supervisors. Tabachnick and Zeichner found that student teachers controlled the general direction of their socialization and developed more elaborated perspectives across the semester. They believed that these findings were contrary to conventional wisdom relative to student teacher socialization. Tabachnick and Zeichner also found that student teacher socialization was a negotiated, interactive process in which prior socialization directed but did not determine the outcomes of socialization during student teaching. However, they warned that these findings must be considered within the context of their sample's student teaching program. These student teachers had opportunities to give direction to their placements through

negotiation; they were encouraged to actively determine the form and substance of their teaching; and they received supervision which encouraged a reflective or analytic stance toward practice. The authors concluded that under certain conditions student teachers might have more control over their student teaching than previously thought rather than being controlled by their student teaching situations.

Tardif (1985) investigated the process of becoming a teacher and the development of teacher perspectives. Data on four secondary student teachers were collected through classroom observations, interviews, document analysis, and videotaping. Tardif identified two major themes: feeling like a teacher and behaving like a teacher. The first theme entailed "seeing oneself see as a teacher" (p. 141) (i.e., the ability to stand back to analyze oneself objectively) and "establishing a teacher identity" (p.142) (i.e., the adoption of attitudes and patterned ways of thinking viewed as role appropriate) to gain credibility. The second theme entailed the adoption of patterns of response based on the student teachers' interpretation of the classroom situation and cooperating teacher expectations. Tardif concluded that these student teachers accepted definitions and expectations imposed by others, sometimes renouncing parts of their personal selves. The forces of socialization were very powerful in the school

setting, and student teachers generally acceded to the way things were.

Blase (1985) conducted two ethnographic studies of the development of teacher perspectives. Qualitative data were collected retrospectively on the impact of personal and professional factors on teachers' perspectives. The first study investigated 43 teachers, and the second study investigated 80 teachers. Interviews, questionnaires, observations, and indirect sources of evidence (e.g., test, lesson plans) were utilized in data collection. Blase found that teachers brought to the job "naive and unrealistic assumptions, values, and goals, many of which were drawn from preservice preparation and experience" (p. 241). Data consistently suggested that through a patterned shift to a rationalized instructional perspective, teaching methods, materials, and subject matter were redesigned to meet the needs and expectations of others. Blase emphasized that teachers felt that this rationalization undermined the educative process and that teacher performance and student learning were constricted.

Blase (1986) used the data collected in this earlier study to examine the impact of interactions with students on the socialization of teachers. He found that interactions with students represented a major expansion in teachers' perspectives "from naivete and a preoccupation

with self toward a greater concern for others" (p. 104). During the beginning years, teachers assumed a peer-like orientation toward their students; and, in later years, basic relationships were marked by increased social and psychological distance from their students. Teachers reported that during their early years of teaching they had had false assumptions about students as people which were specifically related to the teachers' limited experiences with life in the real world. In later years teachers became more knowledgeable about student diversity (e.g., motivation, academic abilities, family support) and the complexity of linkages between student factors and school-specific attitudes and behaviors. Consequently, they developed a broader, more complex framework (e.g., less critical, less judgmental, more accepting) from which to view students. Blase concluded that the powerful effects students have on teacher socialization challenged assumptions in the professional literature regarding the importance of administrators, faculty, and parents in the socialization of teachers.

Ricord (1986) explored the development of the "self as teacher" during student teaching. Interviews with nine student teachers at a Canadian university provided the data for this study. The author found that before beginning their teaching, student teachers seemed mature, positively

oriented toward teaching, and confident about subject matter knowledge and their ability to communicate it to pupils. During student teaching, the development of personal teacher perspectives was strongly influenced by individual personality characteristics. In particular, this study reported the student teachers who were dogmatic, assertive, and had an external locus of control had fewer problems adjusting to the teacher role. Dilemmas arose for student teachers in the areas of teaching tasks, curriculum, and self with regard to conflicts between personal and school goals, thoughts and actions, and ideal and real practices. Ricord recommended assigning a facilitator, with no evaluative function, to assist student teachers in resolving dilemmas and to enable student teachers to maintain a student-centered approach to teaching.

Weinstein (1988) investigated the expectations about teaching held by preservice teachers. Data were collected from 148 elementary preservice teachers through the use of a questionnaire. Preservice teachers consistently reported the expectation that others would have more problems with the tasks of teaching than they expected to encounter personally. The findings supported the argument that the reality shock experienced by many beginning teachers was due in part to their unrealistic expectations about their

personal capabilities as teachers. Weinstein recommended that teacher education programs assist preservice teachers to ground their optimism about their teaching abilities in accurate assessment of their skills and knowledge about the demands of teaching.

The literature presented in this section considered the development or acquisition of teacher perspectives. The outcomes were reported in terms of dispositions (i.e., attitudes, beliefs, values) and behaviors. The frame of reference with which student teachers began their teaching was most often self-centered. Thoughts about their work focused on themselves and behaviors in the classroom were attempts to meet the expectations they believed others had about their work. Some studies pointed out that prior socialization into the student perspective strongly influenced but did not control how student teachers thought about their work and acted out those beliefs. Direct experiences as teachers and discussion of those experiences were necessary to expand the perspective of the student teachers.

Institutional Context

This category reviews literature which reported about the institutional context in which student teaching occurs. Reported here are studies which examined the nature of the classrooms and schools in which student teachers were

placed and how that environment influenced the student teachers.

Popkewitz and Wehlage (1977) proposed that school is an institution which shapes and affects its participants and that certain regular patterns direct both thought and behavior in the school. They identified three attributes, found in all forms of work, which helped clarify school practices: activities in which people were engaged, interactions created by those activities, and the sentiments that accompanied the activities and interactions. Of interest here were the sentiments, the assumptions, beliefs, feelings, and norms of the participants. These sentiments were "the key to the socialization process in which participants [came] to accept the goals and routines of the institution as necessary and satisfying" (p. 73). Sentiments served as guides which oriented student teachers to what was appropriate and reasonable within the context of the school. Popkewitz and Wehlage argued that bureaucratic conceptions of organization and authority created the work activities and the interactions of student teachers. Thus, teaching was engagement in short-term, standardized activities and interactions and student teaching was a way to maintain existing classroom regularities and interpretations. The authors summarized the sentiments

embedded in the work of student teaching in the following way, "Knowledge is made depersonalized, fragmented, and specialized. The teacher's task is to diagnose and channel children toward predefined behaviors and knowledge" (p. 83). Over time, student teachers imitated their cooperating teachers and their conceptions of teaching were constructed from the limited range of activities and interactions available to them.

Goodlad (1983b) identified sixteen commonplaces of schools: teaching practices, content or subject matter, instructional materials, physical environment, activities, human resources, evaluation, time, organization, communications, decision making, leadership, goals, issues and problems, implicit curriculum, and controls or restraints. (See Goodlad, 1983a, for complete data.) He pointed out that during student teaching there was little or no exposure to the functioning of the school as a whole. Socialization of student teachers was almost exclusively limited to one classroom and one teacher. Supervising teachers most frequently used standardized pedagogical processes, and student teachers received little or no preparation for school-wide activities or responsibilities. Preservice professional preparation was "too thin and too limited to transcend the conventional wisdom regarding what teaching is. Teachers teach as they were taught" (p. 57).

Goodlad recommended that rather than placing student teachers in a single classroom with an individual supervising teacher they be placed in a school where responsibility for their student teaching experiences would be school-wide.

Goodman (1985) explored the institutional constraints which affect student teaching. Data were collected for 12 elementary student teachers through observations, interviews, and document analysis. Goodman found that the curriculum was the primary force of institutional control in the school; it determined the daily schedule, course content, and classroom activities. The curriculum was predetermined and highly routinized, and most student teachers had little involvement in curriculum development or decision making. A secondary force of control derived from the emphasis placed on testing and accountability which created an atmosphere of anxiety. The major concern of most student teachers was outcomes, instructional or managerial, rather than the process of education. Goodman reported that student teachers reacted to these institutional constraints in four different ways:

1. Passive acceptance was the general, uncritical desire to 'fit into' the existing institutional order.

2. Active acceptance was the active endorsement of and belief in established attitudes and practices as 'just common sense'.
3. Latent resistance was the superficial acceptance of existing conditions accompanied by unspoken determination to do things differently in 'my own classroom'.
4. Overt resistance was the attempt to renegotiate 'space' for themselves within the existing structure of the classroom.

Whatever the basic stance adopted by student teachers, Goodman found that each accepted or resisted the institutional constraints to some degree. He concluded that the dominant view of good teaching was extremely narrow and needed to be radically altered and recommended that teacher preparation be viewed as a process of professional socialization. Goodman also concluded that student teaching was neither universally positive nor totally coercive. The student teaching experience had a conservative effect on student teachers inhibiting their creativity, intellectual involvement with curriculum, and the range of teaching practices they attempted. Yet, many student teachers were able to resist pressures to conform.

Campbell (1985) examined variables which influenced student teacher behavior. Data were collected on 11

elementary student teachers using observations, interviews, and written surveys. Nine categories of variables were developed from analysis of the data: planning and management; environment; teacher behavior/response; pupil behavior/response; supervisory personnel; teacher's ideas, beliefs, and characteristics; teacher experiences; pupils' attitudes, characteristics, and experiences; and characteristics and goals of the curriculum content. Campbell found that student teacher behavior could not be explained by any one category as it involved complex interactions among variables. The influence of the variables differed during the interactive and non-interactive phases of the teaching process and over the course of the student teaching semester. Because the variables which influenced student teacher behavior often remained covert or hidden, Campbell recommended that school and university supervisors be trained to help student teachers increase their awareness of influences on their behavior and analyze and assess the appropriateness of such influences.

The literature presented in this category focused on the institutional context in which student teacher socialization occurs. Student teacher expectations of teaching, promoted by prior socialization or teacher preparation programs, were often constrained by the

organizational character of the schools; and, thus, student teacher participation in the life of the school was limited. Student teachers frequently adopted stances which allowed them to succeed in student teaching and spent little time in analyzing or reflecting on their experiences. Emphasis in student teaching was on the development of particular attitudes and beliefs or the acquisition of skills and techniques.

Interpersonal Context

This category clusters around studies which examined the patterns of interaction and influence between and among participants in the student teaching experience. Studies which explored the agents of student teacher socialization are included, but studies which focused on the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor are excluded.

Friebus (1977) examined student teaching in order to specify the range of individuals who participate in the socialization of the student teacher. Data were collected in a series of six interviews with nineteen student teachers in a variety of grade levels and subject matter areas. There were four major areas of interest in this study:

1. Coaching was the collection of activities involving someone who guided and advised the student teacher.

2. Legitimation referred to someone who sanctioned in some way student teachers' claims to professional identities.
3. Success/Failure was the label for the person or persons student teachers used as a reference to determine if they were succeeding or failing with respect to the tasks of the profession.
4. Peer involvement was the degree to which other student teachers affected the socialization process.

Friebus found that student teachers came in contact with a wide variety of people who acted as coaches. The most frequent source of coaching was the cooperating teacher. Six other sources, in rank order, were university supervisors, other teachers, self, university professors, pupils, and building principals. The pupils were the most prominent sources of legitimation and the cooperating teachers were second. Pupils were the overwhelming referent in providing the student teachers with a sense of their success or failure in the tasks of the teaching. Finally, most student teachers reported that contacts with other student teachers were extremely limited or non-existent. The author also found that spouses and serious dating partners provided important inputs into the socialization process; the social roles in which student teachers were involved outside the school environment

generated conflicts of time and interest for the student teachers. Friebus concluded that meaningful inputs into the socialization of student teachers was not limited to the cooperating teacher, to the school in which the student teacher was placed, or the university. Student teachers' references to themselves indicated that student teachers were active contributors to their own socialization and not passive recipients.

Clark (1979) examined the function of the principal in the administration of a student teacher program. Data were collected from 142 principals through a questionnaire. Half of the principals were directed to respond under actual conditions, half under ideal conditions. The principals in this study reported that they were cognizant of and involved in their local student teaching program. Principals reported more involvement with introducing the student teacher to the school and the local district than with assisting the student teacher during the semester or working with the teacher education program. The author concluded that involvement of principals appeared to be predominantly in the functions which were related directly to the school, which were seen as administrative functions, and which were viewed as administratively feasible. Clark recommended that teacher preparation programs recognize, assist, and encourage more involvement by the principal.

Oliver (1983) developed a guide to assist principals in facilitating positive student teacher experiences. He stated there were areas of student teacher socialization for which the principal should be responsible:

1. Commitment adjustment provided student teachers with knowledge about the community in which the school was located (e.g., geography, housing, medical resources, law enforcement agencies).
2. Position adjustment provided student teachers with knowledge about the norms within the school and the district and how others in the school viewed student teachers.
3. Personal adjustment provided student teachers with assistance in arranging living accommodations and transportation as well as adjusting to new demands.

Oliver specifically recommended that the principal review district policy; explain policies related to the school, teachers, and pupils; make inservice materials available to the student teachers; and introduce student teachers to school personnel.

The literature reviewed in this section indicated that there were a number of agents in the socialization of student teachers in addition to the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor, the traditional subjects in studies of socializing agents during student teaching. It

was also clear that studies which examined the interpersonal context of the student teaching experience and the influence of that context on the socialization of the student teacher were limited in number.

Summary

The review of literature in this chapter has provided some insights into the process of socialization for student teachers. Many of the studies examined developmental issues in student teacher socialization, stages through which student teachers pass on their way to becoming a teacher, attitudes, values or beliefs they acquire that influence their activities as a teacher. Some investigated student teacher socialization using a learning-based approach, the acquisition of information, skills, techniques. Other studies addressed the context in which the socialization occurs, the institutional environment and the interpersonal relationships.

The study reported here is an investigation into the context of student teacher socialization. The methods and procedures used to collect and analyze data are presented in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The process of becoming and being a teacher is a complex one, involving, in part, interactions among people within a school setting. To gain an understanding of how student teachers learn about the professional and organizational facets of teaching outside of the classroom, a semester-long study was conducted. The study was designed so that student teachers would identify the areas and agents of their socialization into the teaching profession during their student teaching semester. In particular the study sought to record and describe the impact the building principal had on the knowledge a student teacher acquired about the school as a workplace and the profession of teaching.

Research Design

The research design is depicted in Figure 1. Two separate populations were required, building principals and student teachers. Samples were selected from each population. The sample of twelve principals was divided into two groups. One of the groups was sensitized to the needs and concerns of student teachers. A sample of twenty-four student teachers, two placed at each school,

was interviewed three times during the semester.

Interviews were analyzed using content analysis procedures.

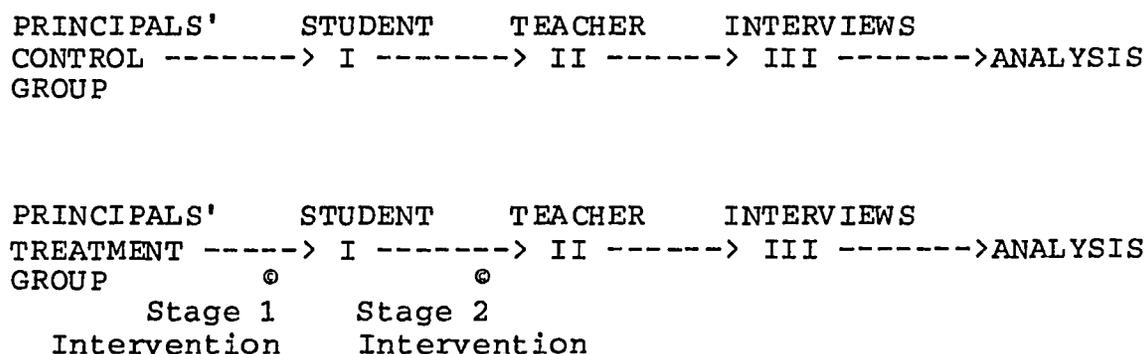


Figure 1. Research Design Across the Student Teaching Semester.

Data Collection Procedures

Selection of Principals

Building principals from schools in one large school district in the Southwest, in which student teachers were placed for spring semester of 1988, formed one population. Participation in this study was sought among principals who had three or more student teachers placed in their buildings. It was felt that these principals would be more conscious of the presence of student teachers in their schools. The principals were divided into two groups. The control group was composed of three elementary and three

secondary principals. These principals were simply asked for permission by the researcher to interview student teachers in their buildings; they were not asked to participate in the study in any other way. The treatment group was also composed of three elementary and three secondary principals. A two-stage intervention program was developed for the principals in this group. In order to determine the role the principal appeared to have on student teacher acquisition of knowledge about the profession of teaching and knowledge about the school as a workplace, differences in the involvement of principals had to exist. The intervention was an attempt to create involvement on the part of the principal.

Intervention Procedures

Stage 1 of the intervention was a meeting with the principals. At this meeting information about the teaching profession and student teachers was provided in order to sensitize these principals to the needs of student teachers and to suggest ways for focusing the content of their interactions with the student teachers placed in their buildings.

Materials used at this meeting included:

1. Quotes from current educational research about the difficulties encountered in becoming a teacher. The sources were listed chronologically and followed by bibliographic information. (See Appendix A for list of sources.)
2. Summaries of recent research articles about student teachers, their needs and concerns during the student teaching semester. The summaries were followed by copies of the articles. (See Appendix B for list of articles.)
3. Suggested activities which could increase the principal's participation in the student teaching experience. The activities focused on the professional and organizational demands of teaching and the school as a workplace. These activities suggested opportunities for principals to provide student teachers with helpful information regarding extraclassroom situations with which teachers must deal. The areas represented by the activities were system information (e.g., the district and the school), personnel information (e.g., faculty and staff), administrator participation with student teachers (e.g., the role of the principal), student teacher participation in the school (e.g., the role of the student teacher), and administrator participation in the student

teaching program (e.g., active role in the formal student teaching program).

4. Case study activities which focused on specific situations involving student teachers relative to professional behavior and organizational demands. For example:

One afternoon, as you are walking down the hallway between classes, you see Mr. Marks, a student teacher, push a student up against the wall and begin shaking him and shouting at him. By the time you get there, the student is gone, but Mr. Marks is still quivering with anger.

Each situation was analyzed to determine the problems presented, the desirable levels of involvement on the part of the principal, the desirable levels of involvement of others, and possible outcomes in each situation.

Stage 2 of the intervention was a follow-up session with each of the principals at their school. These sessions were at the request of either the principal or the researcher. At some sessions, the materials presented in Stage 1 were discussed more fully. At others, meetings between the principal and the student teachers were observed. Final follow-up sessions were held with principals in order to critique the materials.

Selection of Student Teachers

After the two groups of principals were established, participation in the study was sought among student teachers placed in those schools. A sample of two student teachers from each of the twelve schools was identified. In the elementary schools, student teachers at grade levels K through 6 participated in the study; in the secondary schools, student teachers from seven subject matter areas participated. The student teacher participants totaled 24.

Interview Procedures

The student teachers were interviewed three times during the semester. All of the interviews were done by the researcher so that the integrity of the interview technique could be preserved and responses across participants could be compared. All interviews were taped for later transcription and analysis.

The first interviews took place within the first three weeks of the semester in order to capture initial impressions and knowledge about the school that the student teachers possessed before actually "being the teacher." The interviews were focused but unstructured in order to allow the student teachers opportunities to talk about those items of most importance to them at the time of the interview. Thus, the participants largely determined the direction of the interview rather than the researcher.

Student teachers were asked to respond to the following areas of inquiry:

1. Think about your school and, when you are ready, tell me what you know about it.
2. Tell me about the relationships and/or interactions among the adults in the school.
3. Tell me about what a teacher does.

Student teachers were encouraged to discuss fully their experiences, perceptions, and reactions. However, probes by the interviewer were limited to variations of "Do you want to add anything else?" This was intended to allow the student teachers to discuss what they considered most salient, the knowledge of most worth to them, at the time of the interview.

The second interviews took place during the middle of the semester, in the seventh and eighth weeks of student teaching. The interview format and procedures were the same as those used in the first interviews. The information gathered in these interviews did not appear to differ in any significant way from that gathered in the first interviews.

The third interviews took place during the last two weeks of the semester. These interviews were focused and structured. The three areas of inquiry were the same, but an interview guide was used to probe responses and gather

detailed data related to prominent categories which had emerged in the first interviews. (See Appendix C for a copy of the Interview Guide.)

The interview guide was developed from the transcribed protocols of the first interviews with all 24 participants. Each protocol was skimmed to identify prominent categories addressed by the student teachers in the interview. For example, in the area of inquiry about the school, several student teachers talked about the students. Some described the typical students who attended the school and others discussed student ambitions and goals. In the area of adult relationships and interactions, student teachers spoke about observations of or experiences with administrators, teachers, aides, and so on. In the area of inquiry about what a teacher does, student teachers named or discussed a wide variety of teacher tasks and teacher roles. Finally, several student teachers added information outside the specific areas of inquiry and often indicated the source of the information they were presenting.

This interview guide was used to probe student teachers in the third interview in order to clarify their initial responses, to elicit information in the prominent categories to which they had not responded freely, and to identify the sources of their information. Participants were asked specifically about the knowledge they learned

from the principal and then asked generally about other sources of the knowledge they had reported in the interview.

Data Analysis Procedures

The methodology for data analysis used in this study was based on an interpretive paradigm. It consisted of multiphase, iterative analyses of the interview protocols. Comparisons and contrasts between the first and third interviews were used as indicators of change in the professional knowledge of the student teachers. The second interviews were not analyzed for this study because the information was redundant. A total of 48 interview protocols were analyzed.

Phase 1 - Identification of Categories

Protocols for the 48 interviews were examined closely using content analysis procedures to allow the researcher to discover categories of knowledge within the data rather than use a priori categories. Specific procedures follow:

- a. Every participant was assigned a number in order to ensure anonymity of response.
- b. Interviews were designated by color: interview 1 - green; interview 3 - pink.
- c. Interview protocols were broken into units of knowledge; that is, every remark or series of remarks about one specific topic related to a professional or

organizational facet of teaching was considered to be a separate unit of knowledge. For example, when a student teacher reported there was a librarian at the school, that information was considered to be a remark related to one specific topic and was counted as one unit of knowledge. When a student teacher reported there was a librarian at the school, the activities the librarian planned for the students, and how helpful the librarian was in teacher planning, that information was considered to be a series of remarks related to one specific topic and was counted as only one unit of knowledge.

- d. Cards for each interview were color coded by interview. This was done to identify which units of knowledge were found in the first interview and which in the third.
- e. Every unit of knowledge was transferred to a numbered card. If the unit of knowledge resulted from probing by the interviewer, the letter "p" was also written on the card.
- f. Every numbered card contained the following information: area of inquiry, unit of knowledge, "p" if applicable, and participant number.
- g. All cards were sorted; first, by area of inquiry, second, by unit of knowledge. Cards written from both

interviews were used to create categories. It was considered important to determine overall categories in order to reveal those about which student teachers reported little or no knowledge at the beginning of the student teaching semester but which were important by the end.

- h. Cards which contained similar units of knowledge were grouped into categories and the categories were given labels. Cards were sorted into 38 categories. Each category label reflected the general character of the content of the units of knowledge placed in that category. For example, in the area of inquiry called School, some units of knowledge related to the student population of the school. Some of the student teachers discussed the cultural diversity of the students and others the attitudes the students had about learning and the school. Thus, two separate categories were created and labeled. (See Appendix D for complete list of category labels for each area of inquiry.) The categories, therefore, emerged from the knowledge the student teachers considered to be most salient during the interviews.
- i. Participant units of knowledge from the first and third interviews were matched in each category. For example, if a participant talked about the cultural

diversity of the student population in the first interview and repeated essentially the same information in the third interview, the units of knowledge were considered a match and indicated no change in professional knowledge.

- j. Participant units of knowledge from the first and third interviews were also contrasted in each category. For example, if a participant talked about the cultural diversity of the student population in terms of specific percentages in the first interview and again talked about cultural diversity in the third interview but used significantly different percentages, the units of knowledge were considered a contrast and indicated a change in professional knowledge.

Phase 2 - Tabulation of Frequencies

Approximately 1300 units of knowledge which emerged from content analysis of the interview protocols were assigned to a category in one of the three areas of inquiry; School, Relationships, or Teacher. Frequencies were tabulated by area of inquiry, student teacher participant, and group membership. (See Appendix E for a copy of the Tabulation Sheet.) Specific procedures follow:

- a. A separate tabulation sheet was created for each category. There were a total of 38 tabulation sheets.

- b. Every unit of knowledge was indicated on the tabulation sheet by participant number, group membership, interview number, and whether comparison of the units represented a match or a contrast.
- c. Totals for units of knowledge were calculated for each category tabulation sheet.
- d. Totals were transferred to separate tables for each area of inquiry and an overall summary table. (See Appendix F for Tables F-1 through F-4.)
- e. Total units of knowledge were tabulated from the category tabulation sheets for individual participants. Totals were transferred to a summary table. (See Appendix F for Table F-5.)
- f. Total units of knowledge were tabulated from the individual participants for each principal in the study. Tabulations by control group and treatment group are displayed in a table with subtotals by group and total units of knowledge. (See Appendix F for Table F-6 through F-8.)
- g. Totals on all tables were balanced against one another to assure that all units of knowledge were accounted for.
- h. The Chi Square statistical test was used to determine if the differences between the total units of

knowledge reported by the control group and the treatment group were significant.

Phase 3 - Separation of Units of Knowledge Pertaining to
Extraclassroom Knowledge

"Units of knowledge" refer to the knowledge student teachers considered most salient at the time of the interviews. Some of these units of knowledge reflected the importance of working with students in a classroom. Other units reflected concerns and considerations in other areas of teaching. Of particular interest in this study were those units of knowledge which reported extraclassroom concerns and considerations; that is, knowledge about the demands, requirements, and expectations of the teaching profession and knowledge about the school as a workplace. Units of knowledge reporting on these areas were separated from the total units of knowledge.

Approximately 800 units of knowledge were separated and tabulated using the same procedures as those described in Phase 2 of the data analysis. The results of these 800 units of knowledge are reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

Results of the data analyses are reported in this chapter in the form of frequency tabulations. Results relative to each of the three areas of inquiry are discussed first. Next, results relative to overall knowledge are presented. Then, results for individual student teachers in the study are discussed. Finally, comparisons are drawn between student teachers placed in buildings administered by principals in the control group (CG) and those in the treatment group (TG). In addition, a perspective emerged during the analyses of the data that resulted in a reordering and reanalysis of the data. This perspective was based on student teacher reports of positive involvements with the building principal during the student teaching semester. The results of the reanalysis are also reported in this chapter.

Excerpts from the interviews are used in this chapter to exemplify the range of qualitative differences in the units of knowledge which were evident in the responses of the student teachers. Some of the student teachers made very limited responses. They reported that they had no knowledge about a particular category, or their reports

were very general statements unsupported by detailed information. Other student teachers reported a greater depth or extent of knowledge. They made general statements supported by the use of examples, and they demonstrated an understanding of how the information had importance in the life of a teacher.

An example of a low quality or limited response was reported by Student Teacher 24:

I don't seem to know much outside these two rooms. Maybe that's because I haven't been, you know, circulating around the building.

This student teacher was unable to report knowledge about any of the facilities available at the school other than the classrooms in which she worked.

An example of a high quality or extended response was reported by Student Teacher 7:

Here they have the assertive discipline system. I've used it and it works well for me. It's easier for me than having to take time out and discipline the child. I just put the name up on the board and then everything is okay. All the kids have their bad days and I am aware of that. The principal is really good about discipline. If he hears that a child is having a problem,

he'll ask the child to explain to him. Really bad behavior .. I haven't see any here.

Student Teacher 7 reported on a school wide discipline policy, how she implemented that policy in the classroom, the involvement of the principal in supporting that policy, and the overall effect that the discipline policy had in the school.

However, the quality of responses varied within a single interview; no student teacher made all high quality responses. Responses which were judged to be high quality were found in both the control group and the treatment group; neither group presented a pattern of responses judged to be high quality.

Areas of Inquiry

Student teachers were asked to respond in three areas of inquiry: the school, relationships within the school, and what teachers do.

I. Tell me what you know about the school

Frequency tabulations of units of knowledge reported by student teachers in the first interview (I) and the third interview (III) are presented in Table 1. A unit of knowledge is a remark or series of remarks about one specific topic related to a professional or organizational facet of teaching outside of the classroom.

Table 1

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Area of Inquiry I - School

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
Comparisons	4	5	2	1	0	0	0	0
Location	1	2	10a	10a	1	2	0	0
Atmosphere	4	7	7	11	2	1	1	0
Facilities	9	5	18a	13a	1	0	0	0
Who Attends	8	7	17	16	2	3	1	1
St. Attit/Behavior	5	5	9	8	0	0	2	0
Academic Programs	6	2	12a	12a	4	0	0	0
St. Activities	2	7	12	9	1	3	0	0
Rules/Policies	6	7	26a	19a	2	3	0	0
Administration	0	6	3	2	0	0	0	0
Teachers	0	0	5	7	0	0	0	0
Resource Personnel	15	11	29a	30a	10	7	2	0
Non-Certified Staff	5	3	5	5	2	1	0	0
Parents	2	1	8a	10a	1	0	0	0
TOTALS	67	68	163b	153b	26	20	6	1

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III

M = Match C = Contrast

CG = Control Group TG = Treatment Group

^a Some participants were probed in this category.

^b CG = 61 probed responses TG = 64 probed responses

Categories which emerged from the data analyses were given labels which characterized the content of the units of knowledge placed in each category. The category descriptions for the area of inquiry called School are listed below.

Comparisons - statements comparing other schools to some aspect of the school in which the student teacher was placed

Location - descriptions of the neighborhood in which the school is situated or the geographic placement of the school within the city

Atmosphere - statements conveying impressions of the school and how it feels to be there

Facilities - descriptions of buildings and grounds (e.g., maintenance, architecture)

Who Attends - statements about student population (e.g., cultural diversity, attendance area)

Student Attitudes/Behavior - descriptions of student attitudes, behavior, goals

Academic Program - special classes and programs offered at the school (e.g., Gifted and Talented Education, English as a Second Language)

Student Activities - sports, clubs, special events which are offered for students

Rules/Policies - school or classroom rules and policies which teachers are expected to enforce

Administration - general statements about the administration, principals, and assistant principals (e.g., turnover, distance from staff)

Teachers - general statements about teachers as co-workers (e.g., qualifications, methodology)

Resource Personnel - general statements about staff who act in academic support roles (e.g., librarian, counselor)

Non-Certified Staff - general statements about other adults who work in the school (e.g., secretary, nurse)

Parents - descriptions of parent participation in the school

Results for the student teachers placed in buildings of principals in the control group (CG) are separate from those of student teachers in the buildings of principals in the treatment group (TG).

A separate frequency column was established for those units of knowledge reported by a student teacher in the third interview which matched units of knowledge previously reported by the same student teacher in the first interview. For example, Student Teacher 22 stated in the first interview that "[the school] takes in a diverse

population of students. I would guess that the minority population is fairly high." In the third interview, she stated "It has different economic backgrounds, different cultural backgrounds." These units of knowledge were considered to be a match (M) and, therefore, did not represent new knowledge that student teacher had acquired.

An additional frequency column was established for contrasting units of knowledge, where a student teacher reported knowledge about a specific topic in both interviews but in a contradictory manner. For example, Student Teacher 15 stated in the first interview that "We have a large Hispanic and black population and I'd say about one-third of each or maybe not quite so many blacks." In the third interview, the student teacher stated "... predominantly Hispanic, 80 percent Hispanic, 3 or 4 percent black, the rest are other." These units of knowledge were considered to be a contrast (C) and, therefore, represent new knowledge that the student teacher acquired.

Examination of Table 1 reveals very small numeric differences between the total units of knowledge reported by the control group and those reported by the treatment group in totals for the first and third interviews. In some categories, the control group reported a greater number of units of knowledge than the treatment group and in other categories a smaller number. Overall, the student

teachers reported the most units of knowledge about the categories of Facilities, Who Attends, Rules and Policies, and Resource Personnel in the first interview. When probed responses are not included in the third interview, student teachers reported the most units of knowledge in the categories of Atmosphere, Who Attends, Student Attitudes and Behavior, Student Activities, and Resource Personnel. This might indicate a shift in saliency for student teachers from general observations in a number of areas to a greater focus on the students.

In the third interview, student teachers did not talk about some categories that seemed prominent in the first interview. These categories were probed to see if the student teacher had any knowledge about them. The probed categories included Location, Facilities, Academic Programs, Rules and Policies, Resource Personnel, and Parents. All six categories influence how teachers feel about teaching, and knowledge about these categories has implications for job satisfaction and retention in the teaching profession.

Three categories (Location, Facilities, and Rules and Policies) were related to the school as a workplace, a major focus of this study. For example, the neighborhood in which a school is located and the building itself make up the physical environment of the school and influence

what teachers do and how they feel. They can affect many facets of teaching such as communication patterns, noise levels, and discipline (Gorton, 1983). Yet, in the category Location, six of the 10 units of knowledge reported by the control group were the result of probes and five of the 10 units reported by the treatment group. Twelve of the 24 student teachers made no response or the responses were not applicable to the school as a workplace. And, in the category Facilities, nine of the 18 units of knowledge for the control group were the result of probes, and 12 of the 13 units in the treatment group. Nine student teachers made no applicable response. Pupil control, as operationalized in school rules and policies, has importance for both the structural and normative aspects of the school culture (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). However, 23 of the 26 units of knowledge in the category Rules and Policies were the result of probes in the control group and all 19 of the units of knowledge reported by the treatment group were the result of probing by the interviewer. Three student teachers did not respond in this category. The need to probe these categories suggests that, although knowledge in these categories has importance in the life of a teacher, for most student teachers these categories did not have as much salience as those categories in which they responded without probing. This

difference might be related to a lack of salience in the categories for student teachers at the time of the interview rather than an overall lack of importance.

Three additional categories, which also required probing (Academic Programs, Resource Personnel, and Parents), reflect important aspects of the teaching profession, the second major focus of this study. For example, academic programs are a part of a comprehensive curriculum to meet the needs of students, and such programs can be utilized by teachers to meet the needs of average and low-ability students as well as the academically talented and those with special handicaps (Gorton, 1983). However, two of the 12 units of knowledge in the category Academic Programs reported by the control group were the result of probes and seven of the 12 units reported by the treatment group. Fifteen student teachers made no response relevant to the professional aspects of teaching.

Resource personnel can offer specialized assistance to students, teachers, parents, and administrators; but, 14 of the 29 units of knowledge reported by the control group in the category Resource Personnel were probed responses and 15 of the 30 units reported by the treatment group were probed responses. Twelve student teachers did not report any knowledge about the resource personnel in their schools. Also, parents are the most direct link between

the school and the community for teachers; yet, seven of the 8 units of knowledge reported by the control group and six of the 10 reported by the treatment group in the category Parents were the result of probing. The necessity for probing in these categories could suggest that student teachers did not consider them to be salient.

Of interest, also, are the Administration and Teacher categories. In the first, no student teacher in the control group reported any knowledge about the administrators when talking about the school in the first interview. Units of knowledge in the treatment group usually made reference to the principal as being fairly new to the school and one unit of knowledge was a report that the administration was planning a series of workshops to involve student teachers in the school. In the third interview, only three of the 12 student teachers in the control group and two of the 12 student teachers in the treatment group talked about the administrators in the school. Student teachers apparently did not consider administrators salient when talking about the school.

In the second category, Teachers, no student teacher in either group discussed teachers as co-workers in the first interview. This might be attributable to the fact that the student teachers still feel more like students than teachers and do not think of teachers in terms of

being co-workers. Most of the comments made by student teachers were related to staff stability or level of friendliness. However, in the third interview, three student teachers in the control group and six in the treatment group reported units of knowledge about teachers as co-workers.

Differences in the depth of insight about teaching that student teachers reported are illustrated by the responses of two student teachers.

Student Teacher 7:

I see all the teachers planning. Planning so that the kids not only get the basics, but they're enriched in their reading and their mathematics.

Student Teacher 12:

I'm seeing what I consider good teachers that kids are really gonna [sic] learn something from; and I see teachers that kind of just go by the ropes, just do the bare minimum. I see some lessons that could be inspiring and fun, and the kids would really try, and they're not that way. You're just going by what the book says, and the kids are just bored. But it's the only way they've known to do it, so they just go along with it. It's a shame that they're missing out

on some excitement. I observed [another class] today and I was just charmed. I couldn't believe it. The positive attitude of the teacher, the way the students listened to her, the way they responded when she gave them something to do. So, I like to think that I will be able to do that kind of thing too. I hope that I will do it; it just takes more time. You think of a good lesson; you think of how the kids could enjoy it and really get something out of it and be proud of themselves. So I'm seeing a wide range, and I see a lot of good teaching.

Student Teacher 7 reported a very superficial observation about other teachers while Student Teacher 12 reported differences in style, methodology, and influence on student learning.

Most student teacher knowledge involved this area of inquiry. In the first interview 54 percent of all units of knowledge and in the third interview 58 percent of all units of knowledge were reported in this area. In the third interview, 39 percent of the units of knowledge reported in this area of inquiry were the result of probes. These percentages suggest that the student teachers were more focused on learning about the school than learning about adult relationships in the school or extraclassroom

teacher activities or that the student teachers were limited in the areas about which they were able to acquire information.

II. Tell me about the relationships and/or interactions you see among the adults in the building.

Frequency tabulations for the second area of inquiry are presented in Table 2. The presentation format for tabulations is the same as that used for the first area of inquiry. Categories which emerged from the data analyses were given labels which characterized the content of the units of knowledge placed in each category. Category descriptions for the area of inquiry called Relationships are listed below.

Impressions - general statements regarding the relationship all adults who work in the school

Administration - reports of the interactions of the principal and assistant principals with all others in the school

Teachers - reports of interactions among teachers only

Cooperating Teacher/Student Teacher - reports of interactions between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher being interviewed

Table 2

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Area of Inquiry II-
Relationships

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
Impressions	10	7	16	9	2	0	2	2
Administration	8	5	12	11	2	3	1	0
Teachers	17	11	10	12	4	2	3	1
Coop Teacher/ST	5	2	4	0	0	0	0	0
Other Teachers/ST	4	9	1	0	0	0	0	0
Resource Personnel	2	2	10a	14a	0	0	0	0
Non-Certified Staff	5	3	33a	15a	1	0	0	0
TOTALS	51	39	86b	61b	9	5	6	3

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III
M = Match C = Contrast
CG = Control Group TG = Treatment Group

^a Some participants were probed in this category.

^b CG = 35 probed responses TG = 28 probed responses

Other Teachers/Student Teacher - reports of interactions between other teachers in the school and the student teacher

Resource Personnel - reports of interactions between teachers and staff who act in academic support roles

Non-Certified Staff - reports of interactions between teachers and other adults who work in the school

Examination of the results tabulated in Table 2 reveals distinct numeric differences between the control group and the treatment group in units of knowledge about adult relationships and interactions. The greater numbers were usually reported by the control group. Overall, the student teachers reported the most units of knowledge in the categories of Impressions, Administration, Teachers, and Other Teachers/Student Teacher in the first interview. When probed responses are not included, the student teachers reported the most units of knowledge in the categories of Impressions, Administration, and Teachers in the third interview.

In third interview, student teachers again did not talk about some of the categories which seemed prominent in the first interview. In two categories, Resource Personnel and Non-Certified Staff, student teachers were probed by the interviewer to elicit knowledge they had about the

relationships these groups had with the rest of the adult community in the school. The first group, the resource personnel, provides academic support and assistance to the teacher. The second, the non-certified staff, provides auxiliary support and assistance in the management of information and children, the maintenance of the health and safety of the students, and the upkeep of the buildings and grounds. Harmonious relationships and interactions increase the likelihood that these tasks will be accomplished. Yet, in the control group only two units of knowledge in the category Resource Personnel and only six units in the Non-Certified Staff category were reported without probing in the third interview. In the treatment group one unit of knowledge in the Resource Personnel category was reported without probing, and all units in the category Non-Certified Staff were the result of probes. This suggests that although relationships among all adults in a school influence the quality of the worklife of a teacher, for student teachers not all of the relationships were equally important.

A peculiarity in the reported units of knowledge is found in the categories of Cooperating Teacher/Student Teacher and Other Teachers/Student Teacher. In the first interview, four of the 12 student teachers in the control group and two of the 12 student teachers in the treatment

group reported specifically about their relationship with their cooperating teachers. In the third interview, three students teachers in the control group and no student teachers in the treatment group reported specifically about this relationship. Differences in quality of relationships were reported by the student teachers; not all student teachers reported favorable relationships. Student teacher responses are used to illustrate these differences.

Student Teacher 5:

I have been told by many people in the school that one of the problems that my cooperating teacher has with me is that she can't find enough to complain about. It really used to drive her crazy. She picks up on some little tiny thing and picks at it for an entire week. She is very competitive, and, from what I hear, she has given previous student teachers a real [sic] hard time of it. She has not given me a hard time. There has [sic] been maybe two times when we could have come to blows if we were not both adults and not very, very aware of our positions. In some ways, it's a position that I hate. I do not like having to bite the bullet and say, "It's only for four more weeks."

Student Teacher 18:

My cooperating teacher has a policy, you don't talk shop during lunch, at all. You mention it to her, and she will say that she does not discuss that on her lunch hour which I took very strange.

Student Teacher 24:

I enjoy both my cooperating teachers ... I find them real supportive.

Student Teacher 5 reported a very difficult relationship with her cooperating teacher and indicated an understanding of reasons for the difficulties as well as a understanding of the relationship itself. Student Teacher 18 also reported a difficult relationship with his cooperating teacher, but he did not indicate any attempts to understand the cooperating teacher or the relationship. Student Teacher 24 reported a good relationship with her cooperating teachers, but she did not report reasons why she felt the relationships were supportive.

In the category Other Teachers/ Student Teacher, relationships were similar to those reported in the category of Cooperating Teacher/Student Teacher. There was a reduction in the number of units of knowledge reported in this category from the first interview to the third interview. A possible explanation for these reductions may

be that the student teachers were concerned about meeting new people and making a good impression at the beginning of their student teaching semester and felt greater collegiality and less separation from other teachers by the end. This possibility was supported somewhat by the results reported for the category Teachers in the area of inquiry called School. In that area, no student teacher in either group discussed teachers as co-workers in the first interview. In the third interview, nine student teachers reported units of knowledge about teachers as co-workers. Not all of the reported relationships and interactions with other teachers were favorable.

Student Teacher 8:

I haven't had that much interaction with the other faculty, but at times I feel like I'm behind a wall.

Student Teacher 17:

When I first started going to the teachers' lounge, very few of them ever said hello.

Student Teacher 19:

As far as their reactions to student teachers, that has amazed me there. Every faculty member I have met has been more than willing to help us in any way they can.

Student Teacher 8 and Student Teacher 17 reported feeling very distanced from the other teachers in the school, while Student Teacher 19 reported a very welcoming attitude on the part of the other teachers. None of the student teachers reported in depth about their relationship with other teachers.

The shift from attempting to make a good impression to feeling greater collegiality was also supported somewhat by the results reported in the category Teachers in this area of inquiry. Fewer units of knowledge about the relationships among teachers were reported in the third interview by student teachers in the control group. Four of the units were matches, similar knowledge reported in both interviews. However, three units of knowledge were contrasts to what had been reported in the first interview. Student teachers in the treatment group reported one more unit of knowledge in the third interview than they reported in the first, and two of the units were matches and one was a contrast.

Student teachers did not report as much knowledge in this area of inquiry as they reported in the first area. In the first interview 36 percent of the units of knowledge and in the third interview 27 percent of the units of knowledge reported were in this area. In the third interview, 43 percent of the units of knowledge were the

result of probes. Relationships with adults did not appear to be highly salient for student teachers during their student teaching semester.

III. Tell me about what a teacher does

Frequency tabulations for the third area of inquiry are presented in Table 3. The presentation format for the tabulations is the same as that used for the first two areas of inquiry. Categories which emerged from the data analyses were given labels that characterized the content of the units of knowledge. The category descriptions for this area of inquiry are listed below.

Everything - blanket statements about what a teacher does

Students as Individuals - statements about interacting with students on a personal level or in areas of interest outside the classroom

Social Skills - statements about assisting student development in areas of human relations in preparation for life

Flexibility - statements about adjustments a teacher needs to make to intrusions into classroom routines and teaching

Relevance - statements about the need to make learning relevant to the world outside the classroom

Table 3

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Area of Inquiry IIITeacher

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
Everything	2	2	4	3	0	0	0	0
St. as Individuals	2	2	3	6	1	1	0	0
Social Skills	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Flexibility	1	0	3	2	0	0	0	0
Relevance	5	0	3	0	1	0	0	0
Paperwork	1	0	10	7	0	0	0	0
Parent Contacts	1	0	5	6	0	0	0	0
Teacher as Learner	2	2	3	4	0	0	0	0
Relations w/Staff	1	0	2	3	0	0	0	0
Special Activities	1	1	10	8	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	18	7	44	39	2	1	0	0

Note. I = Interview I

III = Interview III

M = Match

C = Contrast

CG = Control Group

TG = Treatment Group

Paperwork - statements about secretarial and clerical tasks not directly connected to instruction

Parent Contacts - statements about tasks related to keeping parent informed about students

Teacher as Learner - statements about teachers learning during the school day and the need for them to keep up to date

Relations with Staff - statements about building collegial relationships with other adults in the school

Special Activities - statements about teacher responsibility for participation in the school and the community

Examination of the results tabulated in Table 3 reveals numeric differences between the units of knowledge reported by the student teachers in the control group and the units of knowledge reported by those in the treatment group. In the first interview, neither group of student teachers reported many units of knowledge about what teachers do when only those units related to extraclassroom concerns and considerations were tabulated. In the third interview, increases in the number of units of knowledge were reported by both groups of student teachers in all categories except Social Skills and Relevance. None of the categories in this area of inquiry were probed.

Comparisons between the number of units of knowledge reported in the first interview and third interviews show extraordinarily large differences in two categories, Paperwork and Special Activities. In the first interview, only one unit of knowledge relative to paperwork not directly connected to instruction (e.g., writing lesson plans) was reported by student teachers in the control group and no units of knowledge were reported by the treatment group. By the third interview, however, the number of reported units of knowledge in this category had increased substantially for both groups.

In the Special Activities category, similar increases were evident. Also, the range of activities reported was extensive. Student teacher responses are used to illustrate this range.

Student Teacher 2:

She [the teacher] needs to be aware of what the community want [sic] for their children; what they want their children maybe to learn; or what they want worked on as far as their children, the goals of the community for the school.... She is responsible for special programs throughout the year or special events. In this place, we are having a Mother's Day Tea which is a big program.

Student Teacher 3:

One of the teachers here is with one of the [local] education associations so [she does] a lot of things beyond the school that are related. ... I believe, from what I've seen in the past, that a teacher can play a vital role when evaluations come around, when the school as a whole is being evaluated by the district. She becomes a very important part. ... I know that certain teachers get some more responsibilities than others. For example, when the principal is gone the same teachers will be charge of their [the principal's] duties.

Student Teacher 6:

Some teachers have their responsibility for student council or patrol.

Student Teacher 9:

A teacher is out -- goes to meetings, goes to conventions....

Student Teacher 19:

One thing I left out about teacher responsibilities is what they do outside the classroom like sponsoring dances and chaperoning things; sponsoring activities which all teachers are expected to do, I think, to some extent.

Also acting as a representative in the community and representing the school outside of the school.

A particularly striking feature in Table 3 is the number of categories in which student teachers in the treatment group reported no units of knowledge in the first interview. It is difficult to understand why this should be so, and no explanation for this phenomenon comes to mind. In the categories Social Skills and Relevance, student teachers in the treatment group reported no units of knowledge in either of the interviews. Student teachers in the control group reported a total of three units in the Social Skills category. These units of knowledge reported that a teacher needed to encourage students to decide what they want to do in life and to prepare students for the world outside. In the Relevance category, student teachers in the control group reported a total of eight units of knowledge. These units reported that a teacher needed to make content relevant to the lives of the students and to integrate it with the world in which the students live.

Student teachers reported the fewest units of knowledge in this area of inquiry. In the first interview 10 percent of the units of knowledge and in the third interview 15 percent of the units of knowledge were reported in this area.

Areas of Inquiry - Total

Total frequency tabulations by area of inquiry are presented in Table 4. Overall, it is clear that student teachers were able to report almost twice as many units of knowledge at the end of their student teaching semester as they reported at the beginning. Approximately 88 percent (N=478) of the units of knowledge reported in the third interview were not reported in the first. Of these, approximately 37 percent (N=179) were probed responses. Of the increased units of knowledge reported by the student teachers, approximately 53 percent were reported by the control group and 47 percent by the treatment group. Approximately 12 percent (N=68) of the units of knowledge in the third interview were Matches reported in both interviews. Approximately 3 percent (N=16) of the reported units of knowledge in the third interview were Contrasts differing significantly from the first interview.

Individual Participants

Total frequency tabulations by individual student teacher participant are presented in Table 5. Examination of this table indicates major differences among individual student teacher participants in the number of units of knowledge they reported during the interviews. In the area of inquiry called School, student teacher participants

Table 4

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Areas of Inquiry - Total

AREA OF INQUIRY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
School	67	68	163a	153a	26	20	6	1
Relationships	51	39	86a	61a	9	5	6	3
Teacher	18	7	44	39	2	1	0	0
Subtotals	136	114	293b	253b	37	26	12	4
TOTALS	Interview I		250		Interview III		546b	
	Matches		63		Contrasts		16	
	875							

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III
M = Match C = Contrast
CG = Control Group TG = Treatment Group

^a Some participants were probed in this area.

^b CG = 96 probed responses TG = 92 probed responses

reported more than twice as many units of knowledge in the third interview as in the first interview. In the second area of inquiry called Relationships, they reported over one and a half times as many units of knowledge in the third interview. And in the final area called Teacher, the student teachers reported more than three times as many units of knowledge in the third interview. When only the professional and organizational facets of teaching outside the classroom are considered, these figures suggest that although student teachers knew the most about the school during both interviews, they learned the most about what teachers do during their student teaching.

The frequencies reported in the last two columns, Match and Contrast, are of some interest. Many student teacher participants (N=20) reported matching units of knowledge in both interviews, but few (N=9) reported contrasting units of knowledge in the third interview. Student Teacher 14 and Student Teacher 17 reported almost half of all contrasting units of knowledge.

Principals

Control Group

Frequency tabulations for the units of knowledge reported by student teachers placed in buildings administered by principals in the control group are

Table 5

Summary of Units of Knowledge by Individual Participants

PARTICIPANT NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	10	19	3	10	2	6	7	1
2	12	26	5	10	0	9	8	0
3	9	22	1	7	3	3	5	0
4	5	12	7	9	0	1	4	2
5	3	18	4	8	2	3	3	1
6	2	16	5	9	1	9	1	0
7	13	22	1	3	0	1	6	0
8	8	20	5	4	0	3	4	1
9	10	18	3	6	1	4	3	0
10	4	12	4	5	0	1	1	0
11	6	15	3	9	2	4	1	0
12	3	9	4	13	2	5	1	0
13	0	5	4	7	0	2	0	0
14	5	13	3	4	1	2	3	3
15	9	8	6	7	2	6	2	1
16	2	7	2	3	2	2	0	0
17	5	5	8	6	4	0	0	4
18	5	12	3	6	1	1	4	0
Subtotals	111	259	71	126	23	62	53	13

Table 5 (Continued)

Summary of Units of Knowledge by Individual Participants

PARTICIPANT NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
Subtotals	111	259	71	126	23	62	53	13
19	4	16	3	5	2	10	3	0
20	4	11	4	4	0	5	0	1
21	6	14	5	5	0	1	3	2
22	6	6	3	4	0	1	3	0
23	3	7	1	0	0	3	1	0
24	1	3	3	3	0	1	0	0
TOTALS	135	316	90	147	25	83	63	16

Interview I	250
Interview III	546
Matches	63
Contrasts	16

875

Note. S = School

M = Match

R = Relationships

C = Contrast

T = Teacher

I = Interview I

III = Interview III

presented in Table 6. These principals were simply asked for permission by the researcher to interview student teachers placed in their buildings. They were not asked to participate in the study in any other way, and no attempts were made by the researcher to influence the student teaching experience in these six schools. In this study, two student teachers from each of the six schools were interviewed.

Examination of the tabulation results presented in Table 6 indicate that student teachers placed in some of these buildings acquired more knowledge about teaching as a profession and the school as a workplace than did others. The greatest gain in units of knowledge appears to have been made by student teachers placed with Principal 1; the least gain with Principal 6. This suggests that principals may have had some influence on the amount of knowledge that student teachers acquired during their student teaching.

Treatment Group

Frequency tabulations for the units of knowledge reported by student teachers placed in buildings administered by principals in the treatment group are presented in Table 7. Principals in this group were sensitized to the needs and concerns of student teachers and received information and suggestions for focusing the

Table 6

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Areas of Inquiry for
Principals in Control Group

PRINCIPAL NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	22	45	8	20	2	15	15	1
2	14	34	8	16	3	4	9	2
3	5	34	9	17	3	12	4	1
4	5	18	7	11	1	4	3	3
5	11	15	8	10	4	8	2	1
6	10	17	11	12	5	1	4	4
TOTALS	67	163	51	86	18	44	37	12

Note. S = School

M = Match

R = Relationships

C = Contrast

T = Teacher

I = Interview I

III = Interview III

Table 7

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Areas of Inquiry for
Principals in Treatment Group

PRINCIPAL NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	21	42	6	7	0	4	10	1
2	14	30	7	11	1	5	4	0
3	9	24	7	22	4	9	2	0
4	8	27	7	9	2	15	3	1
5	12	20	8	9	0	2	6	2
6	4	10	4	3	0	4	1	0
TOTALS	68	153	49	61	7	39	26	4

Note. S = School

M = Match

R = Relationships

C = Contrast

T = Teacher

I = Interview I

III = Interview III

content of their interactions with student teachers placed in their buildings. Follow-up sessions were conducted with these principals on an individual basis at the request of the principal or the researcher. Two student teachers from each of the six schools participated in this study.

In informal follow-up sessions with the principals in this group, some reported that they had read the materials but had not attempted to implement them in any way because they had already established a routine for working with student teachers. Others reported that they had used the materials extensively in their work with student teachers but not as part of a formal program.

Examination of Table 7 reveals that student teachers working with most of the principals in the treatment group reported similar gain in units of knowledge from the first interview to the third. Gain reported for Principal 5 is somewhat less, and gain reported for Principal 6 is the least.

All Principals

Tabulations showing comparisons between frequencies of units of knowledge for principals in the control group and those in the treatment group are summarized in Table 8. Examination of results in this table are disheartening. When reported units of knowledge for principals in the

control and treatment groups are compared, in all interviews but one, the control group shows a larger number of reported units. In the area of inquiry called School, the control group represents approximately 52 percent of the change in units of knowledge; in the area called Relationships, it represents approximately 59 percent of the change; and in the area called Teacher, it represents approximately 53 percent of the change. Overall, the units of knowledge reported by the control group represent more than 53 percent of the total.

A Chi Square statistic was calculated to determine if these differences were significant. The calculated value was 2.144 and the critical value at the .05 level was 3.84. Therefore, these differences were not statistically significant. It appears that encouraging interactions between principals and student teachers and providing principals with information about student teachers does not significantly influence student teacher acquisition of knowledge about the professional and organizational facets of teaching outside the classroom.

Additional Results

While preparing the results of the analyses of data just presented, noticeable contradictions in expected results appeared. Particular student teachers, regardless of group placement, consistently reported more units of

knowledge than might have been expected. Interview protocols were examined further to determine if factors other than sensitization were, in part, responsible for these unexpected results. It was found that greater numbers of units of knowledge generally were reported by student teachers who also reported very positive relationships with the principals. In every instance, both student teachers in a particular building reported very positively about their relationships with the principal. Some of the principals who were described as excellent were in the control group, and not all principals in the treatment group were described in this way.

Therefore, new groupings of principals were created. These new groups were formed on the basis of student teacher reports of the relationships which had been established. Eight student teachers reported excellent relationships with the principal and were placed in a group labeled positively involved (PI). Student teachers in this group typically described their involvement with the principals in the following ways:

Student Teacher 12:

Well, he seems to be more than just a principal.

He comes in, and he has journals with the teachers, which I thought was pretty interesting cuz [sic] a lot of times principals don't have

time for that or it just seems like it. He writes journals. He asks questions and answers [sic]. When we have faculty meetings, they [the teachers] get to share their best and share their worst and voice their opinions and their problems. I think it's because he's a new principal, and he's been a teacher here for so many years. He's worked with them more than just an administrator. ... He's been keeping tabs on us [student teachers], I guess you can say. We've had at least three or four meetings. And it's just like a rap session; what's on our mind, is there any way that he can help us, how do we think we need to improve, more or less that kind of meeting. [He talks] about the school, the way it works, the faculty. If we ever need help, to go to him. If we need help with disciplining and we can't handle the kid, just call him and he'll be right in. He kind of makes us feel at home.

Student Teacher 14:

[The principal is] wonderful. I say that every time, but he is. His style is so good. I'm assuming he's getting his job done and it sure looks like it. But, what I notice is how he interacts with everybody. He loves to joke

around and I liked that right away. He did that with me right away. He set the tone so I could see what it was going to be like. But he's the kind of person who is always backing up the teachers. He told my [cooperating] teacher that there are some [teachers] that he has no problem backing up and she's one of them. His job is to back them up, if he does it. As far as the adults, he gets around to the classrooms. He gets down to our classroom. He knows students' names, he knows what is going on. He's wonderful with the student teachers, talking to us, wanting to know how we're doing. I feel like I can go into his office any time and talk to him. He's always up on what's going on.

A table of random numbers was used to select a comparable number from the other 16 student teachers to be placed in a group of eight labeled less positively involved (LPI). Student teachers in this group generally described their relationship with the principal in the following ways:

Student Teacher 1:

I see a variety of things happen. I've been yelled at. I've been in [sic] tears some days by the principal. I don't know .. I think generally

that's his manner and it upsets a lot of people. I don't think it's the right thing to do in front of the children. It has happened. ... I saw a different attitude after the [school] evaluations from the principal towards the teachers. That really angered me because I thought it should be like this every day, not just once in a while. I heard a lot of positive things, and I thought, "Why can't he be like this all of the time?" I don't want to work for a principal like that.

Student Teacher 3:

I think that we [student teachers] hold very little esteem in the eyes of the school administration. We have never been singled out for any kind of meeting where we might learn about rules, policies, procedures of the school. It has been left up to our cooperating teachers. It has been left up to them entirely.

Student Teacher 8:

[Have you had any meetings with any of the administrators?] No. [Where have you gotten the information that you have?] From my observations, a lot of it, memos, daily announcements. I had one seminar at the beginning of the semester with the principal.

[So you have had a meeting with the principal.]

It was a group meeting, a group seminar, sort of an introduction to the school and some of the basic policies.

Data were reanalyzed, frequencies for the units of knowledge were recalculated, and tables were constructed which reflected tabulations for the newly created groups. Tables 9 through 12 correspond to Tables 1 through 4. Tables 13 and 14 are similar but not identical to Tables 5 through 7. Table 15 corresponds to Table 8.

It was immediately apparent when examining Tables 9 through 15 that the units of knowledge reported by the student teachers in the positively involved group outweighed the number of units reported by the student teachers in the less positively involved group. Because the data for Tables 9 through 15 were tabulated from the same data presented in Tables 1 through 8, the new tables present the same data as those presented by the old tables but reflect the differences resulting from regrouping the data. Two of the tables are used to illustrate.

Table 12, which corresponds with Table 4, presents total frequency tabulations by area of inquiry. Approximately 42 percent of the increase in units of knowledge was reported by student teachers placed in the less positively involved group, and approximately 58

percent by the student teachers in the positively involved group. When compared to the results in Table 4, 53 percent reported by the control group and 47 percent reported by the treatment group, there is a definite shift to the positively involved principals.

Table 15, which corresponds with Table 8, presents totals by group membership. Student teachers in the positively involved group reported approximately 56 percent of all units of knowledge in the area of inquiry called School, approximately 54 percent of all units in Relationships, and approximately 67 percent of all units in Teacher. When compared to the results in Table 8, the treatment group reported 48 percent of the units in School, 41 percent of the Relationships, and 47 percent of the Teacher, the shift is also evident. The positively involved group represents 57 percent of the total units of knowledge reported.

A Chi Square statistic was calculated to determine if these differences were significant. The calculated value was 8.102 and the critical value at the .01 level was 6.63. Therefore, these differences are statistically significant. It appears that positive interactions between the principal and the student teachers significantly influences student teacher acquisition of knowledge about the professional and organizational facets of teaching outside the classroom.

Summary

The findings, conclusions, and recommendations based on these results are found in Chapter 5.

Table 9

Summary of Units of Knowledge for Selected Participants in
Area of Inquiry I - School

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI
Comparisons	2	2	2	1	0	0	0	0
Location	2	0	3a	12a	2	0	0	0
Atmosphere	3	5	3	5	2	1	0	0
Facilities	3	4	12a	10a	1	0	0	0
Who Attends	4	3	12	12	2	1	0	0
St. Attit/Behavior	4	3	4	5	0	0	0	0
Academic Programs	1	7	5a	14a	1	3	0	0
St. Activities	1	2	10	4	0	2	0	0
Rules/Policies	3	4	19a	14a	1	1	0	0
Administration	1	5	1	1	0	0	0	0
Teachers	0	0	2	9	0	0	0	0
Resource Personnel	5	13	16a	27a	2	8	2	0
Non-Certified Staff	1	5	4	3	1	1	0	0
Parents	2	0	5a	9a	1	0	0	0
TOTALS	32	53	98b	126b	13	17	2	0

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III

M = Match

C = Contrast

LPI = Less Positively Involved Principals

PI = Positively Involved Principals

^a Some participants were probed in this category.

^b LPI = 44 probed responses PI = 51 probed responses

Table 10

Summary of Units of Knowledge for Selected Participants in
Area of Inquiry II - Relationships

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI
Impressions	5	7	10	8	2	0	0	1
Administration	4	5	8	12	1	4	1	0
Teachers	11	8	4	13	3	2	0	1
Coop Teacher/ST	2	1	3	1	0	0	0	0
Other Teachers/ST	3	5	1	0	0	0	0	0
Resource Personnel	2	1	5a	11a	0	0	0	0
Non-Certified Staff	2	2	22a	17a	0	1	0	0
TOTALS	29	29	53b	62b	6	7	1	2

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III

M = Match C = Contrast

LPI = Less Positively Involved Principals

PI = Positively Involved Principals

^a Some participants were probed in this category.

^b LPI = 22 probed responses PI = 26 probed responses

Table 11

Summary of Units of Knowledge for Selected Participants in
Area of Inquiry III - Teacher

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI
Everything	0	4	4	1	0	0	0	0
St. as Individuals	1	2	0	6	0	1	0	0
Social Skills	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Flexibility	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
Relevance	2	0	2	1	1	0	0	0
Paperwork	0	0	4	6	0	0	0	0
Parent Contacts	1	0	3	8	0	0	0	0
Teacher as Learner	2	2	1	4	0	0	0	0
Relation w/Staff	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Special Activities	1	1	6	10	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	9	9	22	44	1	1	0	0

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III

M = Match C = Contrast

LPI = Less Positively Involved Principals

PI = Positively Involved Principals

Table 12

Summary of Units of Knowledge for Selected Participants in
Areas of Inquiry - Total

AREA OF INQUIRY	I		III		M		C	
	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI	LPI	PI
School	32	53	98a	126a	13	17	2	0
Relationships	29	29	53a	62a	6	7	1	2
Teacher	9	9	22	44	1	1	0	0
Subtotals	70	91	173b	232b	20	25	3	2
TOTALS	Interview I		161		Interview III		405	
	Matches		45		Contrasts		5	
	616							

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III

M = Match C = Contrast

LPI = Less Positively Involved Principals

PI = Positively Involved Principals

^a Some participants were probed in this area.

^b LPI = 66 probed responses PI = 77 probed responses

Table 13

Summary of Units of Knowledge by Selected Participants in
Areas of Inquiry for Less Positively Involved Principals

PARTICIPANT NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	9	22	1	7	3	3	5	0
2	5	12	7	9	0	1	4	2
3	3	18	4	8	2	3	3	1
4	2	16	5	9	1	9	1	0
5	0	5	4	7	0	2	0	0
6	2	7	2	3	2	2	0	0
7	5	12	3	6	1	1	4	0
8	6	6	3	4	0	1	3	0
TOTALS	32	98	29	53	9	22	20	3

Note. S = School

M = Match

R = Relationships

C = Contrast

T = Teacher

I = Interview I

III = Interview III

Table 14

Summary of Units of Knowledge by Selected Participants in
Areas of Inquiry for Positively Involved Principals

PARTICIPANT NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
9	10	19	3	10	2	6	7	1
10	12	26	5	10	0	9	9	0
11	10	18	3	6	1	4	3	0
12	4	12	4	5	0	1	1	0
13	6	15	3	9	2	4	1	0
14	3	9	4	13	2	5	1	0
15	4	16	3	5	2	10	3	0
16	4	11	4	4	0	5	0	1
TOTALS	53	126	29	62	9	44	25	2

Note. S = School

M = Match

R = Relationships

C = Contrast

T = Teacher

I = Interview I

III = Interview III

Table 15

Summary of Units of Knowledge for All Selected Participants
in Areas of Inquiry

PARTICIPANT GROUP	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
Less Positively Involved	32	98a	29	53a	9	22	20	3
Positively Involved	53	126a	29	62a	9	44	25	2
TOTALS	85	224b	58	115b	18	66	45	5

Interview I	161
Interview III	405
Matches	45
Contrasts	5

616

Note. S = School

M = Match

R = Relationships

C = Contrast

T = Teacher

I = Interview I

III = Interview III

^a Some participants were probed in this area.

^b S = 95 probed responses R = 48 probed responses

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The educational setting in which a student teacher learns to be a teacher includes not only the classroom but also the broader contexts of the school and the community. This study specifically investigated the impact that a building principal can have on student teacher acquisition of professional knowledge about the requirements, expectations, and demands of the teaching profession and knowledge about the school as a workplace.

Findings

Analysis of the data showed that student teachers do acquire knowledge about the teaching profession and the school as a workplace during their student teaching semester. The knowledge acquired was primarily additive; student teachers generally reported new information in the third interviews rather than repeating information, Matching, or substituting new information for old, Contrasting. When the total number of units of knowledge reported in the third interview was compared to the total number of units reported in the first interview, 22 of the 24 student teacher participants reported an increased

number of units of knowledge. Two student teachers reported a decreased number of units of knowledge.

Comparisons between the control group and the treatment group are more difficult to make but the results were fairly consistent. Some of the student teachers in the control group reported large increases in units of knowledge and some reported small increases. The range of increase in the number of units of knowledge had an absolute value of 25 and the mean increase in number was 20 units of knowledge. Similar within group differences were found among student teachers in the treatment group. The range of increase in the number of units of knowledge had an absolute value of 23 and the mean increase was 19.

Examination of group totals shows mixed results. In some categories of units of knowledge, the control group reported a greater number of units of knowledge than the treatment group, and in other categories, a smaller number of units. However, examining totals by area of inquiry shows that the control group reported a greater number of units of knowledge than the treatment group reported in each area. In the area of inquiry called School, the control group reported approximately 51 percent of the total units of knowledge. In the area of inquiry called Relationships, the control group reported approximately 57 percent of the total units. In the area of inquiry called

Teacher, the control group also reported approximately 57 percent of the total units of knowledge. Overall, the control group reported a greater number of units of knowledge, approximately 53 percent of the total, than did the Treatment group. These differences were not statistically significant.

A shift is evident when group are restructured and totals are examined. The range of increase in the number of units of knowledge for the less positively involved group had an absolute value of 25 and the mean increase in the number of units was 16. For the positively involved group the range of increase had an absolute value of 19 and the mean increase was 26. Figure 2 is used to illustrate this shift.

	Range	Mean
Control	11 - 36	20
Treatment	5 - 28	19
Less Positively Involved	8 - 33	16
Positively Involved	17 - 36	26

Figure 2. Increases in Numbers of Units of Knowledge-Range and Mean

Examination of group totals by area of inquiry shows strong differences. In the original analysis of the data, the control group accounted for approximately 51 percent of

the total units of knowledge reported in the area of inquiry called School. In the reanalysis, the less positively involved group accounted for approximately 42 percent of the total units of knowledge in that area of inquiry, a decrease of 9 percent. In the original analysis, the control group accounted for approximately 57 percent of the total units of knowledge reported in the area of inquiry called Relationships. In the reanalysis, the less positively involved group accounted for approximately 47 percent of the total units in that area, a decrease of 10 percent. In the original analysis, the control group accounted for approximately 57 percent of the total units of knowledge reported in the area of inquiry called Teacher. In the reanalysis, the less positively involved group accounted for approximately 37 percent of the total units in that area, a decrease of 20 percent. In the original analysis, the control group accounted for approximately 53 percent of the total of all units of knowledge reported by the student teachers. In the reanalysis, the less positively involved group only accounted for approximately 43 percent of all units of knowledge, an overall decrease of 10 percent. These differences are statistically significant. Figure 3 is used to illustrate this shift.

	School	Relationships	Teacher
Control	51	57	57
Treatment	49	43	43
Less Positively Involved	42	47	37
Positively Involved	58	53	63

Figure 3. Shift in Group Percentages of Units of Knowledge by Area of Inquiry.

Conclusions

The results of the data analyses in this study clearly indicate that student teachers do increase their knowledge about the requirements/expectations/demands of the teaching profession and their knowledge about the school as a workplace during their student teaching semester. Because the data were limited to self-reports by the student teachers, it is not possible to know how much of their knowledge was unreported. Probing was kept as unobtrusive as possible during the interview in order that the direction of student teacher response would be determined by the student teachers themselves. Therefore, it is quite likely that many of the student teachers in this study did not report all of the knowledge about teaching and the school as a workplace that they possessed at the time of the interview.

The results of the data analyses also indicate that the involvement of the principal with the student teacher during this time is important. It is clear, however, that merely encouraging interactions between the principal and the student teacher or providing information to the principal about the needs and concerns of student teachers is not enough to make a difference in the knowledge that student teachers are able to report. There must also be a commitment on the part of the principal to assist student teachers in making the transition from students to teachers. Student teachers report the most knowledge when they also report that the principals were visible, that the principals gave student teachers a sense of being welcome in the school, and that the principals let the student teachers know that they are available for assistance and advice at all times.

Finally, the results of the data analyses indicate, somewhat less clearly, that during the student teaching semester some student teachers seemed to get "caught up" in the classroom. They appeared focused on the need to survive in the classroom and on the demands that students are placing on them. They did not learn school rules and policies, they did not learn about the other academic programs provided in the school, they did not become acquainted with many of the adults who worked in the school

other than their cooperating teachers. They appeared scarcely aware that the classroom was in a school where there were demands on teachers other than instruction and which was filled with adults who could help or hinder their success as a teacher.

These results indicate that socialization into the profession of teaching can and does begin during student teaching. If principals are positively involved, the student teachers are more aware of the professional and organizational facets of teaching.

Recommendations

It is recommended that principals become involved with student teachers in positive ways during the student teaching semester. The cooperating teachers should not be left with total responsibility for introducing the student teacher to the teaching profession and the school as a workplace.

Future studies relative to the socialization of student teachers might include the development of a formal program of socialization for student teachers and an investigation of its impact on the professional knowledge of student teachers. Another area might be the identification of other factors which could influence the socialization of student teachers. These include school size, the workplace norms of the school, the impact of

collegiality on the socialization of new adults in the school, and the degree to which cooperating teachers act as mediators for the student teachers. A cross-sectional study of the timing of acquisition of knowledge about the profession of teaching and knowledge about the school as a workplace would be valuable in learning about the readiness to learn this information. Such a study might include preservice, first year, and second year teachers. A related study might investigate the knowledge experienced teachers have about these areas.

Further analyses might be conducted on the data gathered in this study. The effect of the school may prove to be of greater importance than any one individual within the school on the knowledge that student teachers acquire. Other analyses of this data are also possible. Such analyses might include the isolation of other factors reported by the student teachers such as the influence of other teachers. Because many colleges of education structure their preservice programs differently for elementary and secondary levels, comparisons could be made between the elementary and secondary student teachers in this study. In addition, because a growing number of preservice teachers are older adults who are returning to college to become certified as teachers, comparisons between the student teachers who would be considered

"traditional" students as opposed to those student teachers who are "older" or "non-traditional" students could be made.

Summary

In today's complex educational systems, the transition for education majors from the campus classroom as students to their first years as teachers is a crucial one. Learning to be a teacher is, in part, a process of socialization. The principal can be a major source of influence in the socialization process for student teachers.

APPENDIX A

BIBLIOGRAPHY: DEFINING THE PROBLEM

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APPENDIX B

BIBLIOGRAPHY: STUDENT TEACHERS' NEEDS AND CONCERNS

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APPENDIX C
INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Student Teacher # _____ Date _____

Grade/Subject _____

AREA	RESPONSE		SOURCE
	Unprobed	Probed	
1.0 School			Building Principal
1.1 Location	_____	_____	
1.2 Facilities	_____	_____	
1.3 School Rules	_____	_____	
1.4 Materials	_____	_____	
1.5 Programs	_____	_____	
1.6 Specialists	_____	_____	
1.7 Students	_____	_____	
1.8 Teachers	_____	_____	Cooperating Teacher
1.9 Parents	_____	_____	
2.0 Adult Relationships			
2.1 Administrator	_____	_____	
2.2 Other Teachers	_____	_____	
2.3 Support Staff			Other Student Teachers
.1 Librarian	_____	_____	
.2 Nurse	_____	_____	
.3 Counselors	_____	_____	
2.4 Classified			
.1 Office	_____	_____	
.2 Aides	_____	_____	Other Teachers
.3 Monitors	_____	_____	
.4 Custodians	_____	_____	
.5 Cafeteria	_____	_____	
3.0 Teacher Tasks			Observation
3.1 Instructional	_____	_____	
3.2 Non-instructional	_____	_____	
3.3 Administrative	_____	_____	
3.4 Supervision	_____	_____	
3.5 Contacts w/P	_____	_____	University Classes
3.6 Contacts w/S	_____	_____	
4.0 Added by ST			
4.1 District Level	_____	_____	
4.2 U of A	_____	_____	Reading
4.3 Student Teachers	_____	_____	

APPENDIX D
CATEGORY LABELS

CATEGORY LABELS

I. Area of Inquiry called School

Comparisons

Location

Atmosphere

Facilities

Who Attends

Student Attitudes/Behavior

Academic Programs

Student Activities

Rules/Policies

Administration

Teachers

Resource Personnel

Non-Certified Staff

Parents

II. Area of Inquiry called Relationships

Impressions

Administration

Teachers

Cooperating Teacher/Student Teacher

Other Teachers/Student Teacher

Resource Personnel

Non-Certified Staff

III. Area of Inquiry called Teacher

Everything

Students as Individuals

Social Skills

Flexibility

Relevance

Paperwork

Parent Contacts

Teacher as Learner

Relations with Staff

Special Activities

Teach/Educate

Preparation

Motivate/Interest

Manage/Discipline

Grade/Evaluate

Specific Tasks

Specific Roles

APPENDIX E
TABULATION SHEET

TABULATION SHEET

<u>(Area of Inquiry)</u>		<u>(Category)</u>		
<u>Participant</u> <u>Number</u>	<u>Group</u> <u>Membership</u>	<u>Interview</u> <u>I</u>	<u>Interview</u> <u>III</u>	<u>Match</u> <u>Contrast</u>
1				
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24				

APPENDIX F
TABLES F-1 TO F-8

Table F-1

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Area of Inquiry I - School

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
Comparisons	4	5	2	2	0	0	0	0
Location	5	4	15a	14a	2	3	0	0
Atmosphere	6	11	11	12	4	2	1	0
Facilities	15	8	26a	22a	2	0	1	0
Who Attends	9	9	23	21	2	5	1	1
St. Attit/Behavior	5	5	9	8	0	0	2	0
Academic Programs	15	12	23a	28a	11	4	0	0
St. Activities	2	7	14	9	1	3	0	0
Rules/Policies	6	9	26a	19a	2	3	0	0
Administrators	0	6	3	2	0	0	0	0
Teachers	5	7	10	10	0	1	0	1
Resource Personnel	15	11	29a	30a	10	7	2	0
Non-Certified Staff	5	3	5	5	2	1	0	0
Parents	2	1	8a	10a	2	1	0	0
TOTALS	94	98	204b	192b	37	29	7	2

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III
M = Match C = Contrast
CG = Control Group TG = Treatment Group

^a Some participants were probed in this category.

^b CG = 66 probed responses TG = 73 probed responses

Table F-2

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Area of Inquiry II-
Relationships

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
Impressions	10	7	16	9	2	0	2	2
Administration	8	5	12	11	2	3	1	0
Teachers	17	11	10	12	4	2	3	1
Coop Teacher/ST	5	2	4	0	0	0	0	0
Other Teachers/ST	4	9	1	0	0	0	0	0
Resource Personnel	2	2	10a	14a	0	0	0	0
Non-Certified Staff	5	3	33a	15a	1	0	0	0
TOTALS	51	39	86b	61b	9	5	6	3

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III
M = Match C = Contrast
CG = Control Group TG = Treatment Group

^a Some participants were probed in this category.

^b CG = 35 probed responses TG = 28 probed responses

Table F-3

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Area of Inquiry III-Teacher

CATEGORY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
Everything	2	2	4	3	0	0	0	0
St. as Individuals	5	6	14	11	2	1	0	0
Social Skills	4	1	3	2	1	0	0	0
Flexibility	1	0	3	3	0	0	0	0
Relevance	6	1	3	1	1	0	0	0
Paperwork	3	7	21	26	0	2	0	0
Parent Contacts	1	0	10	7	0	0	0	0
Teacher as Learner	2	2	3	4	0	0	0	0
Relations w/Staff	1	0	2	3	0	0	0	0
Special Activities	2	1	10	8	0	0	0	0
Teach/Educate	8	8	6	7	0	0	0	0
Preparation	6	9	18	19	2	5	0	0
Motivate/Interest	10	7	13	9	3	1	0	0
Manage/Discipline	14	11	14	12	4	1	0	0
Grade/Evaluate	3	0	8	4	1	0	0	0
Specific Tasks	0	4	5	4	0	0	0	0
Specific Roles	4	12	22	16	2	2	0	0
TOTALS	72	71	159	139	16	12	0	0

Note. I = Interview I

III = Interview III

M = Match

C = Contrast

CG = Control Group

TG = Treatment Group

Table F-4

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Areas of Inquiry - Total

AREA OF INQUIRY	I		III		M		C	
	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG	CG	TG
School	94	98	204a	192a	37	29	7	2
Relationships	51	39	86a	61a	9	5	6	3
Teacher	72	71	159	139	16	12	0	0
Subtotals	217	208	449b	392b	62	46	13	5
TOTALS	Interview I		425		Interview III		841	
	Matches		108		Contrasts		18	
	1392							

Note. I = Interview I III = Interview III
 M = Match C = Contrast
 CG = Control Group TG = Treatment Group

^a Some participants were probed in this area.

^b CG = 101 probed responses TG = 101 probed responses

Table F-5

Summary of Units of Knowledge by Individual Participant

PARTICIPANT NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	12	23	3	10	11	17	12	1
2	16	28	5	10	2	26	10	0
3	9	25	1	7	8	11	6	0
4	6	16	17	9	3	9	5	2
5	3	22	4	8	6	14	3	1
6	3	19	5	9	4	22	4	0
7	16	23	1	3	4	11	8	0
8	10	22	5	4	9	6	5	1
9	13	23	3	6	9	19	6	0
10	9	15	4	5	1	16	2	0
11	8	18	3	9	6	9	4	0
12	4	11	4	13	6	8	2	0
13	0	7	4	7	5	8	1	0
14	7	17	3	4	7	10	3	3
15	14	12	6	7	8	9	6	1
16	4	10	2	3	9	14	3	0
17	10	7	8	6	4	2	0	5
18	10	18	3	6	5	17	9	0
Subtotal	159	316	71	126	107	228	89	14

Table F-5 (Continued)

PARTICIPANT NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
Subtotal	159	316	71	126	107	228	89	14
19	7	20	3	5	14	18	5	0
20	4	13	4	4	6	11	0	1
21	12	16	5	5	7	12	6	2
22	7	11	3	4	4	11	4	0
23	5	11	1	0	2	7	2	1
24	3	9	3	3	3	11	2	0
TOTALS	192	396	90	147	143	298	108	18

Note. S = School M = Match
 R = Relationships C = Contrast
 T = Teachers
 I = Interview I
 III = Interview III

Table F-6

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Areas of Inquiry for
Principals in Control Group

CONTROL PRINCIPAL NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	28	51	8	20	13	43	22	1
2	15	41	8	16	13	11	11	2
3	6	41	9	17	10	36	7	1
4	7	24	7	11	12	10	4	3
5	10	22	8	10	17	23	9	1
6	20	25	11	12	9	19	9	5
TOTAL	94	204	51	86	72	159	62	13

Note. S = School M = Match
 R = Relationship C = Contrast
 T = Teacher
 I = Interview I
 III = Interview III

Table F-7

Summary of Units of Knowledge in Areas of Inquiry for
Principals in Treatment Group

TREATMENT PRINCIPAL NUMBER	S		R		T		M	C
	I	III	I	III	I	III	Total	Total
1	26	45	6	7	13	17	13	1
2	22	38	7	12	10	35	8	0
3	12	29	7	22	10	17	6	0
4	11	33	7	9	20	29	5	1
5	19	27	8	9	11	23	10	2
6	8	20	4	3	5	18	4	1
TOTALS	98	192	39	61	71	139	46	5

Note. S = School M = Match
 R = Relationship C = Contrast
 T = Teacher
 I = Interview I
 III = Interview III

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