DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 257 780 SP 025 774

AUTHOR Elias, Patricia; And Others
TITLE Study of Induction Programs for Beginning Teachers. Volume III. Helping Beginning Teachers Through the First Year: A Review of the Literature.
INSTITUTION Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE 80
CONTRACT 400-78-0069
NOTE 51p.; For related documents, see SP 025 770-775.
PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Beginning Teachers; Higher Education; Preservice Teacher Education; *Program Development; *Program Evaluation; *Teacher Education Programs; *Teacher Orientation
IDENTIFIERS *Beginning Teacher Induction; *Extended Degree Programs

ABSTRACT

The major purposes of this literature review were to locate and describe existing programs that assist beginning teachers, and to describe the evaluation of these programs. Of particular interest was literature in which the problems of beginning teachers were described. Literature covering the following topics is reviewed: (1) why extended teacher training programs were developed; (2) the advantages of extended training programs; (3) why extended training programs fail; (4) why district and state programs were developed; (5) evaluation of extended teacher training programs; (6) the problems of beginning teachers; and (7) the problems with teacher training programs. A bibliography is included. (JD)

STUDY OF INDUCTION PROGRAMS FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

Volume III

Helping Beginning Teachers Through the First Year: A Review of the Literature

Patricia Elias
Marv Lee Fisher
Roni Simon

Project Co-Directors

Frederick J. McDonald

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STUDY OF INDUCTION PROGRAMS FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

Volume III

Helping Beginning Teachers Through The First Year: A Review of the Literature

Patricia Elias
Mary Lee Fisher
Roni Simon

A project conducted by Educational Testing Service for the National Institute of Education, Dr. Joseph Vaughn, Project Officer
(Contract No. 400-78-0069)

Project Co-Directors

Frederick J. McDonald

Patricia Elias

Educational Testing Service

Rosedale Road
Princeton, NJ 08541

1947 Center Street
Berkeley, CA 94704

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PREFACE

The Study of Induction Programs for Beginning Teachers began as an investigation of fifth-year post-baccalaureate teacher internship programs in which the intern taught half-time while completing an academic program leading to a master's degree. After the start of the study, it became clear that most teacher "intern" programs in the United States did not fit this model. The focus of the study was expanded to an examination of the problems of beginning teachers. The critical questions in this investigation are:

- What are the problems of beginning teachers?
- What kinds of programs have facilitated the solution of these problems?
- What are the consequences of failing to solve these problems in terms of achieving teacher effectiveness and stimulating a career of progressive professional development?

Three approaches were used to gather information on these issues: a review of the relevant literature, the identification of and visits to programs designed to assist beginning teachers, and a review of the evaluation reports of the programs. Twenty-four programs were examined in depth as part of the study. Of these, four were site visits. Educators throughout the nation who are concerned about the problems of beginning teachers were consulted.

The final report of this study consists of four volumes. The first volume discusses the problems and issues covered by the study, describes the methodology utilized in the study, and provides a series of recommendations for teacher educators and policy makers. Comprehensive descriptions of exemplary programs for beginning teachers are included in the second volume. The digest of programs is intended to assist educators who either

wish to implement or improve induction programs. The third volume provides a review of the literature. The names and locations of educators interested and involved in programs for beginning teachers are provided in the fourth volume.

The project was directed by Project Co-Directors, Dr. Frederick J. McDonald, Senior Research Scientist, Division of Educational Research and Evaluation, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 08541, and Dr. Patricia Elias, Director of Research and Advisory Services, Educational Testing Service, Berkeley, California, 94704. Information about the study and reports are available from either.

The study was funded by the National Institute of Education (Contract No. 400-78-0069). Dr. Joseph Vaughn, the Project Officer, deserves major credit for exercising the leadership and having the vision to expand the study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project could not have been completed without the assistance and cooperation of many individuals. Carol Stevenson served as the consultant to the project throughout the study. Roni Simon coordinated much of the information collection effort and information management. Mary Lee Fisher prepared a review of the relevant literature. All three participated in the site visits.

An advisory board provided guidance to project staff and helped in reformulating the study. Members of the advisory board inluded: Dr. Jere Brophy, Michigan State University; Dr. Elizabeth Cohen, Stanford University; Dr. Kevin Ryan, Ohio State University; and Dr. Richard Smuck, University of Oregon. We were also assisted by Dr. L. O. Andrews, Emeritus, Ohio State University; Dr. Ray Bolan, University of Bristol, England; and Dr. Jonathan Sandoval, University of California, Davis.

Throughout the project and during the production of the final report, coordination was a key element in the project's success. Alice Norby was the Project Secretary in the Princeton Office. Nancy Castille was the Project Secretary in the Berkeley Office. Other individuals who supported the project co-directors in various aspects of the production of the final report included: 1) Wanda Collins, Jean Gutterman, Bill Theiss, Carlos Velasquez, Monica Laurens, Barbara Sanchez, Robert Allen and Nannette Fox who produced the reports in Berkeley; 2) Ingrid Otten, Michael Walsh, Patricia Wheeler and Alice Setteducati who edited the reports in Berkeley; 3) Helen Tarr, Christine Sansone, and Veronica Morris who coordinated the transmission of materials from Princeton to Berkeley; and 4) Lois Harris who helped type materials in Princeton.

We must acknowledge the support and cooperation of the many educators throughout the nation who provided verbal and written information to us throughout the project. Their unfailing assistance through sometimes several phone calls and their genuine interest in the project were invaluable to us.

And, lastly, we again express our gratitude to the staff and participants of the beginning teacher induction programs who provided us with the opportunity to visit them. The project could not have been done without the time and information they so generously shared with us.

Frederick J. McDonald
Patricia Elias
Project Co-Directors

October 1980
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, New Jersey and
Berkeley, California

HELPING BEGINNING TEACHERS THROUGH THE FIRST YEAR: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The major purposes of this literature review were to locate and describe existing programs that assist beginning teachers and to describe the evaluation of these programs. Our second interest was to review literature in which the problems of beginning teachers had been described. The contents of this volume reflect what we found.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The study was originally designed to be a study of teaching internship programs in the United States. Three methods of inquiry were to be used:

1) A review of relevant literature was to be conducted;

2) Existing intern programs were to be located and described; and

3) Site visits were to be made to a limited number of representative programs.

The final product was to be a description of what we knew about teaching internships, what research needed to be done, and what proposals could be made for the more general adoption or improvement of internship programs. As the study developed, its goals were changed to include all kinds of formal programs that exist to help beginning teachers during their first year of teaching. Those changes were incorporated in the review of the literature.

This study in both its original and expanded conceptualization was intended to be essentially reflective in nature, a study in which the staff considered the issues and ideas that emerged from literature, from discussions with interested educators, and particularly from interviews and

discussions with teacher trainers in districts and institutions of higher education. The project was not intended to be an all inclusive survey of extant programs and practices. We were, rather, to select and describe fully a small number of "exemplary" programs attempting to assist beginning teachers. We considered programs exemplary if several educators not connected with the programs nominated them as exemplary.

Similarly, the literature review will not be exhaustive. We read much and considered much. The reference list at the end of this volume will serve to describe that effort. We will, rather, offer our generalizations about and reactions to the literature in several broad areas, and will illustrate with specific examples why we reached the conclusions we did.

COLLECTING AND CONSIDERING THE RESEARCH LITERATURE

We used standard procedures for identifying relevant literature. Computer assisted searches of the available indices of literature were made, and the initial searches were brought up to date by a hand search of relevant indices and abstracts. Materials for inclusion also were suggested by our federal project officer, our advisory committee and by the educators we contacted during the study.

After the initial title search, abstracts were studied, promising articles, books or documents were ordered and reviewed by the staff. A system for exchanging documents among staff members was established. The staff discussed the substance of the literature on numerous occasions both in formal meetings and informally in conversations.

The literature review did not serve us particularly well for locating

or describing existing programs for beginning teachers. Descriptions were old and almost exclusively concerned with programs run by institutions of higher education. Many of the programs no longer existed and those that did had changed, sometimes substantially, since the reports were published. Generally two types of projects were described and evaluated--those supported by federal or foundation monies.

We were looking, however, for any structured and sustained programs intended to help beginning teachers. The programs we sought could be local, regional, state or federal, and might or might not involve an institution of higher education. The beginning teachers served had to be first year teachers, either provisionally or fully certificated, employed and paid by a district, and had to teach full time or work with a somewhat reduced work load.

We augmented our literature search for programs with a fairly extensive telephone and mail survey. We amplified our descriptions of the exemplary programs by telephone interviews with their directors. The twenty-four program descriptions that resulted from the interviews and site visits are presented in Volume Two of the series of reports on this project.

We read a number of reports which represented solid proposals for the development of different types of programs. These reports were used as frames of reference for thinking about existing and possible kinds of helping programs for beginning teachers. If some of the ideas presented in this historical legacy had been used, the initial experience of several generations of beginning teachers might have been made considerably less traumatic. Consider, for example, this quotation:

> During the initial probationary period, local school boards should take specific steps to provide the new teacher with every possible help in the form of: (a) limited teaching responsibility; (b) aid in gathering instructional materials; (c) advice of experienced teachers whose own load is reduced so that they can work with the new teacher in his own classroom; (d) shifting to more experienced teachers those pupils who create problems beyond the ability of the novice to handle effectively; and (e) specialized instruction concerning the characteristics of the community, the neighborhood, and the students he is likely to encounter. (Conant, 1963)

Some of the program descriptions and the literature on the problems of beginning teachers are reviewed in the sections that follow. As we perused the literature, visited programs and talked to the directors of other programs, we were more and more persuaded of the importance of the political context in which programs operate and of their vulnerability to political and practical exigencies. We became curious about how helping programs came about.

That curiosity led to the inclusion of a brief review of history in this document as well as in our thinking. Understanding the past and acting on that understanding may make the work of some future researchers a challenge of considerable proportions. Programs may be many, varied and healthy. If we do not learn from history, that future researcher will have to erect as many tombstones over dead programs as we did.

WHY EXTENDED TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS WERE DEVELOPED

A continuing concern about the preparation of teachers is reflected in the literature. Beginning in the 1950's, many educators expressed dismay with the lack of practical classroom experience provided in typical undergraduate teacher education programs. Conant, for example, by 1963, had

analyzed teacher preparation programs in 35 colleges and universities. He lamented the minimal amounts of practice teaching time afforded by those programs; it was the least emphasized aspect of the programs Conant also expressed skepticism about the feasibility of teacher trainers providing the kinds of assistance needed by beginning teachers if for no other reason than the geographic distances between colleges and school sites.

The discussion has continued through the years. Hunt (1968) and Di Tosto (1974) argued that the practical experience of teaching in schools is as important for preparing teachers as are the other elements of their training, and that teacher preparation programs should reflect that importance. They pointed out that no other major profession allows novices to accept so much responsibility without more practical on-the-job training. And, no other profession expects beginners to work at the same level and on the same tasks as their more experienced colleagues.

Other critics of the traditional six weeks of practice teaching offered by teacher training programs referred to it as nothing more than "role-playing with sympathetic guidance" (Smith, Kerber, Olberg and Protheroe, 1968), an experience which could not provide "opportunities for new teachers to formulate personal and professional decisions" (Ryerson, 1967). In a 1967 paper, L.O. Andrews argued that a fifth year training program avoided the pitfalls of student teaching in which too great an emphasis was put on teaching skills at the expense of the development of greater professional understanding. He considered the student teaching experience to be "terminal" in comparison to induction programs which could mark an entry point into a teaching career.

To these educators and others, student teaching was not enough to

prepare the beginning teacher for the full range of classroom responsibilities. Lortie (1975) pointed out that, among other things, student teaching did not provide teachers with a foundation for evaluating their pupils, nor did it encourage analysis of what they were doing. Educators maintained that learning to teach in classrooms must be thought of as more than a craft to be mastered by an "apprenticeship of observation".

Real changes in the training of teachers, however, appear to have been prompted less by the comments of educators than they have by the pragmatic pressures such as the number and kinds of teachers needed along with the availability of new sources of funding.

The teacher shortages from 1952 to 1954, for example, captured the interest of the Ford Foundation. They were interested not only in the quantity but also the quality of available teachers (Woodring, 1957). The most important impetus for changes in teacher training in the last thirty years came in the late 1950's in the form of grants from the Ford Foundation. The foundation funded programs designed to bring new people into teaching as well as programs with "expanded" teaching opportunities. Believing that "professional education should be more closely related to the work of the public schools and should include extended experience in the schools," the Ford Foundation funded programs offering a fifth year program for new teachers. They felt that a fifth year, in addition to undergraduate study, would make the integration of theory and practice more useful to a prospective teacher than the traditional four-year pattern.

A number of the projects of the 1950's were internship programs. Woodring (1957) noted that the foundation received several proposals from California, where a higher population growth exacerbated the already existing

teacher shortage. The proposals were to prepare more "mature" college graduates who did not have a background in education to be teachers.

The Ford Foundation inspired intern programs were of two basic designs. The "expanded" programs combined a year of graduate study, usually leading to a master's degree, with classroom teaching. They were intended to augment the undergraduate training of certificated teachers. The second design also combined teaching and academic training, but were of the type proposed in California. The programs usually offered a full year of training starting in the summer preceding a teaching assignment in schools and ending the summer following the teaching experience. A master's degree was usually awarded at the end of the program.

In both designs, interns actually taught in schools either full-time or with a somewhat reduced load. They were employed and paid by the districts where they taught. All of the Ford funded programs were associated with universities or colleges.

The teacher internship is not a new idea. Since 1809, when Brown University offered intern teaching as part of their teacher education program, colleges and universities have offered such programs. No two intern programs are alike in all respects and each intern program changes over time. Hensen and Linville (1971), pointed out that those changes reflect changes in the demands of schools and communities as well as evaluation activities that suggested needed program improvements.

A second impetus for change in teacher training was provided in 1965 by federally funded Teacher Corps programs. One of the functions of Teacher Corps was "to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher education." That broadening involved "attracting and

training" both qualified teachers and inexperienced teacher-interns to work in schools with high concentrations of low income and minority group children. By 1974 there were 85 Teacher Corps projects, most of which trained inexperienced interns who were preparing for teacher certification. Many current Teacher Corps programs are fifth year programs for already certificated teachers or college graduates. Two such programs are described in Volume Two of this series of reports.

Pragmatic pressures led to the development of other programs as well. Moss (1967) described a cooperative effort of Colorado State College and the Greeley School Distri . Greeley schools were faced with the need to increase teacher salaries, reduce class loads, build additional schools and improve their instructional program. One solution for reducing class size would have been to hire additional teachers. That solution, however, would have taken the monies needed to increase teacher salaries. At the same time, the college was faced with a rapidly increasing enrollment in education and with the need to upgrade the laboratory experiences it offered its students. Their mutual solution of problems was procrustean indeed.

The program that evolved used the education students as interns. The outstanding teachers were offered positions as master teachers for which they received an appointment with the college and $700 additional salary from the district. The class size of the master teachers was increased by ten pupils, but the college provided two interns--one in the morning and one in the afternoon--to assist the master teachers. The interns got 16 credit hours from the college and $500 in compensation from the district.

The increased cost per classroom was $1700. The average salary of a beginning teacher would have been $5,100. Any three master teachers and

their interns absorbed pupils who would have been in four classrooms. The need for additional classrooms was reduced, the salaries of outstanding teachers were increased, pupil-teacher ratios were reduced, and a laboratory experience was provided for teachers in training. Moss' comment that these were stop-gap measures does not detract from the utility or validity of this or any other internship program as a way of assisting colleges, communities and schools to meet ever changing demands.

It appears that internship programs, and similar extended training programs, have been used to extend teacher training during times of either shortages or an overabundance of teachers. They currently provide a way for certificated teachers to get into the teaching profession. Klingele and Borland (1972) regarded the existing teacher surplus as just the impetus needed to improve teacher education. They felt that teacher training programs were in a strategic position to require extended clinical experiences of all teacher candidates, and that public schools were in a strategic position to capitalize on the services of the teacher candidate.

That assessment was perhaps a bit optimistic. The number of extended programs associated with colleges and universities, if anything, had decreased. Several programs still reflect the Ford Foundation hope to bring new kinds of people into teaching but the kinds of "new" people have changed. Temple University, for example, has an intern program to train college graduates who were science and mathematics majors to be high school teachers. Their focus on science and mathematics majors is pragmatic; there is still a demand for teachers in those subject areas.

The University of Oregon offers a fifth year program for "resident

teachers". The program serves certificated elementary school teachers who are provided full time teaching positions. A master's degree is awarded upon completion of the program. This excellent program provides teachers with an opportunity to get into the teaching profession, an opportunity they might not otherwise have because of the current surplus of teachers. The program is described in our Digest of Programs, Volume Two of this report series.

THE ADVANTAGES OF EXTENDED TRAINING PROGRAMS

Proponents of the movement for fifth year training programs owe a great deal to the work of J. B. Conant. In his monumental book published in 1963, The Education of American Teachers, Conant was among the first to describe specific steps that should be taken to assist the new teacher. More than any other work of the time, Conant's study served as a catalyst for subsequent literature on the potential and real advantages of extended teacher training programs. The advocacy literature is extensive.

Various authors have discussed the advantages of such programs. The advantages to new teachers that have been cited include:

- Emotional support (Gaede, 1978)
- Extended supervised teaching experience (Moss, 1967; Shimer, 1973)
- Integration of theoretical coursework with practical application in the classroom (Blackmore, 1968; Ryerson, 1967)
- Opportunities to work with cooperating master teachers on curriculum and instructional techniques (Rivlin, 1966; Hamacheck, 1969; Hamilton, Ward, Kehl & Suttle, 1966; Swanson, 1968; Chaltas, Southworth & Kain, 1968)
- Opportunities to collect, create, use, and evaluate suitable institutional materials (Conant, 1963; Cuban, 1964)
- Assistance in meeting the perceived needs of the community (Theimer, 1971; Carlson, 1970)

- Emphasis in a subject skill or specific level or area (Rivlin, 1966; Northline Project, 1974)
- Flexibility to encourage the development of an individual style (Edelfelt, 1979; Crosby and Massey, 1976; Denemark, 1967.)
- Assistance based on a clinical supervision model (Warner, Houston and Cooper, 1977; McIntosh, 1971; Bush, 1966; Gatewood, 1975; Hamilton et al., 1966)

While most of the literature concerns the benefits of extended programs to new teachers, the advantages to universities are reported as equally important. By assisting working teachers, university and college faculty can maintain contact with the realistic and practical world of education, reduce their "ivory tower" image and thus legitimize their function in the educational process (Moss, 1967).

The district also has much to gain from its participation in fifth year training programs. The district can select top candidates as permanent staff members after having had at least a year to observe them in the classroom. Also, beginning teachers can be more easily trained within school district guidelines. Other possible benefits to the district include a reduction in the pupil-teacher ratio by utilizing the teacher interns for small group instruction and the possibility of better space utilization through greater staff flexibility (Moss, 1967). L. O. Andrews (1967) maintains that these programs offer districts endless possibilities for establishing differentiated staffing patterns which he asserts will assure quality performance in the many specific tasks of teaching.

Internships and other extended training programs may also serve to upgrade the quality of instruction within a school. Other staff members, particularly the master teachers who work with the new teachers, are usually motivated to serve as good role models for their charges. They are

able to take advantage of the materials developed by the new teachers, and they are exposed to current educational practice and theory from the teacher's coursework (Corman and Olmsted, 1964; Klingele and Borland, 1972). As Roy Edelfelt (1974), a leading figure in inservice teacher education, points out: "hopefully this experience will help experienced teachers review the social system and how adequately or inadequately it functions."

WHY EXTENDED TRAINING PROGRAMS FAIL

Conant (1963) raised the question of who was going to accept the responsibility for induction programs. That question is not addressed directly, if at all, in the literature about extended programs for training teachers. The literature describes programs associated with institutions of higher education. When we tried to locate many of those programs, we found that they no longer existed. When funding disappeared, so did many programs. It would seem that there are precious few educators who have accepted the responsibility for induction programs. The extended programs that have survived, we suspect, reflect extraordinary tenacity and dedication on the part of their implementors.

The literature, however, does suggest other reasons for program failure in colleges and universities. Edelfelt (1966) suggested that the demise of a program is inevitable when it does not have a strong mechanism of governance to deal with decision making. He attributes that to the fact that fifth year programs do not fit into a single institution or structure but overlap several spheres of autonomy. In the college structure, faculty members function as a collection of peers. Each professor is autonomous

and arriving at a faculty consensus is a near impossible task (Nickerson, 1966). It is difficult for even the most stalwart to assume the responsibility for an extended teacher training program in those circumstances.

WHY DISTRICT AND STATE PROGRAMS WERE DEVELOPED

The history of district and state supported induction programs is much shorter than that of programs associated with colleges and universities, and there are many fewer. We located only five district supported induction programs for beginning teachers and all except two were in early stages of development. The one statewide program we located has been in place in its current form for just a few years.

District and state programs, like those of teacher training institutions, seem to evolve as a result of a large commitment of money, a strong commitment to some standard of excellence or a crisis of some sort in recruiting or keeping teachers.

Houston and New Orleans are building programs to assist new teachers because of the serious problem they have with teacher turnover. Jefferson County, Colorado, is committed to a quality of education that reflects the standards of its upper-middle class citizens; they feel that the best way to achieve that excellence is to mandate the use of structured curriculum materials in all elementary classrooms. The major function of their program is to train beginning teachers to use those materials. Georgia is expanding its teaching force and has expended increasing amounts of money over the last decade in an effort to improve the caliber of that teaching force. They are committed to improving the education of Georgia children. Those programs and others are described in Volume Two of this series of reports.

EVALUATION OF EXTENDED TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

The major purpose of this section of the literature review is to review the evaluations of programs that support beginning teachers. The reports of program effectiveness differ in many respects, but four kinds of approaches are commonly used. They are:

1) To assess the competencies and performances of beginning teachers
2) To assess the effectiveness of various elements of programs
3) To compare the effectiveness of different programs
4) To assess "survival" rate, how many graduates enter and stay in teaching.

A 1977 study which focused on teacher competencies was conducted by the University of Oregon Residency Teacher Program. They looked at teacher performance in a number of competency areas. Three raters (the resident teachers as self-raters, their principals, and external observers) judged competency in 21 areas. The competencies were defined by the program staff.

Results suggested that a group of thirteen resident teachers was more competent than was a group of first year teachers who had no planned supervisory and seminar help. The differences in ratings between the two groups consistently favoring the residents, however, are small.

An attempt to use pupil achievement as a means of assessing teacher competency was reported by Blackburn and Crandall (1975). This was a first year teacher pilot project in which 100 pilot program teachers were compared with another group of 100 first year teachers. The program teachers received assistance in certain skill areas, and the other group

received no assistance. The pupils of the 200 teachers were given standardized achievement and attitude tests. No significant differences in either the attitudes or the achievement of the pupils of the two groups of teachers were found.

In a project evaluating the Teacher Preparation Program of Delaware State, Starpoli (1972) found there was no significant difference in the academic achievement of pupils taught by interns compared with the pupils of a "control" group of other first-year teachers. However, he reported the contact between first year teachers and support personnel was profitable and led to the establishment of a Teacher Center on campus.

Marsh and Lyons (1974) evaluated many aspects of Teacher Corps programs. Of particular interest to us was their attempt to compare the Teacher Corps graduates with a control group of teachers in performance and pupil learning. The control group was a convenience sample of teachers teaching similar kinds of children, frequently in the same school as the Teacher Corps graduates. There was no significant difference in the reading gains of the pupils of the two groups of teachers, but the self-concept gains of the pupils of Teacher Corps teachers was significantly greater. They reported no differences between the two groups of teachers on any performance variables based on classroom observations of the teachers. The performance variables included affective tone in the classroom, teacher questioning, structuring or response strategies and the degree of attention given pupil behavioral problems.

At Washington State University, Herbert Hite (1968) conducted a two-year study relying on a classroom observation system to analyze teacher behavior assumed to be connected with effective teaching. No statistically

significant differences were found between the intern and control groups. The interns were a group of 36 beginning elementary teachers who were the subjects of an experiment to assess the effects of reduced work loads and inservice help on their classroom behavior. The control group was a group of twelve beginning teachers who did not receive any special assistance. It is interesting to note that although differences were not statistically significant, educators often cite the study to support the arguments in favor of supervision and reduced teaching loads for beginning teachers.

Many reports have relied exclusively on the opinions of the beginning teachers about their training. For example, Gibboney et al. (1970) evaluated four components of a two-year urban teacher education program. The teachers in the project completed questionnaires designed to determine whether the objectives in each component were met. According to the author, the teachers found the six-week inner-city living experience useful, a micro-teaching course useful, and their practicum in teaching useful. The teachers rated their practicum at the Pennsylvania Advanced School as the least useful of the four components.

Only one of the project reports offered an empirical evaluation of the effects of induction programs on the survival rate of teachers--getting into and staying in teaching--though much of the literature focuses on this topic. In the Stanford University Secondary Teacher Education Program data were analyzed from surveys of 952 interns enrolled who had "graduated" from the intern program from 1960 to 1969. Two variables were used to examine the survival rate, the number of years the intern worked full time in a secondary school and the number of years the intern worked in the field of teaching. It was concluded that the interns, as a population, probably

have a higher survival rate than other populations of teacher trainees. Two personal attributes turned out to be the best predictors of survival in 1973: sex and age. Traditional measures of academic aptitude and achievement did not predict the interns' survival in teaching.

Zeichner (1979) reviewed eleven teacher induction programs in the United States and Great Britain. Zeichner compares the programs in the United States in terms of five variables. The five variables and Zeichner's conclusions were:

1) User satisfaction and extent of program implementation - Zeichner comments that there was heavy reliance on questionnaires.

2) Teacher turnover - Only two programs even considered this problem.

3) Teacher performance - Three programs considered this variable as a measure of evaluation. He comments that the results are not statistically significant and the evaluation criteria are often unspecified.

4) Teacher attitudes and morale - Four projects attempted to measure teacher attitudes. Zeichner comments that it was difficult to make statistical statements or to draw clear conclusions.

5) Pupil performance and attitudes - Two projects looked at the effects of their efforts on various aspects of pupil attitudes and behavior. He comments that "the effects of induction programs on pupils has not received much attention by program evaluators, but the little data that does exist does not show any effect."

Zeichner reports that unlike many of the evaluators of teacher induction programs in the United States who almost always concentrate on single program outcomes, the British evaluators, Parlett and Hamilton, attempted to construct comparative case studies of each induction scheme. Zeichner quotes their research strategy:

> Illuminative evaluation is not a standard methodological package, but a general research strategy. It aims to be both adaptable and eclectic. The choice of research tactics follows not from research doctrine, but from decisions in each case as to the best available techniques: the problem defines the methods and

> not vice versa. Equally no method (with its own built-in limitations) is used exclusively or in isolation, dirferent techuiques are combined to throw light on a common problem.

One of our major concerns was the quality of the evaluations of the programs in terms of design, instrumentation and implementation. Most of the evaluation reports suffered on one or more of these dimensions. We did find a few evaluations with relatively sophisticated designs. Unfortunately, these evaluations were based on assessment techniques of unknown or undemonstrated reliability. The samples of teachers were usually whoever were geographically convenient.

However, there may be some good reasons for the poor quality. Defining standards of teaching competence and measuring the achievement of those competencies is a frequently used technique in the projects. Defining standards of competence can be done, but the technology available for measuring competencies is primitive (McDonald, 1978).

THE PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

The literature about the problems of beginning teachers is of two general types: anecdotal or diary type reports by beginning teachers of the problems they experienced and surveys by researchers or graduate students of the problems of beginning teachers. We will present three perspectives about the problems of beginning teachers, those expressed by the teachers themselves, studies of their problems by others, and studies of the views of experienced teachers and building principals.

The Perceptions of Beginning Teachers

One of the richest sources of information about the problems of beginning teachers in the literature comes from the personal accounts of

the first year of teaching. Books such as Don't Smile Until Christmas (Ryan, 1970), contain diaries of the lives of beginning teachers. Simple survival and terror are common themes. Other authors have provided descriptions of the problems of beginning teachers often accompanied by suggestions for program improvement (Zeichner, 1979; Dropkin and Taylor, 1963; Lortie, 1966 and 1975; Rivlin, 1966; Rehage, 1968). The most frequently mentioned problems are:

- Discipline and class control
- Finding and using appropriate materials
- Evaluation of the student's work
- Isolation and insecurity

Insecurity and isolation are feelings frequently described by beginning teachers. Consider Rebecca Chapman's (1968) account:

> ...I had nothing but apprehension about my job. I felt determined to go at least one day, and if it did not work out I would quit.
>
> ...All of a sudden I felt real panic inside. I was very much aware that at that moment I was the only white person in a room filled with 200 strange faces... I thought I would suffocate or faint.

John Canfield explains his feelings quite ably (in Ryan, 1970):

> A large part of the first year was spent in an overwhelming state of helplessness. That feeling that results from not being able to effectively intervene... As a first year teacher you are helpless to do anything. You have no real power within the structure.

The isolation of a new teacher in a school was related by Linda Corman (in Ryan, 1970). Commenting on the infrequent communication among members of a department, she realized that though the teachers were friends in a social context, each preferred to close the classroom door to the rest of the world. She experienced confusion when she asked a peer about his

classroom activities and was rudely rebuffed. Finally, she learned to operate in that milieu by closing her door and her mouth for the rest of the year. When she did meet some faculty members who might have made a difference to her, it was "too late." For a variety of reasons, Linda Corman decided not to return to teaching the next year.

The most frequently mentioned problems are "control" and discipline. Beginning teachers may have forgotten what they or their friends were actually like as students. During their preparation classes, they study child development, and discuss planning for children, and conjure unrealistic pictures of what their future students will actually behave. A candid portrayal appears in Eleanor Fukes's account:

> Before school began I had decided to pursue a course of "discipline from within". The flaws in this scheme were legion, but principally two: first, it required me to be perennially scintillating, which I am not; and second, I did not devise an alternative for the case of a class which would not respond to this kind of treatment. (in Ryan, 1970)

From hindsight, Miss Fukes explained that given a second chance, she would have established rules about noise and conduct on the first day of school. At first she was determined to protect her students from suspension and its harmful psychological effects but finally recanted after 20 weeks of disruption.

Many beginning teachers want their students to like them and, in an effort to insure this, do not discipline them or give them bad grades. Two new teachers described their feelings:

> Being young and single, I guess I was driven by the desire or a need to be loved and accepted by those with whom I was in daily contact. (Canfield, in Ryan, 1970)

> It was puzzling to me how experienced teachers could grade student work...I found it extremely difficult at first to grade just one theme. Just as I feared making students mad at me by taking disciplinary action, so I feared their ire as a result of the low grades I might give them on papers and tests. (Cornog, in Ryan, 1970)

Many first year teachers also mentioned the long hours it took for them to evaluate or grade their students' work: "I spent all weekend." "Oh, the hours it took."

Another frequently mentioned problem in the accounts of beginning teachers has been finding and using an appropriate curriculum. The fact that the goals and methods learned in college did not fit in a real situation was brought up by Ray Russo (1968). He remembered methods and objectives being discussed in his educational psychology course but no one ever explained how they were "derived and defined".

Beginning teachers also related frustrations in finding the correct methods and materials for their students. While the materials were at the appropriate level for some students, "the material was too abstract and presented too fast for others to assimilate" (Ryan, 1970).

Studies of the Perceptions of Beginning Teachers

A major problem of beginning teachers centers around discipline and class control. Several studies explored this problem. Kevin Ryan (1974) also considered the problem of the new teacher's relationship with the student and a fear of discipline. He used the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory to measure teachers' attitudes toward their students. Prospective teachers were characterized as being warm and positive toward their students. When the same test was administered to beginning teachers during the first four months, there was a sharp decline in positive attitudes.

After that time, a very slow rise in positive attitudes began. Ryan labeled this the "curve of disenchantment".

Another study was done by Wayne Hoy (1968), who examined the conditions affecting the beginning teachers' ability to control the class and establish discipline. Hoy felt that it was likely that new teachers experienced a conflict between the schools' socialization pattern and their own desires to be more humanitarian. The conflict may be compounded by the fact that many schools equate the ability to "control" with the ability to "teach". An instrument was used to test 175 elementary and secondary beginning teachers. It was found that the "pupil-control ideology" of these teachers was significantly more custodial after their first year of teaching. Additional data were collected from a group of teachers who did not teach the year following graduation. The "pupil-control ideology" of this group remained the same during the year. The results were attributed to the effect that the new teachers' colleagues had upon the neophytes. It was found that new teachers viewed as weak on control had marginal status among their colleagues and others within the school.

Student misbehavior was the greatest source of difficulty for 180 interns responding to a questionnaire developed by Miller in his 1970 study at Temple University. Polling the interns at the beginning, middle and end of their first year, Miller found that this area was hard to understand and hard to handle for the new teachers. This problem was mentioned by interns teaching in junior high schools more frequently than by interns working at the senior high school level.

As reported in the same study, problems with curriculum planning were the greatest source of pressure for first year secondary school teachers. The interns indicated that this took the greatest amount of their time and energy. Teaching new material, marking papers and doing clerical work were also reported as sources of pressure. Comments of the interns included in the report reflect feelings of personal inadequacies. "I realize how little I know about my subject." "I find going slowly enough and simply enough for my students is a problem."

That new teachers are full of doubts about their own personal and professional competence was the conclusion of a study by Gaede, (1978). His investigation measured the self-assessed professional knowledge skills of 272 educators in various levels of teaching, including student teachers, graduates, first year teachers and more experienced teachers. Using the Professional Training Readiness Inventory, the data indicated a rise in self-assessed knowledge during each stage except the first year. Beginning teachers show a lower score on every scale, including:

- Knowledge of the basic methods of teaching
- Knowledge of the administration of public schools
- Knowledge of educational theory and history
- Knowledge of methods useful in teaching slow learners
- Knowledge of the proper use of educational media
- Experience in observing educational models

Gaede suggested that this was because beginning teachers compared themselves to their more experienced colleagues. The student teachers, who generally scored higher, tended to compare themselves with other student teachers. Gaede also suggested that student teaching usually is conducted in an atmosphere of support, and the student is not expected to have

all the answers, but the beginning teacher is. Thus it is possible for student teachers to overestimate their professional competence.

One of the difficulties in examining the problems of beginning teachers is that we cannot assume that all beginning teachers have the same kinds of problems or that the brightest most academically successful graduates will have the fewest problems.

To ascertain whether beginning teachers in inner-city schools have a different perception of their problems than those in suburban schools, a team of researchers sent questionnaires to 100 beginning teachers in various elementary schools in different locales. The new teachers rated items from seven problem areas as to their degree of severity. Two preservice variables were correlated with each problem area score. These were: the total score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination and the grade-point average of the teachers during their professional education courses. The teachers were grouped according to the types of schools in which they taught: suburban schools, special service schools in New York City, and non-special service schools in New York City.

The findings showed that when teachers are categorized by school locality, there is a difference between beginning teachers in the city and suburbs. City teachers seem to feel their problems are greater in the areas of discipline, materials and resources, and classroom routines. In the area of relations with parents, teachers in special service schools in New York city saw themselves as having more severe problems than teachers in the non-special service city schools. City teachers generally saw themselves as having more problems than suburban teachers. However, the frequent comment that "city teachers have problems with their children

while suburban teachers have problems with their children's parents" was not shown by this study (Dropkin and Taylor, 1963).

Studies of the Perceptions of Other Educators

While most of the literature considers problems from the point of view of the beginning teacher, there were a few articles offering the perspective of other educators including more experienced teachers, supervisors, principals and administrators. Aspy (1969) reviewed and summarized several studies concerning problems encountered by first year teachers. In his article, he presented a study in which it was found that 300 first, second, and third year teachers agree with new teachers' perceptions of their first few years. They concur with the novices that "survival was more important than competence" for the new teacher. Aspy (1969) also reviewed a second study which suggested that supervisors are also concerned that many trainees are operating at survival level. The supervisors indicated that trainees had problems in the areas of knowledge of subject matter, reading instruction, class control and discipline problems, and unreal expectations of students.

THE PROBLEMS WITH TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

There is a dichotomy between the practitioners in the schools and the theoreticians in the universities as to what kinds of essential information is needed by the beginning teacher. In an extensive survey conducted by Herman Hermanowicz (1966), 312 beginning teachers surveyed said that their general education was adequate as preparation for teaching. They were critical, however, of the professional preparation component of their training. The teachers, responding to the survey, indicated that courses

in foundations of education, philosophy, and psychology were of little relevance to their initial teaching experience. Education instructors were criticized for being too far removed from the realities of the classroom and for presenting material which was too theoretical and irrelevant to the needs of a beginning teacher.

Robert Bush (1965) also speaks to this point:

> The root problems seem to be, on the one hand, the gap that exists between conditions in the colleges and the way college professors view education, and on the other, conditions in the schools and the way teachers view education.

Kevin Ryan (1970) suggests that this antagonism towards education courses may be misdirected. Instead of fewer education courses, he suggests that more experiences to help the student put theory into practice may be of more value in developing the skills and methods of good teaching. Beginning teachers are usually unable to turn information from college coursework into teaching strategies to be used in the classroom. The problem as Ryan sees it is that reading about a theory or telling about a stategy in a college classroom does not insure that someone is able to use the information.

Conant was one of the first to suggest a timetable, or phases in which to introduce the appropriate material or information to a novice teacher. Labeling the time spans into three periods, he suggests that the teacher become orientated to the school personnel and facility before school begins, preferably in the spring or summer. The second phase would begin during the normal school orientation with a cooperating teacher helping the new teacher become acquainted with the teaching responsibilities and school policies. The third phase Conant describes occurs during the first sem-

ester and emphasizes the practical arts of teaching. At this stage, the cooperating teacher works with groups and individuals on lesson plans, materials, and methods which are all concerned with survival of the first few months. At this stage, everything should relate to the classroom. This includes the problems of class discipline and control, grading and testing, parent and community relations, and diverse teaching methods. Starting about January, Conant describes a gradual shift from practical daily concerns to longer range plans using a more theoretical approach (Conant, 1963). Others call for a reorganization of the system of training of teachers (Klingele and Borland, 1972; Hensen and Linville, 1971; Shimer, 1973; Lortie, 1966).

There is no common body of knowledge about what kinds of assistance beginning teachers need, much less is there agreement about how to meet those needs. Conant (1963) pointed out that the teaching profession had not yet agreed upon a common body of knowledge that new teachers should acquire before going into the classroom. Lortie (1966) and Denemark (1967) both suggested that there was a need for the development of a unifying theory of teacher education before other questions could even be asked.

Shaplin and Powell (1964) pointed out that teacher training programs had done little to expand their understanding of what teachers needed to know--partly due to a lack of resources and partly due to a lack of interest. Broudy (1965), on the other hand, questioned whether the task of finding a universal model of teacher education is possible or even desirable when working with individuals. Dr. Broudy's comments notwithstanding, we think that it is possible and necessary to develop cohesive and coherent

models in which preservice and inservice teacher training programs can be sensibly linked. Those ideas are presented in Volume One of this study.

We do not maintain that the task will be easy, just that it should be done. After completing the literature review, visiting several programs and talking to the directors of many others, it is our position that we have practically no real information on three major questions:

1) What is the precise nature and character of the problems teachers experience during the induction period, how extensive are they and how severe are they?

2) What factors influence the generation of these problems, ameliorate them or influence more facile and rapid solution of them?

3) What kinds of training or assistance programs or experiences have powerful effects on preventing, alleviating, or facilitating the solution of these problems?

That is the challenge that lies ahead.

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