UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

_____ , 20 _____

I,_____,
hereby submit this as part of the requirements for the
degree of:

_____

in:

_____

It is entitled:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Approved by:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

FROM COURSEWORK TO CLASSROOM:

A QUALITATIVE STUDY ON THE INFLUENCES OF PRESERVICE

TEACHER SOCIALIZATION

A dissertation submitted to the

Division of Research and Advanced Studies
of the University of Cincinnati

in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

DOCTORATE OF EDUCATION (Ed.D.)

In the Division of Teacher Education
of the College of Education

2002

by

Melissa J. Marks

B.S.Ed., Ohio State University, 1990
M.Ed., University of Cincinnati, 1996

Committee Chair: Dr. David T. Naylor

Abstract

This longitudinal qualitative study followed five preservice teachers through the final two years of a five-year teacher education program. The study investigated the socialization process, as shown by changes in participants' beliefs and actions as they pertained to classroom instruction and student learning. Three phases of teacher training (pre-training, pre-service, and field experience) as well as institutional constraints in the field were analyzed. Observations, interviews, focus groups, and participants' work were the sources for analysis. Descriptive case-study narratives trace the patterns and changes for each participant. Single-case findings and cross-case findings are provided.

The program that the participants were involved in responded to the need for educational reforms. The program differed from traditional education programs in a variety of ways. First, the participants each earned the equivalent of a major in their chosen subject area (e.g., social studies). Second, the participants experienced two extensive field experiences (i.e., 60 hours and 50 hours). Third, they participated in full-year, paid internships in urban professional development schools. Fourth, each participant developed a portfolio showing their growth as teachers and reflecting the program's desired goals. The major issue investigated in this study was how this type of teacher education program influenced preservice teacher socialization.

Dialectical socialization theory and cognitive dissonance theory acted as the analytical framework for this study. Findings included: (1) Self-conception heavily influenced preservice teachers' socialization as teachers; (2) Preconceptions (especially concerning teaching and teachers) strongly influenced preservice teachers' actions in the classroom; (3) preservice teachers often abided by cooperating teachers' rules and

expectations rather than those of the university's (when the two were not similar); (4) preservice teachers initially accepted and acted upon university expectations; (5) the cooperating teacher during the first field experience was highly influential; and (6) preservice teachers became more custodial in their management techniques during the intern year. Recommendations for teacher education programs include: (1) forcing preservice teachers to reflect on their own preconceptions about teaching; (2) forming true partnerships between the university and schools; and (3) cementing positive relationship between the university supervisor and student teachers/interns.

Acknowledgements

I have always been told that milestones do not count unless you can celebrate them with others. In the case of this dissertation, this milestone would not have *occurred* to be celebrated without the help, support, encouragement, and guidance of many people. I want to express my greatest gratitude and thanks to:

My doctoral committee, Dr. Keith Barton, Dr. Annette Hemmings, Dr. Glenn Markle, and especially my Chairperson, Dr. David Naylor, for their patience, encouragement, feedback, and demands for quality

My friends who gave me support, love, perspective, and their ears, including:
Darci Cramer-Benjamin
Marci Grossman
Dorothy Glass
Sonja Heeter
Berna Jacobson
Jane Rothstein

My parents, Helen and Robert Marks, and sisters, Wendy Firestone and Elisse Gabriel, who patiently listened to me talk about this study for the past few years, and brother Joshua Marks, for his computer expertise

And most of all to my wonderful husband, Eric Rickin, who has encouraged and supported me, providing help and prodding, throughout the entire dissertation process.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Overview Of The Study

Reforming teacher education programs is not new. Many reform efforts have attempted to produce better teachers (Hirsch et al., 1998; Darling-Hammond and Cobb, 1996; Doyle, 1990). Often, the methods are tried, kept or dismissed based on time restraints, political demands or anecdotal findings. Instead of changes being made haphazardly as the political winds blow, teacher educators need to know – based on research – how preservice teachers' understanding of the teaching profession changes, what practices transfer from the university to the school room, and what experiences facilitate or impede these changes. In order to do this, research – not anecdotal commentary or political rhetoric – about new and innovative programs is necessary.

> A school or district does *something* because of a perceived need; time passes without any real lesson being learned from the experience; and then the school district finds itself trying something different. We have to break this cycle and begin to learn from what we do in the field. Doing so raises fundamental theoretical issues, for we need to be able to figure 'what counts' amidst the glorious complexity of practice and how to characterize it in careful ways (Schoenfeld, 1999, p. 12) [emphasis in original]

Like the schools Schoenfeld refers to, universities climb on the reform bandwagon to be part of the "new and improved," although not tested nor proven, practices.

Portman (1993) noted that teacher preparation programs "have remained essentially the same for the past fifty years in spite of numerous reform and innovative efforts" (p. 14). Change in teacher education is slow, superficial and mainly organizational in nature (Nolan, 1985, p 14). Many alterations have been suggested and made "without producing a noticeable impact on the product," the graduates sent out to teach. She added,

> Our history makes it clear that it is far more attractive to tinker with the form of the program than to critically examine the substance of how

3

people learn to teach. Program form…is far more attractive than program substance because it is relatively easy to alter, especially when contrasted with asking people to change their thinking about teacher preparation (Portman, 1993, p. 15).

This is because "despite a growing knowledge base in learning how to teach, there still remains a considerable lack of research that describes effective teacher education program characteristics" (Graber, 1996). Kathy Carter (1994) echoed this sentiment, saying, "Little is actually known about teaching processes, their students and the curriculum as they situate their knowledge in the complex settings in which they work" (p. 235). Without understanding how teachers are socialized, such as how their beliefs about teaching and pedagogy are formed and affected, altering programs may not yield the desired results.

"The controversy concerning the role of teacher education courses in relation to the professional growth of student teachers has emphasized the need for methods to establish a clear data base concerning the processes and outcomes of teacher education" (Nettle, 1998, p. 193).Therefore, in addition to making changes to the programs, it is necessary to study the *process* of learning to teach within a program to understand and measure its effects. As Shoenfeld (1999) so wryly noted, "Sometimes you have to build something to see if it will work…and then you have to study the hell out of it" (p. 12) Not nearly enough of that is being done.

In April 2000, the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), the second largest teacher union in the United States, endorsed reforms to enact more rigorous standards for teacher education, including a higher minimum grade point average to enter the program and a national teachers' exam. They also called for prospective teachers to have a major in the subjects they want to teach and expanding teacher education programs to five

years, with the fifth year devoted to working in schools under the supervision of more experienced mentors (New York Times, April 14, 2000). In making these suggestions, the AFT endorsed the recommendations made by three influential, well-funded, and visible education research groups: The Holmes Group, The Carnegie Foundation and NCATE (National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education).

Although separate entities, these groups recommend similar reforms in education. For example, to ensure subject matter competence, they call for preservice teachers to have both a liberal arts background and a baccalaureate degree prior to professional study. To increase collaboration between university and local schools, they promote the use of extended internships, multiple evaluations of preservice teachers and diverse demographic field experiences.

These recommendations differ from traditional teacher education programs. Typically, preservice teacher education programs culminate in a 10- to 14-week student teaching experience in a single mentor teacher's classroom. Collaboration between university and schools are weak. The student teacher is expected to follow the classroom teacher's lead and is evaluated by him or her, with limited input from the university supervisor. The program differences appear enormous; the effect on preservice socialization is presently unknown.

This study focuses on the socialization of five preservice teachers enrolled in the Cincinnati Initiative in Teacher Education (CITE) program, which fulfills the recommendation of the three research groups. To be certified as a secondary teacher, an undergraduate must complete a five-year undergraduate program. Within this program, the student earns a baccalaureate degree with a major in the teaching field from the

College of Arts and Sciences as well as a baccalaureate degree from the College of Education. A post-baccalaureate student must have earned a degree with a major (or its equivalent) in the teaching field and then complete a two-year teacher preparation program. Major components of the program include two lengthy field experiences (60 hours in the winter term, 50 hours in the spring term) during the professional year and then a full-year internship (see Appendix A). Students gain experience in both suburban and urban classrooms and receive multiple evaluations from their mentor teachers, university supervisors, school-university liaisons, and other professionals in the school. For all field experiences, the university partners with professional practice schools (PPS). The partnership is supposed to ensure that the same goals held by the university education program are being supported during the field experiences by the cooperating teachers and site liaisons. These goals, identified by a specific rubric centered around eight themes, are the basis for preservice teachers' assessments during their Intern Year (See Appendix B).

Building such a program, based on the aforementioned recommendations, is not enough. It is necessary to study the effects such a program has on preservice teachers to determine whether the recommended reforms make a difference in the teachers produced or whether these recommendations are merely the next insubstantial reform to be tried without gain. To understand the effects of these recommended reforms, this dissertation presents qualitative case studies concerning the socialization of five secondary social studies preservice teachers. It focuses in particular on how their beliefs and practices, specifically in the areas of instruction and learning, evolved during phases of socialization in an innovative, nationally-acclaimed teacher education program (Wulf,

1997). It is important to note that it is the socialization of these preservice teachers, *not* the CITE program, that is being studied.

The overall goal of this dissertation is to map out the socialization processes of preservice teachers, specifically concerning the areas of instruction and learning. Issues investigated include the internal and external factors that influence preservice teachers, how changes fluctuate (or are sustained) over a two-year period, and whether the traits desired by the university are heard in interviews and practiced in the classroom. The findings of this study lend insight into the socialization effects of this program and others like it. For example, does the continual reinforcement of themes through classes during the internship year add to the effectiveness of the program as Graber (1996) and Barnes (1987) suggest? Or, does the socialization process in the field erode any changes made as preservice teachers perceive that they are under pressure to conform to current school practices (Kettle and Sellars, 1996; Lacey, 1977) or as they regress to their original preconceptions about teaching (Lortie, 1975)? Were the changes significant enough to be internalized and constantly used or merely acted on during brief field experiences while under direct university supervision? Answering these research questions will provide information regarding socialization influences from the program, lend insight regarding influences of a full-year internship and, most importantly, provide the educational community with additional knowledge regarding what teacher education programs can do better to educate future teachers more effectively. This study will follow Zeichner and Grant's (1981) suggestion that future research on teacher education "begins to examine in some manner…what takes place in the minds and classrooms of [preservice] teachers *as*

the experience unfolds and as they respond to specific problematic situations" (p. 311, italics added).

In order to gain an understanding regarding changes in ideas and ideals of the preservice teachers as they are socialized into the education profession, it is necessary to look at how their beliefs are changing. As Bair (1999) wrote, "Although largely ignored until recently, understanding belief structure is of primary importance because core beliefs have a significant effect on one's actions" (p. 2). Yet, as researchers have documented, preservice teachers' preconceptions are stable and resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; Wubbels, 1992). Constructivist theory suggests an explanation. Each individual's views or models of what constitutes being a teacher is based on that person's own experiences and beliefs (Joram and Gabriele, 1998; Graber, 1996; Mertz and McNeely, 1981). Having been "teacher watchers" for at least 12 years by the time they enter a teacher education program, preservice teachers are already socialized to the education profession and "know" what a "good teacher" is (Lortie, 1975; Carter, 1994). Helping preservice teachers to reconstruct that mental model is very difficult, but necessary if more than the traditional teacher is to be created. Therefore, by monitoring the changes in beliefs, it is possible to gain partial insight into the socialization of preservice teachers.

The other half of the socialization equation rests on the change or resistance to change in the preservice teachers' actions. These are not always consistent with their beliefs and may exhibit deep-seated beliefs, providing greater insight into the socialization process. The theoretical basis rests on Chris Argyris and Donald Schon's (1974) "Theory-in-Use." Like the Cognitive Dissonance Theory from psychology, this

theory asserts that a person's espoused theory (i.e., what one says he or she believes) and a person's theory-in-use (i.e., what he or she actually does) must be congruent. When the two are not congruent, disequilibrium results. To eliminate the disequilibrium, a change occurs in either the beliefs or the actions so that congruency is achieved. A person's actions speak louder than words: "We cannot learn what someone's theory-in-use is simply by asking him" (Agyris and Schon, 1974, p. 7). To know whether a person's beliefs have changed, actions must be observed and compared to espoused beliefs. For example, in the program under study, preservice teachers are expected to perform in a specified manner in both microteaching and field experiences and then to assess through reflection the degree to which their performances meets program expectations. It is hoped that through reflection about and practice of effective pedagogy, the preservice teachers will experience disequilibrium and change their actions and beliefs to match the goals promoted by the CITE program.

Argyris and Schon's Theory-in-Use complements Schemp and Graber's (1992) Dialectical Theory of Socialization. This latter theory asserts that people change when they accept what's being offered and deem it important or relevant for themselves. If what is offered is viewed as unimportant or irrelevant, it passes through the filter, not affecting the person's beliefs or actions and thus not influencing the socialization of that person. Together, these two theories provide a framework for analyzing the socialization of the participants in this study.

This study uses beliefs and practices as a base from which to map out the socialization processes of preservice teachers. In order for the reader to gain a full picture of the two-year socialization process, comprehensive descriptive findings are presented.

Issues investigated include the internal and external factors that influence preservice teachers, how changes fluctuate (or are sustained) over a two-year period and the extent to which the desired program outcomes are espoused and observed in teaching practices.

The findings of this study will add to what is known about the impact of teacher education programs on the socialization of preservice teachers, specifically in programs like this one and others like it. Addressing socialization influences will lend insight about the impact of a full-year internship in particular and, most importantly, provide the educational community with additional knowledge regarding what teacher education programs can do better to more effectively education future teachers.

The secondary CITE program revolves around eight themes: collaboration, content, context, curriculum instruction, grounded theory and knowledge, learning, and professional growth and development (see Appendix B). According to the *CITE Secondary Education Handbook*, "these eight themes provide the underpinnings of the program's common vision for secondary teachers" (1998, p. 1). The program strives to develop the qualities described in each of these eight themes in each preservice teacher. Thus, these themes act as the socialization goals for preservice teachers. To this end, the themes shape the formative and summative assessments by which preservice teachers are evaluated within the program.

Because focusing on all eight themes would be too broad of a study, this study addresses only two of the themes, namely those of Instruction and Learning. The CITE's instruction theme stresses the importance of using a variety of instructional, management and assessment techniques, the need for clearly articulating expected outcomes, the ability to match student needs with ability/behavior, the value of creating a supportive

classroom climate and the necessity of reflecting on his or her practices. The CITE's learning theme stresses constructivist learning theory emphasizing that students are active, productive, goal-oriented, producers of knowledge (See Appendix C). The teacher is to help learners fit new information into present knowledge and make connections with prior knowledge (CITE, 1998).

During the first quarter of the "Professional Year" (i.e., year four for undergraduate, year one for just-entering post-baccalaureate studies) teacher education program, students enroll in an Instructional Planning class. It requires students to teach two ten-minute mini-lessons to peers while being videotaped. During the second quarter, students complete in a 60-hour field experience at an area middle or high school. It is coupled with their certification area (e.g., social studies) methods class so that the in-class learning can be applied in the school setting. During the third quarter, students participate in a 50-hour field experience in a demographically different school, thus allowing all preservice teachers to experience both suburban and urban classroom. To be placed at a school for their internship year, the preservice teachers interview at the professional practice schools at which they are interested in teaching. During their internship year (i.e., the fifth year of the undergraduate program or second year of the graduate program), the preservice teachers serve as half-time teachers-of-record at a professional practice school (PPS), a public school that collaborates with the University. A substitute teaching certificate provides the legal authority for the assumption of this role.

Each intern assumes a half-load schedule of a regular teacher (usually three classes). After the school day ends on Tuesdays and Thursdays, interns attend prescribed classes at the university where the focus is on relating theory and practice to the teaching

situation the interns are experiencing. The interns are part of a university-PPS team, which consists of a professor, mentor teachers (i.e., experienced teachers at the school), and interns. To the secondary school students in their classes, the intern is their teacher for the entire school year. Often the students do not know that their intern-teacher is anything less than a fully-certified new teacher. In this way, these interns experience many of the same situations and dilemmas that first-year teachers experience, but with the advantage of additional support and only a half-time teaching load.

This qualitative study begins by following six preservice secondary social studies teachers during their first quarter in the professional year of the education program. By the end of the two-years, only three participants remained in the program. Two successfully completed the program and were certified. One completed the internship, but never completed the mandatory portfolio, thus not attaining certification. Two left the program for various reasons. The sixth withdrew from the program during fall quarter, recognizing his inability to complete required history courses. He returned to complete the program the following year. Because he withdrew from the Professional Year after the first microteaching session, he was dropped from this study.

A case study format is employed to describe the development of these preservice teachers and the impact of the program on them, an approach supported by Zeichner and Tabachnik (1985). They wrote:

> The alternative strategy of describing central tendencies in a group of beginning teachers while assuming school contexts to be relatively homogenous tends to obscure important differences among teachers and among schools and has generally failed to illuminate the subtle processes of beginning teacher socialization. (p. 4)

As Patton (1990) stressed, case studies can "provide more valid portrayals, better bases for personal understanding of what is going on and solid grounds for considering action" (p. 99).

Wolcott (1994) asserts that three sections are necessary to qualitative research: Description, analysis, and interpretation (p. 179). This paper follows that format. Chapters four and five present the case studies, separated by year. According to Patton (1990),

> The case study should take the reader into the case situation….Each case study in a report stands alone, allowing the reader to understand the case as a unique, holistic entity. At a later point in analysis, it is possible to compare and contrast, but initially each case must be represented and understood as an idiosyncratic manifestation of the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 1990, p. 387).

Thus, in this study, each case study provides a deeply descriptive picture of the socialization of a preservice teacher. Changes in each participant's initial desires and abilities to meet the CITE program's goals unfolds over two years, as evidenced by observations, reflective papers, and interviews. The influence of their preconceived beliefs, university courses, and field experiences on their socialization is apparent throughout the Professional and Intern Years. Following the descriptive pieces, an analysis of the data, couched in the Theory-in-Use and Dialectical Theory frameworks, is presented in chapter six. Lastly, the interpretation of this research discussed in Chapter Seven.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The literature regarding the socialization of preservice teachers is vast and varied. It includes information concerning the individual elements of socialization, such as beliefs, actions, and influences (Bair, 1999; Pajares, Frank, 1993) as well as the overall socialization process (Lortie, 1976; Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1985). Some researchers focused on a short amount of time, such as one class (Price, 1999; McDiarmid, 1990) while others surveyed years of data (Joram and Gabriele,1998; Popkewitz, 1994).

While some researchers point to specific courses or experiences during the university education program as factors that changed preservice teachers' beliefs or actions, (Carter, 1994; Ajayi-Dopemu andTalabi,1986), the overall findings seem to conclude that preservice teachers' general socialization is often not as affected by university classes as university education programs may desire. Instead, preconceptions and prior experiences greatly color preservice teachers' socialization (Wubbels, 1992; Weinstein, 1986). Many of the disagreements by the researchers can be explained by the Dialectical Process of Socialization, which proposes that each person filters ideas based on his or her prior experiences and preconceptions (Schemp and Graber, 1992).

To better recognize how each episode in an education program may influence the socialization of preservice teachers, it is imperative to review both the literature regarding the elements of socialization, including beliefs, actions and influences, and the literature on the overall socialization process of preservice teachers. By doing so, the individual changes as well as the overall socialization process can be better understood.

Beliefs, Perspectives and Actions

The measurable elements of socialization, specifically beliefs and actions, are inextricably linked. "Teacher attitudes and beliefs influence their perception and understanding of classroom events and may, therefore, affect their classroom behavior" (Weinstein, 1989, p. 53). Therefore, in order to socialize preservice teachers in the manner desired, teacher education programs need to understand how to influence beliefs.

Recent literature suggests that preservice teachers enter their professional programs with well-defined beliefs about what being a teacher is all about (Adler, 1994; Bair, 1999; Joram and Gabriele, 1998; Graber, 1996; Carter, 1994; Eisner, 1992). These preconceptions are often based on specific well-remembered events (Stone, 1987; Carter, 1994) or on overall teacher watching during their long career as students (Lortie, 1975; Feiman-Nemser and Remillard, 1996; Price, 1999; Eisner, 1992).

Pajares (1993) defines preservice teachers' beliefs as "the attitudes and values about teaching, students and the education process that students bring to teacher education – attitudes and values that can be inferred by teacher educators not only by what they say, but from what they do" (p. 46). Adler's (1994) definition of perspectives is similar. She writes:

> perspectives are the meanings and interpretations which teachers give to their work and their work situations. Unlike more abstract statements, perspectives are set in the concrete world of actual situations and have reference to particular behaviors. They are a kind of operational philosophy, developed out of experiences in the immediate and distant past and applied to specific situations (p. 14)

The terms *beliefs* and *perspectives* are used almost interchangeably in the literature when referring to the internal motivating factors which are shown by teachers' actions. Other terms in the literature also used synonymously used included: "practical knowledge,"

which represents the "integration of values and beliefs with various kinds of knowledge about teaching" (Kroener-Ekstrand, 1999, p. 2); and "Theory-in-Use," a term used to describe the theories that a preservice teacher *really* has, even if what is verbally explained is different (Argyris and Schon, 1974, p. 6). However, as the great majority of the literature used the terms *perspective* and/or *beliefs*, these two terms will be used in this study.

According to some researchers, teacher education programs have little impact on preservice teachers' concepts about teaching. "Skills and theories that have been taught on campus often are not used in student teaching practice" (Wubbels, 1992, p. 137). McDiarmid (1990) attributes this to the fact that "as students, prospective teachers do not see the relevance of much that is taught. Without immediate need for the knowledge, they do not attend to it closely" (p. 12). No erasure of knowledge or "wash-out" occurs because there was no substantial learned changes to remove (Tabachnik and Zeichner, 1981). Pre-existing beliefs are strongly adhered to, often resisting change and acting as a barrier to the desired impact of teacher education programs (Wubbels, 1992; Joram and Gabriele 1998; Pajares, 1993).

New ideas cannot transfer from the teacher education program to the classroom if they are not accepted by the preservice teacher. Therefore, it is "essential that teacher educators take prior beliefs into account because any new material taught will have to compete with, replace or otherwise modify the folk theories that already guide both teachers and pupils" (Bruner, 1996, p. 46). Pajares (1993) points out that

> teacher educators often fail to encourage in their students the development of informed beliefs on critical issues in education, a practice that results in students retaining their entering beliefs and becoming teachers who, like

16

people who do not understand history, are condemned to repeat them (p. 47).

He adds that "when beliefs are left unattended, no instruction is likely to have much effect. Students simply incorporate new ideas into old frameworks" (p. 47). In sum, the desired socialization may not occur without attention to the preservice teacher's preconceptions.

Another impediment for education programs' socialization process may be field experiences. In a synthesis of the research on preservice teacher beliefs, Hull et al. (1981) noted, "Attitudes and values are adopted [during field experience] which often disagree with those inherent in training programs, thereby compromising both motivation and opportunity to accomplish transfer" (p. 5). Thus, in some programs, preconceived beliefs and perspectives may not be influenced by preservice program classes, but instead may be shaped during field experiences or initial years of teaching in ways contrary to goals of the preservice program.

In order to counteract the lack of university impact on socialization found in these studies, some education programs have been developed that allow longer transitions periods. This study looks at one of these programs. The University of Cincinnati CITE (Cincinnati Initiative for Teacher Education) Program is a nationally recognized, innovative program that allows preservice teachers to be interns for a full year, essentially experiencing their first year of teaching with additional support as part of the teacher education program. This additional support includes a small cohort of interns, school-based teams consisting of professors and teachers, and weekly classes that reinforce the transfer of theory into practice. In such a program, would the robust preconceptions and beliefs held by preservice teachers be altered enough to sustain transfer to the field?

Would the field experience, the full-year internship, and the weekly classes solidify those new ideas, allowing those in the teacher education program to be socialized in the way a university desires? Those are the underlying questions of this study.

To address these issues, it is necessary first to review what other researchers have documented regarding the socialization process that may influence preservice teachers' beliefs. By understanding what has worked and what has not, a clearer idea may be formulated concerning how a five-year, full-year internship teacher education program such as CITE impacts preservice teachers' socialization.

Socialization of Preservice Teachers

Socialization is the process by which people learn the common rules about how to act in situations. Applied to preservice teachers, socialization is the process by which their beliefs and actions are influenced as they become teachers. A variety of philosophies within educational literature propose how the socialization of teachers occurs and what factors influence the socialization process. These include external and internal socialization models.

Socialization positivists define the process as the "influencing, forming, reforming, molding or imprinting the person" (Brezinka, 1994, p. 12). Positivists regard individuals "as passive entities who willingly adopt and conform to the forces of socialization resulting in students who acquire the same professional orientation as their teacher educators" (Graber, 1996, p. 452). Likewise, the theory of organizational socialization suggests that the culture of a school, including its spoken and unspoken rules, guides preservice teachers along a well-traveled route to become teachers. It is the "interactional process whereby an individual's behavior is modified to conform to

expectations held by members of the group to which he belongs" (Graber, 1996, p. 30).
Both of these theories suggest that learning about teaching starts when preservice
teachers enter their first introductory education class. However, these views disregard
individual biographies and past experiences, concluding that the teacher education
programs exert the strongest influence on preservice teachers' socialization.

Other models based on an interpretive approach seek to explain socialization
wholly "within the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity within the frame of
reference of the participant" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 28) Viewing teacher
socialization from more of a constructivist or internal model, Lortie (1975) contends
"socialization into teaching is largely self-socialization; one's personal dispositions are
not only relevant, but in fact, stand at the core of becoming a teacher" (p. 79). He and
others support the view that teachers are socialized or "pre-trained" for up to 16 years
prior to entering the education profession: They have watched teachers within their own
classes, "learning" what teachers do (Eisner, 1992; Feiman-Nemser and Buchman, 1985;
Zeichner and Grant, 1981). This theory lends support to defining socialization as "the
sum of the learning process" (Brezinka, 1994, p. 70). Integrating this model with the idea
that preservice teachers continue to construct their own beliefs and perspectives leads to
the dialectical theory of socialization, the theoretical framework around which this study
is based.

The dialectical theory is grounded in an interpretive approach wherein
"socialization is problematic, not automatic…. Students are their own agents of
socialization, developing an orientation about teaching that is highly individual and
grounded in personal experience" (Graber, 1996, p. 452). As Schempp and Graber (1992)

19

write, "Prospective teachers participate in a dialectical process, determining which beliefs they will acquire and which they will ignore… a contest between social expectations and the individual inclination of prospective teachers" (p. 329). Therefore, the "process of teacher socialization manifests itself differently with each individual" (Koeppen, 1998, p. 406).

While each person experiences the process of socialization differently, Schempp and Graber found that each encounters four stages of preservice socialization: pre-training, preservice, field experience, and induction (Schempp and Graber, 1992). An extensive literature review revealed a parallel pattern in which four main categories influence the beliefs and actions, and therefore the direction, of preservice teachers' individual socialization. These categories are (1) internal socialization, which correlates to the pre-training stage; (2) the university/college teacher education program, which correlates to the preservice stage; (3) field experiences; and (4) institutional constraints, which is a beginning part of the induction stage. While the socializing influences that occur in these stages often overlap, they each exert their individual influences, often pulling in opposing directions (see Figure 1).

Internal Socialization

Internal socialization refers to a person's already existing, closely held dispositions, constructed over a lifetime through the individual's background, education and experiences. It is important to note that the participants are not entering *tabula rasa*. Instead, each has years of prior learning and experiences leading to their beliefs. This includes preconceived notions about various components of teaching, learning and schooling, which may or may not be based on the reality of teaching nor consistent with

the goals of the teacher education program. Only by exploring the internal socialization of each participant is it possible to ascertain the effects of the educational program and its socializing effects on the participants.

The basis of internal socialization theory rests on Lortie's (1975) classic work *The Schoolteacher*. In this book, Lortie observed that in occupational fields where organizational structure is very strong and consistent, newcomers' predispositions become less important over time as they assimilate the values and norms built into the occupation (p. 55). However, teaching is not such a case. Instead, self-socialization is universal and predispositions are central in becoming a teacher (p. 79). He explained that those who teach "had 16 continuous years of contact with teachers and professors" (p. 61), which Lortie compares to an apprenticeship in teaching even before entering the field of education. Students therefore "come to believe that teaching is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; it is based on individual personalities rather than on pedagogical principles" (p. 62), ideas which do not complement and may contradict what is taught in an educational program.

This pretraining or "anticipatory socialization" haunts new teachers in another way, too. When Lortie (1975) asked how their expectations of teaching differed from reality, a majority of respondents said that teaching was more difficult, more time consuming and more draining than expected (p. 65). This is often because they enter the field with a naïve, simplistic and unproblematic view of teaching (Ross, 1987, p. 29). This preconceived view is formed "from thousands of hours of observation of teachers, good and bad…. Undoubtedly, students' conceptions of teaching are incomplete, for they

typically see and hear only the performance side of classroom teaching" (Clark, 1988, p. 7). In a study with 113 participants, Weinstein (1989) reported,

> the data on 'unrealistic optimism' and self-serving biases indicate the students enter teacher education programs with high levels of confidence and with the conviction that they possess the characteristics needed for teaching. Confidence and optimism may be necessary for well-being; on the other hand, students who hold unrealistic expectations about their own success may devalue the need for professional preparation and may experience severe 'reality shock' when they actually become teachers (p. 59).

Therefore, preservice teachers may feel that they need nothing from the university because, based on this combined unrealistic optimism and naiveté regarding what teaching actually entails, they believe already know everything they need to know.

The unrealistic optimism and perspectives preservice teachers enter education program with heavily affect their teaching. Lortie (1975) claimed that teachers emerge from their student teaching experience with strongly biographical orientations towards pedagogical decision making (p. 62). In other words, pedagogical decisions are based on who they are and their past experiences rather than on theory and university classes. Furthermore, this biographical orientation or predisposition exerts a much more powerful socializing influence than the preservice training and the workplace socialization (Lortie, p. 322). Therefore, the beliefs and perspectives a preservice teacher holds when he or she begins a teacher education program will strongly affect his or her beliefs when he or she leaves the program.

Borko and Putnam's (1996) literature review focusing on learning to teach supports this. They observe,

> The learning of individuals, including teachers, is a constructive and iterative process in which the person interprets events on the basis of existing knowledge, beliefs and dispositions….How and what individuals

learn is always shaped and filtered by their existing knowledge and beliefs (p. 674).

Furthermore, they add, "New teachers are likely to bring to their initial teaching experiences a host of assumptions about the nature of learners and learning, assumptions that shape the instructional skills and routines they learn" (Borko and Putnam, 1996, p. 699). Additionally, it is these assumptions and predispositions that support the "persistence of particular forms of pedagogy over time" rather than the "failure of school reform initiatives, staff development or preservice education" programs (Zeichner and Gore, 1990, p. 332). In fact, "formal teacher education is viewed as having very little ability to alter the cumulative effects of…anticipatory socialization," including the "quality of relationships teachers had as children with important adults (e.g., mother, father, teachers)" and "the effects of this early childhood heritage on their personalities" (p. 333).

In interviews, Su (1992) found that "about one-fourth of the teacher candidates mentioned that good teachers in grade schools provided positive role models for them and significantly influenced their decisions to become teachers" (p. 243). In the same study, "family members were identified by over half of the students as having powerful influences on the formation and development of their basic educational values" (p. 243). Her findings provided "more evidence to support the earlier claim that the knowledge, skills, and dispositions introduced to students in the education methods and foundations courses have little influence on their subsequent actions, even during initial training" (p. 245).

In a study of 25 preservice teachers, Ross (1987) also found the anticipatory socialization to have a strong influence. Because of it, he suggests, "Preservice teachers

do underestimate the problems and difficulties of teaching and this can be traced to the limited, but strong, preconceived beliefs that result from the apprenticeship of observation" (p. 30). Furthermore, although "the development of preservice teachers' perspectives is affected by their preservice teacher education experiences…the changes in their beliefs and attitudes that occur are not deep internal changes" (Ross,1987, p. 7). Ross concluded that teacher socialization is a dialectical process in which "teacher perspectives…evolve from several sources of influence" (p. 8).

Eisner (1992) proposed that professional socialization begins at age five or six when children begin school and cautioned against underestimating the effects of early socialization (p. 611). "Many young adults choose teaching because of their image of teachers and this image is not unrelated to what they believe being a teacher to be" (p. 611). These beliefs and perspectives about teaching, including notions about "what teachers are supposed to be, how children are expected to behave [and] what constitutes an appropriate and fair set of expectations for a subject" often remain strong and unchanged throughout a teacher education program (p. 612).

Wubbels (1992) found that "student teachers' preconceptions show a remarkable resistance against traditional attempts to change them" (p. 139). He explained that, according to the constructivist perspective, people "actively construct understanding from experiences using their already existing frameworks." Preservice teachers "enter teacher education with knowledge, attitudes and beliefs, that are deeply rooted in experience" (p. 138). With these considerations in mind, Wubbels argued that "one important reason for the poor transfer is that teacher education programs fail to influence student teachers' conceptions that they bring to the teacher education program….[M]any traditional

teacher education activities" are poorly suited to change preconceptions and beliefs (p. 137). This may be caused in part by "too little awareness by teacher educators of the conceptions that student teachers have when they enter the program" (p. 138). It is through these beliefs that preservice teachers filter and interpret their experiences, excluding information that they deem "irrelevant" or "incorrect" (Borko and Putnam, 1996).

Mertz and McNeely (1991) found a clear relationship between student teacher thought and behavior. They reported that student teachers "do hold constructs about teaching and they find expression in classroom behavior. Changes in behavior, whatever the causative factors, reflect changes in cognition, conscious or unconscious" (p. 6).

As these studies make abundantly clear, university instructors must be cognizant of preservice teachers' preconceptions. In addition, preservice teachers need to be aware of and reflect on their own beliefs and perspectives (Bair, 1999; Newman, 1996; Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1981). Likewise, internal socialization of the participants in this study must be to identify those beliefs and actions that can be attributed to the components of the teacher education program and those to the prior socialization of preservice students.

The University/College Teacher Education Program

The university teacher education program is designed to help preservice teachers learn the theories and behaviors that correlate with effective teaching. While research suggests that some teacher education programs' practices are more effective than other practices, other research suggests that teacher education programs are largely ineffective overall (Wubbels, 1992; Chase et al, 1996; Martin, 1981).

Teacher education programs are considered successful if the information taught, such as theory, content and pedagogy, is used and appropriately applied in K-12 classrooms. In other words, a teacher education program is successful if a transfer of learning occurs and if the desired socialization takes place. "Transfer of training occurs when the results of learning in one situation affect our performance in different situations. When performance on the second learning or task (the transfer task) is facilitated, positive transfer is said to have occurred" (Laktasic, 1976, p. 1). Unfortunately, transfer from coursework to classrooms does not always occur. "Skills and theories that have been taught on campus are not used in student teaching practices" (Wubbels, 1992, p. 137). A variety of reasons account for the lack of transfer including: (1) a lack of change in preservice teacher beliefs and perspectives (Fuller, 1969; Wubbels, 1992); (2) a lack of learning activities that directly reflect a classroom situation (Metcalf et al., 1996; Lakastic, 1976); and (3) a gap between university and school expectations, leading to the "washing out" of university instruction (Chase et al., 1996).

While focusing on the concerns of prospective teachers, Fuller (1969) also sheds light on the rigid nature of their beliefs and perspectives. In her study with preservice teachers, Fuller found their most frequent concerns to include their cooperating teachers' expectations, their competency related to subject matter, their pupils' reactions to them, their ability to answer questions, their lesson plan evaluations, and their ability to maintain appropriate discipline (p. 209). Concerns regarding instructional design, pedagogy, and pupil learning were notably absent (p. 209). Yet, it is these latter foci upon which many teacher education programs center. She notes, "Students usually learn what they want to learn, but often have great difficulty learning what does not interest them.

26

Education courses may be answering quite well questions students are not asking" (p. 208).

Other researchers have found that some changes in belief and/or perspective occur among preservice teachers, but they could not necessarily fully determine the changes. For example, Price (1999) studied the beliefs that secondary preservice teachers brought with them to their first professional preparation class. Her questions revolved around what changes were made and what aspect of the course had the greatest impact on those changes. If no changes occurred, she asked what helped to reinforce already held views. Price found at the conclusion of the course that students had "a clearer, more in-depth knowledge of the intricacies involved in the profession of teaching," but she could not determine whether specific beliefs were changed (p. 13).

A qualitative study by Foss and Kleinsasser (1996) examined the beliefs and practices of preservice elementary teachers regarding mathematics. At the end of a semester-long mathematics methods course, the preservice teachers emerged as "poor duplicators of math methods instead of initiators of learning" (p. 429). They could mimic the methods, but lacked the ability to use them effectively to promote learning. Their beliefs remained unchanged. The reason, these researchers concluded, is that the "experiential component is born of their personal histories and not the methods course experience" (p. 439). The preservice teachers ignored the "general philosophical disposition of the course" and instead relied on their own previously held knowledge (p. 439).

Martin (1981) found that "the mere existence of models of instruction within a teacher training program does not guarantee the implementation of those models by

graduates in a contemporary classroom" (p. 40). Moreover, "most former students reported limited or no use for their preparatory training. Many of them indicated that what they found effective in their actual classrooms bore little, if any, relationship to what they had been taught to do" (p. 43). Thus, according to their own reflection, Martin concluded that instruction from education programs had little to no influence on the perspectives or beliefs – and later actions – of the preservice teachers.

McDiarmid (1990) found that changes in preservice teachers' beliefs *could* be accomplished, though not permanently. His research examined preservice teachers confronted with an excellent classroom teacher whose teaching style was at odds with their prior beliefs. By forcing the preservice teachers in his study to confront their beliefs and comment on the excellent, although unconventional, teacher's practices, he found that preservice teachers may reconsider their beliefs when confronted with them. However, the change may be short lived. He reported that "teacher education students rarely become aware of the assumptions on which they operate. Instead, they reconfigure ideas and information they encounter to fit with their initial beliefs or simply reject what does not fit" (p. 13). Thus, his findings support the dialectical socialization theory.

Joram and Gabriele (1998) studied the changes in preservice teachers' beliefs using reflective practices. They identified a set of four "core concepts" or "concepts that are common to those trained within a cognitive/constructivist framework and which mediate the manner in which students think about the discipline" (Lonka et al., 1996, as quoted by Joram and Gabriele, 1998). These beliefs are:

1) University classes have little to offer preservice teachers – I
   should be out in the field
2) I can learn how to become a good teacher by copying my past teachers
3) Learning and teaching are non-problematic

4) The 'learning part' is easy – it's the managing the classes that I'm worried about. (p. 179-180)

Using pre- and post-tests, Joram and Gabriele observed changes in 53 preservice teachers' beliefs over the course of a 16-week semester introductory educational psychology class. Their findings indicated that 92% of the students believed that their views about learning had changed at least moderately. Joram and Gabriele credit this change to their direct attention to the development of preservice teachers' beliefs, especially regarding the use of reflective practices by the preservice teachers.

While these researchers found that education courses had little effect on preservice teachers' beliefs and perspectives (Fuller, 1969; Wubbels, 1992; Chase et al, 1996), Yon and Passe (1990) found that a significant relationship exists between methods courses and student teachers' beliefs. Focusing on social studies preservice teachers, Yon and Passe proposed that the problem of transfer was not as it appeared. Preservice teachers did, in fact, want to plan and implement methods taught in their social studies methods class, but contextual constraints, such as time pressures and lack of support from cooperating teachers, made it almost impossible.

> Although it generally was difficult for the student teachers to implement the planning and teaching strategies they had been taught in the social studies methods class, many of the beliefs espoused in the course were solidified during the student teaching experience (Yon and Passe, 1990, p. 22).

Thus, college/university courses may have greater influence on preservice teachers' beliefs than indicated by other studies.

Kroener-Ekstrand (1999) also focused on the influence of education class instruction, but with different findings. Presented in a case study whose data spanned four semesters, Kroener-Ekstrand found that "throughout the process of this research, [the

case study participant] retained the notion common to many student teachers that she knows about teaching from successive field experiences in which she was expected to do the work of teaching" (p. 24). However, "ideas and coursework clearly influenced the development of her practical knowledge about teaching, particularly by raising new issues or areas of consideration [even though] she did not recognize these influences in most cases" (p. 24). Therefore, the lack of impact by educational programs and coursework reported by other researchers may merely be a case of overlooked or unrecognized influence.

In order to maximize this influence, many educational programs create a middle ground between course work and field experience by requiring preservice teachers to practice their pedagogical skills in a laboratory experience. The belief is that preservice teachers will internalize the pedagogy valued by the university by practicing it in a laboratory situation (Metcalf et al., 1996). The most popular of these experiences is microteaching, a process of teaching for a short time period (usually 10 to 30 minutes) in front of peers (Ajayi-Dopemu and Talabi, 1986; Yong, Yanyan, 1994). These teaching episodes are often videotaped in order for preservice teachers to view them and reflect on the quality of their teaching. The effectiveness and influence of microteaching is debated in educational research (Lederman and Gess-Newsome, 1991; Ajayi-Dopemu and Talabi, 1986; Eley, and Hess, 1992).

Even with this added laboratory experience, the university coursework often is not valued once students are in the schools. Palonsky and Jacobson (1989) explored the perspectives of 35 elementary school preservice teachers concerning social studies. They found that "undergraduates report that methods classes failed to prepare them adequately

for the classroom and that they did not learn about instruction or how to behave as a teacher until student teaching" (p. 28). Also, knowledge gained during student teaching was "judged to be better knowledge than the students had been given at the university: It was testable and of immediate use" (p. 29). University classes were seen as "too idealistic," "not practical," and too different than the reality of the classroom. Thus, the knowledge gained in university classes and the perspectives constructed "were ready victims to the cooperating teachers who held competing interpretations" (p. 32).

Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981) similarly found that

beginning teachers agree…that preservice training provides inadequate preparation for handling discipline problems [and] that education course work is too heavily weighted in theory and insufficient in practical application. Most secondary education graduates also report…that student teaching is the most valuable experience of the preservice program (p. 16).

In these ways, preservice teachers feel that university classes have not to fully prepared them to teach, even though their perspectives and beliefs may well have been affected. Su (1992) presented similar findings, adding that the cooperating teachers' opinions, which questioned the necessity of university classes and claimed them to be waste of time, was openly echoed by their student teachers (p. 245-6).

Pataniczek and Isaacson's (1981) study focuses only on beginning teachers. What if the opinions of the preservice teachers changed through their coursework and a full-year internship? Would preservice teachers be more cognizant of what they learned in class and what was applicable? Would the results match those obtained by Pataniczek and Isaacson's (1981)? Would specific socialization effects on the beliefs and actions of the preservice teachers be more readily ascertained than by the studies of Kroener-Ekstrand (1999) and Joram and Gabriele (1998)? Could the permanency and

implementation of methods focused on by Martin (1981) and McDiarmid (1990) be viewed more fully over a two-year period? This qualitative study looks at the issue of socialization effects by university program raised by these researchers, but over a longer time period and within the context of a five year program.

Field Experiences

Field experiences, or experiences that allow preservice teachers to be in schools with children, are a major factor in the socialization process (Metcalf et al., 1996; Lederman and Gess-Newsome, 1991). Socializing influences on preservice teachers during field experiences are many, including "cooperating teachers, pupils, administration, parents, colleagues, financial resources, facilities and the socio-economic status of the community" or what is collectively referred to as the "ecology of the school" (Graber, 1996, p. 453). A final factor, but not least important among them, is the preservice teacher's own interpretation of all of these through a filter of his or her own experiences and knowledge. To what effect each component socializes preservice teachers is key, especially when the ideals or goals during field experiences are inconsistent with those of the university educational program.

A variety of field experiences may be provided for preservice teachers. This may be because "field based experiences are consistently perceived by teachers, student teachers and teacher educators to be valuable. It is through these experiences, not through their on-campus coursework, that teachers feel they learned to teach" (Metcalf et al., 1996, p. 24). At Ohio State University, an early field experience program allows freshmen interested in pursuing the teaching profession to visit classrooms, exposing them to the inner workings of the teaching profession. In other educational programs,

three to five weeks of a semester or 50 hours of a quarter may be spent by preservice

teachers in a classroom as part of an educational class with the similar intent of providing

real-life experience of a working classroom (for example, Clarion University of

Pennsylvania, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, University of Cincinnati).

In traditional teacher education programs, a student teaching experience of 10 to

16 weeks is the culminating experience, allowing preservice teachers the opportunity to

apply four years of learning and training in an actual classroom. This

> traditional model for student teaching assumes that university coursework
> provides the necessary content knowledge and theoretical pedagogical
> knowledge for teaching and student teaching placement provides a context
> in which preservice teachers can practice applying that knowledge under
> the guidance of cooperating teachers and university supervisors (Kroener-
> Ekstrand, 1999, p. 1).

 Furthermore, student teaching provides "the most systematic opportunity for [preservice

teachers] to practice the execution of instructional plans, develop instructional skills, and

behaviors and receive formal feedback on pedagogical matter prior to certification and

employment (Lederman and Gess-Newsome, 1991, p. 443).

While the structure of traditional teacher education programs thus described seem

to be very supportive, structured and logical, student teachers are not always as prepared

for the reality of teaching as may be desired.

> The realities of student teaching are difficult to anticipate and the
> experience is often analogous to 'throwing' the preservice teacher 'into the
> deep end of the pool.' However, this sudden 'immersion' of a student
> teacher into such a situation may create more poor habits, in the form of
> survival skills, than effective instructional skills and strategies (Lederman
> and Gess-Newsome, 1991, p. 453)

For some preservice teachers, student teaching is not an exciting period in which they

master innovative techniques learned in methods class. Instead, it is a trial by fire that

they are attempting to merely survive (Eisner, 1992; Lederman and Gess-Newsome, 1991).

Merely "surviving" is hard work for novices in education. As Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1996) explained, ""First year teachers essentially have two jobs: they have to teach and they have to learn to teach" (Feiman Nemserand Remillard, 1996, p. 65-66). This idea, that teachers learn most of what they know about teaching through firsthand experience, is well-supported in the literature regarding teaching and socialization (Graber, 1996; Metcalf et al., 1996; Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1985).

Cooperating teachers are often cited in the educational literature as one of the most important influences on student teachers (Hoy and Rees, 1977; Laktasic, 1976; Metcalf, 1991, Su, 1992). Metcalf (1991) found that "student teachers perceive supervision by the cooperating teacher to be the greatest influence on their professional development during the practicum experience" (p. 28). Su (1992) echoed this judgment, basing that conclusion on a survey of over 4,000 American teacher educators and preservice teachers (p. 254). Koeppen (1998) found that "modeling by cooperating teachers is a powerful, albeit at times informal, influence on student teachers' instructional planning" (p. 402). He contended that cooperating teachers may "unintentionally impose their own curriculum interpretations on student teachers and may make it uncomfortable for student teachers to try something new and different" (p. 403). The outcome is that student teachers often learn to teach as their cooperating teachers did. For example, student teachers will emulate their cooperating teachers' tendencies to rely on textbooks (Koeppen, 1998, p. 402). Pape (1993) found that cooperating teachers'

feedback often altered student teachers' pedagogical style closer to their own. This would be logical, based on Spady's (1975) finding that

> Beginning teachers …are likely to change their attitudes concerning professional autonomy towards those who have official evaluation power over them in the school especially when their own personal resources such as advanced degrees and subject matter expertise are minimal (p. 4).

Thus, cooperating teachers assert a great influence over preservice teachers.

Based on the influence of cooperating teachers noted above, it may seem reasonable to match student teachers with cooperating teachers sharing their philosophy. This would apparently assure that student teachers could form and sustain their own beliefs and perspectives. However, Hollingsworth (1989) discourages this practice. Based on a study of 14 preservice teachers, she concluded that matched pairings of like-minded cooperating teachers and student teachers could actually hinder knowledge growth. She found that exposing preservice teachers to contrasting viewpoints is more helpful in clarifying complex aspects of classroom life.

The high level of influence exerted by cooperating teachers may lead to positive or negative consequences. If the cooperating teacher is an effective teacher with teaching techniques and philosophy in-line with the teacher education program, the preservice teacher may benefit greatly and the consequences may be extremely positive. However, if the cooperating teacher is not effective and leads the preservice teacher toward practices in conflict with the teacher education program, the consequences could be grim. Because of the possibility of these negative consequences, Laktasic (1976) cautioned against using field experiences because a "shortage of qualified supervisory personnel" could lead to preservice teachers receiving "inadequate guidance in developing constructs which would focus their attention to key elements of the teaching learning process" (p. 5). It is also

debated whether and to what extent the influence of cooperating teachers diminishes the effects of university classes (Laktasic, 1976; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981; Graber, 1996).

Cooperating teachers are only one factor that influences student teachers. The students who preservice teachers instruct are another strong influence. Some, like Wildman et al. (1989), assert that students are actually the *most* influential factor for beginning teachers (p. 473). This is "understandable, given that typical isolation of teachers from their colleagues and supervisors and given the transitory and invisible nature of the learning process" (Zeichner and Gore, 1990, p. 338). As Zeichner and Gore point out, "The influence of students range from effects on the general teaching approach and patterns of language used by teachers in classrooms to the type and frequency of specific teaching methods utilized by teachers" (p. 339). They add that this influence may increase as teachers "gain experience and become more aware of and concerned with the pupils" (p. 339). Students may also shape "new teachers' judgments, actions and feelings of competence and satisfaction with teaching" (Wildman et al., 1989, p. 473). Interestingly, results from a national study "indicated that [preservice teachers] in general considered influence from pupils as more significant than from their teacher education faculty, from other teachers in the school, from their peers, and from their family/relatives/friend"(Su, 1992, p. 253). Additionally, "pupils' reactions, feedback and performance were seen by the student teachers as the most important indicator in becoming teachers" (p. 254).

Students, and more specifically student behavior, influence student teachers as they struggle to develop their own classroom management styles. As some researchers

have found, keeping the classes under control is a major concern for preservice teachers; student learning becomes a secondary concern (Fuller, 1969; Lederman and Gess-Newsome, 1991). In a study regarding well-remembered events of preservice teachers, Carter (1994) found that classroom management issues were the most pervasive. As she wrote, "Novices, who lack this situated knowledge, often struggle to make sense of classroom events" (p. 236) and do not know how to handle the class when things do not go as planned.

While many classroom management styles exist, they mainly fit on a spectrum between *humanist* and *custodial*. The humanist side "emphasizes an accepting and trustful view of pupils and an optimism concerning their ability to be self-disciplining and responsible" (Zeichner and Gore, 1981, p. 300). On the other end of the spectrum is the custodial side, which "stresses the maintenance of order, distrust of students and punitive moralistic approach to pupil control" (p. 300). Hoy and Rees (1977) found that "student teachers would become significantly more custodial in their pupil control as they completed student teaching (p. 24).

Preservice teachers often enter student teaching as liberal and idealistic and leave with a more "conservative, pragmatic mindset toward education" (Bunting, 1988, p. 42). Hoy and Rees (1977) likewise contend that this shift is due to the bureaucratic norms of a school:

> When the characteristics occur, as they frequently do in secondary schools, they lead to a distinctively bureaucratic climate in which teachers are expected to …behave consistently according to the rules and regulations and defer to the authority of their superiors…. Professors of education schools stress the desirability of permissiveness with regard to pupil control; however, 'discipline' as it is actually practiced in public schools emphasizes the need for more authoritarian control" (p. 23-24).

McArthur (1978) found that "beginning teachers experience an ideological shift to realism during their initial teaching experience" (p. 89). Internalizing or adopting the appropriate survival skills and techniques supporting the notion of bureaucratic socialization, his study found that preservice teachers "undergo a process of compliance…either to gain some specific reward or to avoid some specific punishment" (p. 89).

The idea that preservice teachers' perspectives shifted toward their cooperating teachers' perspectives – in management or in their views toward education – is disputed by some researchers. Zeichner and Grant's (1981) research, for instance, did not find a shift in beliefs: "Students' beliefs and perspectives did *not* become significantly more custodial in their views toward pupil control by the end of the 15-week student teaching experience, although there was a slight shift in a custodial direction" (Zeichner and Grant, 1981, p. 304). Furthermore,

> although the pupil control ideology of student teachers in both groups [humanistic-leaning or custodial-leaning] were initially significantly different from the pupil control ideology of their cooperating teachers, neither group of students altered their views on pupil control by the end of the experience. The socialization pressure that could have been potentially exerted by cooperating teachers…was not actualized (p. 305-6).

This may be attributed to the fact that students are not "relatively passive recipients of institutional values and norms" ((Zeichner and Grant, 1981,p. 300). Instead, they construct their perspectives by filtering ideas, actions and instruction through their own existing beliefs.

> Although it is probably incorrect to assume that biography is the sole determiner of socialization outcomes, given the highly consistent results…it is clear: that what the students bring into the experience cannot be ignored in attempts to illuminate socialization mechanisms that and that

social structural influences have probably been greatly overemphasized in many earlier studies (p. 308).

Nettle (1998) supported this conclusion. His study focused on beliefs of primary student teachers. He found about 72% of the 79 student teachers remained unchanged in their orientations to teaching regarding four pedagogical dimensions (activity, motivating, relations and structuring) (p. 198).

Some researchers disagree, arguing that a shift is directly due to the influence of the cooperating teacher, not to the school's ecology or students' behavior. For example, Su (1992) writes:

> through site visits, interviews and observations, the author found that prevalent in most student teaching settings under the study was a culture of teaching characterized by conservatism and a strong resistance to change…Some cooperating teachers interviewed openly declared that they did not like to see change and they would not allow their student teacher to experiment in the classrooms. Therefore, even tough teacher candidates tend to be socialized into the more progressive and liberal beliefs and values about teaching and schooling on the college and university campuses, once they begin student teaching, they are likely to be re-socialized into the existing culture of teaching (p. 249).

This parallels an analysis of student teacher surveys, which indicated "significant changes in student teacher dogmatism in-line with that with the cooperating teacher; most student teachers became more closed minded" (Metcalf, 1991, p. 28).

The supervising teacher, employed by the university, is a perceived by some as a third key figure in the socialization process. In reality, the influence of supervisors on the student teachers may be minimal at best. According Metcalf (1991), "A recurrent finding is that student teachers do not perceive that their university supervisors affect them as greatly as cooperating teachers do" (p. 32). In fact,

> there is overwhelming evidence that teachers generally receive very little direct assistance and advice from their superiors and that teachers can

insulate themselves from at least some of the directives and sanctions of significant evaluators when they choose to do so (Zeichner and Gore, 1990, p. 340).

Thus, "it is widely held that university supervision is inconsequential to the behavioral outcomes of the student teaching experience" *(*Metcalf, 1991, p. 33). Metcalf suggests that this lack of effectiveness may be due to a lack of identified behaviors, a lack of supervisor training, and a lack of knowledge concerning how to promote desirable behaviors (p. 39).

Interestingly, new teachers usually turn to a colleague for assistance, not to superiors (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981). This collegial influence may be tied to the common circumstances that teachers face within a given school and under similar conditions (Zeichner and Gore, 1990, p. 339) Whether colleagues have a strong influence or not is debated in the literature. On the one hand, colleagues are seen as one of the four most important influences on new teachers (Wildman et al, 1989, p. 471). Wildman et al. (1989) note that

> colleagues can help a novice feel good about teaching by (1) easing the stress caused by the enormous uncertainty inherent in beginning teaching; (2) providing criteria against which beginning teachers can judge their progress in becoming teachers; and (3) reduce the workload by offering time saving suggestions and sharing materials (p. 478).

On the other hand, while "peer group function has been found to be a crucial variable in the socialization of trainees in professional schools," it does not have the same effect for educators (p. 248) . In a study of preservice teachers, Su (1992) found

> peers were perceived by the students in the national study as having very weak influences on their educational values in beliefs….In all but one institution visited, there was little evidence of the formation of a strong peer culture, a sense of community or a feeling of going through a shared ordeal among education students as a whole.

But what if a 15-student cohort experienced the classes, field experience and internship year together? Would peer influence on socialization be stronger due to the longevity of these common circumstances?

Some researchers argue that field experiences, including preservice teaching experiences, may serve to reinforce already held, but misinformed, beliefs about teaching that can negatively affect preservice teachers (Metcalf et al., 1996; Eisner, 1992; Putnam and Johns, 1987; Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1985; Hull et al., 1981; Laktasic, 1976).

> Unfortunately, a substantial growing body of research suggests that the typical field experience may not result in the end we desire. In fact, there is reason to believe that not only is field based experience often ineffective in enhancing professional performance, but that such an experience actually leads to less desirable teachers (Metcalf et al, p 1996, p. 272).

McDiarmid (1990) explained this phenomenon:

> On the one hand experiences in school classrooms are memorable and powerful and prospective teachers consider them eminently credible. On the other hand, such experiences are fraught with pitfalls, not the least of which is that what students observe serves to confirm their faith in the folkways of teaching (p. 12).

Additionally, Eisner (1992) suggests that some factors combine to perpetuate the norms of a school and the socialization of preservice teachers. One factor is anticipatory socialization with a strongly internalized image of teaching due to their role as students: after completing pedagogical, academic and teaching methods classes, preservice teachers are typically sent to schools that are often similar to those they themselves attended as students with regards to the social norms of what teachers do, how students behave and how the school functions (Eisner, 1992).

> When a university teacher education program tries to promulgate a new image of teaching, but sends its young, would-be teachers back into

schools that are essentially like the ones in which they were socialized, the prospects for replacing old ideals in the all too familiar contexts in which new teachers work is dimmed: the new wine is changed when it's poured into old bottles (Eisner, 1992, p. 611).

Joram and Gabriel (1998) concurred, stating, "We believe that preservice teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching shares two disadvantageous features: they are frequently reinforced through everyday experiences and convincing corrective feedback is particularly hard to come by in the context of learning and teaching" (p. 187). The field experiences serve to further affirm the preservice teachers' preconceived beliefs and perspectives, even if they are erroneous in nature.

Institutional Constraints

Theories and methods taught in teacher education programs may be sound, but not always practical to implement in classrooms due to the institutional nature of schools. Barriers to effective and creative teaching include such institutional regularities as set time allotments for classes, heavily specified curriculum for a class, lack of available resources and supplies, restrictive school rules and regulations, the number of students per one class or school, the nature of community attributes, and the level of community support. These factors blend together to create the "school context" or "school climate." While these institutional constraints do not always stop effective teaching from happening, they can hamper the implementation of ideas or methods from the university, especially for novice teachers. Institutional constraints also have the capacity to change preservice teachers' beliefs about what is possible, therefore altering actions in the classroom. These constraints can be the determining factors for a "positive beginning and a mediocre or disastrous start" even "before a new teacher even steps foot in the classroom" (Wildman et al., 1989, p. 480). Therefore, it is important to consider

institutional constraints in this study and their effects on preservice teachers, which may include preventing the participants from putting into action their espoused beliefs.

Institutional constraints and the culture of the school can lead to a "tug-of-war" in which the preservice teacher is the rope, held on one end by university faculty expectations and on the other by mentor teacher's practices (Koeppen, 1998; Borko and Putnam, 1996; Chase et al., 1996; Laktasic, 1976). In this tug-of-war, students often have two masters to serve, each with his own agenda and expectations. As Borko and Putnam (1996) explain, "Novices…may be asked to both teach for conceptual understanding and to meet public school's demand that procedures be mastered" (p. 700). Palonsky and Jacobson (1989) explain that it is not a fair fight; "the university is disadvantaged by the power of the cooperating teacher, the limited role played by the university and the student's desire to fit in, to be a good student teacher as defined by the school" (p. 29). Furthermore, preservice teachers' own beliefs and perspectives may differ from *both* the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher, leaving them in an even more difficult quandary (Chase et al, 1996).

The structure of traditional student teaching is "fundamentally flawed in that it may result in student teacher learning that is inconsistent with the goals and intentions of university teacher educators" (Kroener-Ekstrand, 1999, p. 1).

> When we examine the socializing role of the professional component of preservice teacher education programs, we need to distinguish between the campus based and field based elements because the represent different, and often competing, notions of the process of learning to teach (Zeichner and Gore, 1990, p. 335).

Thus, socialization during student teaching may have opposing effects from what is desired.

At Ohio State University, Chase et al. (1996) report that "the school/university chasm has been bridged by intensive collaboration in the form of a Professional Development School (PDS) Network." They contend that "preservice teachers rarely mention any difference in their coursework and the expectations, beliefs, and practice they experience as they work in local schools" (p. 3). Instead of transfer from university to classroom being blocked by an ideological or pedagogical tug-of-war, the theory and application taught in university courses is encouraged in their field work. This situation appears to minimize the institutional constraints because realistic understanding of the classroom is shared by all involved parties.

Time is another constraint for preservice teachers. Although time constrains people in many different occupations, the lack of time to adjust to teaching and, more so, the lack of time to plan hits preservice teachers hard. Entering student teaching, claimed Browne and Hoover (1990), is an emotionally charged period of "reality shock" in which "day-to-day responsibilities and difficulties tend to replace theoretical concerns" (p. 4). Just trying to stay ahead of the students and gain a foothold on the next day's lesson often proves to be strenuous. "Pressures to teach everyday compel student teachers to think ahead to the next lesson rather than reflect on the one they have just taught" (Borko and Putnam, 1996, p. 700). Yet, as Cruickshank and Metcalf, assert reflection is necessary for the creation of thoughtful teachers. However, preservice teachers are discouraged from reflecting due to time constraints.

The physical structure of the school often forces preservice teachers are into psychological isolation and discourages them from collaborating. Spady (1975) refers to this as the "Robinson Crusoe Model," which he defines as "a pattern of…the poor teacher

left to survive without adequate assistance in an unfamiliar environment often made hostile by the conflicting demands of administrative superiors and large groups of students" (p. 3). More straightforwardly, "the organization of schools, in which individual teachers spend their days in rooms with students, physically apart from their colleagues, reinforces the necessity of self-training for the new teacher" (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981, p. 16). This self-training may seem like a trial-by-fire as the "tricks of the trade," which makes tasks manageable, are learned by doing: Unfortunately, new teachers usually turn to a colleague for assistance, not to superiors (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981). While this seems to be "an unacknowledged ritual of socialization into the teaching profession" (Pataniczek and Isaacson., 1981. p. 16), it does not assure that those "who endure and survive in teaching are those with the highest level of expertise or effectiveness" (Spady, 1975, p. 4).

Additionally, lack of content knowledge can limit student teachers' effectiveness in the classroom.

> Limitations in teachers' subject matter knowledge…can also impede their efforts to learn to teach in new ways. Without adequate subject matter knowledge, it is difficult or impossible for teachers to learn powerful strategies and techniques for representing subject matter to students and for attending…to students' thinking about the subject in ways that help support meaningful learning (Borko and Putnam, 1996, p. 700).

Eisner (1992) also contends a lack of knowledge causes preservice teachers to fall back on the most familiar teaching strategies, thereby decreasing their effectiveness. "If a teacher does not know what to teach or is insecure about a subject, attention must be paid to matters of content. This can exacerbate both problems of management and problems of pedagogy. It is difficult to be graceful when you are in lost territory" (p. 611).

In contrast, Koeppen (1998) suggests that it is a "lack of familiarity with instructional planning," not a lack of content knowledge, that "inhibit[s] student teachers' ability to manipulate textbook materials to orchestrate a meaningful lesson within the context of their individual classroom" (p. 402). She adds that this apparent lack of knowledge about the planning process may prevent the preservice teacher from seeing how the individual, daily lessons fit into the bigger pictures of the unit (p. 402).

To fully understand the socializing effects of institutional constraints, it is necessary to investigate the participants' perceptions of the school setting. For some participants, a perceived university-school tug-of-war also significantly colors their experience. Participants' perceptions of time, school organization, and content knowledge affect their experiences, influencing their beliefs and actions in their classrooms

The Socialization Process In Conclusion

In Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann's (1985) found three major pitfalls concerning socialization in the student teaching experience: (1) The "familiarity pitfall," (2) the "two-world pitfall," and (3) "cross-purposes pitfall." The "familiarity pitfall" refers to the idea of being familiar with the routines of a school and trusting what is memorable from one's own school days (internal socialization). The second pitfall, "two-world pitfall," stems from a gap between pleasing those at the university and being successful in the classroom. While those two goals should not be mutually exclusive, students are sometimes more concerned about getting a good grade from the university for *doing* an activity, than doing a good job in the classroom with children (education program, tug-of-war). The "cross-purposes pitfall" is found in traditional student teaching situations in which a student teacher follows the schedule, groups and assignments already developed

by their mentor teacher. Neither critical thinking nor decision making by the student teacher is necessary, even though this is the specified purpose of the student teacher experience (field experience and institutional constraints) (p. 54).

To overcome these pitfalls, researchers recommend that preservice teachers be encouraged to reflect about the effectiveness of traditional methods, critically looking at what is effective, rather than what they remember about their own experience (e.g., Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1985; Price, 1999; Metcalf et al., 1996). They also assert that education programs should be "working toward a closer fit" between the university and classroom philosophies and expectations in order to produce preservice teachers who are socialized based on jointly supported goals (Chase et al.,1996; Hull et al., 1981).

In order to achieve this "closer fit," the CITE program takes many of these socialization influences into consideration. First, from the very beginning, students are asked to explore their own preconceptions and beliefs regarding education, teaching and social studies. Hopefully, this weakens the hold that these prior beliefs have and makes a space in which new ideas and practices can be incorporated. Second, the CITE program uses the eight themes consistently throughout the two-year program, hoping to impart them to the students. Third, there is an attempt by the university and professional practice schools to work together, attempting to operate under the same guidelines and philosophies to assist preservice teachers. This partnership may eradicate the tug-of-war problem. Lastly, because of this partnership, it is hoped that institutional constraints will not pose as much of a problem in the implementation of innovative lessons. In these ways, the CITE program may maneuver around the "pitfalls" described by Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985).

While researchers report that changes in beliefs are difficult to attain and more difficult to sustain (Price, 1999; Joram and Gabriel, 1998; McDiarmid, 1990), this study investigates whether a program constructed like the CITE program can have a significant impact on changing preservice teachers' beliefs. To what extent can a program like CITE, that places a heavy emphasis on reflection and challenges students' preconceptions and beliefs in two years of classes and field experiences, produce significant changes in beliefs? Will the changes noted by Joram and Gabriele (1998) be in evidence or will they merely remain on the surface, never becoming deeply internalized as McDiarmid (1990) proposed? These questions will be explored in interviews and an examination of day-to-day practices in the classroom of the participants in this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This qualitative study focuses on the socialization of five secondary social studies preservice teachers during the final two years of an innovative teacher education program. By analyzing interviews, observations from multiple sources, reflective writings, and various assessments, the changes in beliefs and actions were analyzed and the most influential factors in the socialization process were identified. using qualitative research methods to trace the socialization of the participants.

Entrée

Being a graduate teaching assistant in the Secondary Education Program in the College of Education at the university where this research was conducted, entrée was not a problem. Furthermore, my duties as a graduate assistant brought me into constant contact with the participants. These duties included providing information from a practicing teacher's point of view in both the Instructional Planning and the social studies methods course, debriefing students after their microteaching lessons, and supervising the students during their first field experiences.

These duties provided a natural entrée into the research done. The only hint of a problem was that the students knew of my close relationship with the professors. However, after the preservice teachers were assured, both verbally and contractually (on the consent form), that absolutely nothing would be shared with the course professors, the students fully participated with no hesitation. Their willingness to criticize instructors and critique the program led me to believe that they were candid in their communications. Furthermore, because I was present in class sessions and therefore had a working knowledge of what occur was occurring, the students could ask me specific questions

pertaining to the subject matter being presented. I was easily accessible and available to assist students with any of their forms/lessons/projects. These factors helped me develop a strong rapport with the participants outside of the study setting.

Purposeful Sampling

The study was explained to all the students in the autumn quarter Instructional Planning classes. They were asked to read the consent form and return it if they would be willing participants. I decided to specifically focus on social studies preservice teachers. Eight of 16 students volunteered. In this manner, participants were self-selected. Of the students who volunteered, six students were chosen using a maximum variation strategy for purposeful sampling. According to Patton (1990), this strategy "aims at capturing and describing the central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation" (p. 172). Therefore, the participants in this study were chosen to represent both genders and a mixture of undergraduate and post-baccalaureate students. By employing this selection method, it is possible to understand variations in experiences while also investigating core elements and shared outcomes (Patton, 1990).

An undergraduate male, who was initially a participant in this study, took a leave of absence from the program because he realized that he would be unable to complete the required courses within the one year time-frame he had allotted. He chose to use his fourth year of college to complete his history major and get his teaching certification during his fifth and sixth years. He returned to the CITE program the following year, successfully completing an internship during the 2000-2001 school year.

The five participants in this study were all in the same Instructional Planning course during autumn quarter and the same Social Studies Methods class in the winter

quarter. Dr. Wilson taught both of these classes. During spring quarter, the participants were in either of the two sections of the required Instructional Management course. The same professor taught both sections. These factors allowed for comparisons of participants who have had the same models, professors, examples, and expectations throughout the year. Requirements during that year included two microteaching sessions using specified strategies and two lengthy field experiences in the winter and spring quarter, as mentioned in the introduction of this study.

At the end of the academic year, one of the female graduates (Shelley) dropped out of the program. The reason for this remains slightly clouded. She claimed it was because Dr. Wilson was against her and would not allow her to replace required courses with "identical courses" of her choice. Her failure to take the required courses prevented her from to proceeding to her internship the next academic year. Additionally, she was in danger of having her grade-point average fall below the 3.0 minimum. The data collected from and about her during the first year is included in this study as her field experiences and perceptions related to the questions raised in this study; obviously, the impact of the internship year does not apply.

During the internship year, a third participant dropped out of the program. After leaving the program, this undergraduate male (Frank) failed to respond to emails or phone calls made in hopes of gaining greater insight into the reasons for his dropping out. However, based on statements by other participants, his supervisory teacher, previous conversations with him, and an informal interview after his dropping-out, it is believed that he was struggling with personal problems as well as with an inability to consistently

51

create effective lessons and units. Data gathered regarding his participation in the program are also presented up to the time that he dropped out.

As part of the summative assessment process during the Intern Year, all interns, including the three remaining participants, were required to develop portfolios documenting their progress in relation to the eight Themes of the CITE Program. Theresa and John successfully completed these and subsequently obtained their state teaching certification in June, 2000. As of April, 2002, Kim has yet to complete her portfolio.

The withdrawal of three out of the original six participants affected the study in a number of ways. First, and most obviously, the sampling became skewed as only two females and one male remained. Additionally, the sole remaining undergraduate was a non-traditional student. Therefore, the socialization effects on traditional undergraduate students are missing in this study. Second, the smaller number of participants makes it more difficult to see across-the-board patterns during the Intern Year.

Data Collection Plan and Methods

Wolcott (1994) suggests "three major modes through which qualitative researchers gather their data: participant observation, interviewing, and studying materials prepared by others" (p. 10) In an effort to gain a comprehensive and holistic picture of the socialization process for each participant, all three of these methods at each stage of the teacher education program.

The interview style was based on a "guided approach" in which the "topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance in outline form; interviewer decided sequence and wording of questions in the course of an interview" (Patton, 1990, p. 288). The open-ended nature of the questions and the conversational tone of these interviews

allowed in-depth follow-up questions to be asked. Additionally, advantages of this approach that Patton cited were realized. He wrote that this style of interview "increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. Logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed" (Patton, 1990, p. 288).

Because "interviewees are always reporting perception" and "evaluators as field observers…also have selective perceptions," other means of data collection are necessary to analyze whether espoused theory is the same as theory-in-practice and to ensure triangulation (Patton, 1990, p. 205). For these reasons, field observations were made during each stage of the program. These observations included detailed descriptions of the participants' actions in the field as well as their immediate reactions to their teaching. Additional data in the form of lesson plans, reflections/journals, and materials generated for their students were collected. To safeguard against "selective perceptions" in my observations of the participants, I also collected the observations by their cooperating or mentor teachers and field supervisors over the two years and submitted them to analysis.

The third area of data collection included university class assignments that were aligned with the eight themes. The participants' understanding of these themes is important. Poor comprehension would greatly diminish the influence of these thematic guidelines on participants' beliefs or actions as teachers. In other words, if the themes are not clear to the participants, they would be unlikely to function as a factor in socializing the participants in the desired way. University assignments provided tangible products useful for gaining the nature and degree to which participants express these themes in

both words and actions. This data source included in class-papers, lesson plans, rubrics, and other assignments.

The specific ways in which these three data collection methods were used differs with each phase of the program as contexts change. Certain questions and tools remained constant, especially those included as part of the university program (e.g., pre-service teacher feedback forms). Additionally, as data were collected, memos were created, potential patterns noted, and questions added to interviews to pursue those patterns. In this way, some consistency was kept, allowing for patterns and changes to emerge. However, no initial tool was developed to measure changes in beliefs.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), entering a multi-case research study with a looser initial framework allows the researcher to be more receptive to local idiosyncrasies. However, they caution that the information load will be colossal (p. 17). Finding both statements to be true, I believe the trade-off was worthwhile as it provided both a great richness of data and allowed for patterns to emerge that were not necessarily expected.

The Phases Of Data Collection

The required Instructional Planning class introduces all secondary education majors to pedagogical theory and practice, especially as they pertain to preparing lesson plans and their implementation. During the Instructional Planning class, students participate in two 10-12 minute, videotaped microteaching sessions based on teaching models taught in class. In the first session, students were required to use a "prompt" and an identifiable questioning sequence based on Bloom's Taxonomy. In the second session, students had to use a direct instruction modeling sequence to teach a skill. Program-

generated rubrics specified teaching behaviors the students were to display in the two microteaching lessons. Following each teaching episode, students watched the taped lesson, reflected on it, and filled out the rubric. Afterwards, they sat with me to watch the videotape, discuss their performance, and to receive feedback (e.g., did they do as well as they thought they did). Copies of the rubric filled in independently by the student and subsequently filled in jointly during the debriefing session were collected as data. Additionally, as a class assignment, students wrote reflective papers after each microteaching session, tying their microteaching lesson to an effective teaching behavior discussed in their textbook *Learning and Teaching : Research-Based Methods* (Kauchak and Eggen, 1998). These papers were also collected as data for this study. Following the debriefing sessions (either directly thereafter or at a time scheduled soon thereafter), I interviewed each of the participants based on a broad set of questions.

Before the first field experience began during the winter quarter, the participants had dropped to five in number. I interviewed each of the five participants on tape regarding beliefs, expectations, and concerns. In the eight weeks following these interviews, I observed each of the participants teach three lessons at their assigned schools. In addition to field notes, I also filled out an assessment criteria form for each participant. This rubric, created by the secondary social studies faculty, allowed me to consistently note the behaviors of the participants. This same rubric had been used to appraise the behaviors presented in the microteaching videotapes so that the behaviors are consistently assessed. I also collected copies of observations and assessments from mentor teachers as well as copies of the students' time-log for the experience. At the end of the field experiences, I interviewed each participant about his or her field experience.

I used this same process during the second field experience during spring quarter. The participants each moved to different schools. If they had been in an urban school during winter quarter, they were in a suburban school during spring quarter and if they had been in a senior high school during the winter quarter, they moved to a junior high school/middle school in the spring. Two observations were made of each participant during this second field experience. Again, observations and assessments from mentor teachers were collected and students were again interviewed.

During the second year, I observed each intern teach a lesson one time per quarter and collected observations/evaluations from other observers (including from the mentor teacher, lead teacher, supervisory teacher). Additionally, I conducted individual interviews at the very start of school, at the time of observation, just before winter break and at the end of the year were conducted. Focus groups were held at the beginning of November and again in early March.

The University-PPS teams prepare formative evaluations during each of the first three quarters of the internship. The purpose of these assessments is to provide feedback to interns about their progress. A summative evaluation is written at the end of the fourth quarter. These evaluations are based on the eight themes of CITE, the standards set for first-year teachers, not student teachers. Copies of these evaluations were obtained as were copies of participant-generated lesson plans, reflective essays, and assessment criteria from the mentor-teachers and other observers. These items helped to create a clearer picture of the participants' behaviors from a few different points of view as well as provide insight into the participants' views towards their own teaching behaviors and their attitudes towards teaching.

The CITE Program requires each preservice teacher to create a portfolio as a capstone experience. In the portfolios, the preservice teachers explain themselves as teachers and the changes they perceive to have occurred as part of their development in relation to each of the eight themes. As part of the research data, the portfolio provided great insight into preservice teachers' self-reflections, their understanding of the themes, and the nature of the socialization process for each individual.

Data Analysis

During the data collection process, I added my own reflections and comments were added to the field notes and interviews, summarizing main points or patterns that began to appear. Although not the contact summary forms suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), these comments serve the same purpose. They suggest patterns, guide future interviews and observations, and assist in the analysis process.

As Miles and Huberman (1994) succinctly stated, "Coding is analysis" (p. 56). To manage the data I collected, it was imperative to develop an easily used, effective coding system was imperative. Sensitizing concepts, or "concepts that have their origins in social science theory" and are introduced by the analyst, were used rather than indigenous concepts. These sensitizing concepts included both the CITE program's eight themes and Schempp and Graber's (1992) stages of teaching. The latter were used to divide the two years into developmental time phases. These sensitizing concepts focused the data and eliminated the data superfluous for this study (e.g., not related to instruction or learning). After reading the data collected (see Appendix D) twice through, as recommended by Bogdan and Biklen (1998), additional patterns and themes emerged, some previous

patterns were dismissed, and coding categories were established. Thus, inductive analysis provided the majority of the categories as well as the overall framework for analysis.

The main coding categories used were process coding schemes with strategy codes used in a secondary capacity. Processing codes are "words and phrases that facilitate categorizing sequences of events, changes over time or passages from one type or kind of status to another" (Bogdan and Biklin, 1998, p. 174). Additionally, Bogdan and Biklin (1998) advise that process codes are used to "perceive change occurring in a sequence of at least two years" (p. 174). They also affirm that "typical process codes point to time periods, stages, phases, passages, steps, careers, and chronology. In addition, key points in sequence (e.g., turning points, benchmarks, transitions) could be included in the family of process codes," (p. 174) making it a coding method well-suited for this study. The strategy codes, which "refer to the tactics, methods, techniques, maneuvers, ploys, and other conscious ways people accomplish various things," were used as sub-headings within the broader process codes.

The codes were assigned numbers and the data organized based on these codes (Appendix E). The data were then analyzed for patterns of change at each stage of the pre-service teaching process and for overall changes as well.

In presenting the findings, I rely heavily on the participants' words from interviews, papers they wrote, and quotes included in written observations (both my own and others'). In this way, each case is clearly portrayed, allowing the reader to follow the participants' progression and fully understand the conclusions reached. After presenting the full descriptive findings, each case study is analyzed, comparing my findings to those

in the literature. Lastly, a cross-case analysis is performed, comparing participants'
experiences to the others.

Triangulation

Triangulation of the data was accomplished in three separate ways. First,
interviewing the preservice teachers 10 times over a two-year period (eight times
individually and two times in a focus group) provided a means of individual
triangulation. Second, by gathering written data, conducting interviews, and observing
classes, it was possible to ascertain consistency in preservice teacher beliefs and actions
over time. Third, observations and assessments from other professionals (e.g., mentor
teachers and supervising teachers) allowed comparisons with my perceptions, thus
helping to minimize individual biases.

Limitations Of The Study

The loss of three out of six participants is the greatest limitation to this study.
Losing half of the original participants can make patterns invisible. In order to lessen the
effect as much as possible, I am presenting my findings as five case studies. This will
show individual patterns in this manner as well as provide some insights as to why the
dropouts occurred. Despite these adaptations, valuable data have been lost.

Another limitation, mentioned in the methodology section, is the failure to
ascertain the beliefs and preconceptions *before* classes began in September. Thus, no
information about students' beliefs prior to entering the program was available. While the
preservice teachers had only been in class about four weeks before this study began,
some of the literature suggests (e.g., Price, 1999) a one-semester course may impact a
preservice teacher's beliefs. Also, as mentioned above, no single instrument was used to

periodically record beliefs throughout the program. Despite these limitations, the length of this study itself helps alleviate some of these problems by showing longitudinal trends, especially as they relate to aspects of socialization.

A final limitation is the possibility that the data are skewed because I was their supervisor during their field experiences. In this role, I helped them reflect and assessed them based on a rubric. This relationship may have given me greater insight and better rapport with them, especially since their cooperating teachers were the primary basis for awarding a "pass" or "fail" grade, the only two grading options available for the course. They appeared to be comfortable in calling me at home and coming to my office to talk, ask questions, and vent, providing additional data. On the flip side, they may have altered their words and actions to align more closely with the CITE program during the time I was their supervisor. However, as the participants cursed, cried, laughed at, and joked with me and each other during the focus groups, I believe that their responses were candid and honest. To address the potential of skewed data, observations by their mentor teachers and other observers were used to triangulate the data and provide a more rounded view of the participants' teaching behaviors.

This study will follow each participant through three of the four stages suggested by Schempp and Graber, focusing on the changes and the lack of changes in the areas of instruction and learning (see Appendix C). Biographical information will be used as the data for pre-training, which occurred for the years in school prior to entering a teacher education program. Data for the preservice period will be based on the in-class influences, especially during the professional year of the teacher education program and including the microteaching experiences. Data for the field experience stage will include

the winter and spring field experiences as well as the subsequent internship year. Because these participants had not reached the induction stage, which occurs during the first three to five years of teaching, this stage will not be included in this study although the effects of institutional constraints are addressed.

The arrangement of each case study will be the same. First, the participants' backgrounds and experiences will be introduced. This is necessary because, according to the dialectical theory of socialization, how a person is socialized into teaching cannot be separated from who he or she is. What is accepted from outside sources is continually filtered through each individual's experiences, background and understanding. Therefore, the participants' personalities and backgrounds, which are the basis for their pre-training and form the basis for their internal socialization, are a necessary component in understanding the whole socialization picture. Brief descriptions of the participants' lab experiences and field experiences, including descriptions of their placements, are also presented.

The findings are divided into the Professional Year and the Intern Year. During the professional year, the university experiences prepare the students with pedagogical practices based on professional literature and theory. These experiences include microteaching using a specific, constructivist model of teaching, writing lesson plans during their field experiences that reflect constructivist principles, and being supervised by university personnel whose advice and expectations were aligned with the CITE goals. During the second year, the students left the "training grounds" of the university to practice their skills in real settings with a lot of autonomy. Although the interns still met weekly during autumn quarter for an applied methods course with their methods

professor and worked with a team that included a university supervisor, their instructional strategies, classroom environment, and beliefs about student learning were strongly influenced by their colleagues at the school site and the institutional constraints at that site.

Findings about the participants' beliefs and actions within the CITE Themes of Instruction and Learning are also addressed separately, despite the artificiality of such a division. This was deemed necessary in order to compare the participants' beliefs and actions in a parallel manner. Changes in beliefs, actions and influences are reflected in Figure 1 (p. 66). Because the findings are heavily based on the participants' own words and the words of observers, codes have been employed to clarify the source of the information (See Appendix F)

Chapter 4: Professional Year Descriptive Findings

The Professional Year of the program precedes the Intern Year. For undergraduates, it is typically year four in a five-year program. For post-baccalaureate students, it is typically the first year in a two-year program. During the Professional Year, CITE students enroll in a number of courses offered by the College of Education and some content area courses offered by the College of Arts and Sciences. First quarter education classes usually include Instructional Planning, Human Learning, and Reading, Writing, and Learning Strategies. Instructional Planning introduces students to pedagogical theory and practices grounded in the professional literature and several teaching models. Preservice teachers are required to complete two microteaching sessions as part of this course. The Human Learning class, a co-requisite of the Instructional Planning course, addresses aspects of educational psychology, primarily learning theories. The Reading, Writing, and Learning Strategies class, taken by non-English majors, provides knowledge about the reading processes and writing strategies as it relates to each content area. Additionally, students take courses from the College of Arts and Sciences to complete distribution requirements or remaining courses in their major. (see Appendix A)

The microteaching sessions were designed to allow preservice teachers to teach one student-centered lesson and one teacher-centered lesson. In the first one, preservice teachers were directed to select a prompt and design a questioning sequence based on Bloom's Taxonomy. The preservice teacher was to use questioning skills to guide students (i.e., their peers in this case) to think critically about a topic related to the prompt to develop their own understanding and conclusions about it. In the second microteaching

episode, the preservice teacher was to use a modeling process to teach a specific skill. Using a pre-set sequence, the preservice teacher was to provide specific steps to master the skill (i.e., first teacher modeling the demonstration, then a teacher-directed example, followed by independent practice).

During the second quarter, CITE preservice teachers typically take at least three additional education classes as well as classes in the Arts and Sciences College as needed. The education classes include an Assessment and Evaluation class, a methods course in the area of specialty (e.g., social studies), and a 60-hour field experience (e.g., Field/Clinical Experience I; Social Studies). The Assessment and Evaluation class addresses the purpose and processes of assessing and evaluating students, including the design of traditional tests, the use of rubrics, and types of authentic assessment. The secondary teaching methods course in social studies includes a variety of methods, techniques and materials for teaching social studies and the creation of a ten-day teaching unit. The Field Experience course is correlated with the methods course. It consists of a 60-hour clinical experience in an assigned secondary school. Each preservice teacher is expected to observe a mentor teacher and other teachers and engage in at least 15 "instructional episodes," at least seven of which must involve teaching the equivalent of seven full 45-minute lessons. A university supervisor observes each preservice teacher during the experience.

During the third quarter of the professional year, the education classes CITE students take include Instructional Management, Instructional Technology, and Field/Clinical Experience II. The Instructional Management class focuses on classroom management theories, practices, and strategies. The Instructional Technology class

revolves around how to use technology, especially computers, in a classroom. Field Experience II provides additional experience (i.e., minimum of 50 hours) in a different classroom setting. The Field Experience II is not supervised by university faculty; no lesson plans or journals are collected. As in the previous two quarters, students may take one or more additional courses from Arts and Sciences College.

The changes in beliefs and actions regarding the areas of Learning and Instruction during the Professional Year are summarized on Figure 1 and are described in detail within this chapter.

Figure 1: Beliefs, Actions, and Influences Related to Instruction and Learning during Professional Year

		Microteaching		Field Experience I		Field Experience II	
		Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning
Theresa	Beliefs	Willing to use variety, prefers lecture, likes to be in control	Maybe constructivism isn't bad, but lecture is better	Accepts wider variety, more humanist & constructivist	Constructivism is more acceptable, lecture is easier	Sees need for variety, prefers lecture, humanist management strategy	Acceptance of construction, Desire for students to LEARN
	Actions	Used (assigned) variety of strategies	Says "WE" learn, uses student centered models	Variety of strategies used, reverts to lecture & custodial	Uses pairs, groups, student research, increased constructivism	Uses variety of methods, humanist management	Group work, Student-led questioning, assesses learning
	Influences	Instructional Strategies class, including microteaching & other assignments		Methods class, cooperating teacher, students, university supervisor		Management Class, cooperating teacher	
John	Beliefs	Need to plan, Greatly admires CITE Instruction Theme	Constructivism is desired, Admires CITE Learning Theme	Desire to use variety of strategies, time constraints to planning	Well-behaved equals learning. Asking Questions equals constructivism	"Allowed" to use more strategies, Forced to plan	Behavior equals learning, Activity equals creating knowledge
	Actions	Sage on Stage, uses strategies, but GIVES info	He is the knowledge giver, little student learning	Dependence on lecture, little reflection on ability/needs	Answers own Questions, not student centered, no checks on learning	Timely planning, more variety, no management used	Some constructivist lessons, some sage on stage
	Influences	Instructional Strategies class, including microteaching and his coaching experience		Methods class, cooperating teacher, students, university supervisor		Management Class, cooperating teacher	

Figure 1: Beliefs, Actions, and Influences Related to Instruction and Learning during Professional Year (continued)

		Microteaching		Field Experience I		Field Experience II	
		Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning
Kim	Beliefs	Teachers need to care. Instruction must reflect student needs/ability	Easier to be teacher led, more MEAN-INGFUL for students, student-centered	High expectations, admires custodial management, Accepts some strategies as better	Focus on student learning, disagrees with cooperating teacher's instruction, desires clear focus/objectives	Disappointed with lack of learning, believes students are cheated	Disappointed with lack of learning, believes students are cheated
	Actions	Used (assigned) variety. Careful planning -- Scripting of lessons	Asked many questions to facilitate and assess student understanding	Uses variety of strategies, good rapport, adapts lessons, uses humanist management	Used everyday examples, allowed divergent answers, used worksheets	Allowed free reign, Uses variety of methods, plans less	Keeps students involved, maybe to keep busy more than to learn
	Influences	Dr. Wilson, Instructional Strategies class, Personal Background		Methods class, cooperating teacher, students, university supervisor		First and second cooperating teachers, school and classroom environment, methods class	
Frank	Beliefs	Wanted specific directions, liked the teacher-centered model better	Sees need for scaf-folding and affective questions to promote learning	Being in front equals teaching, planning is easy, proud to use a variety of methods	Sees need for student centered lessons and adaptations for different levels	Disappointed with coop's instructional and management techniques, missed resources	Wants students to THINK and construct knowledge
	Actions	Used (assigned) variety, short time spent planning, concerned with management	Asked questions and modeled skills, incorporated students' answers	Humanist management strategies, lots of variety in instructional strategies	Modified lesson for different levels, constructivist learning promoted	Used variety of resources and strategies (many from Methods course)	Modeled decision making, forced students to THINK via humor and care
	Influences	Dr. Wilson, Instructional Strategies class, desire to become a great teacher		Methods class, cooperating teacher, students, History Alive Curriculum		First and second cooperating teachers, school and classroom environment, methods class	

Figure 1: Beliefs, Actions, and Influences Related to Instruction and Learning during Professional Year (continued)

Shelley		Microteaching		Field Experience I		Field Experience II	
		Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning
Beliefs		Is natural teacher, already knows how to teach based on student experience	Constructivism desired, Lecture seen as boring, wants students to THINK	Excited to use variety of methods, management is common sense	Focus is student learning and retaining of information	Her instruction is better than her cooperating teacher's, role is to motivate students	Wants students to ask questions and to think
Actions		Has problems implementing as-signed methods, focuses on presenting content	Asks low-level questions or provides her own answers, Uses teacher-centered style	Uses variety of methods with limited successs due to problems writing lesson plans	She is knowledge producer, even when a constructivst learning situation is intended	Uses variety of methods with limited successs due to problems planning	Remains knowledge producer, frustrated by students' challenges
Influences		Experiences as a student, Dr. Wilson, Instructional Strategies class		Experiences as a student, Methods class, cooperating teacher		Methods course, cooperating teacher, students, curriculum class	

Case 1: Theresa

Theresa Thomas was a 23 year old post-baccalaureate student when she entered the CITE program. Before college, she attended the city's public schools. She gave credit to her eighth grade history teacher for her interest in history: "If I hadn't had him, I probably wouldn't have gone into history" (IN, 4/00). Theresa credits her mother, a high school librarian at her alma mater, as the person who influenced her to go into teaching: "I always wanted to be like my mom, so I wanted to be a teacher" (IN, 5/00). She entered the university as a freshman with the goal of becoming a secondary history teacher. However, she was subsequently forced to drop out of the CITE program due to low grades. She proceeded to earn an undergraduate degree in history and then worked at a bank, "wanting nothing more than to graduate and get married" (P, 5/00). After experiencing difficulties in the business world, Theresa decided to return to school and become a teacher.

For her first field placement, Theresa was placed in a large, suburban high school whose population was mainly middle and lower-middle class students. Her cooperating teacher for this experience was Mr. Titus. Theresa viewed him as being very supportive. Mr. Titus taught ninth grade civics, tenth grade honors world history, and eleventh grade American History. In his classroom, Mr. Titus did not ask students to raise their hands, but instead expected them to behave responsibly and learn. The lessons Theresa described from his class, such as students working in pairs on computer-based projects, were constructivist in nature.

For her second placement, Theresa was placed at Lockwood Middle School, an urban school whose students were almost all African-Americans of lower socio-economic

status. The school prided itself on having achieved improved test scores on the state's high-stakes proficiency test and the firmness with which student discipline was managed. Her cooperating teacher in this second placement was Mr. Ferris, who taught eighth-grade American and African-American History. Theresa felt that Mr. Ferris was not as warm and welcoming as Mr. Titus had been. Furthermore, she expressed a dislike for his teaching style. She felt that he did not allow for student input and had low expectations for his students.

Theresa's self-image and confidence were completely based on whether others liked her and approved of what she did. She alternated in her self-image as a teacher between "I suck" and "I think I'm great," often based on one comment or class. Before beginning her first field experience, she stated, "I really am frightened. Who am I? Who says I can teach these people? Who am I to think that I can teach these people? Who am I? I am nobody!" (IN, 11/98). After her first field experience, she explained that because the kids liked her and wanted her there, she was a successful teacher (IN, 3/99). Likewise, during her second field experience, she said, "When…I have people telling me that I have done a good job,… I'm like, 'Hey, I'm not too bad after all.'" Although her opinion fluctuated, Theresa continually used the judgments of others to measure herself as a person and as a teacher.

Theresa's emotions and personal relationships heavily influenced her socialization in the CITE Program. She accepted feedback from those she felt liked her, such as her first field experience cooperating teacher and her mentor teacher during the intern year. She rejected feedback from those who were professional in their treatment of her who but did not protect her frail ego. For example, she "hated" her methods class professor and

tried to minimize his influence on her professional development. An example of this was how she reacted upon receiving a poor grade from him on one of her lesson plans. Glowering and nearly in tears, she said,

> I don't know what is expected of me. I don't know how to do it. I came in, like I said, last quarter and I was very excited about [the education program], in the beginning – very like "I can do it" and now I think, I can't do it. I shouldn't do this, but I blame Dr. Wilson ' cause I'm like, I graduated from high school, I did all these wonderful things. Every possible thing that I was, I am not now. And the last thing was that I thought I was still a good student. And I feel like he took that away from me, too. And I know I shouldn't feel like this, I know that's part of my own personal problems. I see that very clearly, but now I'm not a good student because he gave me a D. I haven't had a D since high school. I re-did my lesson plan and I got a 97 on it, but it was not my lesson plan anymore. It wasn't. It was not anything I would ever use in a classroom. (IN, 1/99)

After this incident, she rarely accepted anything that Dr. Wilson said, believing that he looked for ways to criticize her especially.

Case 2: John

John Tindal, a 27 year old post-baccalaureate student when he entered the CITE program, described himself as "kind of an actor, kind of a ham" (IN, 3/99). His undergraduate degree in communications with a minor in history was earned at a small, Midwestern college where his father teaches history. He claimed that he did not really think he was going to use his history minor to teach; instead he was interested in sports (IN, 10/98). Offered a graduate assistantship at a large, Midwestern university, he earned his Master's Degree in athletic administration and also coached hockey for younger players (IN, 10/98). He then worked for a sports related television station. However, when that station was bought by a larger station, John lost his job and decided to look into teaching.

> I see teaching as being really stable. When I was at my other job, I saw big corporate buyouts and people who had been there 10, 15, 20 years, all of a sudden were out of a job and had nothing. Then I look at my parents: Dad's a teacher. They've done pretty well for themselves. I figure I can find a good place, put in my 30 years and I'll be set. I really like the stability in teaching (IN, 4/00).

The idea of job security, financial stability, and a specific retirement date was the first explanation John gave for his desire to become a teacher.

John also was drawn to teaching because he saw it as very similar to coaching, his foremost passion. Coaching "is what motivates me…. Such an invigorating experience. That stimulates me…. Coaching. I love to coach. I can't wait to get back to that. I can't wait to get back to that environment" (IN, 1/99). He opined, "Teaching and coaching complement one another…. I knew that good teachers are good coaches and good coaches are good teachers 'cause a lot of things you do as a coach are applicable to teaching…." (IN, 10/98). Later in the year he added,

> I'm enjoying [teaching]. I love it. I love – it's not that different from coaching. It's like a team. At the beginning of the year, nothing's there. You try to build something, try to make something, try to achieve some success. It's a step-by-step process" (IN, 3/00).

Additionally, he saw teaching as a means to stay in the coaching field. When he spoke about what he expected teaching to be like after he graduated, he said, "A couple years from now, I'll start the year in September and hopefully I'll be coaching. You know, do the football season and do the school, get up to the Christmas break, have that nice break, do the spring, maybe coach hockey or something…" (IN, 1/99). Throughout the two-year program, John's passion for sports and to work with students through sports was ever-present.

From the beginning, John was very excited and positive about the CITE program. One of the reasons he was there was because of the national attention the program had received. John said, "I was kinda surprised to get accepted actually. I knew it was a nationally-recognized program, pretty prestigious, but I guess they're looking for diversity in their students" (IN, 10/98). Three-quarters finished with the program, John volunteered,

> I've talked to other people who have gone through these education programs, got Master's degrees. I was talking to one of them at [another university], which is one of the competitors, it is supposedly one of the higher ranked ones in the nation and we compared notes and they can't hold a candle to what you get here at UC. Just the completeness of the preparation. I mean, certainly the highlights are Dr. Wilson and the methods classes and stuff" (FG, 11/99)

While there were changes to the program that he suggested, John indicated throughout his two years that he was pleased with the program, its goals and the modeling of effective practices by its professors.

John's first field placement was a large, suburban high school whose population was mainly middle and lower-middle class students. His cooperating teacher for this experience was Mr. Clarke, who John described him in the following way: "Great!…He's pretty much perfect…He's been teaching for about 25 years and he's just kind of an old veteran. He's also an old football coach, so we have a lot in common. He's probably going to be what I – he is what I'm going to be in 25 years probably" (IN, 1/99). However, John recognized that Mr. Clarke "may not be what you [the program] wants" because Mr. Clarke encouraged teacher-centered instruction, discussing "creative" instruction as if it were unnecessary and undesirable (FN, 1/99). The three classes John taught were all tenth grade World History classes; two were "general classes, the third is

73

a little less than general" (IN, 1/99). The classes were all small in size, having between 12 and 18 students in each.

For his second placement, John worked at Lockwood Middle School, the same urban school in which Theresa was placed. John was frustrated by this emphasis on the test, declaring, "Seven months of the year is devoted to the [Ohio Proficiency] test! What have the kids learned? I mean, how is that [the test] applicable outside of that stupid 30 question test?" (IN, 5/99). His cooperating teacher, Mrs. Salinger, followed a clear-cut routine as a way to get students into a pattern for daily learning. For example, the students began each lesson with a warm-up exercise pre-printed on the chalkboard. Handouts were used daily as a means of teaching and assessing students' progress. Students that misbehaved received one warning and then were sent to the principal's office and given detentions.

Prior to this second placement, John volunteered to work with Lockwood's football team. He said,

> Getting involved with the football team – that made me a lot more comfortable in that environment, knowing I was going to see those kids somewhere I was really in charge and somewhere that I was an authority. Somewhere I was comfortable, like the football field (IN, 3/99).

He had also been placed at Lockwood Middle School when he participated in the optional "start of school" program, in which CITE students could be placed at a school to see how teachers began the school year.

Case 3: Kim

Kim Williams was a 26 year old undergraduate during her professional year of the CITE program. In ways other than her age, Kim was a non-traditional student in education. She dropped out of the city public schools in seventh grade because her father

74

"was a drunk" and she had to care for her three younger siblings (IN, 1/99). She was married at age 16, had her first child at age 17, and was divorced by age 20. She earned her GED, entered university college (a open-admissions college), and from there was accepted into the CITE program and subsequently enrolled in the College of Education. At the beginning of the professional year, she lived in a trailer with her two children, her long-time boyfriend (who she initially referred to as her husband), and his two children. Despite stress over balancing class workloads and family responsibilities, Kim stated that she "had to" make it through the classes because teaching is where she belonged (IN, 1/99).

Kim's desire to be a teacher centered around two related facts: (1)Her own poor educational and family experiences and (2) her strong belief that caring from a good teacher could help any child gain an education and succeed.

> But the job [of teaching] itself is like being a parent. You do not always get instant gratification. You have to know that you have done your best and try to assess where they [the students] are at and then think about how that might benefit them later. Chances are most of the time we're not going to feel that instant success. It's not that type of job. It's not oriented in the short term. So I mean, I think that's something…. And I feel that some of it, being in our classroom, is just like living with them (FG, 11/99).

During her field experiences, Kim told students that if she could succeed as a product of the city schools, they could also. She also gave students her home phone number in case they needed to talk to an adult for any reason. In sum, she wanted her students to have the educational experience she did not.

Kim's first field placement was at Lockwood Middle School. In her seventh and eighth graded classes, the students sat in straight rows of single-piece desks. Discipline and improved Ohio Proficiency test scores were two very evident goals for the students.

Her cooperating teacher, Mrs. Salinger, was "very strict. Sometimes she will kick kids out of the class for one infraction." Also, when she "makes a rule, she tells the kids if it doesn't seem fair to them, they should just suck it up" (IN, 1/99). Kim liked both of these policies because it taught students to follow the rules and that life is not fair (IN, 1/99).

In addition to liking Mrs. Salinger's classroom management techniques, Kim also was impressed by her organized focus on social studies skills. Kim especially appreciated the fact that her cooperating teacher "knew what she'd be doing next week and the week after" and could tell Kim, "This is what you need to be doing" (OV, 4/99). Mrs. Salinger's pedagogy did not match what was taught at the university or Kim's feelings towards the students. Kim did not want to speak poorly of Mrs. Salinger, but hesitantly shared,

> [Mrs. Salinger's class] is very teacher led and it is very – she does feel at times, I don't know, she makes comments about the kids. That they won't do their homework, don't care, aren't going to go anywhere. I don't like that…. She has it in her head what these kids can do, what they're going to do, you know, what they will do. And she sort of wants you to go along that line. Like if you've noticed, all of my lessons involve worksheets. (IN, 3/99)

Kim explained that she did not want to use worksheets all the time, but felt that she had little choice. She also noted that the intern teacher, Todd, succeeded most often when he used teacher-directed strategies and followed Mrs. Salinger's management strategies (IN, 3/99). Despite the philosophical differences, Kim's experience was positive and learning-filled.

Kim's second field experience was in Bacon Junior High, a large suburban junior high, whose population was racially and socioeconomically diverse. After her first placement, this second placement disappointed Kim. She felt that her cooperating

teacher, Ms. Cass, "played" all day, talking on the phone to her friends, sending the students on irrelevant errands, and basically ignoring her responsibility to teach meaningful skills and content to her seventh grade students (OV, 4/99). Frustrated with the situation, Kim stated, "I want to learn and I don't feel like [this situation] will allow me to learn anything!" (OV, 4/99).

Case 4: Frank

At 22 years of age, Frank Bradford was the only traditional undergraduate participant. Always sporting a WWJD (What Would Jesus Do) bracelet and an earring, he explained that prior to tenth grade, he wanted to be an architect. Then, upon realizing he wasn't very strong in math, he searched for a career for which he was better suited. His friends suggested that he would be a good teacher because he was funny. Coupling this suggestion with his fondness for history, Frank decided to become a high school history teacher (IN, 10/98). He also had a strong interest in politics. Labeling himself a conservative Republican, he owned two dogs named for recent Republican presidents. In addition to teaching, Frank wanted to coach track: A long-distance runner and dedicated member of the track team, he wanted to share this passion with students.

Prior to the microteaching sessions, Frank had never formally taught. Calling it a "baptism by fire," he found it to be "kind of scary" the first time around (IN, 10/98). During the first session, his body language conveyed this fear: He held his hands under his armpits, he did not smile for the first seven minutes, and he paced (FN, 10/98). By the second microteaching, Frank said, "I wasn't nervous sitting there waiting to go. I wasn't squirming or anything. Just anxious to get up there. After the first time, I was anxious to do it again." (IN, 11/98).

77

For his first field placement, Frank worked with ninth and tenth graders Mineo High, a large, suburban high school in an affluent area of town. "Mostly ninth grade – I like that age group pretty well. There are some classes like honors and college prep…There are two tracks: Honors and College Prep" (IN, 1/99). All students were expected to attend college after graduating high school (IN, 1/99). In addition to enjoying his students, Frank quickly became awestruck by his cooperating teacher, Mr. Sipps. Mr. Sipps not only provided notes via PowerPoint presentation, but also created constructivist projects for the students, and capably managed his classroom. Another plus for Frank was that Mr. Sipps had played professional football (FN, 1/99). All desired teaching resources were readily available to Frank, including computers, digital cameras, classroom supplies, and a well-stocked library. "I'm very happy with [my placement]. My mentor teacher is really – we really click together….We're kind of in the same mold. He's real outgoing, athletic, played football, and is real idealistic" (IN, 10/99).

Although he tried to stay positive, Frank was let down by his second placement at Manchester High School. Manchester High, a large, urban high school that housed six "school within a school" programs. The abundant resources available to Frank at Mineo were not available at Manchester. Another problem was that his mentor teacher, Mr. Belfield, had a very different teaching style. "He wasn't quite as loose. When he teaches, he puts his game face on, and doesn't joke around whole lot with the kids" (IN, 6/99).The students, too, were different, coming from a "completely different background" than Frank and from his Mineo students (IN, 6/99).

> They have experienced a lot more than the kids over at Mineo. They were talking about stuff that I… 'Oh yeah, I was down on ___ Street. I was standing next to this crack head and this cop rolls by and this guy threw down his crack, his money, and ran. And the cop came up and said, 'Oh,

he left his money' and he gave my friend the money.' And I was like, "You were standing next to a crack head on ___Street?!' And it was like no big deal. And this was from a freshman girl— a freshman in high school! They were like, 'Whatever, an every day thing….' It was different, but the kids were great. I liked them a lot (IN, 6/99).

Although Frank accepted this challenge willingly, he said that it was tough to teach the Humanities Class because of its status as an elective. According to Frank's understanding, the class had to be easy, it had to be entertaining, and no homework could be sent home (FN, 5/99). Overall, Frank concluded, "It was a lot different than Mineo…The students, the facilities, and – my mentor teacher…. Not in a bad way, just different" (IN, 6/99).

Case 5: Shelley

Shelley Warner was a 22-year old student with multiple earrings in each ear as she began her professional year in the CITE program. A native of California, she came to the University of Cincinnati to be on the swim team. While she only swam for one year, she stayed for four, graduating with a major in history. She continued at the university as a post-baccalaureate student in the CITE program, working toward certification and a Master's degree. Shelley claimed that she had not really thought about being a social studies teacher prior to college because history was so boring in high school. However, the history classes at the university changed her mind due to their in-depth focus on a specific time period in history (IN, 10/98).

From the beginning of her professional year, Shelley was eager to share her opinions and views with me. In the first interview, she leaned forward the entire interview, talking quickly about everything, and offered to miss the beginning of her next education class, stating, "It won't matter if I miss the first 10 minutes"(IN, 10/98). She

was reluctant to pack up her books and go to class when I gestured that the interview was over by closing my notebook (IN, 10/98).

Shelley's reluctance to attend class was partially due to her belief that she was a natural teacher and merely needed teaching experience (IN, 10/98). She had already imagined her perfect classroom and believed that she knew what students needed (IN, 10/98). For example, Shelley wanted students to get various points of views via discussion because lecturing was boring (IN, 10/98). Further, prior to her first field placement and barely into her second quarter of classes, Shelley explained that most of the classes she was taking were unnecessary for becoming a teacher.

> I feel like I was already ready. Other than having to know "Okay, if I want to teach something, how would I go about doing that?" Other than being taught how to create a lesson plan and the activities – I already felt, like, before I would sit in my classes before when I was an undergrad thinking, "If I had the opportunity to teach this to high school students, how would I go about doing this? What kind of an activity would I give them?" And I think part of it is cause I can still think in a high school mentality but, yeah, I think – not to sound immodest – I feel like the classes I've taken so far – isn't really helping. I know that the methods that [Dr.] Wilson is teaching is going to help 'cause it *is* going to give me a lot of ideas to use in the classroom. That to me is a very helpful class. But like assessment and evaluation, I mean, I've been evaluated for the past God knows how many years of my life, that I would think by experience and then talking to other people I can figure something out. And so, yeah, I still see a lot of my classes right now as pointless. (IN, 1/99)

This attitude remained constant throughout Shelley's year in the CITE program.

Her first field placement was at Bacon High School, a large suburban high school, whose population was racially and socioeconomically diverse. Her cooperating teacher, Mr. Payne, already had two interns from another university in his classroom and had not expected Shelley (IN, 1/99). She explained to him that she was there to teach, not just observe and he accommodated her needs as well as he could (IN, 1/99). In the time that

80

was carved out for her to teach, Mr. Payne never fully observed her lessons. Instead, he worked on the computer or pulled students outside into the hallway for one-on-one discussions with each student. Therefore, the only feedback she received on a daily basis was from the interns, who she believed were in the same position she was and knew less (IN, 3/99).

Her second field placement was at Oakmont High School, a large, neighborhood city school. Shelley's initial worries about teaching over 40 students in each class were unfounded. Instead, she considered it a good day when 10 students came to class (FN, 5/99). Her cooperating teacher, Mr. Poole, was delighted with her work, saying that Shelley was the first good teaching associate he had in the past four years. "She comes in prepared and is enthusiastic," he stated, adding that prior students had completed only as much as they had to, whereas Shelley "was willing to jump right in, helping students, etc." (FN, 5/99). Shelley was not quite as complimentary of Mr. Poole, stating that some of his activities were boring time-fillers which she did only because she had no other choice (IN, 5/99).

Throughout her professional year, Shelley continued to see herself in the best light. Even when errors in content or methods were pointed out, she did not consider them seriously. Instead, she dismissed them with an excuse, a laugh, and a wave of the hand. When confronted on an excuse, Shelley quickly changed her story or became defensive. According to Shelley, it was always someone else's fault when she did poorly. For example, Shelley left town for spring break prior to her assessment and evaluation class' final exam. She claimed that her father had scheduled the plane for her and that she could not change the ticket. However, she failed to tell the professor about this problem

until two days before she left. Likewise in that class, Shelley was frustrated with the assignments. She explained,

> At the very beginning of the quarter I didn't get the materials because they sold out. So I had to go back and get the materials and I always knew, for some reason, that most professors don't accept late work. So I didn't even bring it up to her, thinking that I'd turn it in late. Cause most of the time it's a definite, flat-out no. Well, at the midterm she said, 'go ahead and do it.' And I was like okay. And in the same process, go ahead and re-do all of this other stuff, too. I had to re-do the whole half of first quarter (IN, 3/99)

Instead of being grateful for being allowed to turn anything in for credit, Shelley was angry at the professor for making her do so much work in such a short period of time.

At the end of her professional year, Shelley decided to leave the CITE program, hoping be certified by the Educational Foundations program. To me she explained that she missed one course, believing that a similar, undergraduate course offered in the summer would "cover it." Needing "roughly 13 credit hours to finish my Master's degree," she felt it was very unfair to have to wait an entire year to take the missed course (IN, 5/99). To her fellow students, she claimed that Dr. Wilson hated her and was trying to make things hard for her (IN, 5/99). She neglected to mention that she also skipped the Reading and Writing class required for all non-English/Language Arts education majors. When confronted on this point, she explained that she did not know she had to take it because she had been pretty independent as an undergraduate, never receiving guidance on classes to take. Instead, she had focused on taking classes to finish her Master's program. She also neglected to mention that she was in danger of having her grades fall below the minimum required to remain in the program. According to at least two professors, her work had been less than satisfactory in some classes and she had "an excuse for everything" (IN, 4/99 – 6/99).

Instruction

The CITE program's Instruction Theme focuses on preservice teachers' use of instructional strategies to meet, address, and assess students' abilities, needs, and environment (see Table 2). More specifically, criteria include preservice teachers reflecting on and using a variety of instructional strategies, resources, assessment tools, and management techniques. In analyzing the participants' beliefs and actions concerning the Instruction Theme, it became apparent that planning, instructional strategies, and management techniques were the three areas which presented the clearest pictures of the participants' beliefs and actions concerning instruction.

Case 1: Theresa

During the Professional Year, Theresa appeared to be growing towards the components listed in the Instruction Theme with respect to both beliefs and actions, although she consistently maintained that lecture was an effective means of imparting knowledge. During the lab experiences, Theresa followed the directions, reflected on both instructional strategies and on efforts to create a positive classroom climate in ways that are aligned with the CITE Themes.

Theresa employed similar strategies during her field experience classrooms. Her classroom management style was on the humanist end of the spectrum. She was accepting and trusting, viewing students as responsible and capable. Theresa appropriately used outside resources, student-generated data and question sequences. It appeared that she was embracing the Instruction Theme in both beliefs and in actions. The management style of her initial cooperating teacher and her positive relationship with him were influential in this regard.

Instructional strategies. During the microteaching lab experiences, Theresa supported the idea of using a variety of strategies to meet her students' needs. Through her actions, Theresa initially showed a willingness to use a variety of strategies. For example, during the first microteaching experience, Theresa used three methods within a 10-minutes lesson about the Constitution: "First, we reviewed the Preamble; second, we did a group activity; and third, we attempted to find an example in history where some of the goals stated in the Preamble were not insured" (RE,10/98). The first and third parts of the lesson consisted of questioning sequences, which were the focused learning goal of the experience. Theresa recognized that it was her responsibility to alter her teaching in order for students to learn. As she wrote in a reflective essay, "Wait time was a skill that I had trouble with in my microteaching session…If I had stated what I wanted more clearly, the students would not have been confused by the question and would have had a better understanding" (RE, 10/98).

In her second microteaching, Theresa taught how to use a timeline using a modeling approach. She used her own life first and then used the story of Cinderella for "teacher directed practice" before the students worked independently on creating timelines. She said that she used the story of Cinderella because she believed "everyone would really get into it." Additionally, she initially believed that teaching students to think critically and problem solve was of the utmost importance.

> Problem solving is very important to learn, use and understand….I think that it is important to show students that problem solving is not a difficult skill to master. The difficulty lies in the complexity of the problem posed…… I think it is important to show students that they have the ability to problem solve and that it is done all the time (RE,11/98).

When she was asked what she would do in a classroom if she started to run out of time, Theresa said, " [It] depends on the skill and if they're getting it. Like, if you think they're getting it and they're like, 'Go on,' then you can give it for homework. But if they're really, really struggling and not getting it, so to speak, then you need to continue with it, beyond the next day until, I guess, they seem more comfortable with it" (IN, 11/98). In this way, Theresa expressed her willingness to change her lessons to accommodate students.

During her first field experience, Theresa continued to use a variety of methods including paired-brainstorming sessions regarding the effects of the scientific revolution today, oral histories on popular culture from 10 to 40 years in the past, class discussions and questioning sequences about Copernicus and Galileo, written debates about the affect of pop culture, and straight lecture on events leading to the French Revolution. Her sources of information included not only the textbook, but also students' research, her college history books, and primary sources. Theresa willingly adapted her lessons to assure that all students learned the same material, whether they tracked in the honors class, college prep class or regular class. For instance, in trying to teach the causes of World War II, Theresa focuses on Article 231 of the Versailles Treaty. As Theresa explained,

> I wanted to put them in groups and have them paraphrase it and then have them take an identity [as France, Germany, etc.]. Well, Mr. Titus said, 'These kids tend to be more willing to give up, so why don't you paraphrase them as a class and then put them into groups and then have them have their identity and write a response….' So that's what we did in there and it worked out really well. Cause he was afraid that the language might be too difficult or whatever and they might not get it…Whereas with second bell, he would have just had them paraphrase it [in groups]. So you make minor adaptations (IN, 3/99).

Theresa recognized that these "minor adaptations" made the difference between a lesson working well or a lesson falling flat.

Theresa received a lot of positive feedback from Mr. Titus for her creative, student-centered activities and adaptations. She claimed that he was a positive influence on her teaching style, epitomizing to Theresa what a good teacher was: "Always very clear in his instruction. He knows the knowledge very, very well. And he-- Just the way he presented it. The kids <u>loved</u> his class. The kids were always very willing to work for his class" (IN, 3/99). The criteria Theresa used to indicate her success in teaching was having students participating positively with few classroom management problems (IN, 3/99)

Theresa's success in using a variety of methods, coupled with Mr. Titus' encouragement, led her to opine that she hoped to "have a nice mix" of student-centered and teacher-centered instruction for the next quarter's field experience (IN, 3/99). This represented a concession toward the university goals, signifying a change in beliefs. Earlier in the experience, Theresa said she, as a student, liked the lecturing and taking notes and hated cooperative learning (IN,10/99).

Another influence, although not as visible, may have been university demands and influences. Theresa turned in time sheets for her social studies methods class, listing not only the times she was at the school site, but also the tasks she accomplished there. Additionally, as her university supervisor, I observed her three times with the expectation that her lessons would be aligned with the CITE Instruction Theme. As that supervisor, I do not know how much of an influence I had on her actions.

During her second field experience, Theresa continued to use a variety of methods and sources, although admitting that lecturing was easiest for her as a teacher (FN, 2/99). She read aloud the picture book *The Story of Ruby Bridges* to her eighth grade students, had them work in cooperative groups, had them read aloud an interview of Martin Luther King, Jr., asked questions, and lectured. Some of these lessons, especially the cooperative learning lesson, turned chaotic. Students, who were sent to the groups before directions and materials were shared, were asking questions, talking to their friends, and moving their desks simultaneously. Theresa appeared frustrated, unable to settle the students down quickly (FN, 5/99).

Theresa's views about students' potential and the need to adapt instruction to meet their needs and interests contrasted markedly with views she perceived her cooperating teacher to have.

> I was annoyed with that attitude… [He] constantly made comments, "Well, you know the kids only have a 90 IQ." And I'm going, "Like, that doesn't mean that they're stupid or that they can't lead in the class…." and it kind of annoyed me that he would make those comments because it was his underlying attitude, "My kids are stupid." And I don't like that (IN, 5/99).

The influence of the university was minimal during this second field experience. Time sheets were turned in, but no specifics regarding her tasks were reported. Nonetheless, she applied specific techniques from her methods class, such as taking into account the students' various abilities and adapting groups as necessary to meet students' needs (FN, 5/99). Although I observed her during this experience, it was not as part of my university duties and nothing was reported to the university. Additionally, Theresa dismissed suggestions I made in preference to those of her cooperating teacher (FN, 5/99).

At the end of her second field experience, Theresa identified the cooperative, simulation lesson about the Versailles Treaty her first field experience as her "best lesson." She explained,

> They were each a nation. Then they had to, based on their nations, their nation's foreign policy, their nation's experience during World War I, and all of that good stuff, and the outcomes of World War I, to write a response in favor or against . …they understood the assignment. And these were like middle to average kids and they really, really, I felt they enjoyed this lecture, I enjoyed the lecture. I mean, it was probably, those two days were the best day (IN, 5/99).

Two aspects need to be highlighted. First, although she termed it a lecture, she actually did not deliver a straight lecture, relying instead on questions answered by the students throughout the lesson. Second, even though she claimed that lecture is her favorite instructional method, Theresa actually chose more of a student-centered approach, a pattern that continued during the internship year until she eventually abandoned all strategies except lecture and in-seat book work. However, at the end of the initial year in the education program, the Professional Year, Theresa's actions and beliefs appeared to be aligned with the Instructional Theme component. She was using a range of instructional strategies matched to her students' needs and abilities teach a variety of ideas.

Management. During the first quarter of her professional year, Theresa expressed her desire for a humanist classroom climate and management style: "My class will be a place where students can be expressive in their work. I also want my students to develop healthy, reciprocal relationships with the people around them" (CA, 11/98).

Mr. Titus, whom Theresa admired, used a humanist management style. Students were not threatened with nor given detentions and students were not expected to raise their hands during discussions. Possibly because she entered the classroom in January

when class routines and expectations were thoroughly established, there appeared to be no management problems (IN, 2/99) .

Overall, Theresa was impressed by the class and its management. However, because no modeling of the means to establish this management was done, Theresa did not know how to manage the students if they did not manage themselves. For example, on one occasion, Mr. Titus was absent and a student challenged Theresa about Marie Antoinette's "let them eat cake" comment. Theresa could not answer the student's question. The student took the upper hand, turning it into an argument that the rest of the class happily joined, attacking Theresa en masse. Theresa did not know how to fend them off and, as her supervisor, I stepped in to quell the situation since the substitute did not (FN, 2/99).

On another occasion, Theresa attempted to quiet and focus the students by saying, "May I have your attention, please?" Unfortunately, this was the only phrase Theresa used. When she became frustrated, the phrase would take on a nasty, biting tone, with the ending "please" sounding very unpleasant. In one class, she used this phrase and then added a harsh "This is the last time I'm going to ask for it!" (FN, 2/99). After class, she admitted that she did not really know what else she would have done had they not quieted down. She had no backing to her implied threat. Despite her desire to emulate Mr. Titus' humanist style, she fell back to a custodial approach when she sensed herself beginning to lose control.

This inner dissonance was illustrated in an interview during her first field experience. Asked her opinion of Mr. Titus' classroom climate, Theresa said that the class was "really neat" and the students were "really into it and stuff." She believed the

lack of management problems to be entirely due to the teacher and the treatment of the students. "They were full of really good students….To tell you the truth, the 4th bell that I taught were like that. And that's why I think it's the teacher. I mean, if you treat your students like they're all honors classes, they are all going to be honors classes" (IN, 3/99). Yet, when asked if she would imitate his policy of not having students raise their hands to speak in class, she reflected,

> Well, it depends on the students because his fourth bell class, they did raise their hands. So maybe with the second bell class – they're a very good bunch and a good mix of people. And a good mix of personalities…. I don't fear a fight or somebody doing anything like that in that class….I think it's a management issue…I'll probably, at least in the beginning, it will be hand ups every time. Raise your hands, let me learn your names…. (FN, 2/99).

So while Theresa initially expresses a desire to follow a humanist lead, she swings to a custodial approach in the beginning as a means of classroom management.

Mr. Ferris' eighth grade class, in which Theresa taught for her second field placement, was much more structured and custodial in nature. For instance, school policy required students to line up and move silently in the hallways he rigidly adhered to that policy. He also required students to raise their hands in class and be recognized before speaking. Theresa commented that she did not like this approach. She believed that,

> You have to have genuine affection for what you're teaching. I think you have to have an appreciation for your students, no matter where they land on the socioeconomic, race, gender – all of those scales. I think you need to have an appreciation that you're here to teach your students, your content – you need to value both the students and content (IN, 5/99).

Theresa felt that her cooperating teacher, Mr. Ferris, was lacking in this affection. Additionally, she frowned on what she perceived to be Mr. Ferris' beliefs about student

potential and his failure to challenge students sufficiently. To her, he was allowing the students to learn less than they could or should learn.

Theresa claimed that the students would try harder if they were challenged:

I think I've seen that at both [field placements]. Every time I think, "Is it too hard?" They [the students] always do it….Every single time. Fifty-percent, at least, will give it a try. You've got to let them try and you've got to let them either do well or not do well. They're never going to step up [if they're not challenged] (IN, 5/99).

During this placement, Theresa was never in charge of classroom management and discipline: Mr. Ferris warned his students the first day that if they misbehaved for Theresa, they would have to deal with him (FN, 4/99). Because of this, Theresa could "manage" the class any way she chose. The students behaved under her humanist approach because they knew that Mr. Ferris had the final say. Once again, Theresa got no real experience in managing a classroom, although she believed she was successfully using a humanist management style.

Theresa may have held on to this belief because it coincided with how she would like her hypothetical classroom to be: No discipline problems, the students adoring her and "everyone gets an A because I like you" (IN, 3/99). As long as her actions appeared to follow this belief, Theresa's management style and view of students reflected a humanist approach.

Case 2: John

During the professional year, John often verbally supported the components listed in the Instruction Theme. However, his espoused theory and theory-in-practice regarding the use of a variety of instructional methods were not always consistent. For example, he often claimed a desire to be more like Dr. Wilson and use creative strategies and

91

resources to teach, but in practice, he initially depended solely on a lecture and discussion format and the textbook. While he did, in fact, increase his use of a variety of instructional strategies and resources over the two field experiences, he frequently relied on lecture and discussion formats. The desired variety of instructional methods was not consistently in evidence.

Much of the inconsistency between John's espoused desires and his actual actions was due to his lack of planning. When he took the time to plan, his instruction was more likely to align with the CITE theme. When he spent little time planning, his instruction was not aligned with this theme. John claimed lecture and/or discussion was the easiest and least time consuming instructional methods; he could just read the chapter in the textbook and teach a lesson (PC, 1/99). His lack of planning rested on three interrelated factors: (1) His reluctance to invest the necessary time to planning, (2) his acceptance that his instruction would automatically improve with time and experience, and (3) his belief that he was already proficient at instruction.

Planning. After his first microteaching session, John felt that he needed to be more organized and better prepared (IN, 10/98). "You need to know what questions you're asking and the main point that you're trying to get those questions to lead to" (IN, 10/98). However, instead of putting more time or effort forth, he explained that he merely needed more experience.

> I need to improve on my planning . But again, I think that's something that comes with time – just the knowledge of knowing what works, what doesn't work…. I think it's something that teaching is a very experiential process. You get better at it as you do it. You can know, you can read all the books on – I mean, I can know Kauchek and Egan [authors of the textbook used]– you know, forward and backward, but I can be an awful teacher. I mean, or I can know it forward and backward, go into my first

year of teaching in September and be at this level but when I come out I'll
be at that level because of the experience (IN, 11/98).

He indicated "this level" with his hand held around his chest; "that level" was shown

with his hand held up above his head (IN, 11/98).

Another reason why John did not put forth much effort in planning was because

he felt that his instruction was already of high quality. His belief that he could do a good

job teaching with little planning was probably based in his coaching experiences.

I've been coaching so I've had to kind of – I've had those days where I've
had to walk in prepared and other days I've had to do it off the cuff…. I
think you need to be up in front of people. Need to speak in front of
people. Need to have planned experiences in front of people and
experiences in front of people and experiences where you kind of have to
adapt to the situation. And I've had those experiences, so I'm definitely
ready to go (IN, 11/98).

John made it clear that his coaching experience prepared him to teach.

It is interesting that John felt he did so poorly in this first microteaching.

Although he went over the allotted ten-minute time limit and was not always smooth in

his presentation, John's overall instruction was acceptable and it was obvious that he

prepared. Using a video segment from the movie *Gettysburg*, he asked questions that

were prepared and written out as part of his lesson plan, used equitable distribution, and

introduced the video clip knowledgably (FN, 10/98). His repeated claim of

unpreparedness led me to believe initially that his planning would be exceptional.

After his second microteaching session, John still felt the need to improve on his

planning. He was vexed about this, claiming, "I spent two and a half hours actually

planning a 10-minutes lesson. You know, I was like, 'Oh! This is awful! What's going to

happen to me when I have to plan a five-hour day or something? It's like I'll be planning

for 25 hours a day!'"(IN, 11/98). However, his second microteaching session, entitled

"Analyzing and understanding visual evidence such as illustrations or pictures as historical evidence," was better than the first one. The organization and overall flow of the lesson was more directed and controlled. His objectives were clearer and he appeared much more comfortable teaching (FN, 11/98). John "effectively demonstrated and explained each step" of the skill and was "prepared with several situations to give students practice in skill application" (FA, 11/98). Additionally, he seemed ready for students' questions if they did not understand the skill he was teaching (FN, 11/98).

While enrolled in the 60-hour first field experience, John opted to take an extremely heavy load of classes (i.e., 21 quarter-hours). Before entering the class, he said, "I think the way I'll be able to do it is I'll get a week of lesson plans together and I'll have to start on Sunday night or maybe a couple days before and review the notes for Monday" (IN, 1/99). However, shortly after starting his field experience, he changed his mind, "You just have to take one week at a time, one day at a time. I'm not thinking about next Friday. I'm just thinking about tomorrow and the next day" (IN, 1/99).

John viewed Mr. Clarke, his cooperating teacher, as an appropriate model during his first field experience, believing that he would follow similar teaching patterns. However, Mr. Clarke, a 20-year veteran teacher, "doesn't bother to do lesson plans until after the fact if they are demanded by the school. He just pulls out a folder with the information and goes from there" (IN, 1/99). This modeling by a mentor with whom John strongly identified helped create, or at least reinforce, John's assumption that lesson plans are superfluous for any teacher who already knows the content.

Mr. Clarke's model reinforced John's belief that experience was the greatest teacher during the first field experiences.

> You learn the most as you do it. You need to be schooled in these things, you need to be acquainted with the various methods and stuff, but you learn it when you actually try to do it. I mean, a lot of it is just common sense. If you're out there and just, if it's not working, it's not working. You can tell. If you care about what you're doing at all, if you care that I'm here being there as a teacher, trying to give these kids an education, you're going to take necessary steps to try to make it work in a better way (IN, 3/99)

According to John, one needs to try a strategy, reflect on it, and make appropriate changes. However, John did not often reflect or make changes. In fact, he often did not have lesson plans written until *after* he taught the lesson. For example, the evening before I was to formally observe him, John called me at home to find out whether he needed to write a lesson plan for what he had taught the Friday before or just do a lesson plan for what he would be teaching the next day (PC, 1/99).

When observed the following day, John's instructional strategy consisted of lecturing from an overhead, asking low-level questions (which he answered himself when students did not volunteer) and reading to the students from the textbook. (FN, 1/99). Student participation was limited and the textbook was his only resource. John did not use effective questioning techniques and made no attempt to assess students' knowledge before or after the lesson. After the lesson, John said that he was very overwhelmed by the classes he was taking and that lecturing was the easiest and least time consuming way to teach (IN, 1/99). Additionally, he believed that Mr. Clarke taught almost solely by lecture (PC, 1/99) and was encouraged by him to do the same (IN, 1/99).

For another lesson I observed during his first field experience, John planned to teach about the unification of Italy. It became obvious that he had not put much thought or time into his planning for this lesson much less a formal or informal written lesson plan. He began class by talking for the first eight minutes of class about a recent article in

the newspaper that unrelated to the topic or curriculum and outside of the students' interest. Then John asked the students to get into groups of three and asked them to outline the main ideas on the two pages of their textbook dealing with the topic of Italian unification. When time was up, John started to ask the groups to share. Unfortunately, because of how John structured the activity, only one person from each group had written the information down. Without notes or a clear understanding of what he wanted the students to know, John resorted to specific, low-level questions that did not match up with the "big picture" points he had asked students to identify. By the time half the class was over, John was reading to the students from the textbook, focusing on the trivial details, especially names and dates. (FN, 3/99). He recognized that class had not gone smoothly at all, saying to the class at the end of the bell, "I thought I had a better handle on this" (FN, 3/99). After class, John said, "Was that as bad as I thought it was?" (FN, 3/99). Subsequently, I worked with him to develop a workable lesson plan, which he later said went "much better" (FN, 3/99).

Despite these less-than-successful experiences, John declared, "I feel prepared already. I feel like I could go into any class. I feel like I could be a substitute teacher anywhere. And probably do a better job than the regular teacher" (IN, 3/99). This may be in part due to Mr. Clarke's beliefs: He said that John "is doing a great job," that he presents well, and is very well prepared in regards to pedagogy and content (FN, 3/99). Therefore, despite John's recognition of a poor instructional session, a lack of planning, and few instructional strategies, he was praised. This reinforced his belief that he did not need to prepare much more and that he was doing a fine job already.

The following quarter, John registered for his second field experience and other seven classes in order to fulfill the history and education requirements so that he could intern in the fall. Once again, he felt very overwhelmed by these classes and by planning lessons.

> To be able to teach lessons, cause you had to plan, you had to go home and read an entire chapter to plan for a lecture or something and that's on top of all our other school work. It's like having an additional – almost two classes, not just one class, but two 'cause of all the time involved. And I just wasn't really prepared for the time commitment….(IN, 3/99).

To his surprise, John was forced to plan more because his cooperating teacher, Mrs. Salinger, demanded to see his lesson plans prior to each teaching session.

The increased attention to planning was evident in his instruction. The 65-minute time block was about 15 minutes longer than the teaching periods at his first field experience, but the quality of his instruction was far superior. For example, in a lesson regarding African-American History from 1600 to 1776 in the United States, John started class by directing the students to take five minutes to respond to a warm-up question that was on the chalkboard. After having some students share their responses, he passed out a reading packet and asked various students to read sections from it, stopping at appropriate points to ask questions and to clarify parts. Then, for the last 20 minutes of class, he assigned the students to do timelines of this period, modeling how to do timelines for the whole class. At the conclusion of the lesson, he previewed the lesson for the next day and dismissed the students (FN, 4/99).

It was evident, based on the hand-written comments in the margins of his lesson plans, that John had reflected on these lessons prior to teaching them in an effort to ensure that he was prepared to teach. For example, on one lesson plan he wrote in the

margins, "Tell them what they'll need on their desks and to put everything else away" and "Be sure to explain expected behaviors and what will have if S's [students] are off task" (LP, 4/99).

At the end of the second field experience, I asked John about his completed lesson plans. He laughed, explaining, "[Mrs. Salinger] is very into the details. She's very detail oriented…. She got me thinking about a lot of things I hadn't thought about before" (IN, 5/00). Additionally, as he later recollected,

> And I knew [Mrs. Salinger] was pretty demanding, pretty good teacher. I knew I needed to – and [site liaison] is pretty close to Dr. Wilson – so I knew I kind of had to get back to a little more constructivist school of learning. But it was fun. It made me spread my wings a little more – try some new things. And try it on a different level than what I'd been accustomed to. And I think that was good (IN, 5/00).

For these lessons, John not only wrote out the required rationale, goals, objectives, and step-by-step instructions for implementation, but also included a section on classroom management and a typed copy of the warm-up question for the students.

Instructional Strategies. From the beginning of the professional year, John bought into the idea of using a variety of instructional methods. This was at least in part due to his education professor, Dr. Wilson. He admired Dr. Wilson, wanting to emulate what the professor did in Instructional Planning class and later in the Social Studies Methods class. This admiration was shown both by action and speech. For example, for the first microteaching lesson, John tried very hard to make sure that his questioning sequence with a prompt would be up to Dr. Wilson's expectations.

> You're so conscientious about all of the little steps that Dr. Wilson told us to do – concentrate on this, ask a knowledge level question, ask a synthesis question, ask an evaluation question, ask a comprehension question, good eye contact, good voice quality, wait time – all those things are going through your head (IN, 10/98).

98

Additionally, John laughed about going over the 10-minutes time limit, saying, "That's what that Dr. Wilson guy said. 'Make sure you have enough information. Have a second questioning sequence'" (IN, 10/98).

After the second microteaching session, John's desire to be like Dr. Wilson was still evident. When asked how he would like to improve, John replied, "Kind of eye contact with students. Getting away from my lesson plan, getting out from behind the desk and, you know, kind of being there with the students more like Dr. Wilson does" (IN, 11/98).

In both microteaching sessions, John used the assigned instructional methods appropriately. While he believed that reversing the methods assigned for each microteaching session would have been more logical, John felt comfortable with both instructional methods and expected to use them in his own classroom (IN, 11/98).

Just prior to entering his first field experience, John expressed that he liked the social studies methods class because "it gives you creative ways to [teach]" (IN, 1/99). He liked these creative ideas, believing

> You can't just sit up there and lecture, obviously. That's not something I want to do. I mean, I want to do things that are interactive with the students. I want it to be something where they're getting something out of it. and not just sitting there and I'm talking. It's the last thing I want to do. Certainly, there will be portions where I do that, portions maybe where they just read the text and I'm there if they want to answer questions. But you know, aside from that, there are all of these different methods I would like to experiment with (IN, 1/99).

John continued to generally hold these beliefs throughout the two-year program, but his actions did not always match these espoused beliefs.

During his first field experience, John used lecture daily, even when other methods were also being utilized. Often, low-level questions were integrated; John believed that using questions made his class more student-centered. However, he dismissed Bloom's Taxonomy as being unnecessary in a real classroom.

> When you get out here [in the field], you're not going to be so worried about some of those minor things…. You don't have to worry about 'Am I going from a knowledge level to a comprehension level or analysis to whatever the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy are. You can just let it go where it's going to go and lead it where you want to led it (IN, 1/99).

He believed that his ability to match instructional methods, like effective questioning, with the students' needs and abilities would be obtained solely through experience.

One of the first lessons John taught focused on changes in the English Government from James I to George III (FN, 1/99). "The lesson was a straight lecture with overheads; there was very little student input or activity. Students were expected to copy the notes from the overhead. No preview/rationale or summary/review was used" (FA, 1/99). John asked some questions, almost entirely low-level ones. When students did not answer them, John answered them himself in order to keep the class moving (IN, 10/98). He also read to the students directly from the book. His espoused desire for his students to "not just sitting there and I'm talking" was contradicted by his actions (IN, 1/99).

Another lesson focused on the events leading to the French Revolution. John lectured for the first segment of class, but also integrated two short film clips. The first one was an excellent excerpt from a 1950's black and white version of *A Tale of Two Cities.* It showed the peasants scooping up wine in the street, Madame DeFarge, and a scene inside the Bastille. The second one, an excerpt from Mel Brooke's *History of the*

World, was a spoof of the first and included a scene in which Madame DeFarge stabs her chest with one of her famed knitting needles, only to "pop" one of her breasts. Another part of the second clip had the peasants blindly repeating an oath and spitting (FN, 2/99). While it may have been amusing to John, it was obvious that he had not considered the needs or abilities of his students when choosing these resources.

At the end of the film clips, John briefly told the students what they had seen rather than asking for their observations and interpretations. He then deferred to his cooperating teacher, Mr. Clarke, who explained a poster project the students would do in small groups. Having Mr. Clarke assign the group projects to students was interesting. It contradicted John's view that Mr. Clarke "may not be what you [the program] wants" because he believed that Mr. Clarke only encouraged teacher-centered instruction and opposed student-centered lesson (FN, 1/99). However, for John's instructional segment of the lesson, direct, teacher-centered methods were used.

Despite the lack of variety of instructional methods John used, Mr. Clarke believed that John did "a heck of a good job" and that he "makes a heck of a good presentation" (FN, 3/99). The goal of seeing a variety of instructional strategies that matched the students' interests and abilities were being promoted solely by the university.

Despite not using a variety of instructional methods during his first field experience, John retained his initial beliefs about having used a variety of methods and that he had been much more successful acting on those beliefs during the second field experience. For although he continued to regularly lecture and use overheads to supplement his lectures, John also had the students create timelines and graphs, read

primary source materials, complete worksheets individually and with partners, and read a play out loud in class. John attributed higher levels of success in the classroom to the discipline enforced at his second placement, to the experience he had gained from his first placement and to the rapport he had developed with some students whom he had coached on the football team. While these three factors may have been contributing factors, improved planning and use of greater variety of instructional strategies matched both to his students' interests and abilities were more influential. By the end of the second field experience, John expressed his desire to use

> a wide variety [of instructional strategies]…I might settle on about 10 methods and try to rotate them throughout the course of a unit – which might only be two weeks. Each week I have five different ones, but I might have 10 that I get real comfortable with and just try to mix those up and rotate them (IN, 5/99).

He believed that his actions reflected this desire.

Management. Prior to his field experiences, John compared teaching to coaching, saying, "Good teachers are good coaches and good coaches are good teachers 'cause a lot of the things you do as a coach are applicable to teachers and what you do as a teacher is applicable to the coach" (IN, 10/98). He believed that classroom management would be the same as coaching a team: The teacher would be completely in charge and given full respect automatically while enjoying a positive rapport with each student (IN, 10/98).

John's initial belief about management was supported by his first field experience. There, he encountered students who were largely passive, followed directions, and did not challenge him. John was amazed by their good behavior "even though they are general trackers" (IN, 1/99). He expected

> a lot more talking, a lot more misbehaving, a lot more not paying attention…. Maybe they're not always paying attention 100% -- maybe

102

they're just sitting there – but they're not making noise; they're not cutting up. So for those who don't want to learn and for me, who wants to teach, I think it's going to be a pretty good situation (IN, 1/99).

When students did talk or put their heads on their desks, John joked with them. For example, when one student put his head down, John said, "No sleeping. I'm going to try to make it interesting" (FN, 2/99). He also used this banter to develop rapport with the students and a positive classroom climate. For example, after writing "French Revolution" on the chalkboard, John asked the class, "Anyone going to revolt?" (FN, 2/99).

John observed that this was the management style of his cooperating teacher and he desired to emulate it.

> He's got a great rapport with the student…he's real personable with them…. He's cracking jokes on them. You know, they're general students, so I don't know if he'd have the same type of class with higher up classes. I don't know if he'd joke quite as much with them. But I think it's something that they respond to. But at the same time, he has control. I mean, he certainly has their respect (IN, 1/99).

John held to the belief that joking with students was the best way to manage them due to their low ability. When students did not respond, he continued to joke with them and ignore their inappropriate behavior (FN, 3/99). John seldom disciplined the students, feeling that it was not his responsibility.

> There'd be some days that I'd be up there teaching there'd be a couple little side conversations going on and I knew they were going on, but I knew there probably wasn't much I could do about it….'Cause I'm only there every other day and maybe only been there for a couple of weeks. I never really had to discipline them and those kids, they don't always respond to discipline, especially from someone who's only there on an interim basis (IN, 3/99).

Instead, he allowed his cooperating teacher to manage the class from the back of the room.

Prior to entering his second field experience, John believed management strategies were "something that I [should] concentrate on a little bit more on when I do my second field clinical experience" (IN, 3/99). Detentions were part of his conceptual management strategy. "I mean, I don't want to sit there and stay for detention after school, but I'd like it if I could say to a kid in the middle of class, 'Okay! You're staying for detention!' And I'd hate to do that to my mentor teacher" (IN, 3/99). However, instead of forcing John to confront his beliefs, this experience further affirmed his initial beliefs about management in two ways. First, he had volunteered as an assistant football coach at Lockwood Middle School, so his initial experiences with the students were exactly what he expected.

> Like getting involved with the football team. That made me a lot more comfortable in that environment, knowing I was going to see those kids somewhere I was really in charge and somewhere that I was the authority. Somewhere I was comfortable, like the football field (IN, 3/99).

Second, the management plan for the students had been in place and used for three-quarters of the school year. Students knew what the behavioral expectations were and what the consequences were for not adhering to them. Additionally, his cooperating teacher remained in the room and kept discipline. For example, she prompted John that class was ending, that supplies needed to be collected, and that students should be reminded to put their names on their papers (FN, 4/99). On another occasion, she "raised her hand to signal quiet. She remind[ed] students of their homework, making a comment about 'if you do a crappy job' (FN, 4/99). In this way, she was in charge of classroom management; once again, John's view of management techniques and developing a classroom climate went unchallenged.

Like at his first placement, John had a positive view of his students and developed a strong rapport with them. He gave them "pump 'em up speeches" in which he told individual students, "It doesn't matter what you do, but whatever you do, you got to care about it . You got to make a contribution. I don't care if you dig ditches, you got to be the best ditch digger you can" (IN, 5/99). John believed that as a teacher, he should be a role model to the students and "be someone that they can come to in times of need" (IN, 5/99). He believed that his rapport with the students allowed him to keep the classroom managed and positive.

Case 3: Kim

From the beginning of the program, Kim's instructional beliefs, and therefore her actions, were based on the aforementioned desire to provide meaningful instruction for every student in a caring environment. Her ability to adapt and alter her instruction based on students' behaviors, prior knowledge, and/or time remaining in class improved as she progressed through the various teaching episodes and experiences. This ability to alter her instruction also compensated for her occasional inability to articulate the ideas, expectations, and/or outcomes to her students. By gauging her students' responses and understanding, Kim could re-explain or break down the big ideas and concepts about which she instructed.

She succeeded in achieving some of these CITE goals, despite her worries and feelings of ill preparedness. Kim's inconsistency in meeting these goals stemmed from her lack of organization, especially concerning keeping students on-task, directions clear, and overall management issues, not from a change in beliefs about teaching. A lack of planning time and family responsibilities were her excuse for those situations.

Instructional strategies. For her first microteaching session, Kim wanted a topic that she felt would be important and meaningful to her students. She chose women in colonial times, the lack of attention they receive in texts, and the bias of history books. Desiring to create an appropriate, 10-minute lesson out of this huge topic, Kim sought the advice of her professor, Dr. Wilson. He suggested that she select a different topic, advising her to find a newspaper article as a prompt and simplify her lesson. After combing the newspaper for five days, Kim found three articles about the impeachment of President Clinton to use (IN, 10/98). Although it provided a plethora of information, Kim stated that all three articles were related and necessary. "I really wanted the students to understand" the impeachment procedures as they related to the Constitution (IN, 10/98). She wanted to make the lesson rich and meaningful, even though she was only teaching peers (i.e., secondary preservice teachers) and limited to 10-minutes.

Kim's desire to do well and to reach her "students" in this first microteaching session was evident. For example, she arrived more than three hours early to ensure she was completely prepared. Later, she recognized her over preparedness and overabundance of materials. "I had more than two 10-minute lesson plans worth of material. I could have done two lessons with different focuses" (IN, 10/98). As she taught, Kim shuffled through papers and transparencies, losing her place on a few occasions as she eliminated material, trying to stay within the time limits and still reach the students (FN, 10/98). "At first, I wanted to include the history of perjury from the 15th and 16th centuries. This was to be the focus. This became less important and less of a focus as I found articles and as I taught," Kim shared (IN, 10/98). When she recognized

how little time she had, she quickly altered her lessons in order to focus on the nucleus of the lesson.

Interestingly, when asked during a briefing session what her strengths were, Kim struggled to come up with any, rolling her eyes and making a facial expression that expressed, "I have no strengths. What a silly question" (IN, 10/98). She finally gave an ambiguous answer, that the lesson was "good." When pushed to further define this, she labeled the lesson "well-prepared" (IN, 10/98). In contrast, she was able to quickly find faults with her lesson, including her lack of wait-time, closure, and originality in the visuals employed (RE, 10/98). Thereafter, she made a conscientious effort to improve in these areas.

Asked how she chose to teach the skill of detecting about fallacy in reasoning for her second microteaching session, Kim confessed, "To be honest, I got something out of a textbook that fit really well. So that kind of helped" (IN, 11/98). Despite having a pre-fabricated lesson, Kim did not feel completely prepared. To this end, she spent "maybe three or four hours…after thinking like for days, where you're just letting it lay around," reading the textbook "like 20 times," and going through four resources to find examples and confirm her knowledge (IN, 11/98). She regretted not having been more responsive to the students and checking their comprehension thoroughly.

> I would have rephrased the question to try to refine what I wanted more – but I was like, 'how much time can I spend on this?' You're really worried about getting through it. It's like you know you're trying to like – it's almost to the point that you *ignore* the students. But of course you know they're your peers. And you expect that they know more than what your students are going to. Especially mine – a lot of us [in the microteaching group] were history [majors] (IN, 11/98).

Once again, this showed Kim's desire to reach students through her instruction, even when those students were her peers.

In her first field experience at Lockwood Middle School, a variety of constraints limited Kim's instructional choices. For example, due to student socialization, Kim recognized that some instructional strategies were more effective with her students. For example, she said that cooperative group work, which was strongly encouraged in university classes, did "not work well with these kids" as "only two girls finished their work." She felt that direct teaching was better for them (IN, 1/99). One example she provided was a reader's theater activity implemented in the classroom. Although this activity proved effective in the university social studies methods class, it failed in the classroom. Kim explained that this failure was due to the school's financial inability to copy scripts for everyone. This led to the students having difficulty following along as the "actors" read quickly and quietly and played with their name badges (IN, 1/99).

Armed with this knowledge, Kim planned her first lesson to reach students using a variety of observed instructional strategies. For example, in a 50-minute class about national symbols, the students read and completed worksheets individually, answered Kim's questions orally, read information aloud from an overhead transparency, and analyzed the meaning of the Star Spangled Banner and the context in which it was written. "Her questioning techniques were very good. She used praise and rephrased questions to help the students achieve," Mrs. Salinger observed (FA, 1/99).

The limits created by Mrs. Salinger were another constraint because she determined for Kim what the students needed to learn and what they were capable of doing. This included students working with no more than one other person, using

worksheets with every lesson, and having low academic expectations. For example, in a lesson about citizens' right to counsel, Kim wanted the students in groups of three to read a modified transcript of the case. Mrs. Salinger told Kim that the students were not be capable of working in groups of three; instead, she said they should work in pairs. This caused problems instructionally because the transcript was divided into three parts: instead of each student reading one part, one student had to read two parts while the other only read one. (IN, 2/99). However, Kim worked within these limits. The students used a expressed their opinions about citizens' right to trial using a worksheet and an overhead and worked in pairs to read abbreviated transcripts of *Gideon vs. Wainwright* (FN, 2/99).

Kim felt that Mrs. Salinger had low expectations for the students. Kim commented,

> She – well, they dummy things down…. I guess my main thing with her is her view on dummying down things. So I— I don't know. And the worksheets! The kids are like, "God! We have to do a worksheet again?!" But — I don't know. I haven't been there that long, so I respect what she says. I try to take into account the things she says. (IN, 3/99)

Nevertheless, Kim followed the rules of her cooperating teacher, recognizing that she had little choice in the matter. On her final evaluation from her first field experience, Mrs. Salinger noted that Kim "uses multiple strategies in lessons….works with individual students in group activities, helps students be successful….[and] has implemented all suggestions. Is very willing to listen! Has the ability to change from one class to another in the same day" (FA, 3/99).

In her second field placement, Ms. Cass gave Kim free reign in teaching the seventh graders about Latin America. Kim could choose the content focus, objectives, and instructional strategies without any opposition. In one lesson, Kim decided to focus

on how folktales provide insight into culture, building on points related to this topic that were stressed in the student textbook. Kim began with a discussion about the morals embedded in *Beauty and the Beast* and *Cinderella,* stories with which the students were well acquainted. Through questioning, she elicited from the students examples of cultural clues those stories held. For example, the students identified the maxim "beauty is only skin deep" in *Beauty and the Beast.* Then Kim assigned each student to read one of five Latin American folk tales. After 10 minutes, they moved into groups of four to discuss the stories, looking for clues about various cultures in Latin America. Towards the end of the class, each group presented information about their stories and culture to their classmates. For the last five minutes of class, Kim directed the students in an impromptu map activity. This lesson highlighted Kim's ability to use a variety of resources and instructional strategies to reach the students.

As the field experience progressed, however, Kim lost some of her drive to plan lessons due to the lack of expectations by her cooperating teacher or from herself.

> I mean, I don't even give her [Ms. Cass] a lesson plan before I teach anymore because she doesn't care, so why do it? I mean, to be honest, the lesson I taught yesterday was—I knew what I was teaching because she said to pick something out…. She gets the newspaper, the *Cincinnati Enquirer*, and also an activity book with it. Well, she says, "Look in there and find an activity." More or less to keep them busy for a couple days… so I mean, I didn't write lesson plans, I didn't do anything, there was no reason to. She said, "Pick one of these," I picked one of these assignments to do it, you know, I guess it made me guilty of being lazy as well, but…. (FN, 5/99).

Although she felt lazy for using pre-fabricated lessons, Kim actually spent a lot of time reworking and adapting the lessons as she had done with her second microteaching session. Ms. Cass' lack of focus for the class made Kim feel that the students were cheated of meaningful learning. She said that at times, "I just feel I'm just babysitting

more or less. I mean, not really teaching…. The assignments I think are good assignments, but I think they're completed in a way just to be completed. I'm not sure there's any real retention" (IN, 5/99).

Despite her disappointing experience at Bacon Junior High, Kim felt like she learned a lot about instruction just by being in the classroom. She said, "I feel like I've learned a lot and like…I sort of feel like I've been socialized into being a teacher. And I feel like I've learned a lot about teaching and I've acquired a lot of tools, and theory, and stuff like that" (IN, 5/99). Especially helpful in the classroom was the "activity log" project Dr. Wilson assigned in the social studies methods course. "I just feel like he gave me so many things. I was never at a loss of how I am going to teach something. And I feel like Instructional Planning really cemented the different ways of teaching a lesson" (IN, 5/99)

Despite these improvements and teaching strategies, Kim admitted she still felt nervous about teaching.

> I over prepare more than everyone else. I mean, everyone else is like, "Oh, just get in there and do it." Not me. I'm like, 'I'm going to forget everything. I need a script." So I'm still doing that. I'm still real nervous when I go to teach something that I'm not going to be prepared—although I have a 20 page script for 30 minutes (IN, 5/99).

 She laughed as she said this, but the message she conveyed was totally serious.

Management. From the beginning of her first field experience, Kim worked on her management skills. Mrs. Salinger encouraged this, telling Kim to focus on classroom management because "any adult can teach content" (IN, 1/99). She also told Kim that her own strict management techniques caused the seventh graders to hate her, but to love her by the time they were in eighth grade (IN, 1/99). Kim liked this philosophy, explaining

that Mrs. Salinger just "wanted the kids to grow up – and not step on each others' feet, for example" (IN, 1/99). Mrs. Salinger advised Kim never to back a child into a corner, but to always give them a choice. Mrs. Salinger also directed the students to "suck it up" when they did not like a rule (IN, 1/99). Kim accepted this advice, having great admiration for Mrs. Salinger's management skills, and endeavored to act upon it. She also saw the positive effect of these management techniques: when the CITE intern taught, the room was chaotic. When Mrs. Salinger entered the room, the students immediately calmed down. She "just has to walk into the room" (IN, 1/99).

Kim accepted Mrs. Salinger's management techniques as more realistic and less idealistic than what she had learned in her university classes, which she felt left her unprepared for the "reality of the schools" (IN, 1/99). For example, "having the kids make up rules for the classroom wouldn't work at Lockwood, no matter what constructivist classroom stuff" they were told (IN, 1/99). In general, Kim wanted to exert the same classroom control as Mrs. Salinger.

While Kim claimed to agree with this custodial management philosophy, she practice a more humanist philosophy, wanting to protect the students' self-worth. For instance, a student decided to sharpen 10 colored pencils instead of the three needed in order to procrastinate as long as he could. Instead of yelling or being sharp with him, Kim prodded him, "How about you follow directions and sharpen just three?" She followed him back to his seat, sitting with him and his three group mates. She sat with these "four boys who were a bit rambunctious," staring at them until they got to work, doing more work than Kim had ever seen them do (IN, 1/99). Kim credited staring, which she described as "that's what I do to kids when they're not doing what I wanted them to do,"

as the reason the students were working, ignoring her close proximity and small group attention (IN, 1/99).

Kim's staring strategy did not seem to work when she taught her first lesson at Bacon Middle School during her professional year. In her planning, Kim had focused on her instructional strategies and getting the students interested with the topic. She was very nervous. As the lesson progressed, the intern teacher, Todd, and Mrs. Salinger each asked the students to quiet down. Each also sent students out of the room. Kim admitted that *she* would not feel comfortable removing a child from the classroom yet because she did not have a rapport with them and did not even know all their names (IN, 1/99). While students worked silently at their desks on worksheets, Kim walked around the room, helping the students whose hands were raised (FN, 1/99)

As the field experience progressed, Kim became more comfortable handling discipline in the classroom. To quiet students, she raised one hand, a signal she learned from Mrs. Salinger and to which the students responded (FN, 2/99). She also said, "Can you let her finish, please?" to a boy who interrupted another student during a question and answer session (FN, 2/99). In another lesson, she laughed with the students about what the name of a graph should be, but raised her hand slowly thereafter to quiet the students. They responded by becoming quiet and the lesson continued (FN, 3/99).

Kim's lack of consistency in applying management techniques caused problems. For example, instead of consistently using the hand signal for quiet, she would say, "Can you please listen?" (FN, 3/99). This led to students getting off task or instructional time being wasted. Although shown to be flawed by student behavior in the classroom, she believed that students "can tell if you're intimidated by them…. They can tell who is and

who isn't. I'm not, you know. If they're doing something they're not supposed to, I just stare at them" and that quells the behavior (IN, 3/99).

Despite her inconsistencies, Kim's philosophy about discipline was set. She did not respect teachers who were not strict because she wanted students to be learning, not playing (IN, 3/99). For example, she described the lack of classroom management when the intern taught the class:

> They don't do that when Mrs. Salinger is there. They—it's different. He is a new teacher, as I will be, but he lets some things go when maybe he shouldn't. They walk over him more. I mean, he eventually gets them under control, but personally I think it causes him a whole lot more work because he's trying to be the nice guy sometimes so—I mean, personally, the other day in there, the whole bell, they [the students] were not doing anything they were supposed to. And I was walking around to 10 different people like, "Do this, do this, get this work done." And he likes to focus on one at the expense of all. You know what I mean? Not that that's such a bad thing, but… (IN, 3/99).

While she liked the intern and empathized with him, Kim decided that she wanted to be more custodial like Mrs. Salinger. "I mean, unfortunately, it can't always be democratic…. If Mrs. Salinger is going to say 'goodbye' if you mouth her or – and I think she's right. It needs to be like that in school" (IN, 3/99).

By the end of her first field experience, Kim's espoused beliefs and actions regarding management techniques were misaligned. Kim remained less custodial and more humanist in her management techniques than Mrs. Salinger. For example, Kim described Mrs. Salinger's expectations of the students, "She does feel at times, I don't know, she makes comments about the kids that they won't do homework, don't care, aren't going to go anywhere" (IN, 3/99) In contrast, Kim commented, "You know, particularly in an inner city, a little bit of kindness can go a long way. Long way with these kids. And if they think you expect them to do well, they try harder to do well" (IN,

3/99). Her overall desire, however, remained the same: Students need to be well-managed in order for learning to occur.

Kim's disdain about ill-managed classrooms increased greatly when she met Ms. Cass, her cooperating teacher at her second field experience. After the first day in the classroom, Kim declared, "I don't want to put up with any discipline crap. I want students to be learning!" She also expressed her instant lack of respect for Ms.Cass due to a perceived lack of management and student learning (OV, 4/99). Kim was frustrated when she found out that she could not transfer to another school or another classroom. She said, "I want to learn and I don't feel like [this situation] will allow me to learn anything" (OV, 4/99).

When she taught, Kim was completely in charge of managing the class. Ms. Cass left the room, saying, "Kim is as good as any first year teacher" (FN, 4/99). To gain their attention, Kim told the students, "Listen. I need your attention. I need everyone to be quiet and look at me" (FN, 4/99). Later in the class, she raised her hand as a signal for the students to get quiet, a holdover from her Lockwood experience (FN, 4/99). The students were on-task and cooperated with Kim when she taught.

Case 4: Frank

Frank wanted to do well and he wanted to please. When given specific instructions or expectations, he willingly worked hard to accomplish what was required of him. He did not want to fail in his own eyes or that of his professor. For example, after his first microteaching session, he said, "I mean, if I did pretty good or really good, fine. But if I totally sucked?" He stopped, allowing a long pause, as if to indicate that it would be the end of the world (IN, 10/98). Having no teaching experience at all, he readily

115

accepted the philosophy set out by the CITE Instruction Theme as the surest route to instructional success.

When assigned a topic or an instructional strategy, Frank attempted to design solid lesson plans. When specific suggestions were provided regarding management strategies, Frank changed his behavior to accommodate the suggestions. During the professional year, he planned lessons individually or in small chunks surrounding a project, seldom designing teaching units on his own.

Instructional strategies. In his first microteaching session, Frank's lesson used a questioning sequence to compare the Watergate Scandal of the 1970s to the Clinton scandal with Monica Lewinsky. He earned a B for the written lesson plan due to a number of errors, including difficulty with higher level questioning (FA, 10/98). He was not entirely pleased with this grade, assigning partial blame to a lack of understanding what was expected. He wanted additional, specific instruction on how and what he should be doing (IN, 10/98). What additional information he wanted, however, was unclear: Dr. Wilson provided handouts in class, including detailed directions for the first microteaching session, the rubric for the microteaching assessment, and a step-by-step guide to writing lesson plans. Additionally, a video of a microteaching session from the previous year was shown in class and questions about microteaching were encouraged (FN, 10/98).

In his second microteaching experience, Frank taught a sequence for analyzing primary source using documents about Cincinnati. He earned an A- on this second lesson plan. Frank claimed to like this instructional method better due his perception of clearer,

more specific directions and guidance. Frank claimed that it was much easier than the first (IN, 11/98).

> It was more defined. Like I could stay on task a lot easier. The goals were a lot better defined….I clicked better on this because it was like the skills – and I can just go boom-boom-boom. But with the modeling, that was how I would teach anyway – teach anything…Show how I'm doing it and like get into it. I really clicked with this better. But I think the directions were probably – each of you got these steps to do, so it's not like you can get confused. It's like whether you can do it or not.…. (IN, 11/98)

Frank was proud of mastering the techniques from both microteaching sessions. He delighted in his success. "I felt myself applying the questioning into this like trying to get a fixed boundary so it was kind of like both lessons were in this one" (IN, 11/98).

During his first field experience, Frank demonstrated his willingness and desire to use a variety of instructional methods. He enthusiastically implemented methods from the Instructional Planning class the previous quarter and quickly put into action new methods from his current social studies methods class. For example, on the second day of his field experience, he "organized a jigsaw for all of the classes to do….It went really good. We did it five different ways for five different classes" (IN, 1/99). In his journal, he reflected on the different needs of students, writing that his "honors classes did well with discussion and presentations, whereas my CP [college prep classes] needed more structure and a definite product that needed to be produced" (CA, 1/99).

Frank also accepted and implemented new instructional strategies from Mr. Sipps, which was often constructivist in nature. These strategies including sharing unit overviews with the students via PowerPoint and creating four part posters showing influences on the Enlightenment. Additional strategies were borrowed from the *History*

Alive Curriculum (IN, 1/99). When Frank described the *History Alive* instructional strategies, he was awed.

> One of the teachers in that department got a – she got that *History Alive* book and a lot of this stuff is coming out of that. They got a big manual…But—so a lot of the ideas – she has that sensory drawing where they draw the character, put all the characteristics on. Bunch of stuff. But Mr. Sipps had a class right before I came out there. They were doing like the renaissance. He had these groups completing packets. Each one had an artists scanned in pictures, described the artists. So he got these packets, they look professionally done. Got the actual pictures. This one girl had a sculpture of the two hands coming down and they couldn't find a picture of it but she had one at home. They brought it in, digitally scanned it in, had this real picture and she described it (IN, 1/99).

Frank wanted to copy as much of the manual as he could before leaving because he was so impressed with the strategies (IN, 1/99). Using a *History Alive* project, Frank and Mr. Sipps paired students to design pamphlets presenting various historical figures (e.g. Henry IV and Frederick the Great) as the best leader in Europe(IN, 1/99). The students were taken to the library, directed how to fold the paper and what information was to go on each of the six section, and then set loose to do research. In addition to library books, the students had computers with internet connections, scanners, and digital cameras at their disposal (FN, 1/99). Two days were spent in the library and then two more were spent in the computer lab (IN, 1/99).

Frank received frequent praise and attention from Mr. Sipps after each teaching episode (FN, 1/99). For example, Mr. Sipps provided formal assessments to Frank five times during the field experiences. All of them rated Frank with fours and fives, mainly fives, denoting excellence. Positive verbal comments were also included, such as: "Positive comments after student responses" and "evalation of word/art was *excellent*" (FA, 1/99 and 2/99). Additionally, Mr. Sipps stated within Frank's hearing range that

Frank was "doing a good job" and was "very communicative" (FN, 2/99). In fact, Frank called his cooperating teacher the night before each teaching episode to confirm his lessons and ideas (FN, 2/99). This praise from Mr. Sipps reinforced Frank's acceptance that these instructional strategies were the most effective ones to use.

Frank happily introduced Mr. Sipps to some of the strategies learned at the university. For example, a few days after it had been taught at the university, Frank used a written debate strategy to have his students argue both sides of capital punishment (FN, 2/99). After the students successfully used this method, Frank said, "Tell Dr. Wilson that I used this today!" (FN, 2/99).

Frank's willingness and ability to use a variety of strategies was also apparent in the ten-day unit assignment he completed for his social studies methods course. Lessons in the unit featured roundtables, jigsaw activities, textbook and non-textbook readings, journal entries, discussions, PowerPoint lectures, data retrieval charts, and research activities (CA, 3/99). The consistency between the field experience and methods class reinforced each other, resulting in Frank fully accepting the Instructional Theme's directive to use a variety of instructional strategies.

In his second field placement, Frank continued to use a variety of instructional strategies. For example, he used a section from *Reasoning with Democratic Values* (Lockwood and Harris, 1985), a required book in his social studies methods course. The students created a Decision-T to decide whether Peter Sills, an escaped slave, should or should not help with the abolitionist movement (FN, 5/99). However, Frank struggled with the African-American centered Humanities class he taught. Frank said it was tough

to teach because, as an elective, it had to be easy, no homework can be sent home, and it has to be entertaining (FN, 5/99).

Another part of his struggles was due to the significant differences between Manchester High and Mineo High. For example, Frank felt disappointed because he could not use the strategies from Mineo at Manchester High. Much of this was due to the disparity in resources between the two schools. This was seen in class as students spent 20 minutes of a class period reading an article. They had to read it in class because the teachers are given a limit of copies for the year (FN, 5/99). As Frank explained,

> I mean, you can't Xerox stuff off. You have paper and a certain number of copies allotted to you. So a lot of teachers, they have already used them up. ____ has used his up so a lot of times he has to write the assignment on the board and the kids have to copy down the question they're going to answer. That takes 10-15 minutes at the start of class, before getting anything done, just because he can't Xerox something off. So, stuff like that really bugs me over there. I mean, I would get mad (IN, 6/99).

Other resources, such as digital cameras, scanners, and computers were also lacking at Mineo.

Another reason for Frank's struggle at Manchester was his cooperating teacher, Mr. Belfield. Mr. Belfield taught in a very different fashion than Mr. Sipps, using teacher-centered instructional strategies.

> And uh, – he definitely came from a – uh—deductive mold. I mean, everything was deductive. There's no inductive, no cooperative learning. 'This is what you have to do, and get it done….' And uhh—so he didn't use as many of the different teaching styles, that was something different (IN, 6/99).

Added to the differences was the fact that Mr. Belfield did not team with Frank to design lesson plans and choose instructional strategies. Instead, Mr. Belfield told Frank what general information to cover and provided suggestions for materials. For instance, "with

this World History, he [Mr. Belfield] knew what he wanted to teach.…He went right

through the book. So, he'd be like, 'Well, this is what you have to teach' (IN, 6/99).

While directed as to what content to cover, Frank was given some autonomy

regarding the use of instructional strategies. For example, Frank used a strategy presented

in the social studies methods course.

> Like, I read a children's book over there.… I can't think of the name of it
> now. It's about Harriet Tubman and the underground railroad. It might
> have been called *The Underground Railroad*. And it was a children's
> book, uh… about how the underground railroad worked (IN, 6/99).

Therefore, despite the differences between his two field experiences, Frank successfully

used a variety of instructional strategies and believed he had reached the students he had

taught (IN, 6/99).

Planning. In comparison to other participants, Frank put in minimal time planning

for the microteaching sessions. For his first lesson plan, he used a packet of information

from *Newsweek* that he found in the teacher resource library. "It hadn't been checked out

since 1984," he shared, amazed that others had not used this gold mind of information

(IN, 10/98). When asked how long it took him to prepare his second microteaching lesson

plan, he replied,

> Not as long as the other one [which took] a while. Uh, I think it was
> because it was the very first time I ever did it. I wasn't sure what I was
> going through. I sat down at the lesson plan about a half an hour, then
> getting the stuff, like xerxoing it and getting everything ready for class
> probably took another hour or so. About an hour and a half total (IN,
> 11/98).

At this point in his education, Frank unrealistically believed that the reflective lesson

plans demanded by the CITE Instructional Theme could be quickly and easily written in

less than an hour and a half by a preservice teacher like himself.

During his first field experience, Frank's unrealistic view regarding planning was compounded in two ways. First, Mr. Sipps allowed Frank to teach without writing his own lesson plans.

> He told me on the phone before I went out there he's like, "I'm just going to throw you to the sharks." So the first day I was out there, I led a period. We were going over terms. So I just got up there and would say the term and I'd ask about it and they'd already read it earlier in the day, I laid out the terms. I knew most of the terms. And then I—it was like a question-teach. It was a good first experience (IN, 1/99).

This caused problems because Frank did not see the time Mr. Sipps had put in to doing the research, checking his school's standards, and creating the worksheets.

A second factor which clouded Frank's perception of lesson planning was the daily guidance and direction he received from Mr. Sipps.

> Like yesterday, me and Mr. Sipps sat down for about an hour and a half or so and planned out the next two weeks. We got an activity going and we're doing the Age of Absolutism now. And we're going to have them create a pamphlet. And each of them gets a figure from the Age of Absolutism. We're going to cover the Age of Absolutism in a couple of days and then they're going to get like Henry IV or Frederick the Great and they have to sell their man as the best leader in Europe at that time (IN, 1/99).

Frank was oblivious to the fact that Mr. Sipps' years of teaching experience expedited this quick unit planning. Instead, it reinforced his perception that good lessons and units could be quickly and easily designed.

These problems continued throughout the first field experience. For instance, Frank presented an interactive lecture using a PowerPoint presentation designed by Mr. Sipps. The lesson began by Frank providing an overview of the unit, all of which was visible on the accompanying PowerPoint presentation. He said, "These are the objectives for chapter 19 – French Revolution and Napoleon. The unit will last tw weeks. Today is

the first objective. A word/art evaluation of events. Then creative French Revolution timeline" (FN, 2/99). In his journal, Frank wrote, "I really enjoyed using the PowerPoint format….[The students] responded very well and I think I will continue to use this format" (RE, 2/99). He made no mention that the lesson had been fully designed by Mr. Sipps.

Frank also failed to notice that at all times Mr. Sipps supervised, simplified content, clarified directions, and generally kept the classroom managed by his very presence, which fortified Frank's instruction. For example, in one class, Frank gave directions for creating a four-part poster of the Enlightenment. Afterwards, Mr. Sipps checked the students' understanding by asking a student to stand up to explain the directions to the class (FN, 2/99). Hence, even when Frank's plans did not include understandable content, clear directions, or anticipated difficulties, theclass ran smoothly. Frank also was unaware of Mr. Sipps' influence on the curriculum and on planning. Asked how lesson planning had gone, Frank answered,

> I found it easier [than during microteaching]. 'Cause there was more structure 'cause I knew what I had to deal with….When you got a curriculum and you jump into a system, you know, "I have to teach about the Enlightenment. I have to teach this and that about the Enlightenment." So it gives you a base to start from instead of just – I mean, it should be easier to just pick something out of the air, but you don't know what to include with it (IN, 3/99).

Frank counted on Mr. Sipps to decide the specifics of what to teach and how long to spend on each topic. He had not needed to reflect on this dilemma himself nor had he recognized that the teacher monitored the pace of the curriculum.

To Frank, standing in front of the room and interacting with the students equaled the full teaching experience. The planning was not necessarily an essential factor. Frank explained,

> Some days where-even days when I didn't prepare a lesson, I'd come in and he'd show me his lesson. He'd be like, "Do you want to do it?" I'd be like, "Yeah, okay." So I wouldn't know how much [information and time] we had. Some days, when we had a bunch of stuff, it'd be like, "Oh man, I'm not going to get anything done!" Like we'd – our PowerPoint lectures. Most of the time, we'd get through like three or four slides….(IN, 3/99).

Likewise, when asked what the best part about teaching was, he responded,

> Just getting up in front of the kids was probably my favorite part I liked. We did everything – we did grading, we did writing up tests, we did writing up assignments. The best part's definitely getting up there and acting like a fool. Having a good time (IN, 3/99).

Missing from the list of "doing everything" was planning lessons. He believed that if he was funny and the students liked him, his class would run smoothly.

Frank continued to prefer structured curriculum during his second field experience. He believed that planning was easier and less time consuming for a class with a textbook, which he viewed as having a "set curriculum" (IN, 6/99).

> For his World History class, it's got a set curriculum…. I mean, you know what you have to cover, and there's only so many different ways you can cover it. So…with this World History, he knew what he wanted to teach. It was just finding a way of how to teach it… He went right through the book. So, he'd be like, "Well, this is what you have to teach." I'd be like, "Yeah…" (In, 6/99)

However, it was the humanities/African-American History class that Frank usually taught. His perception was that this class was much less structured in its curriculum. Planning for it, therefore, was more difficult and time-consuming (IN, 6/99). He explained, "It kind of takes more time [to plan] because I've got free-range, I can do whatever I want…. Stuff like that takes a little time because I have to read through, get

124

the questions I wanted to ask" (IN, 6/99). The implication of this statement is that he did

not have to put in the same time planning for textbook driven classes. His comment also

may lead one to believe that Frank was trying to keep up with writing daily lesson plans.

This was not the case: He taught twice a week at most. (IN, 6/99). His anxiety about

planning daily lessons ran all the way until the end of his second field experience:

> I think we've learned how to do the interesting lessons pretty good but I'm
> not sure how well I am at just doing a lesson plan – I mean, and I don't
> know. I just – It will definitely take practice just to go in there…. Just, you
> know, the lesson everyday. I mean, you've got the little thing lined up for
> the entire week and— and— I teach maybe twice a week, so I got plenty
> of time to think about what I'm doing. He's got to… whole planning units
> and stuff. So, <pause> I feel confident for next year. It should be a good
> time (IN, 6/99).

Frank was sure that despite areas "that I'm not real strong at right now," his team at

Manchester would support him. "It's like we got this core group where we kick around

ideas. It's not like we're going into it blindfolded. I mean, I feel confident but I'd be

really scared if I was just going out there all alone right now" (IN, 6/99). He believed that

the team would provide structure, guidance, and clues into planning like Mr. Sipps had

done during his first field placement.

   Management. During microteaching sessions, classroom management is not often

a consideration. As one teaches, his/her peers act as model students. Management

strategies are often not even discussed in the debriefing. However, when Frank reflected

about his first microteaching session, he felt that he had failed in creating a positive

climate needed for classroom management, even one that only existed for 10 minutes.

> Like, I look at myself today and I see myself kind of rushing. Like [a
> student] was giving an answer to the last question on the—the directed
> practice and I was like instead of "Yeah! That was really good!" I was like
> doing other stuff. Getting other stuff ready to go 'cause – I should've been

like "Way to go! That was excellent!" I would like to talk to them, get more out of them, not rush around (IN, 11/98).

Furthermore, he wrote in a reflective essay,

> One of the most important characteristics an effective teacher must have is a positive classroom learning environment. In this environment, the affective feelings or tone in the room is healthy and supportive of learning (Kauchak and Eggen, p. 107). When a classroom climate is good, students are anxious to come to class and are comfortable and able to learn. In a negative classroom environment, students are apprehensive in class and doubtful about learning anything of value (RE, 11/98)

This early reflection shows a deep seated desire to use proactive, positive instructional strategies aimed at getting the most out of students using positive means.

Frank liked Mr. Sipps' style of management, which was humanist in nature. This may be partially why Frank claimed that they were "the same mold" (IN, 1/99). Both of them often dealt with students by using humor, rather than threats and yelling. Frank illustrated, "I went in there and he's like, 'This is Mr. Bradford. Treat Mr. Bradford as you treat me. Anything less is unsatisfactory. I'll be in the back of the room wielding my battle-ax waiting for discipline'" (IN, 1/99). Because this style was so effective and so easily meshed with this own philosophy, Frank tried to imitate Mr. Sipps' actions. Discussed Mr. Sipps' management style, Frank said,

> There's no classroom discipline problems in his room….Like we sat there talking and someone will be screwing off or doing a bad job and he'll be like, "You're American! You should be proud to be an American. You need – Don't you have any pride in yourself?" He'll get down and pump these kids up and is all gung-ho. It's really cool how he gets them. (IN, 1/99)

Later, Frank discussed his own management strategy for dealing with students talking at inappropriate times.

> Well, the biggest problems are when I'm dealing with tests because, uh, I drew up a test for chapter 16 and they took it. But as soon as they get done

with the test, kids start talking. So, uh, so they're talking and I try to deal with them – "C'mon guys, there's still tests out." And they were quiet for a couple minutes. Then they began talking again. Finally, I got mad and was like, "Do you have *any* respect for your other classmates? They're taking a test. They were quiet when *you* were taking your test." And they shut up for the rest of the bell. They were like…But uh, they listened to me (IN, 1/99)

Overall, Frank handled classroom management quietly and without much fuss. He talked and joked comfortably with is students. During one lesson, the following was observed:

> Frank smiles as he works with students. He helps students find resources and then wanders/looking over students, talking with them, seeing what they found, etc. by the tables He leans on the table when talking to seated students, laughs as they make jokes. As he walks a female student to the computer, he asks questions like, "Did you already find a picture?" There is no awkwardness in his dealing with students. (FN, 1/99).

He developed a good rapport that he used as a means of keeping the class on task.

As he progressed through this first field experience, Frank sometimes had difficulty in maintaining a professional teacher-student distance. For example, in class one day as students worked on a project. Frank walked around, allegedly to keep students on task. In a joking manner he asked one student, whose hair was crayola red in color, why his hair was red today when it had been orange previously. In this way, Frank failed to see that he was actually getting the students *off*-task rather than keeping than on-task. (FN, 2/99).

Despite its inappropriateness, Frank's intention in using this approach and other similar actions was to promote a positive climate. His concern that people's self-worth remained protected was fully aligned with the CITE Theme. For example, in one class, he asked the students to "Define a moderate, radical, liberal?" One student gave a wrong definition for liberal, proving instead the definition of conservative. Without missing a beat, Frank said, "He skipped ahead to conservative. So, tell us again, what is

conservative?" In this way, Frank allowed the student to save face and also share information with the class (FN, 2/99).

By the end of the first field experience, Frank began to recognize the fine line between being friendly with the students and being their friend. He credited Mr. Sipps with helping him learn this.

> Some of the ways that I talk to students. Like uh, I'm more on the, their level. Still. And he's like, "Uh, you really can't treat them like that. You've got to – you can't get all buddy-buddy with them." And a lot of time I'd try to sit down and – One time, there was a guy who always wore Ohio State stuff. I'm from Columbus. And I don't like Ohio State and I was like, "Oh, I see you like Ohio State." He's like, "Yeah. I love Ohio State, I hate Cincinnati." I was like, "Oh. You must like to be second best in the country a lot." And he's like, "No!" And I was like, "The only bowl Ohio State ever goes to is the Sugar Bowl." And so I called him "Sugar" for the rest of the class. He wasn't getting bothered by it, but Mr. Sipps told me – pulled me aside – some kids might get upset. You got to watch stuff like that. (IN, 3/99)

Admiring Mr. Sipps as he did, Frank accepted this advice willingly and subsequently acted upon it. By the end of this field experience, Frank had developed a much more professional, although still friendly, management style. It continued to be humanist in nature and aligned with the CITE Themes.

Entering his second field experience meant entering a different realm of classroom management to Frank. First, as previously mentioned, Frank perceived Mr. Belfield as having a much more custodial management philosophy (IN, 6/99). Despite a seemingly tougher management style, Frank's remarked that Mr. Belfield did not have full control over the students. He said that Mr. Belfield "keeps them [the students] on track as long as he could" (IN, 6/99). . Second, Frank felt that he could not use students' grades to get them to behave. Whereas Mineo High School students "take a B home

crying, telling mom, 'Sorry!' These kids are like, 'I might not get an F this quarter,' over at Manchester" (IN, 6/99).

Nonetheless, Frank liked his students at Manchester and felt that a rapport had developed with them. "It was different but the kids were great. I liked them a lot…. I mean, these kids are cool. And, all throughout high school, I think that everybody looks the same. I mean, everybody looks like a 9th or 10th grader" (IN, 6/99). He tried to use rapport and students' interests to draw them into lessons and keep them on task. For example, during a lesson about Peter Sills he did a good job of drawing out answers from the students by half-joking with them. He also rephrased and incorporated students' words in order to help probe them for additional answers (FN, 5/99). Nonetheless, he recognized that while he taught his lessons, Mr. Belfield managed the classroom.

> There's a lot of stuff we haven't done yet, like the whole classroom management and stuff you can't do until you are the teacher. And, uhh…I think that once you start doing that then you're completely the teacher. Like, uhh…You're just making up seat assignments, getting to know all your students real well, and, uh… like doing attendance every day, calling parents, I haven't done any of that stuff. And, I think that's a huge part of being a teacher…. But, you got to do it (IN, 6/99).

Thus, Frank recognized that implementing lessons was only part of the job; managing the students in the classroom was another integral piece in being a teacher.

Case 5: Shelley

Shelley's extreme self-confidence in her ability to teach gave her dark rose-colored glasses. Despite any feedback she received about her planning, instructional strategies, or management techniques, Shelley always believed she had done well and was a natural teacher (IN, 10/98). Further, when confronted with negative feedback,

Shelley always dismissed it and had an excuse to explain why it had happened. Seldom, if ever, did she acknowledge the fault was due her own shortcomings.

Prior to her first field experience, Shelley believed her own experiences as a high school and college student had provided her enough insight to know what was necessary to teach effectively (IN, 1/99). Even though she left the program at the end of her professional year, she still saw herself as a strong teacher, rating herself an 8 on a 10-point scale (IN, 5/99). Shelley mainly prided herself on her ability to manage a classroom, being able to "read people," and to motivate students using a variety of instructional methods (IN, 5/99).

Planning. For her first microteaching session, Shelley wanted to teach about the historical Salem witch hunts in comparison with later "witch hunts," such as Joseph McCarthy's hunt for communists and Adolph Hitler's hunt for undesirables (FN, 10/98). When asked how she came up with this topic, she replied that she had looked in her history books. "I figured I could copy something" from one of them to use as a prompt (IN, 10/98). Additionally, she said she was looking something easy and something in which she was interested. "What did I like? I liked Hitler and the communist scare" (IN, 10/98).

During the microteaching session, Shelley asked planned questions at varying levels of Bloom's Taxonomy as required, but the context of the lesson made them confusing. The students requested clarification on almost every question she asked (FN, 10/98). When asked later about any concerns she had regarding planning, the only one Shelley identified was whether she could use certain photos, such as ones containing nudity or fornication, if she taught in a public high school (IN, 10/98). She said that she

had cropped some of the photos of witches so that they would be "safe" to use (IN, 10/98).

For her second microteaching episode, Shelley was determined to teach how to write a thesis statement with supporting evidence. Shelley claimed that the second microteaching lesson was more difficult to plan.

> With the first one, it was, uh, it was more concise. I had specific questions to follow and a specific – they already had their reading and all I had to go through was one reading. And that's where all the questions were coming from. So therefore, all they had to do was concentrate on this one topic. Now with the skills, as I was saying, it seemed as though this would have taken the whole class period. I would have expected this to take a whole 50 minute. If I were actually teaching it in a class 'cause I want to make sure they have a thorough understanding of how you would read a text and take it from maybe—take a text and create a thesis statement out of it. However, since I *had* to use *multiple* examples, it was – okay. (IN, 11/98)

Even with the multiple examples, Shelley claimed to have spent identical time planning for each type of lesson, specifically four hours on two separate evenings (IN, 11/98). On her second lesson plan, she earned a low B due to missing information and low quality overall (CA, 11/98). She dismissed the professor's copious notes and suggestions

> Because of what—as far as what I wanted to teach in microteaching even though it's not what Dr. Wilson wanted me to do. He didn't really agree with my, my lesson plans very much. He thought a lot of the things were too weak or they wouldn't teach it….But Dr. Wilson – by him blowing apart my lesson plan, made me feel really shaky on like, I know I could go into a class and teach it, but if I were going into a class and teaching *him*. He'd be like, you can't do this, you can't do that. (IN, 1/99)

Shelley was so confident about the high quality of her lesson plan, despite Dr. Wilson's feedback, that she showed that lesson plan to her cooperating teacher on her first day at Bacon High. She reported, "I told him that I was cut down on it pretty bad…He's like, 'Oh, we can look at it. I can figure out if this will actually be feasible, but I'd love for my

students to learn how to write a thesis statement'" (IN, 1/99). This reinforced her beliefs in her own judgments and the inappropriateness of Dr. Wilson's.

At the beginning of her first field experience, Shelley felt confident in her ability to plan and to teach. "But as far as the lesson plans and stuff, I still feel like I can go in and teach it. I still over plan what I want to do because, even in the microteaching, I wasn't planning for 10 minutes…. I mean, I could probably teach an hour on whatever it was" (IN, 1/99). In contrast to this claim, in the three teaching episodes I observed, time always remained afterwards with nothing planned for the students to do (FN, 1/99-3/99).

Despite this incongruity between her claim and her practice in class, Shelley's lessons showed that she was capable of writing and implementing lesson plans. For example, in one lesson, her plan included use of a laser disc to show pictures of weapons, passing out a re-written World War I infantryman's journal entry on which she highlighted the "important" information, and using the maps in the back of the textbook (FN, 1/99). She even noted the estimated time each part would take her (LP, 1/99). She progressed through all of these section and still had four minutes remaining from the 35 minute class. Interestingly, Shelley claimed that the lesson did not take her too long to create, whispering that it took "just a little work here and there" (FN, 1/99). However, in a separate discussion, Mr. Payne revealed that he and Shelley had co-written the lesson (FN, 1/99). Shelley failed to acknowledge Mr. Payne's involvement.

In another lesson, Shelley presented information about the death of disabled persons during the Holocaust verbally and through a handout. After having students write what they had learned, 10 minutes still remained in the class. When comparing Hitler's murders to capital punishment in the United States, Shelley asked the students to write a

one page account explaining the similarity of the two situations (FN, 3/99). After class, I tried to explain to Shelley why comparing the murder of 100,000 people due to disabilities and the murder of one after lengthy trials was problematic. After recognizing the problem, she claimed that she came up with the writing assignment because an intern informed her that the students needed to earn more points for this unit. When pressed about why it was this essay she chose, she changed her story, claiming that she had no time to come up with a plan because she had to pick someone up at the airport late the night before. Interestingly, the only plan that she turned in to be graded from this field experience for her social studies methods class was a lesson she did not teach (LP, 3/99). As these examples reveal, that while Shelley was capable of planning, but her planning remained inconsistent.

In her second field experience, Shelley did not have to create lesson plans for any university class, but she tried to be prepared to teach. As in the first field experience, her planning was not always thorough. For example, in one class, Shelley wanted the students to explore the idea that history is changeable. She began with excerpts, texts, and pictures from *The Motel of Mysteries*, which told of archaeologists far in the future finding a motel room and how they interpreted their findings. This work had been modeled in the social studies methods course. She distributed an article from *Time* magazine that explained how Native Americans have been in the Americas much longer than expected. After this, Shelley gave a five-question questionnaire, aimed at getting students to recognize their own preconceptions (FN, 3/99). While all three of these had been modeled in the education classes, Shelley was obviously not prepared to use them. For example, she made up a story to go along with the pictures instead of getting a copy

133

of *Motel of Mysteries*. Unfortunately, her story made no sense and one of her students grumbled that the archaeologist must be really stupid (FN, 5/99). After this lesson, Shelley recognized that her lesson had not gone so well due to her planning.

> It was one of those things with my lesson plans. And, I still have a big problem with writing my lesson plans out. My thing is that, I know what I'm going to do. First bell is my experimental bell. What do I think is going to first? "Hey, that didn't go over so well, that went over okay." What do I think I can change? How can I, you know, switch around my plans a little bit to get them more interested? (IN, 5/99)

She expressed no remorse in cheating her first bell students of a sound, planned, learning experience. She continued to explain that the lesson went smoothly during third bell after she implemented changes in the order of the activities and altered the content slightly. She neglected to mention that these changes were exactly what Mr. Poole and I had suggested (FN, 5/99). Thus, even at the end of her professional year, Shelley's planning remained inconsistent, even while her confidence in her teaching abilities remained high.

Variety of strategies. In her first microteaching session, Shelley was more concerned with getting the content to the students than following the questioning sequence method assigned (FN, 10/98). For example, instead of starting with knowledge level questions and building on students' responses, Shelley continually asked a question, re-stated the question as a rhetorical or knowledge level question, and then allowed the students to answer. Her questioning sequence began, "Can anyone tell me what a witch is? Like, what is their idea of a witch?" When no one answered immediately, Shelley added, "Do they harm people?" In another part of the lesson, Shelley answered her own questions. "Do these witch hunts appear to be stereotypical scare tactics? When students nodded, Shelley continued, "Yeah, okay, they do. So how might these scare tactics work? Like peer pressure – and what else?"

On a scale whose ratings were "exemplary, competent, marginal, unacceptable," the majority of Shelley's microteaching episode was assessed as competent, with a few marginal ratings (FA, 10/98). She said, however, that she was "pretty happy overall" with her first lesson, partially because the person videotaping her commented that she seemed comfortable in the front of the room (IN, 10/98). Oblivious to the problems in questioning methods, the only change Shelley would have made to the session was that her overheads had not printed as well as she hoped (IN, 10/98).

For her second microteaching session, Shelley originally wanted to use "schematic activation," complaining when Dr. Wilson assigned a modeling strategy instead (IN, 10/98). Despite the clear directions, rubric, and examples provided in class, Shelley struggled in using this instructional strategy. For example, she "orally identified the steps involved" in writing a thesis instead of "clearly and effectively identified in writing or graphic form the steps involved" (FA, 11/98). Likewise, she "gave little help to students having difficulty with the skill" and "made too few moves to check for understanding" (FA, 11/98). As in her first microteaching session, Shelley's main concern appeared to be her role in covering the material rather than using specific instructional strategies.

At her first field experience, Shelley's cooperating teacher allowed her great autonomy, telling her, "Be creative. Think of what you'd like to do" (IN, 1/99). She was excited about this and proceeded to use many of the instructional strategies taught in university classes. For example, she began one class with the writing prompt "When I think of World War I, I think of…" (FN, 2/99). She continued the class having the students read paragraphs from their book and a handout, after which she asked questions,

similar to her first microteaching session (FN, 2/99). However, like her first microteaching session, the questions remained low-level questions and she often answered them herself. When confronted about this, she said defensively that she was afraid she would run out of time otherwise (FN, 2/99). As her formal assessment indicates, her questions frequently lack a pattern or purpose and she "ignores/gives incomplete or ineffective responses to students questions" (FA, 2/98).

In another lesson, Shelley grouped students to "discuss the answers in your group to figure out how much you actually know about totalitarianism" without the use of their books. However, four minutes later, she told them "You don't need to be talking. Let's get through this quickly." (FN, 2/99). She subsequently improved the effectiveness of her questioning sequence guiding students from low level questions to higher-level ones. For example, she asked these questions in a sequence: "Name a leader who rose to power. Why is he significant? How did the Versailles Treaty contribute to his rise? Is this good? Why? So what are some reasons for dictators to take over?" When students were unable to answer a question, Shelley directed to them to specific pages in their book or hand-out. Unfortunately, *after* the reading, Shelley answered her own question rather than re-directing it back to the students. (FA, 2/99) She also used overhead transparencies, primary resource readings and photographs, and a variety of writing assignments, although they were not always appropriate or well-related to the topic (IN, 3/99). Thus, although she knew a variety of instructional strategies are, she had a difficult time implementing them effectively.

At her second field experience, Shelley continued to incorporate instructional strategies learned in university classes. For example, when the bell rang, she asked the

students to answer five questions, which included "Who were the first Americans? Where were they from? Will history ever change?" She then asked the students to get into pre-arranged groups to do a rally table regarding "What do you think of with 'Americans?'" (FN, 5/99) The students each wrote an answer and then passed it to the next person. After 90-seconds had passed, the students shared their answers and Shelley wrote them on the board. She then moved onto the next activity with no further comments about their answers (FN, 5/99). She also used an article as a prompt. After the students read it, she asked questions about the article. Despite Shelley's attempt to use equitable distribution, most students chose not to participate. The article appeared too difficult for many of the students to comprehend on their own. After five minutes of fruitless questioning, Shelley summarized the article.

At the end of her field experience, Shelley expressed regret that she had not been allowed to use the instructional strategies she desired. "First bell, I can't motivate them to do anything but sit and read and answer questions. That's all they want to do…. They're ingrained by that time, if I'm not their teacher all year round, that Monday and Tuesday I come and read articles or read whatever and answers questions off a worksheet" (IN, 5/99). She laughingly added that Mr. Poole was "a ditto freak" (IN, 5/99). Additionally, when Mr. Poole asked her to use a method she was not comfortable with, she disparaged his teaching. For instance, Mr. Poole asked her to teach the students to analyze political cartoons because it is a skill tested on the common exam.

> But I asked him [what do you want], but he's like, "You know, just bring in a variety." And, if it would have been my choice, I would have picked a topic. Like Bosnia. I would have picked a topic of like school shootings. And that was my problem with him…. So I picked a number of current events political cartoons I found in the newspapers and we like analyzed it. And I said to myself when he told me to do it, "And that's the reason

when you do your articles, I have no clue what you're doing for that day either" (IN, 5/99).

She also mocked his use of group/cooperative learning, saying, "[Mr. Poole] follows the thing where you change them [groups] after so many weeks and this time he changed them and put too many of the kids who like to talk to one another together and it was one of those, 'I'm just trying to be nice to them this last quarter'" (IN, 5/99). She then questioned whether she would even use group/cooperative learning in her class. Once again, she blamed her lack of successful implementation of a variety of instructional strategies on an external cause.

Management. During her microteaching sessions, Shelley did not focus on using management strategies aligned with the CITE goals. For example, she encouraged students to call out answers rather than to wait to be called on. When asked about this process, she said, "As long as they answered my questions, good" (IN, 10/98). Later, while watching her microteaching video, she changed her mind, saying that she needed to call on students to promote wait-time (one of the criterion on the rubric) (IN, 10/98). In her second microteaching session, she told the students that "There are no wrong answers as long as you can support your thesis statement" (FN, 11/98). She explained that she had done this in hopes of "creating a very safe environment for students that aren't sure of themselves" (FN, 11/98). Additionally, the resource for the independent practice section of her session came from an LSAT source. She introduced the source because she thought that, as imaginary tenth graders, it would "give them a little confidence like, 'Wow! We're doing things that *lawyers* do'"(FN, 11/98). In these ways, she tried to develop a classroom environment which not only protected the self-worth of all parties,

138

but improved it. However, she allowed call-outs and did not successfully use assigned techniques such as equitable distribution (FN, 11/98).

Shelley had not taken a management class when she began her first field experience. As she described it, "No, I haven't taken a class yet where they've told me how to tell kids politely to sit down and shut up" (IN, 1/99). She felt prepared, however, because of her prior experience as a lifeguard. She recognized the difference between the two situations, saying, "But then I had a whistle and could just yell at them and tell them what to do. I realize in a classroom it's kind of – today, it was a lot of – it was really antsy and hyper and lots of 'Shh, we've got to be quiet'" (IN, 1/99). Nonetheless, she appeared relieved by her cooperating teacher's remarks that the students "don't talk back to the teacher. They're not going to be offensive or malicious, you know. They're going to sit down. They might talk in class" (IN, 1/99).

Similar to her microteaching sessions, Shelley's main goal appeared to be to cover the content. Because of this focus, at times she was unaware of the classroom environment and unable to end off-task behaviors. For example, in one class, the great majority of answers were accepted from the left side of the room. On the right side, one boy slept for almost the entire class. Also, during a writing assignment, students on the right side of the room, chatted and a girl put on lotion; students on the left side remained on-task (FN, 2/99). In another class, students in pre-arranged groups chatted for over two minutes before directions were provided. The ten-question exercise was initially meant to review the students' knowledge about totalitarian governments, allowing students to share their knowledge in groups. Shelley then changed her mind, telling them that "no talking was necessary" (FN, 2/99). After the fifth question, a student asked, "What if you

139

don't know the answer?" to which Shelley replied, "If you don't know it, don't worry about it" (FN, 2/99). By the tenth question, the students are chatting and off-task. Shelley re-gained their attention as they went through the answers to the questions. Although she asked for students to raise their hands, most of the answers are call-outs, and at least one-third of the students continued to chat (FN, 2/99).

Later in class, one student threw another's backpack across the room. The only reason Shelley noticed was that a third student called out, "Don't! You'll hit Miss Warner!" Shelley gave the throwing student a dirty look and continued with class (FN, 2/99). Interestingly, she blamed the off-task behaviors on the fact that Mr. Payne was calling students out of class to conference with them. However, after altering her methods in a subsequent bell in accordance with recommendations I made to her, she claimed that the class had run much more smoothly, even though Mr. Payne continued to call out students (FN, 2/99).

In addition to not using proactive management techniques, Shelley also did not always protect students' self-worth. For example, she asked questions in a manner threatening to students. A questioning sequence used, almost without pause between questions, was "Are you ready for Friday's test? No? Then what questions do you have? Who doesn't feel confident, raise your hands? Okay, you: why not?" The student Shelley called on shrank in her seat, merely shrugging her shoulders. All other hands went down also (FN, 2/99). In a discussion after class, Shelley claimed to know that she was "doing it in a way that's bad," but continued anyway (FN, 2/99). In a discussion about the Holocaust, a student Daniel commented, that over half his family was murdered in the Holocaust. A girl on the other side of the room laughingly said, "Daniel would have to

wear a yellow star." Daniel looked uncomfortable, but Shelley made no comments at all (FN, 3/99).

At the end of her field experience, Shelley said at times she was left alone in the classroom, which gave her "an idea of what it's going to be like when I'm actually running the class without a teacher" (IN, 3/99). While she felt she learned a lot, she said that classroom management was mainly common sense, based on experience. For example, she said she learned

> how to write things down quickly and turn your back around so that you don't have your back to the students. It's common sense. I know how I was in high school. I mean, I still – even with [another student] in the methods course today, we throw paper at each other when Dr. Wilson's back is turned. And that started last quarter. But I mean, we're in our 20s and we still throw paper at each other when he has his back turned. God only knows what they're doing if I have my back turned for more than a second. You know, so to me that's just common sense. But that's 'cause I knew what I was like in high school. And I think I take a lot of that when I teach (IN, 3/99).

Additionally, she was proud of her management strategies, which she credited for creating a more positive classroom climate. For example, she felt that walking back and forth up the aisle between the desks promoted students' attention to their work. She believed she used equitable distribution because she "started purposely picking out people who were trying to fall asleep" (IN, 3/99). Based on her management techniques, she felt the students "could start respecting one another. Listening to one another and letting someone finish their sentence before they broke in or whatever" (IN, 3/99).

Shelley also believed that she protected students' self-worth in class. For example, because "the other students felt stupid," she would "purposely not call" on "the really smart kids [who] were very arrogant and knew they were smart" (IN, 3/99). She felt she was relaying the message to the rest of the class that "It's not that you guys aren't

141

naturally smart…. You're as smart as everyone else" (IN, 3/99). She also believed that by

using open ended questions, such as "what do you know about the Holocaust," students

were able to both recognize their own abilities and boost their knowledge (IN, 3/99).

Shelley was confident in her classroom management abilities as she entered her

second field placement. She laughed, "Yeah, and I'm really looking forward to the second

one too. For the past 10 weeks, I've been teaching in a school with classes no larger than

22 students. I'm interested, okay. I can hold down 22, can I hold down 42?" (IN, 3/99). In

truth, she did not need to "hold down" large classes at all. A great many of the students

dropped out earlier in the year (FN, 5/99). However, even with only seven students in

class, Shelley did not always use appropriate management techniques. On the day that

Shelley used *Motel of Mysteries* (see p. 133 for full description of lesson), a boy pointed

out how stupid the archaeologists must be and that they were too big to get sucked down

the toilet, as Shelley's story indicated. Instead of agreeing with his logic, she argued with

him for almost three minutes before telling him to just let her go on with the lesson (FN,

5/99). Her frustration with the student was obvious as her arms tightened over chest and

her voice rose and tightened (FN, 5/99).In contrast to these actions, Shelley claimed that

the role of a teacher was to be

> sensitive to who to who the student is. You know, that even though the
> student comes in acting lazy doesn't think that they're smart, doesn't think
> that they can do it, that your role is to be the motivator, your role is to …
> boost the confidence. And not to dumb down the curriculum but to prove
> that they can raise themselves (IN, 5/99)

Thus Shelley's actions and espoused beliefs did not match. It also appeared that she did

not recognize the disparity between them.

Toward the end of her field placement, Shelley claimed her greatest management issues were getting students to do any work and keeping them on task.

> And so I was working with a variety of student who were incredibly unmotivated. I was faced with the management problem of "I'm already failing, why do I need to do the work?" You know, it's kinda like, "Hmm...Good question." Good question! It's the end of the year, it's the end of the quarter, what do you say to a student that said something like that to you and is kinda...and I want to sit there and say, "Fine, you're taking up space in my class, you're breathing my air," but I thought "No, that's the wrong response" <laughs> (IN, 5/99).

Despite this immense challenge, she believed that she was more successful in the motivating the students than her cooperating teacher. "Students still look at me like I look young and that I should be cool. And the nice thing is that I can relate to them much more. I can relate to their attitude very easily" (IN, 5/99). When asked for an example how this relationship affected classroom management, she shared,

> It was one of those things that would actually put them down, but I would twist their own words around when they go, "Oh! You know, Ms. Warner just took you down" or "Ripped you up." Just one of those things where I never said anything bad...The fact that I could relate and take on an attitude...not an attitude like them, but an attitude that related to them, they really felt comfortable with that. Umm... At times, they get a little rowdy and they're a little too excited and I'm like, "Ok, guys, look what's going on. Calm down" (IN, 5/99).

Shelley also believed that by using the most popular students in the room, not as models but as co-disciplinarians, she encouraged students to stay more on-task. "I found the one girl that everybody listens to. She's the most popular in her class. If I couldn't get them to quiet down, I'd point to her and say, 'Could you please tell everybody to be quiet for me? And they'd listen to her" (IN, 5/99). She was very proud of this technique, claiming that she had learned about the power of peer pressure to manage a class in a classroom effectiveness course (IN, 5/99).

In comparing the management styles of her two cooperating teachers, Shelley claimed to prefer Mr. Payne's. She reflected positively on her first cooperative teacher's philosophy, explaining,

> He would be like, "If you're going to teach from a book, make sure they pull out their notebook, their textbook, and their pencils so they have that all out. I don't care if they need to borrow paper from somebody. It's the first thing they do when the come to class…." His students knew to respect his class…This was a positive thing….Because they came to class, and if they weren't prepared they knew what to expect. You didn't have your book, then you had to share with someone else. But you came in, you did this, you sat down right away, you didn't wander around, you sat down. If you needed to sharpen your pencil, you did that. As soon as you came in, you sharpened your pencil, and you… no matter what, you were in your seat (IN, 5/99).

In comparison, Shelley felt that Mr. Poole's lack of routines was to blame for all the management concerns in his class.

> His major negativity against him was that they came in, they were talking, sometimes they sat down, most of the time they were in their seats by the time the warning bell came. I closed the door and they were in their seats at least. Not necessarily focus on starting class, some of them might be in seats that weren't theirs. They never have any paper. Some would never have any pencils. They would come up to the front, "Can I borrow a pen?" It was kinda like, "Ok, what else do you want?" They were never prepared to start class. Part of the problem is that Mr. Poole never had them that organized (IN, 5/99).

In her own classroom, Shelley said that the students will know her expectations for them. "'Every single day you come in you need to have your book, your notebook, your pencil, you need to be sat down.' And, they'll practice that every single day they come into my class…it'll be one of the rules and regulations that they have in my classroom" (IN, 5/99).

Despite espoused beliefs which often aligned with the CITE goals, the management strategies Shelley implemented seldom depended on routine, encouraged

on-task behavior, or protected student's self-worth. Instead of using proactive management techniques, she depended on her youth and "coolness," student leadership, and her cooperating teachers to keep the classroom progressing as smoothly as it did. In the end, she did not recognize that she had done anything less than a fabulous job in managing a classroom.

<div align="center">*Learning*</div>

The CITE Learning Theme is based on a constructivist philosophy. The four main components are described by Kauchak and Eggan (1998): "Learners construct their own understanding rather than having it delivered or transmitted to them. New learning depends on prior understanding. Learning is enhanced by social interaction. Authentic learning tasks promote meaningful learning" (p. 9). The directions for the first microteaching session insured, by their very nature, that the lesson would be constructivist. The preservice teacher had to use a questioning sequence and a physical prompt to teach about a subject.

The second microteaching session was different. Preservice teachers had to teach a skill using a direct instruction model. It consisted of several steps: Modeling, guided practice and independent practice. In this way, the program provided preservice teachers with both student-centered and teacher-centered experiences.

Case 1: Theresa

In the beginning of her professional year, Theresa admitted to having a difficult time using constructivist methods because she was afraid that she would lose control of the students and the class. While she always felt more in control of the class when she lectured, she did promote student construction of knowledge through group projects,

<div align="center">145</div>

think-pair-share activities and questioning sequences. By the end of her first field experience, she claimed to want to have "a good mix" of methods, including more that were student centered/constructivist in nature. As the quarters progressed during her professional year, Theresa's beliefs and actions became more aligned with the constructivist philosophy encouraged by the CITE Learning theme

Constructivist learning. For her first microteaching session, Theresa facilitated the learning of the specific learning objectives through questioning rather than just providing the information directly. After having the students read the Preamble to the Constitution, she asked questions about the document, addressing various levels of Bloom's Taxonomy. She also had the students pair up, assigning each pair to rewrite a specific provision (e.g., to ensure domestic tranquility) in The Preamble in more simplified terms. Theresa accepted students' answers in each of these cases to further the learning for the entire class. In this manner, she accomplished her objectives. Although she did not incorporate students' answers or use wait time as much as she could have, the entire lesson was based on students' responses and therefore constructed by the students. It is also important to note that as she taught, Theresa continually used "we" to describe who was doing the learning and teaching. For example, she said, "As we learned yesterday…" and "So what we learned today was…", indicating that everyone in the classroom was part of the learning process.

In the second microteaching session, Theresa taught how to create a timeline. She first showed a timeline of her life as a model with events such as "born," "learned to walk," "entered kindergarten" and other events common to most people. She then told the students that the class would create a timeline for Cinderella. As in the first

microteaching session, she used "we" to describe who would be working on this. The students first generated a list of events in Cinderella's life, such as the fairy godmother showing up, losing her slipper and her father dying. When one student gave an event from Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs instead of from Cinderella, Theresa gently corrected him, saying, "Are we thinking of the same story? I think that is from Snow White" and briefly recounted the story of Cinderella (OB, 10/98). She then chose seven of the events and the class decided on the order. After completing this timeline, students completed their own timelines as Theresa walked around supervising. Although a teacher-centered lesson due to the nature of modeling, Theresa used student input as much as possible and tried to make it relate to students' prior experiences as much as possible.

During her first field experience, Theresa wanted to be in control of the class, but also wanted the students to be involved. Not fully believing that these two factors could occur concurrently in a student-centered classroom, Theresa often used a whole class, teacher-directed learning style, combining lecture with asking questions. For example, during a lesson about the scientific revolution, she asked, "What do we know about the term Scientific Revolution?" She wrote the students' answers on the chalkboard. She continued to ask questions using Bloom's Taxonomy, finally asking students to compare the significance of religion during the time periods of Copernicus and Galileo (FN, 1/99).

While this example shows a successful questioning sequence, her questions were not always successful in promoting student learning. On one occasion Theresa was asking questions abut John Locke, Thomas Hobbes, and the Natural Law of Man. When students did not respond, so Theresa answered her own questions rather than reformulate

147

her questions or prompt the students in other ways. At one point, she said, "What did we say about it on Friday? Anyone? Anyone?" (FN, 1/99) and proceeded to answer her own question with almost no wait time. It is important to note this because the pattern of answering her own questions continued intermittently during her field experiences.

Desiring more student participation, Theresa also used pairs and small groups for students to construct their own knowledge. For example, Theresa had the students pair up in order to share ways that the scientific revolution affects life today. She gave them a few minutes to brainstorm ideas. When some of the students were off task, her cooperating teacher helped get them back on task by asking them questions (FN, 1/99). Theresa then had the students share their ideas with the class, praising good ideas and asking for students to comment on each others' ideas. She also used a written-debate strategy in which a pair of students debate an issue by both starting out with the "pro" side, exchanging papers, and then having to argue the "con" side against their partner's argument. She said that she liked this written-argument model because she felt it gave the students structure and therefore gave her more control (FN, 2/99).

Theresa was very proud of herself when she created her first completely student-centered, constructivist lesson. She said, "I gave them an assignment because it used technology. I had them do that assignment that I was kind of afraid of cause it was student centered and you know how I feel about that kind of stuff" (IN, 3/99). When asked if she had changed her mind about constructivism and management co-existing, Theresa replied, "A little bit. It has." She went onto explain, "I was scared to death that the kids weren't going to get it. I held my breath the entire time. But then when we started discussing it, the discussion went a lot better than I had anticipated" (IN, 3/99).

148

By the end of her first field experience, Theresa grouped students for a simulation regarding Article 231 of the Versailles Treaty. In the simulation, students acted as one of the countries involved to present their individual country's response to the article. This lesson, had students construct responses and conduct discussions in the respective groups. Theresa considered it her best in the field experience "because it got the best results" (IN, 3/99). She commented,

> I think the kids learned the best. I think they really understood that this was a deciding factor in creating a mindset where someone said, "Oh well, that's not right, I'm right" before agreeing to it…. And I really think that the kids understood it…. And most specifically, they got very involved" (IN, 3/99).

Thus, according to Theresa, her best lesson was a student-centered, constructivist lesson.

It is important to note the impact of Mr. Titus, her cooperating teacher for this first experience. Theresa saw him more as a facilitator and felt that it was "pretty cool" (IN, 1/99). The impact of his encouragement in developing these lessons cannot be overstated. In interviews during her first field experience, she complimented Mr. Titus for his enthusiasm, his use of computers in the classroom, the projects designed, the review games his students played, and the extra credit assignments he provided. She viewed him as an excellent teacher and said he "was exactly what I needed – he was supportive. When he criticized, he wasn't…like, 'You suck. Don't do this'"(IN, 3/99). Even though she later abandoned the constructivist strategies, she claimed that "Everything I know about teaching I learned from Mr. Titus" (IN, 12/99). To her, he was a person who offered support, gave compliments, and found positive attributes even when events in the classroom had not gone well. Because her relationship with others was

149

inextricably connected to how they affected her self-image. Anything Mr. Titus did was good. Therefore, constructivist learning was good.

During her second field experience, Theresa continued to use strategies to facilitate student-constructed learning, but fell back on a lecture-question method as her favorite strategy. For example, in a discussion about civil rights in America, she asked her eighth-grade students, "How would growing up in different areas create different points of view? What opportunities?" The students' answers led to a debate in which the 13th, 14th, and 15th amendments were discussed(FN, 4/99). She also used group work regarding a Martin Luther King speech, having students read parts in a interview with civil rights leaders. At the end of this placement, Theresa believed that

> the teacher learns as much from the student as the student from the teacher. It's kind of like that teen/parent thing where you learn from the kid as much as they learn from you. I think that, the other one needs to give knowledge from their individual experiences and they need to promote the skills that that they really need (IN, 5/99).

Therefore, Theresa saw learning as a two-way interaction. Both students and teacher were knowledge creators.

By her second field placement, Theresa's beliefs about constructivist learning changed to match her actions. Instead of worrying that she would lose control of the class by promoting constructivism, she accepted that students need to be involved in creating their own knowledge. She criticized Mr. Ferris, her cooperating teacher, for not facilitating this type of learning.

> He has…[the students] do a round-robin reading. They get in groups and answer questions and the questions were homework. There was very little interaction other than the reading. He did ask questions but…there wasn't a lot of interaction….the kids were bored. I mean, just bored to tears. I mean, I was bored to tears. I'm sitting there saying, "Why do I like history? I don't remember," you know what I mean? (IN,5/99)

150

She was determined not to give her students busy work, wanting them to really understand the effects of the civil rights movement.

Case 2: John

From the start of the professional year, John claimed to want a constructivist classroom, believing that it was the best way for students to learn (IN, 11/98). However, during his microteaching lessons and field experiences, his practices seldom reflected these beliefs. Instead of designing constructivist lessons in which students would be active, goal-oriented, producers of knowledge, John remained the knowledge-giver at the center of the lessons.

Constructivist learning. The first microteaching experience was designed to be student-centered and constructivist, but John was not able to do this. After introducing the topic of the lesson, he played a movie clip about the battle of Gettysburg, telling the students who the characters were. He then proceed to distribute a primary source (i.e. a letter) and gave students less than a minute to read it. Then John asked, "What does Lee claim will be gained by staying on the defensive?" After about one second, he added, "Does he think any good things will happen?" John used a similar approach with many of his questions, lowering the level of responses needed to simple "yes/no" questions. When some questions were not answered quickly enough or fully enough, John answered them himself. For example, he asked, "What other options did the Confederacy have on the second day of the battle?" When a student asked for clarification on the map, John re-explained the map and provided the answer to his own question. He never checked to see if the students understood what he had explained.

John's lack of wait time hindered his students' ability to think and develop answers. Afterwards, when asked about wait time, he made reference to the hockey team he coached, saying, "It's like with my team. I want to keep things moving. No dead time" (IN, 10/98). He was then asked, "What do you do when you are in class (as a student) when the teacher asks a question and it's quiet? Does this make you uncomfortable?" He smirked and said, "Yeah, I usually will say *something* just to keep things going" (IN, 10/98). In the required reflective essay, John chose to focus on wait time as a topic to apply to the analysis of his microteaching session. He wrote,

> Kauchak and Eggen identify wait time as "the pause after a question or the pause between a student answer and a teacher interruption or interjection" (p. 161).... If properly used, wait time has numerous benefits, such as lessons run smoother, teachers are more responsive to students, the length and quality of student responses increases and achievement increases (Rowe et al cited in Kauchak and Eggen, p. 162)" (RE, 10/98).

He continued to write that he had not utilized wait time enough and that he recognized the effect on his students' actions. It appeared, therefore, that John knew and understood the concept of wait time, but chose not to implement it during his microteaching session.

John introduced the second microteaching in an amusing fashion, explaining that he had found this "old picture" while cleaning out his garage (FN, 11/98). After explaining to the students that they were going to learn the skill of analyzing pictures as historical evidence, he provided a six-step model to accomplish this. As directed by the microteaching directions, John modeled the analysis process for the first picture. Then he asked students questions about the second picture. However, when he did not get immediate responses, he told them the answers. For example, the first step was to have students share initial reactions to the picture. When no one responded, John said, "Isn't it nice? Doesn't it make you feel peaceful? The palm trees, the water, the huts?" The

students appropriately agreed (FN, 11/98). For the independent practice phase, John told students to follow the steps silently on their own, but he continued to talk, giving hints and ideas. Then he told the students what they should have written down (FN, 11/98).

In the second microteaching session, John did little to facilitate students' learning, but this was not due to lack of understanding. In his second reflective essay, John quoted the CITE handbook, "Learners are seen as producers of their own knowledge, not merely consumers of information delivered to them." He added, "Critical thinking is a constructive process that encourages learners to produce their own knowledge through the examination and evaluation of information" (RE, 11/98). As with the first microteaching session, John showed cognitive understanding of the Learning Theme despite his failure to apply it.

During his first field placement, John indicated that a successful teacher would use creative ways to capture students' attention and teach lessons. He expressed his desire to be exciting and get the students involved in their own learning (IN, 1/99). Despite this espoused constructivist theory, John remained the knowledge-giver and students passive entities. He lectured with the use of overheads, showed video clips in which he told the students what they had seen, and asked low-level questions that he answered when students were not quick enough with a response. His effort to create a constructivist lesson on the Italian unification failed due to lack of detailed planning. By the middle of the lesson, John dropped the plan and resorted to lecturing the students directly from the book, writing names, places, and events on the chalkboard (FN, 3/99). In a later reflection about the whole first field experience, John said,

> I remember being really comfortable. I was the sage on the stage. I got up
> there and lectured for 30 minutes. The kids had to take notes. I had it on

the overhead. Blah, blah, blah. And I was kind of looking around on that cold January day, cold outside, and thinking, "Yeah, lots of learning is going on here." The kids were probably bored out of their skulls. It was very teacher directed…(IN, 5/00).

While John recognized this later, he did not see it during the field experience. Instead, he felt he had done a fine job, had gotten along well with the students, and had earned a good report from his cooperating teacher (IN, 3/99). To John, learning seemed to be synonymous with being well behaved. As long as students were well behaved, he believed they must be learning something.

In the second field experience, John's cooperating teacher ran a very structured class, expecting students to be on-task from the moment they entered class until they left the room. When students did not behave, they were asked to leave. She also wanted to make sure that the students were learning the curriculum; if their learning was in question, she would re-teach it during another class (FN, 5/00).

Within those broad perimeters and those set by the school's curriculum, John was allowed to plan any class activities he chose. His lessons were mixed in regards to constructivist learning. In some lessons, the students were active, goal-oriented producers of knowledge. In other lessons, they were not. For example, while John questioned the students about their opinions and about primary source readings, his questions were often low-level, requiring simple "yes or no" or one- or two-word answers. But John believed that these questions allowed the students to construct their own knowledge; he did not realize that he was constructing he knowledge for them. Likewise, when they read these primary sources, John summarized and synthesized what they had read after each paragraph instead of asking students to do so (FN, 4/99).

At other times, John did try to get the students involved and learning. For example, students were given a warm up question "In your own words, describe what you think of when you think of the African-American experience in colonial times" (FN, 4/99). The students were given time to write responses and then share them with the class. John also had the students created timelines of events in African-American history. After giving them very specific directions on how to number and space the timeline, he told them where to find the information. The students worked individually on this task and were productive, active, and goal-oriented (FN, 4/99). In both cases, John felt the students were learning a great deal from him, mainly due to their behavior.

Case 3: Kim

Kim's beliefs and actions were closely aligned with the CITE Learning theme at the beginning of her professional year. She wanted learning in her class to be constructivist in nature with the students being active, productive, and goal-oriented producers of knowledge. She wanted to help the learners fit new information into their already existing schema and to make connections with their own lives (CITE, p. 35). While some of her mentor teachers held less constructivist philosophies, Kim held firmly to her initially beliefs, altering her beliefs and actions only minimally at the end of her intern year.

Constructivist approach. During her first microteaching session, Kim used three newspaper articles on the topic of President Clinton's possible impeachment. She intended to use these prompts and her questioning sequence to help the students make the connection between the Constitution and the actions relating to this specific current event

155

(IN, 10/98). Her self-described over-preparedness was due to her desire for the students to "really understand" this connection.

When Kim received the constructive criticism that she did not probe students enough with her questions, Kim was appreciative. She said that the feedback was helpful because "I don't want to be a teacher who gives information to passive students…. It's more helpful to draw things out of students…. It sticks more with students" (IN, 10/98). This illustrates Kim's desire for her students to construct their own knowledge.

However, after the second microteaching, Kim admitted that using a direct-teaching model was easier than using an indirect teaching, student-centered questioning model. In the direct-teaching model, "you're counting more on what *you're* going to do than what you're questioning. With questioning, you don't necessarily know what kind of answers you're going to get back" (IN, 11/98).

Despite the difficulty, Kim often tried to use the student-centered questioning approach in her classroom during her first field experience at Lockwood Middle School. She used everyday examples to make the content understandable to students. For example, in a lesson about American symbols, Kim began by saying, "Cincinnati Bengals use the Bengal tiger as their symbol. Can you think of other symbols?" The students responded with similar examples, mainly from professional sports teams. This neatly segued into a discussion about the flag being a symbol. She accepted divergent answers from students for questions, which included "What does the flag represent?" "What do you think the Pledge of Allegiance means?" and "What does the Pledge of Allegiance tell us about America?" (FN, 1/99). In another lesson, Kim provided summaries of majority and dissenting opinions from *Gideon vs. Wainwright*. After reading them, student pairs

listed reasons why it was or was not important to have a lawyer. When the students later shared their reasons, Kim helped to clarify their answers, asking, "So what you're saying is…." (AC, 2/99).

Oddly juxtaposed with these student-centered lessons were student filled-in worksheets. For example, in a lesson about graphs and charts, Kim used commercially produced graphs which included questions like "Which two languages are spoken by the same number of people" and "The most immigrants came fom which country" (FN, 3/99). She claimed not to like the worksheets, but felt that she had no choice but to use them.

> [The assigned classroom] is very teacher led and it is very – I don't know…. But I don't think she's open to a whole bunch of new things. She has it in her head what these kids can do, what they're going to do, you know, what they will do. And she sort of wants you to go along that line. Like if you've noticed, all my lessons involve worksheets. That's not by my choice, but it's not my choice (IN, 3/99)

Kim rationalized that these worksheets were needed to confirm that students were learning the content and skillstested on the state proficiency tests.

On the formal assessment completed by her cooperating teacher, Kim earned a four out of five in the category "Uses methods that are interactive and student-centered" (FA, 3/99).Her cooperating teacher noted, "Activities all student centered" (FA, 3/99). Additional strengths included asking questions, using students' ideas and responding appropriately to students. She "uses sequential questioning techniques to help students understand and to help them be successful" (FA, 3/99).

During her second field experience, Ms. Cass gave Kim considerable autonomy concerning both content and pedagogy to teach the Bacon Junior High students. As previously stated, this field experience proved very disappointing to Kim.

157

I don't feel like there's a lot of learning going on. Maybe there is some learning, but there's an awful lot of down time. Learning is definitely not maximized. The kids think the assignments are good assignments. They're higher level thinking. But there's so much playing…. The thing that's been difficult for me at Bacon is no one's telling me what the objectives are. It's like, "Oh, teach this." And when you're teaching something, you can go in a million different ways…. (IN, 5/99).

In the previously described lesson on Latin American folk stories (see page 110 for full lesson description), Kim attempted to facilitate student learning by helping students connect folk stories to their own culture. As the students worked, Kim walked around the room, visiting each group, asking questions, providing direction, and listening. She leaned forward on their desks, crouching down so that she was literally eye-to-eye with the students. This lesson was very student-centered with the students being the knowledge producers (FN, 4/99).

Kim stated that she enjoyed facilitating learning in small cooperative groups because she could give students more attention and that they paid "that much more attention" to the material to be learned (IN, 5/99).

Because they're working in the smaller groups, so they get that interaction than the whole class where they get the, they don't pay that much attention. (laughs) But it just makes the class smaller for the students and they— I'm able— I feel real able to go around to several groups and give them the attention that they need. I don't, I don't feel like that's overwhelming. I feel like that's actually better (IN, 5/99).

In contrast, Kim implemented a lesson that she saw as having little meaningful learning for the students.

I found one in there because the course is geography…look for one that has something to do with natural resources and develop a one page plot sequel to the movie and make a poster….Yeah, I mean it's a fun assignment, but it's really just like a time filler, at this point, so I mean, I didn't write lesson plans, I didn't do anything, there was no reason to. She said, "Pick one of these," I picked one of these assignments to do it, you know, I guess it made me guilty of being lazy as well (IN, 5/99).

Kim's attributed her laziness to the apathy of her cooperating teacher and the lack of goals set by the faculty and students. By the end of the professional year, Kim's actions followed those of her cooperating teacher: Keeping students busy took precedence over meaningful learning.

Case 4: Frank

From the beginning of the professional year, Frank wanted to facilitate student learning by helping them produce thoughtfully-constructed answers and scaffolding their knowledge. He enjoyed using certain methods most, including cooperative learning, student-created projects, and decision Ts, because they achieved those ends. Overall, Frank's actions and beliefs were aligned with this theme throughout his time in the CITE program.

Constructivist learning. In reflecting about his first microteaching lesson, Frank recognized that he controlled the direction and pace of the lesson, but that the students' answers moved the discussion forward (IN, 11/98). To this end, he wished he had asked more effective diagnostic questions to see what the students already knew (IN, 11/98). He also wanted to improve by "rolling with the students' responses" and incorporating these answers into his teaching (RE, 11/98). Both of these examples illustrate Frank's desire for students to produce knowledge and meaningful connections to their already held knowledge.

In a reflective essay following his second microteaching session, Frank paraphrased Kauchak and Eggen (1998), writing, "Scaffolding is an essential component of the learning process. It is the support teachers provide that helps learners develop a skill" (RE, 11/98). Using an analogy of learning to ride a bike, he wrote, "In the same

way that a parent would never put their child on a bicycle for the first time and let them ride down a steep hill, a teacher should never make students perform a task that they do not have the needed skills to perform" (RE, 11/98). He then reflected on his microteaching session, explaining how he used scaffolding to help students fit the new information into their currently held knowledge, thereby increasing their learning. He was pleased with the learning achieved by the students. "While my performance was by no means perfect, I am satisfied with the way it went for the first time" (RE, 11/98).

In his first field placement, Frank's beliefs about the positive use of student-centered, active, productive learning were illuminated by his actions. In the first month, he organized a jigsaw lesson. We had like four topics. It was like about the focus on North America, like New France, British Colonies, Global power struggles for the new world, and the role of Native Americans. I broke them into organized groups and they taught each other (IN, 1/99). While the content remained consistent for each class, Frank adapted the style and expectations based on the academic level of the class in order to ensure success in learning for all students. In a lesson about conservative versus liberal politics, he incorporated students' answers as a vehicle for furthering the discussion. After getting definitions for conservative, liberal, and moderate, Frank asked students their opinions about military downsizing. A student gave a reason why it was bad. Frank tied it back to the political spectrum, saying, "So which view would it be? It would be conservative" (FN, 2/99) In the same lesson, the students held a silent, written debate about capital punishment. In both of these scenes, Frank required students to provide the content knowledge and to be active, producers of knowledge.

160

Frank's alignment to the CITE Learning Theme was reinforced by his cooperating teacher's complete acceptance and reliance on constructivist learning. For example, Mr. Sipps and Frank designed a project in which student-pairs selected and then showcased a person as the best ruler of the Age of Absolutism. Each pair gathered information and pictures in order to create a pamphlet promoting their ruler. In this three-day project, the students were active, goal-oriented, producers. Focusing on what students content learned doing their Age of Absolutism pamphlets, Frank wrote in his journal, "I am pleased with the quality of work I am seeing from the students. For the most part, they went above and beyond the requirements. In my questioning while they presented their pamphlets, it really seemed that they knew the information well" (CA, 2/99). Likewise, at Mr. Sipps' suggestion, Frank used a "Word Art" activity from *History Alive.* In this activity, students drew pictures showing how the Enlightenment, Age of Discovery, Age of Absolutism, and the Scientific Revolution each contributed to the French Revolution (FN, 2/99). Again, students were the producers of knowledge. Frank allowed them to be creative, to use higher level thinking skills, to make connections with what they had been learning for the weeks prior.

In his second field placement, Frank implied that his cooperating teacher did not accept a constructivist philosophy concerning students' learning. He described Mr. Belfield's classroom strategies, saying, "There's no inductive, no cooperative learning. 'This is what you have to do, and get it done….' So he didn't use as many of the different teaching styles. That was something different" (IN, 6/99). This frustrated Frank because he believed that students needed to be able to think for themselves, not just be spoon-fed information (IN, 6/99).

I'd rather a kid know how to think critically about something rather than just know when something happened… just facts and dates. Because that's what a lot of people, history teachers— In my experience, [there is] just a rote memorization, kids leave there – like, that's why especially with a decision T and critical thinking and stuff like that where they can… I've done that a few times over at Manchester. Those kids really have trouble seeing things from the other side of the story….. They have a hard time, saying, "Man. There is no other side of the story." They feel the way they too, and that's it. I mean, I'd rather have them be able to make informed decisions than just rote memorization (IN, 6/99).

Acting on this belief, Frank used a Decision-T to help students form opinions on both sides of a controversial topic (FN, 5/99).

Case 5: Shelley

Shelley's desire to cover the content appeared more important to her than what students learned. This may be the reason why Shelley answered her own questions instead of prompting students for better answers or answering students' questions even when ignorant of the information. Whenever students participated during her lessons, even when it was to answer rhetorical questions, Shelley believed that it was proof that her classroom was student centered and that students were producing knowledge. She did include constructivist methods from university classes, but the focus appeared to be on merely meeting the requirement of using such methods. She seemed disinterested in their impact on student learning.

Constructivist learning. In her first microteaching session, Shelley acted as bearer of knowledge instead of asking questions, probing students for in-depth responses, and thus allowing students to be the producers of knowledge. She often restated questions, making them rhetorical or answering them herself. For example, she said, "So we have this isolated event [the Salem Witch Trials]. How does a similar event occur to other witch hunts?" One student responded about witch hunts in Europe when crops were

162

devastated. Shelley praised this answer, then proceeded to provide the answer she

desired. She said,

> One thing I want you to keep in mind during this lesson, 'cause we're
> going to see it later, is that we have the same type of stereotypical witch
> hunts that occur later on – as you might learn on the war on communism –
> people were being pointed fingers at because they were communists....
> Similar to the scare tactics Hitler used...(FN, 10/98).

After the session, she explained that this "witch hunt" link from the 1600s to the 1900s

was the major point that she wanted students to learn. It was made 10 minutes into her 12

minute teaching episode (FN, 10/98). Furthermore, she presented the information, asked

no questions to check students' understanding, and did not help them make any

connections to prior knowledge.

Shelley's espoused beliefs contradicted her actions. For example, Shelley

expressed the desire for students to think rather than be spoon-fed information. She said

that asking students "What do you think?" and allowing them to see various points of

view were paramount to their learning (IN, 10/98) She echoed this in her reflective essay,

writing, "By asking them questions abut their own concept of the stereotypical witch, I

intended to extract differing definitions that would give a variety of insights" (RE,

10/98). However, she only accepted two students' answers, one of which she posed as a

rhetorical question (FN, 10/98). In her paper, she described this as "the consensus of the

class" (RE, 10/98). Shelley also claimed to want "more of a discussion classroom than a

lecture room" because a lecture room "is boring" (IN, 10/98). Yet, other than the few

answers given by students, Shelley presented the content to the students. Little if any

student-produced knowledge was evident during this first microteaching session.

Shelley's second microteaching lesson was more aligned with the CITE Learning

Theme than the first. As she explained,

> There was a prompt – just a statement, "The atomic bomb changed the world's view of war." You know, thesis statement. What I had them do was, with their own knowledge, based on their prior knowledge of war, what is quote-unquote "learned in class so far," what do they think about this statement (IN, 11/98).

For example, after showing the statement on the overhead, she asked "Can anyone give

me any thoughts on this topic?…What do you think of that?" (FN, 11/98). Shelley wrote

student answers on a white, dry-erase board. She proceeded to gather more feedback,

asking lower level questions, such as "Do they make you feel scared? Yeah? Okay, put

that into a sentence" (FN, 11/98). She then proceeded to explain the steps designed for

the modeling process as she progressed through them (FN, 11/98).

For the teacher-directed practice section, students read a handout aloud and then

two students answered Shelley's question, "Which candidate would you choose and

why?" These answers were also written on the board. Although Shelley asked some

rhetorical questions, putting her answers into students' mouths, this lesson showed

students producing knowledge and using higher level thinking skills. Interestingly,

Shelley was unable to determine students' learning during this lesson. She explained,

> I think my problem with it is that you don't really know how effective your skill really gets done until you can assess the homework…. I think I did okay, but until you get to evaluating a student's homework assignments and see how well it gets across I kind of felt – I wouldn't say "lost," but thinking I really don't know. because usually when you ask questions, you get the feedback right away from the students whereas the students weren't exactly a part, y'know, I was half prompting them or having them give me responses, they understood—they were able to read the stuff in the packets – they were able to make a thesis statement after the teacher directed practice you're supposed to assess 'how well do you think they know it' before you go into the independent practice but if not

everyone understood, but like I said, until you get the evaluation level or practice, I was thinking to myself "Well, I *think* they got it" (IN, 11/98)

Shelley recognized her own habit of over-prompting, but also admitted that she could not distinguish student learning without grading some tangible product at the end. Additionally, her questioning of whether or not her peers, acting as students, understood how to write a thesis statement highlighted her confidence in her own superior knowledge.

At the onset of her first field experience, Shelley's beliefs appear to be aligned with the CITE theme of Learning. For example, she saw her cooperating teacher as being very effective in helping students learn.

> Just even in reviewing, I mean, people would ask – he would ask them a question, they would think it through and even if they were just getting it personally right, he wouldn't just go on to someone else. He'd say, "Okay, you already know A. Here's what you know. You know you're smart." Rather than saying "That's not right" and just saying "You're wrong" he'd say, "You know you're smart. You obviously already know part of the answer. Can you think the rest of it through?" And he prompts them as much as he could to pull the answer out so that they would remember it. Cause the more they can process, the more they'll be able to remember it and put it on the test. (IN, 1/99)

Likewise, helping students learn the content is Shelley's "only concern" (IN, 1/99).

> I have to make sure that I know that they're still in 9th grade…. Now, I'm not saying I'd have to dumb down anything, just that I'd have to say like that like they're only 9th graders, just out of junior high. How – I have to rethink how would I get this across easily rather than getting them confused going, "What does she mean by that?" Primarily, my concern is to make sure that they get whatever I plan on teaching across effectively enough that they can retain it and go "Oh, that's cool. That's interesting" (IN, 199)

Despite her desire to have students learn, this statement showed her initial lack of confidence in ninth graders' learning early in her field experience. She had hoped "to be

with kids closer to my own age. More like juniors or seniors" because then she would not have to watch the appropriateness of her vocabulary as much (IN, 1/99).

On the surface, it appeared that Shelley created student-centered lessons in which students were active producers of knowledge. For example, she began a few lessons with students showing what they already knew about the World War I, totalitarian governments, and the Holocaust. Her plans showed prompts, including "When I think of World War I, I think of," a cooperative, non-graded quiz, and "What do you know about the Holocaust?" However, instead of building on the students' knowledge, Shelley often ignored the information students produced and provided the information she felt students should know. For example, after the students produced an extensive list about World War I, Shelley stated, "When *I* think of World War I, *I* think of trench warfare" (FN, 1/99). She did not discuss any of the students' answers listed on the chalkboard. Instead, she directed students to open their books and begin reading. After students read a few paragraphs aloud, Shelley asked, "What's a trench?" A student answered, "It's like a ditch." Shelley responded to this saying, "Some call them dug-outs" (FN, 1/99). Thus, instead of having students produce knowledge, Shelley always had the *best* answer.

Shelley attempted to implement constructivist methods, but seldom focused on the students' learning. For example, at the end of most lessons, Shelley assigned writing assignments as a means of assessing their learning for that particular lesson. But she seldom collected or discussed them (3/99). In this way, implementation did not lead to constructivist learning.

Shelley bragged about some of the methods she used as illustrations of constructivist learning occurring in her classroom. For example,

166

I decided to do a decision T on this…I actually did an opinion to start off the class about bombs…. And I had eight questions. I told them this is not a test, just did an agree/disagree – I did the same thing Dr. Wilson did in class. I mean, I took a number tally and where the closest numbers were and um, started a discussion off of that. And um, I started saying, "What do you want to learn about the atomic bomb?" And I go on and since I knew Mr. Payne was going to talk about the war with specifics, I didn't want to get into it too much. I wanted to give a short overview. This is what's going on: Roosevelt is dead. Truman comes into power. He assumes the presidency. I was like "He has this decision to make: do we continue on with this really long war that's going to take forever and cost a lot of money?" You know, war in Europe is just about over. Or do we hey, "We have the atomic bomb" (IN, 3/99).

Thus, although she compared her teaching to that of Dr. Wilson, she was oblivious to the fact that *she* was still the one producing the knowledge. Her question "What do you want to learn…" was merely a vehicle for students to pay attention: She already planned a lecture based on what she believed they needed to know prior to Mr. Payne's more in depth discussion the next day.

Additionally detrimental to students' learning was Shelley's tendency to either side-stepped an issue or provide erroneous information if she did not know the answer to students' questions. For example, when a student asked, "Wasn't Hitler's mother Jewish?" instead of admitting that she did not know, Shelley replied, "We don't know for sure." Similarly, Shelley tended to dismiss students' answers during class discussions when she did not know terms or content references.

However, Shelley believed that students learned a lot that day. She shared,

And the students end up running the class and you're just like mediating the discussion. And – which I like. I mean, I would rather have that happen because students can learn a lot more because they're learning from themselves. As long as I'm sitting here directing it, they can sit here and say, "Well, I think this" and bring out information they know from the text. And say, "Look at you guys. You're talking just like a historian" (IN, 3/99).

Shelley believed that the lesson was constructivist in nature and that students produced their own knowledge, providing both the questions and answers. She appeared unaware that she remained the main knowledge giver, compromising students' learning with her own ignorance.

In her second field experience, Shelley continued to believe that her classroom was one in which students were producing knowledge and using higher-level thinking skills. For example, to review current events, Shelley began by passing out half sheets of paper with five questions on them (FN, 5/99). When the morning announcements finished, she read the questions aloud, each pertaining to a current event. After the students provided the title, *Shelley* summarized the whole story (FN, 5/99). Instead of allowing students to produce knowledge, Shelley became the knowledge giver while believing that. However, she believed that this was an example of a student-centered lesson (FN, 5/99).

In her lesson from the *Motel of Mysteries* (see p. 133 for full lesson description), Shelley said that the archaeologists were afraid of being sucked down by the royal depository, which is what she called the toilet. A student pointed out how stupid the archaeologists must be to think this and that they were too big to be sucked down (FN, 5/99). Instead of praising the student for his use of higher level thinking skills, Shelley argued with him for a few minutes before telling him to let her get back to the story (FN, 5/99). Later, she remembered the scene differently, recounting it as an example of constructivism in her classroom. She recounted,

> You come to my classroom, I teach skepticism. You need to question everything…. To me it was one of those – a lot of them ask questions – some felt that this was stupid, and could actually give me a reason why they thought it was stupid because, "because it's obviously a bathroom."

And it's like, "Well, not obvious to everybody." "Well, wouldn't we have any writings?" And I was like, "Well, what if in the year 13,000—something we don't have English?" You know, we have to find something that will translate. And there's this whole thing where they could actually ask the questions and realize that they are actually investigating about history and that they are learning on their own as I am facilitating the questions to them…. There's this whole, you know, that they could really question what was going on. And that, to me, was really good (IN, 5/99).

In this way, Shelley retained her belief that she was a natural teacher who created student-centered lessons in which students actively produced knowledge and used higher level thinking skills.

Chapter 5: Intern Year Descriptive Findings

At the end of the Professional Year, the preservice teachers proceed through an application and interview process. They apply to the Professional Development Schools (PDS) where they are then interviewed by a team of teachers or administrators at that school. The preservice teachers are paid as interns, earning as much as $8,000 at an urban site. The remaining four participants in this study became interns at one of three urban schools.

During the intern year, the preservice teachers are responsible for their classes as teachers of record. This is possible because every intern has earned a baccalaureate degree and obtained a state-issued substitute teaching certificate. They assume a half-load teaching schedule, which varies by school, regarding the number of courses and classes taught. Interns also receive tuition support and enroll in university classes, such as another methods class and a special education class during fall quarter (See Appendix A). The courses are designed to draw on the internship experience.

Within the schools, mentor teachers, site liaisons, and other teachers provide resources, ideas, and support. At each school, subject-specific intern teams provide on-going support. These teams typically consist of three interns, a lead teacher mentor, two other teachers at the school, and a university faculty member. Teams met weekly at the school to discuss issues, concerns, and problems.

Throughout the year, interns work on a portfolio centered around the eight CITE Themes. The portfolio, limited to 40 pages of written text, is to demonstrate their understanding of the eight program themes and profession growth in relations to them. Evidence supporting assertions includes observations, formative assessments, and

assessments. This portfolio and a presentation based on it serves as the capstone of intern year. Of the original five participants, only Theresa and Frank successfully completed the internship, including their portfolios. Kim has yet to complete her portfolio.

The changes in beliefs and actions regarding the areas of Learning and Instruction during the Intern Year for all remaining participants are summarized on Figure 2 and are described in detail within this chapter.

Figure 2: Beliefs, Actions, and Influences Related to Instruction and Learning during Intern Year

		First Semester		Second Semester	
		Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning
Theresa	Beliefs	Class control equals "battle" with students. Students not able to handle anything but seatwork. University methods are unrealistic.	Constructivist Learning and classroom management are opposed. Question & answer sessions equal constructivist learning.	Five-day structure allows her to teach and control students. Direct teaching, esp. lecture, is most effective way to teach. Rejects CITE goals and ideals of instruction.	Believes constructivism is idealistic, unrealistic. Quiet and controlare paramount. Does not know when learning occurs. Rejects Learning Theme.
	Actions	Changes to custodial management. Uses textbook and many worksheets. Begins to only use lecture and notes.	Gives up on group/pair work early. Research projects given up by October. Provides answers to her own questions	Five-day uniformed units. Provides notes on overhead daily. Improved classroom control.	Assesses students via notes, not learned knowledge. Students remain passive while she teaches.
Influences		Professional teachers, especially mentor teacher, students, administrators previously held conceptions of teaching, mentor from first field experience		Professional teachers, especially mentor teacher, students, previously held conceptions of teaching, common exam	
John	Beliefs	Lack of experience blocks great instruction. Desire to use variety of strategies, but students can't believe. Management learned in trial by fire.	Expected he would be able to facilitate constructivist learning, but decided students could not handle it due to lack of structure	Planning started strong but failed. Lots of variety through A.pril, returning to seatwork for remainder of year.	Institutional constraints limits learning. Learning equals what students can write. Learning occurs due to rapport and management.
	Actions	Changes to seatwork and lecture early and then adds greater variety. Planning improves. Management techniques improve.	Encouraged constructivist learning early, returned to it after behavior improved. Developed constructivist lessons, but poor implementation	Planning started strong but failed. Lots of variety through A.pril, returning to seatwork for remainder of year.	Implementation of lessons did not promote constructivist learning. John constructs knowledge, not the students
Influences		Professional teachers, students, administration, methods courses previously held conceptions of teaching		Common exam, professional teachers, students, previously held conceptions of teaching	

172

Figure 2: Beliefs, Actions, and Influences Related to Instruction and Learning during Intern Year

		First Semester		Second Semester	
		Instruction	Learning	Instruction	Learning
Theresa	Beliefs	Class control equals "battle" with students. Students not able to handle anything but seatwork. University methods are unrealistic.	Constructivist Learning and classroom management are opposed. Question & answer sessions equal constructivist learning.	Five-day structure allows her to teach and control students. Direct teaching esp. lecture, is most effective way to teach. Rejects CITE goals and ideals of instruction.	Believes constructivism is idealistic, unrealistic. Quiet and controlare paramount. Does not know when learning occurs. Rejects Learning Theme.
	Actions	Changes to custodial management. Uses textbook and many worksheets. Begins to only use lecture and notes.	Gives up on group/pair work early. Research projects given up by October. Provides answers to her own questions	Five-day uniformed units. Provides notes on overhead daily. Improved classroom control.	Assesses students via notes, not learned knowledge. Students remain passive while she teaches.
Influences		Professional teachers, especially mentor teacher, students, administrators previously held conceptions of teaching, mentor from first field experience		Professional teachers, especially mentor teacher, students, previously held conceptions of teaching, common exam	
John	Beliefs	Lack of experience blocks great instruction. Desire to use variety of strategies, but students can't believe. Management learned in trial by fire.	Expected he would be able to facilitate constructivist learning but decided students could not handle it due to lack of structure	Planning started strong but failed. Lots of variety through April, returning to seatwork for remainder of year.	Institutional constraints limits learning. Learning equals what students can write. Learning occurs due to rapport and management.
	Actions	Changes to seatwork and lecture early and then adds greater variety. Planning improves. Management techniques improve.	Encouraged constructivist learning early, returned to it after behavior improved. Developed constructivist lessons, but poor implementation	Planning started strong but failed. Lots of variety through April, returning to seatwork for remainder of year.	Implementation of lessons did not promote constructivist learning. John constructs knowledge, not the students
Influences		Professional teachers, students, administration, methods courses, previously held conceptions of teaching		Common exam, professional teachers, students, previously held conceptions of teaching	

173

Case 1: Theresa

Theresa's internship was at Oakmont High School, a large neighborhood city high school whose population consisted of poor whites (many of Appalachian descent) with a significant minority of poor African-Americans. Originally, being placed at this school thrilled Theresa because her mother was there and it was her alma mater: "Maybe it should scare me, and maybe it's just that I went there am like, 'I'm a product of the…public schools'" (IN, 3/99). By the end of September, Theresa was cursing the school, the administration, and the students there because of the mix-up in her schedule, problems with student discipline, and lack of administrative support. For the first semester, she taught one world history class and two U.S. Government classes. During the second semester, she taught two classes of economics and continued to teach the same world history class.

During the intern year, Theresa often burst into angry tears and frustrated rages when things were not going well for her. She cried to me about her grades and the unfairness of constructive criticism. She complained to her mentor teacher and team about the behavior of her students, the classes she had to teach, and other frustrations. She criticized her university supervisor for not showing up as expected and for giving her feedback that she "already knew" (12/99). She yelled at an administrator because of her frustrations with classroom management and discipline guidelines. When she shared information about this last episode with her team, one teacher member said, "Oh, kind of like you were with me that one day in the hallway?" Theresa kind of smiled and laughed, saying, "Yeah, but this time I cried for *hours*" (FN, 12/99). When students misbehaved in

her class, Theresa's university supervisor noted the "shrillness" of her voice and suggested a more professional tone (OB, 5/00).

By the end of the intern year, Theresa claimed to be much more self-assured and proud of herself, especially for completing the full-year of teaching. For example, during the final interview, Theresa said, "I am the teacher and I am in control of my class and what I say goes….I've whittled myself a backbone and everybody sees it….I don't let people in general walk all over me like I may have at one point" (IN, 5/00). However, within minutes, Theresa contradicted herself, saying, "When those kids were yelling at me in class, what was I supposed to do? All I could do was stand there and take it" and "[Classroom] management is always going to be an issue for me" (IN, 5/00). These contradictory statements were common for Theresa, although she never gave any indication that she recognized the inconsistencies.

In analyzing changes in Theresa's beliefs and actions in relation to the Themes of Instruction and Learning, these contradictions are evident, not only within her espoused theory of teaching, but also when compared to her theory-in-action. For example, she told me during observations of two different sections of students in April and May, "This class hates me" (FN, 4/00 and 5/00). Her body language while teaching, which included arms tightly crossed over her chest, and her oral threats of detention, conveyed that she was not too fond of her students either. And yet, in her final interview, she stated that her students "think that I'm very fair because I've told them, 'I'm very fair with you' and a lot of them have said, 'Yes, Miss Thomas, you are very fair'"(IN, 5/00).

Of the participants in the study (including the drop-outs), Theresa was the least positive about the CITE program and its goals by the end of her intern year. Although

initially accepting of many of CITE's goals regarding Instruction and Learning, she rejected most of them by the end of the program. Instead, she preferred to use what other teachers in the school suggested or to fall back into methods that she favored as a high school student.

Case 2: John

John's internship was also at Oakmont High School. Prior to teaching there, John stated, "I feel prepared already. I feel like I could go into any class. I could be a substitute teacher anywhere. And probably do a better job than the regular teacher" (IN, 3/99). By September, he felt that he was not prepared to be in an urban high school. "They need to have more chances to teach [do internships] at places like [my first placement] and the suburbs. I would function much better at a suburban school. Or a place that's 50% suburban, 50% urban" (IN, 9/99). After the first seven weeks, John admitted, "Teaching is very difficult. I knew it would be difficult…. I would say right now if I looked at teaching and said, 'Okay, the last seven weeks are going to sum up how your teaching career is going to be,' I wouldn't do it" (IN, 10/99). However, throughout the program, John claimed that teaching was experiential in nature. By spring, he reached a level of comfort. He explained, "I feel like I have something to offer, that I'm good working with kids…. This boosted my confidence. I want to do something for others…and I think I can with my God-given abilities" (IN, 4/00).

Throughout the intern year, John's espoused theory concerning the themes of Instruction and Learning and his theory-in-practice about these themes did not always coincide. Often it seemed that his beliefs were tailored to match what could be the "right" answers, according to the program's objectives as indicated by the eight themes (see

176

Appendix B). However, in practice, he was often much more traditional in his approach, not nearly as aligned with the eight themes as his espoused theory implied. When confronted with this dichotomy, John sometimes blamed a lack of planning time, lack of subject matter knowledge, lack of experience, or institutional constraints for these differences. He often indicated that "after teaching for a few years" he would be able to use more of a variety of instructional strategies, design his lessons to be more constructivist, and know his content material in more depth. While this is probably true, the continued explanation of "teaching is a very experiential process; you get better at it as you do it" began sounding like an excuse for not consistently following the eight themes during his intern year.

Of the people in the study (including the drop-outs), John was the most positive in attitude towards the CITE program and its goals by the end of his intern year. Although his actions did not always follow many of CITE goals regarding Instruction and Learning, he verbally supported and praised the program in general and emphasized his desire to eventually act in accordance with the themes.

Case 3: Kim

Kim returned to Lockwood Middle School for her intern year, again under the guidance of Mrs. Salinger. Going to Lockwood delighted Kim, as it was her first choice during the interviews for internship placement. When asked why she liked Lockwood, she said, "Personally, I'm more comfortable in an urban setting. It's more who I am and where I'm from. And I like the discipline at Lockwood. I'm surprised that I'm comfortable with that because as a teenager I would have hated it. But I am" (IN, 5/00).

During her internship, Kim taught two blocks of American History to seventh-grade students.

Throughout her intern year, Kim's chief concern was whether she was providing meaningful instruction and accurate content in an encouraging setting so that students could learn and succeed. This personal philosophy melded well with CITE's goals, which Kim initially accepted whole-heartedly and which she strived to attain. She was very aware of meeting students' needs by using a variety of instructional strategies, management techniques, and assessment tools. She was also very aware of her students' learning and altered her plans to meet their needs.

As Kim gained additional classroom experience, she came to believe that some of the CITE's expectations were idealistic and unrealistic in some school settings. Mrs. Salinger supported this view, seeing some of the program's assignments as unreasonable. This led to an invisible tug-of-war for Kim. She wanted to please Mrs. Salinger, for whom she had great respect. At the same time, she did not want to disappoint Dr. Wilson, whom she had for Instructional Planning and Secondary Methods: Social Studies courses during the Professional Year and for Applied Methods: Social Studies during the intern year. He also supervised her during her internship. She said of him, "He's the best teacher I've ever seen…. Dr. Wilson is always thoroughly prepared, very well organized, knows where to direct you to get resources, knows the research on teaching, knows what's effective. All in all, he knows teaching" (FG, 3/00). In addition to wanting to please both Mrs. Salinger and Dr. Wilson, Kim wanted to meet her students' needs and develop her own teaching style.

Within this context, Kim's lack of time, organizational skills, and content knowledge continually worried her. Often, she felt that she had insufficient time to research, write, or plan to the extent she wished. This led her to feel incompetent in content, especially when students asked questions to which she had no answer. She sometimes had a difficult time articulating expectations or directions to students, occasionally confusing herself. As Kim explained in summation of the two years,

> I've learned that my thought process is as unclear as I think they are. I think that's the thing I've learned the most. That I can't assume too much because at the beginning I think I assumed too much. I didn't break things down enough. My directions were clear to me, but they weren't to the kids. I don't know. I think that's what I've learned (IN, 5/00).

While Kim essentially accepted the CITE's goals, she was not always able to achieve them.

Additionally, Kim's internship was interrupted by the birth of her third child in late March. She was out of Lockwood for approximately six weeks, returning to teach at the beginning of May. While she successfully complete the classroom component of the program, she has yet to complete the portfolio required by the CITE program. Thus, Kim had not earned her teaching certification.

Case 4: Frank

Frank returned to Manchester High School for his intern year. He was assigned to teach two 72-minute block classes of World History to ninth and tenth grade students (IN, 9/99). Prior to entering his intern year, he expressed excitement about working with his mentor, Mr. McKee, and being part of a university-PPS team.

> Well, I feel really confident but uh… but I know there's a lot of stuff like… that I'm not real strong at right now, but I'm not real scared because of working with our lead teacher. It'll either be Mr. McKee or Mr. Calabreeze, and uh, then the other intern. It's like we got this core group

where we kick around ideas. It's not like we're going into it blindfolded. I mean, I feel confident but I'd be really scared if I was just going out there all alone right now (IN, 6/99).

However, soon after entering into the intern year, Frank felt that Mr. McKee was less helpful than expected. "Sometimes I feel inadequate – Mr. McKee has some good stuff here, but he didn't tell me about it. He didn't say, 'I've used this for this or I've gotten some miles out of this.' I have to nearly pry it out of him. 'Can I use this? Can I use that?'" (IN, 9/99). However, he often tried to compromise in order to please Mr. McKee (IN, 9/99), but at times, Frank felt Mr. McKee was an impediment to effective teaching.

All of this stuff – Mr. McKee wanted me to start the Renaissance -- he wanted me to keep reviewing but *none of it is covered on our common exam*. None of it's covered in credit [granting standards] manual. Almost every other teacher I've talked to in the building teaches like a two-week review and then they go straight into the Renaissance. So I've stretched it out to three weeks now. Mr. Mckee *isn't really happy.* I'd rather spend more time on the stuff they need to know for the common exam or the program. I don't think they're getting a whole lot out of the whole review thing anyway (IN, 9/99)

The lack of expected assistance and the disagreement about what to teach lessened Frank's initial excitement to work with Mr. McKee, leading Frank to depend more on Dr. Wilson's advice than on Mr. McKee's.

Over the next two months, Frank met frequently with his supervisor, Dr. Wilson, to formulate lesson plans and to gain insight about expectations (FG, 11/99). By he beginning of November, Frank was planning his lessons a week ahead of time (FG, 11/99). Despite this assistance, he felt that he could "just sit down all day and plan – and my lessons still wouldn't be as good as my lead teacher" (FG, 11/99). Further evidence of his growing frustration was apparent during a focus group. He said, "It's depressing because I'm not as good as I want to be. You guys are doing better than I am. <all

laugh>" Kim asked, "As long as you feel like you just did, can't you see yourself getting better with experience?" Frank responded, "Yeah, but that's what just pisses me off so much now…I hate not being the best" (FG, 11/99). However, the greatest insight into his frustration was provided when Frank stated,

> I don't know, I don't think I'm as far as I'd like to be right now. I am just a little frustrated, I guess. <pause> I'm not as good as I'd like to be, and I know it's first year, and, I mean, the kids…supposedly our team is one of the harder teams to deal with. We've got some kids that have a lot of problems, and IEPs and behavioral problems, but…I don't know. There's some days that I just walk out of there and it's like…I don't know if the kids got anything right now…And, I guess I just wasn't expecting that when I was teaching (FG, 11/99).

His expectations, based on preconceptions and reinforced in his own education and in his earlier field experiences, collided with a new reality.

Later that month, with no warning, Frank dropped out of the program and this study. He did not call anyone prior to dropping out. He just did not show up at school. He refused to return phone calls or e-mails aimed at understanding his actions. I was able to have a brief, informal interview with him during the half-time of a middle school basketball game Frank attended. His young cousin, one of my students, informed me that Frank would be coming to the game. In essence, Frank said that he no longer wanted to teach. He felt that there was no way he could plan the types of lessons expected of him. It took a lot more time, effort, and energy than he had expected. All that withstanding, he felt that maybe he could have been successful if his internship had been at a different school. But he felt he could never achieve the success expected at Manchester – not with the students and the combined expectations of Mr. McKee and Dr. Wilson (IN, 2/00).

Instruction

Case 1: Theresa

By the end of the intern year, Theresa completely rejected the vision of instruction encouraged by the university. Her classroom management style was custodial in nature, with a distrustful teacher versus student atmosphere. Her instruction focused on keeping the classes managed rather than encouraging learning. The sole source for teacher and student knowledge was the textbook. Adaptations to meet students' needs were completely disregarded and Theresa did not reflect on, and therefore did not alter, her instructional strategies. By the last semester of her intern year, Theresa had settled into a repetitive weekly pattern that included introducing materials via notes on Monday and testing on Friday. She viewed lecturing not only as a good way to teach, but as the *only* way to teach. This view was heavily influenced by her colleagues at the school, her negative feelings towards her university supervisor, and the lack of consistency in expectations between the school and the university.

Variety of strategies. The change from using a variety of strategies to depending on just a few, teacher-directed strategies occurred very early in Theresa's intern year. As early as the third week of school, she was writing notes on the chalkboard and asking questions the entire bell (OB, 9/99). Her university supervisor suggested that Theresa uses an overhead projector instead of the blackboard, which "takes an inordinate amount of time" (OB, 10/99). At that point in the school year, Theresa was not depending solely on lecture and lecture-discussion strategies. For example, in October, her government class did research in the library to produce five paragraph essays about constitutional amendments and court cases related to them. But Theresa's first formative assessment by

182

the university-school team noted that she was using lecture as a management tool to the neglect of other strategies: "To address classroom management problems, Theresa has employed a limited variety of teaching models and lessons" (FA, 10/99). This was not phrased as a criticism, but rather as a recognition that management was a primary concern; implementing additional strategies was a lesser concern.

Theresa's dependence on lecture could have stemmed from her lack of planning. Explaining what she had planned for the next day, she commented, "I have the…its objectives, procedures, material, evaluation. And I have that for all the way up to now. But I don't know what I'm doing tomorrow [in this class]. But I don't have that for American Government" (IN, 10/99). She was unapologetic for her lack of planning, blaming it on being behind in grading paper work (IN, 10/99). This lack of clarity in presenting information was observed by her university supervisor and the mentor teachers on her team. Her university supervisor noted, "Seemed hard for them [students] to get the idea [of necessary and proper] – could you have used *examples* of things that are implied?" (OB, 10/99).

In addition to using few instructional strategies, Theresa also used very few, if any, resources other than her textbook. By October, she explained this dependence, saying she was "sticking pretty closely to the textbook" (IN, 10/99). This change to individual seatwork and lecture was due in part to the influence of the students and their behavior and in part to the school's organization:

> When it comes to classroom management, my ninth graders can't handle seatwork, much less group activities. They cannot do it. They cannot sit still. They cannot be quiet. They can't listen to a lecture, they can't do an activity, they can't pay attention to directions. But I cannot instruct them. They can't do what I'm asking them and it's impossible. They must have seat work, and the thing is the only methods we [in the University] did are

all these group methods, all these…and they are wonderful, and it's very valuable learning. But if you have a group of kids the way I have this group of kids, and if you start school the way I did, you're going to go in there and you're going to try talking to these kids, and they're going to go absolutely insane and rake you across the coals (IN, 10/99).

Theresa recognized in this the importance of beginning-of-the-school-year routines, which she never had a chance to implement: her schedule of what she was teaching and the students' schedules of where to report were so disorganized that more than a week went by before Theresa had her students in the correct classes.

The change was also in part due to comments and modeling of her mentor teachers, which contradicted CITE's desired outcomes. For example, Theresa talked to the site liaison about an upcoming observation. Theresa relayed their conversation, "I said, 'Oh, we're doing this great thing with these groups and the kids are going to present.' And she [the site liaison] said, 'But then I'd be watching the kids.' And I'm thinking, 'The creators of their own learning.' And she's like, 'I'd rather watch you'" (IN, 11/99).

Based on these comments, models, and advice, Theresa came to the conclusion that "everything's teacher led," not constructivist and student-centered (IN, 11/99). The socialization effects from the university were disappearing as teachers in a "real" setting told Theresa what really worked and what did not. By December, Theresa stopped assigning homework. "I don't give homework because it won't be done. The kids I have won't do it. They will fail and then whose fault would it be?" (IN, 12/99). Also by December, Theresa appeared to use lecture and handouts as the main strategies of teaching, rarely using anything else. She half-joked, "I pass out lots of dittos – I am the ditto queen" (IN, 12/99). She also was completely dependent on the textbook as the

knowledge source. "I stick very closely to the textbooks. I haven't used the enablers or standards yet [i.e., district curriculum guidelines]" (IN, 12/99).

Four separate observations within one month, made by her mentor teacher, the site liaison, and two mentor teachers show her dependence on lecture and handouts: "Students asked to copy study guide off the board…students take notes from overhead projector" (OB, 12/99), "Using an overhead projector with subdivided topics all under the topic 'science'…." (OB, 1/00), "All 11 (out of 20) students appear to be copying notes (off the overhead) quietly…. Students copy down notes while Theresa speaks on the topic. Occasionally, Theresa asks for student response. On most occasions, the students fail to respond" (OB, 1/00) and "Theresa used overhead to have students take notes…. Theresa asks questions about case they studied yesterday. Three students put their heads down and only a few students answered questions" (OB, 1/00). One mentor teacher, noting that Theresa spoke on a topic while the students wrote notes, suggested, "I think the students are too busy writing to listen. As people finish writing, ask questions" (OB, 1/00). Similar observations continued throughout the remaining school year.

While it is conceivable that Theresa was observed only on days that she was lecturing, her written plans confirmed what the observations show. She lectured almost every instructional day for the full period. Her plans, written in the planning book's boxes, left no doubt that lecture is what she intended. For example, her weekly plans in February for the government class were: "Monday: Review Locke's theory, notes over events; Tuesday: notes over differences; Wednesday: Venn diagram; Thursday: Review vocal and read book; Friday: Test." Her weekly plans for the economic class were very similar: "Monday: notes over definitions; Tuesday: notes over how to produce a product;

185

Wednesday: review of first two days and worksheet; Thursday: review vocabulary and read book; Friday: test." The Thursday reviews in both classes consisted of students individually defining the vocabulary words to turn in and then reading the book chapter, sometimes answering the questions at the end of the chapter (FN, 1/00).

Theresa also confirmed that this weekly schedule was how she planned. In an interview, she said,

> I do everything – the exact same thing every week: Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday I lecture. They have a beginning of the class assignment, I lecture and then they have an assignment. Thursday they get a study guide. They are to read the chapter, do the questions, do the book work. Turn in the book work and study for the test. Fridays they have a test. And if they've been good this week, they get 15 minutes at the end of the bell on Friday. It's very structured (IN, 3/00).

When asked how she came up with this weekly schedule, Theresa said that she gained it from a mentor teacher, Mr. Hatford, who was teaching the same subject as she was. She further explained,

> I did it primarily because I'm teaching economics and I don't know anything about economics and in order for me to get through, I have to be this structured and this teacher centered cause I have 97 kids right now and 37 in one class, 34 in one and 25 in another one and *I* have to be structured and *I* have to have control (IN, 3/00).

As mentioned earlier, Theresa also used this format for her government class.

Theresa's strong belief that direct teaching was the best way to teach clouded her reflective vision so much that Theresa did not recognize student-centered instruction even on those few occasions when she was using it. Furthermore, she appeared surprised when students learned without taking pages of notes. The best illustration of this is the lesson she chose as being her best from her intern year, a lesson on interpreting political

cartoons. This lesson had been provided by Dr. Wilson in her social studies methods

class. As Theresa explained,

> It had JFK and Khrushchev and Castro. And Castro was in this baby
> carriage, Khrushchev was in this nanny outfit and Castro had a sling shot
> and it hit JFK and it was right after the Bay of Pigs. But this was also
> going on during Elian Gonzales, the whole thing and the kids were really
> confused at this (IN, 3/00)

In order to clarify the cartoon, a full period discussion ensued in which both the students

and Theresa asked and answered questions. Theresa related,

> They were like, "We get it! We get it!" and within this whole lesson, they
> hardly wrote anything on – with my classes, they felt they had so many
> notes. We did this whole lessons on political cartoons and they hardly
> wrote anything, but I think they got some really good information (IN,
> 3/00).

Thus, Theresa recognized that the students had gained information and that the

instructional strategy worked, but it surprised her they learned, even though they had not

written pages of notes.

Theresa's vision of teacher-directed teaching became stronger as the year

progressed. For example, after students were no longer responsible for homework,

Theresa made it an in-class responsibility. She explained that she "found that homework

was not turned in, so I give them the last 10 minutes [to do homework] and have them

turn it in…" (IN, 4/00). She explained this change in her Portfolio:

> Nothing had worked with this class and the material was not getting covered.
> After trying a variety of strategies to motivate and involve my students, I found
> something that finally worked: lecture. My students refused to answer questions,
> read, write or do anything else. So I lectured to them…. I began to give my
> students notes on the material every day…. I gave the students a test every Friday
> and allowed them to use their notes (P, 5/00).

In this way and others, students heavily influenced Theresa's socialization.

By May of her intern year, having students copy notes directly from an overhead with a lecture was no longer merely a management issue, but seen as an effective method to teach class. As Theresa indicated on a day I observed, class would be boring, but the kids were to be doing straight book work as punishment: normally she provides overheads to copy (FN, 5/00). Initially, she claimed that if

> I had been teaching history, it would have been different…because I have more materials, I have more knowledge. I can bring things that I know of from my classes into it. But with government and economics, I had to make sure that I covered the material that would be on the common exam (IN, 5/00).

However, an excerpt from the final interview with Theresa contradicts this statement, clearly illustrating her shift in teaching methods:

> *I:* If you were to describe your teaching style or matter of instruction, how would you describe it?
> *Theresa*: Teacher directed. <Said instantly>
> *I*: Why – like give me an example.<long pause> Like what types of things do you do that are teacher directed?
> *Theresa*: I give lots of notes, I give lots of assignments, I give – I have an assignment for nearly everyday… Either book work or worksheet or some kind of supplemental reading … And I think it's a management issue and that's why I'm so teacher-directed 'cause I'm scared to death 'cause I had so many management problems in the beginning that I'm <u>not</u> going to be able to teach and manage my students. So in order for management, I keep myself in constant control of the classroom.
> *I*: In the best possible situation, let's say you get a dream job teaching at whatever school, they have money – 'Prince Charming High' – given what you know now. Kids are all angels, they're going to do all the work. Parents are never going to complain.. Would you continue to teach this way or would you—How would you teach it?
> *Theresa*: I would say I would probably keep things same way. 'Cause I think I have relatively good kids comparatively speaking at West High I mean, I do have – the majority of my kids do do work. Of course there's *x* amount in each class who flat out refuse to do any work...I still think I'd be teacher directed.
> *I*: Any particular reason or that's just….
> *Theresa*: The best teachers I've ever had have been teacher directed whether they realize it or not. But the best teachers are teacher directed and we are there to teach them (IN, 5/00).

As this exchange documents, Theresa originally claimed that she would teach differently if it were a history class and that she used lecture as a management tool. However, when given the hypothetical "Prince Charming High," she admitted that she liked direct teaching better because it was effective for her when she was a student. Her change in beliefs may be due partially to Mr. Hatford, her mentor teacher, who explained his own teaching philosophy and the advice he gave to Theresa.

> These kids need structure – you need to care, but you're the teacher and set rules….Many of the interns show up and have no clue about teaching inner-city kids—the professors don't either. The interns show up and try to bring theory in and want to do group stuff. The kids took advantage of it and talked. With four kids in a group, two may work and the other two may talk about what they're doing this weekend. Theory may work beautifully in some classes and not at all in others…. I stress getting the kids involved, not doing straight lecture. Like I'll put some things on the board and discuss those and ask questions to draw the kids in. It's very structured and it gets them involved (IN, 5/00).

Thus, the original effects of the CITE program and of her field experiences appear to have been erased, leaving Theresa's original and deep-seated beliefs intact, allowing her to completely justify her actions without apology.

By the end of the intern year, Theresa affirmed that she was "textbook based, definitely" because the school standards and the related school-wide common exams were centered on the textbooks. She said that a fellow teacher, who had helped write the common exam, had advised her to "go by the text," so she followed it chapter by chapter (IN, 5/00). When asked about any journals or content from university classes that she had used in her classroom, Theresa responded,

> I never look at *Social Education*. It came in the mail and that's it. I threw it in the trash…. It's just another thing that I had to do and I didn't have time for it. I usually made most of my assignments, thinking stuff up,

using the textbook. That was my savior. Using the supplemental materials
from my textbook (IN, 5/00).

Therefore, Theresa's move to using the textbook as her only source was caused partially by Theresa's own lack of subject matter knowledge, but also due to the influence of an experienced teacher who encouraged her to do so.

Lastly, by the end of the intern year, Theresa no longer adapted for the students at all because she believed it to be pointless. "I might give them more time, but that's it. I don't really feel that I'm so difficult that they can't do it. They're allowed to use their notes on their tests" (IN, 5/00). The view she held the year before, at which point she was annoyed by her cooperating teacher for not believing in the students' potential, was entirely erased. She explained that directions had to be kept short because they "can't understand anything else." These directions included "sit," "stay," and "me talk, you no talk" (IN, 5/00).

In both actions and beliefs, Theresa did almost a 180 degree turn. She abandoned her professional year's philosophy of employing a variety of instructional strategies and adaptations based on students' needs and interests. Instead, she adopted a philosophy that lecturing and having students take notes was the only way to control a class and have all the students gain information. The influence of the students, her mentor teacher, and her own internal/pre-training beliefs combined to erase much of the influence the university and prior field experiences had previously had.

Management. As she entered her intern year, Theresa's self-confidence in her use of a humanist approach led to an intense internal tug-of-war. On one hand, her lack of classroom management strategies overwhelmed her. As one teacher observer noted in September, the students "bombarded [Theresa] by one *inane* question after another. This

190

is no exaggeration. In fact, inane questions were so many in number that they overshadowed the lesson…and were simply too disruptive" (OB, 9/99). On the other hand, Theresa desired to continue using a humanist approach, believing it was the "right" way to handle a classroom. For instance, she proudly shared her method of handling a dating couple in her classroom:

> They sit next to each other and that doesn't bother me as long as they can keep it under control. My back was turned, I was writing something on the board and something was said and it – it had something to do with a lollipop and what she was saying to do with it. I mean, it just sounded so bad. So I was like, "[the girl], have a seat up here…" and I told her, I said, "You understand why I moved you." She goes, "Yeah." I said, "We'll try it again tomorrow. If you can't handle it tomorrow your – your seat will be moved permanently." Because I wanted to give her a chance because there hasn't been any problems up until now. But, you know, for the split second there, there was no noise in the room at all except for her saying what she was saying and it was inappropriate. I don't know what it was about, I'm not making any accusations (IN, 10/99).

Early on, she blamed these discipline problems in her classes on the class not "being a good mix of kids" as they were "diametrically opposed to [her] goal of teaching the class" (IN, 10/99). She added, "They're nice kids and everything outside of class. I'm sure that they're very nice" (IN, 10/99). In this way, she showed a desire to follow a humanist approach, believing that the students were good at heart and that they would work hard if she were able to persuade them.

At the same time, however, she admitted that they were not like the students at her first field placement.

> Teaching at [the first field placement] was what I thought [teaching] would be: all the kids wanting to do well and their focus was on work – they weren't focusing on cutting out of classes.… The students' goal was to learn. Walking into a class at [intern placement], especially my ninth graders and the class I happen to have, my goal is to teach them and their goal is to not allow me to teach….They make comments about my mother. They make comments about me (IN, 10/99).

191

In saying this, Theresa admitted her frustration and lack of classroom management skills. She acknowledged her need to improve in the area of classroom management: "What I want to work on the most is…establishing myself as an authority figure and letting them know what is and what is not appropriate to call me, to say to me, that kind of thing" (IN, 10/99).

Despite these espoused beliefs, Theresa's actions became custodial faster than the above words might indicate. As early as September, she was already using custodial management techniques while espousing humanist beliefs. The change toward custodial management strategies was encouraged by her mentor teacher who concluded an observation by stating,

> I shared with her…my opinion that she should (a) immediately rid her class of the most troublesome group by pre-writing referral sheets and/or (b) by calling parent/teacher conferences for those same students. Also suggested that she confer with fellow team teachers to see what assistance they might offer (OB, 9/99).

Likewise, her university supervisor encouraged a more punitive style of management. The supervisor noted, "When talking continues, as it did, why not a warning about punishments – detentions, etc.—some students seem to feel comfortable ignoring your directions to keep quiet" (OB, 10/99).

By November, the tug-of-war was over with the custodial management side emerging as the clear winner. Her attitude changed to an antagonistic "me versus them," teaching and control expressed as "winning," "losing," and "battles."

> I take it day-to-day and battle to battle. Like, if I win with fourth bell I'm happy. And I go in, and I usually win with fifth bell. And then like I'll win with sixth bell, but if I don't win I'm talking about the power struggle, if I don't win with fourth bell, well fifth bell… I'll usually get seventh bell

192

because I have that little break, but, you know, and I will sit there and go,
"I win" (IN, 11/99).

This "me versus them" attitude was also shown in class through her non-verbal body language. When Theresa became angry and/or frustrated, she would cross her arms tightly over her chest, glare at the students and increase the volume of her voice, changing its tone (FN, 11/99).

As her management style changed, Theresa began to believe that too much theory and not enough "practical advice" was given in the educational program. The practical advice missing, she felt, was mainly custodial management skills. "There's no practical advice given. For example, there's no knowledge of referrals. What type of offense do you write a referral for – like if someone asks you if you have a boyfriend?" (IN, 12/99). Interestingly, her complaint that custodial management was not taught was never brought up prior to her internship.

While some management problems persisted from November through January, her second quarter formative assessment stated, "Classroom management skills have improved during this time period. Use of a structured approach… enables Theresa to maintain control over student behavior" (AS, 1/00). With this praise and increased success, Theresa appeared to accept fully the custodial style of management, abandoning any remaining desires for a humanist management style.

By March, Theresa had rejected the CITE program's expectations, believing them to be unrealistic regarding what teachers could expect of students and of themselves. She explained,

> We go in with all these false ideas, like we're going to love every one of
> our students and we're going to teach them and they're going to love your
> class no matter what. And you walk in. And they [students] are like,

"Man, you have an attitude!" They hate you. They hate your lesson. They hate what you have to say. They don't want to know what you're talking about. They don't care. They don't bring paper. They don't bring pencils…(IN, 3/00).

Theresa believed "if I can keep control of 37 students for a 50 minute period, then I'm doing something right" (IN, 3/00). Her need to keep control of the students overshadowed her concern for their learning and her desire to follow the CITE Themes.

In April, I noted that "as kids start talking, Theresa's voice just gets louder in order to be heard over them. She stands at the front of the room, her arms crossed in front of her. She is definitely giving off closed body language" (FN, 4/00). She claimed that her students in two of the three classes she taught hated her (FN, 4/00). My impression was that the students were bored and that she hated them (FN, 4/00). Interestingly, Theresa was aware of this closed body language, recognizing that it signified her anger (FN, 4/00). She explained,

> I have a tendency to obviously become angry and I'll sit there and I'll count. And I'll go one, two…. Cross my arms, glare and count. One, two, three. And then it becomes who can get Miss Thomas wound up the most. And they recognize that. And I need to work on that or I'll get upset. "Do you think I stay up 'til 4:00 in the morning writing my lesson plan? Because it's what? Fun?" I was like, "No! Everything I do is for you…." You know, it's that kind of stuff. And then I get very adamant when I start this "I do everything for you' and 'I'm here for you" and blah, blah, blah. And sometimes is again becomes who can get Miss Thomas riled up the most" (IN, 5/00).

However, despite this awareness, Theresa did not change her actions.

Toward the end of her internship, Theresa recognized that she was using lecturing and other teacher directed strategies to maintain control, not for other educational purposes. "And I think it's a management issue and that's why I'm so teacher-directed 'cause I'm scared to death … that I'm *not* going to be able to teach and manage my

students. So in order for management, I keep myself in constant control of the classroom" (IN, 5/00). In criticizing the CITE program, Theresa showed the strength of her custodial management beliefs. She said that what's taught at the university is

> ideal theory. And the thing is, you have to be so pragmatic, especially going into…the type of environment that we are in. You can't go in and say <in a high pitched, fake-positive voice>, "Oh! We're going to follow these rules and we're going to respect these rules." Nooo. You have to say "When I talk, you no talk." And you have to say it just like that. Short sentences. Almost like you're talking to a child. To a small child. "When I talk, you no talk." You know, "Sit." "Stay." One word commands. "Quiet." "Shut your mouth." "Put your butt in a chair." As clear and as concise as possible because they don't get it if you're not clear and concise. They just don't get it. You can't go and smile and be <again, in high pitched falsetto>, "I'm your friendly neighborhood teacher" because you're not. You're not. You have to be the bitch from hell. And you have to intimidate them and you have to write referrals (IN, 5/00).

Her experiences during the intern year challenged and then replaced her previously held beliefs. As the year continued, her complaint gained strength:

> They didn't tell us what a referral was [in the program]. They told us to make friends with the janitors. No, you go make friends with the assistant principal – because if you're not friends with the assistant principal, you don't have any friends. The people that do the discipline, you have to say, "This is my situation. This is what happened. This is what I need you to send a clear and concise message to this child that you will not do that in my class ever again." And the thing is that they don't realize that. They don't teach us how to speak to parents. They don't teach us –- or what we're going to get. They don't tell us to go and follow-up with our referrals. They don't tell us any of that stuff. I didn't know what a referral was. I mean, there's so many things that they don't tell us (IN, 5/00).

These complaints illustrate Theresa's dependence on custodial management strategies, including writing referrals, threatening students, and punishing them harshly. The CITE ideal protecting the self-worth of all parties and minimizing tactics that are punitive in nature" are clearly rejected (CITE, p. 36).

By the end of the school year, Theresa was proud of her management techniques. She believed she was showing her strength as teacher and as a person by making all the decisions in her class and having students completely obey her. She explained,

> I tell them continuously, this is my teaching space and in my teaching space, I make the decisions. You are entering my space here. They don't like to hear that, that I am *allowing* them in my space. 'Cause I'll boot them out, and they know I will. 'cause I had two kids withdrawn from my seventh bell. "You have no hope of passing, I hate having you in my class and you will no longer be in this class." I told them both, everyone was like "Ooh." I told them after school, but everyone I've told that I told that to, they can't believe it. I went down, I cried to the counselor, and I said can we do this now? And she did it right then and there (IN, 5/00).

She continued to brag about her classroom management in her portfolio, claiming,

> When the students become too disruptive, I calmly walk to the board and write, "Detentions for making noise." The students realize that they have until the last letter in "noise" to settle down. This is the last warning to the class…. This is a way to show the students that they were out of line, that I was not fooling around, and gives the students a cue when they are pushing me" (P, 5/00).

These examples show that in actions and beliefs, Theresa accepted a custodial management style in which she had the power and the students had no say.

Although Theresa prided herself on this harsh management style, her university supervisor and lead mentor teacher did not seem impressed. They continued to offer advice strikingly similar to the advice proffered at the beginning of the school year. "Your voice is still rather shrill – try being more quiet—don't try to talk over them…" and "[You] didn't use the DT [detention] list after you put it on the board – would that have helped?" (OB, 5/00). As these two observations reveal, despite the changes Theresa made, she still did not have control over the classroom and that the climate may have actually deteriorated.

While she initially held to the humanist management style, Theresa did not know how to use it and she had little control in her class. Her colleagues and supervisor suggested detentions, office visits, phone calls home and other custodial actions. Theresa accepted this advice and adopted a custodial management style, which she took to the far extreme.

Instead of endorsing the importance of students' background and experiences as she did in a reflective paper during her professional year, Theresa believed that she no longer needed to listen to students and that what they had to say should not be accepted as truth. "One of my best management strategies has been the ability not to accept excuses. Reasons are fine, but not excuses. Reasons are explanations that are given from other teachers, office personnel, security or parents." Excuses are provided by students, and can never be accepted (P, 5/00). Thus, she ended up on the other end of the spectrum, equally ineffective, but believing that she had control over her classroom. The management strategies encouraged by the CITE Instructional Theme were completely rejected.

Case 2: John

At beginning of his intern year, John was not required to turn in lesson plans prior to teaching and his instruction was not aligned to the CITE goals. As his intern year progressed, his planning became more consistent and his instruction overall improved, until the last quarter at which time his planning and therefore the effectiveness of his instruction lessened. The expectations regarding planning by his mentor teachers and by university personnel strongly affected John's progress towards the CITE goals and therefore strongly affected his socialization regarding his actions concerning instruction.

Planning. John's planning at the beginning of his intern year lacked specific details that made previous lessons successful. For example, a one-page lesson plan was supposed to cover three days of instruction, even though the procedures only included broad ideas like introducing students to liberal, conservative and moderate policies via a classroom discussion and having students apply these definitions to three issues (LP, 9/99). Thus, the trend from his professional year of doing full lesson plans only when required and in a short time period when possible continued during his intern year.

The effects of this lack of planning were observed early in the intern year by John's university supervisor and by mentor teachers. A mentor teacher wrote in an observation, "Did you have clear objectives in mind in your instruction? I was left with the impression that you were 'winging it' to some extent. I couldn't see a definite focus…" (OB, 10/99). The university supervisor's observation indicated that class ended early. She suggested, "Don't let them get so noisy at the end of period! A brief activity at end to keep them engaged might help – a brief competition or a set of review questions…or a current events issue…" (OB, 10/99). During an interview, John agreed that these observations were valid. He commented that he often had an idea in mind, but that he had not spent the time necessary to fully develop it. Also, he recognized the need to develop his lessons a few days before instruction, not the night before or morning of teaching (IN, 10/99). These observations and his own realizations shook John's beliefs in his own skills as a teacher. However, even in difficult times, John's confidence in himself was apparent. As he explained,

> [Teaching]'s difficult. I knew it would be difficult. It's something I think
> I'll get a lot better at over time…. Because I would say right now if I

looked at teaching and said, "Okay, the last seven weeks are going to sum up how your teaching career is going to be," I wouldn't do it (IN, 10/99).

He believed that it would get better and easier with additional experience.

John rationalized that his lack of experience was the greatest obstacle. He described the process of learning to teach saying,

> After you've had 5 or 7 or 10 years teaching, I mean, you've taught something before and you can go back and relate to how it worked the first time. How I did I teach that lesson? How can I make it better? Each year builds upon that. Then, that's when you're teaching, that's when you're going to be an effective teacher down the road a little bit (IN, 10/99).

This could be why he continued to ignore the planning process. For example, in early November, he admitted, "Sometimes I'll do virtually no planning. Like today, I didn't have much planned going in. I mean, I had an idea. I knew where I was in the syllabus and what I had to cover, but I didn't have a lesson planned out…."(IN, 11/99). His strong confidence in his ability to extemporize was apparent.

By the end of November, John began planning lessons, as evidenced by classroom observations. For example, in a lesson plan about the United States politic from 1796-1800, John planned and implemented a lesson that began with a lecture and then had students fill in a sheet of definitions, which he created (OB, 11/99). "The class went well" and "the students were mostly attentive," observed his mentor teacher. John introduced another lesson by asking students to "list things they would need to survive on an island and why" (OB, 11/99). He used their responses as a segue into a discussion regarding what Lewis and Clark would have taken with them. For the remaining time in class, John had the students create a deed for the sale of their high school based on a model he showed on an overhead projector (OB, 11/99). In each of the lessons, preparation and planning was evident.

John's improved planning continued into December, at which point he believed he was doing a fine job in the classroom.

> It is easier than it was at the beginning of the year. I was outright nervous – I mean, who wouldn't be? – in August. Now I have a pretty good comfort level. I'm enjoying teaching more and more. I know what I am capable of, what turns them [the students] on and off. It's more rewarding and they know where I'm coming from, too"(IN, 12/99).

He credited his comfort level, not his increased planning, for the improvements in instruction. Further, he expressed his faith that through experience he would improve his instruction, shrugging off the possibility of immediate improvement by making adjustments to his second world history class. He said he looked "forward to teaching those types of lessons, I can't do them as a first year teacher. Maybe in three or four years down the road. There's a *lot* going on in the head of a first year teacher" (IN, 12/99).

John's planning was at its strongest during the third quarter of his intern year. His plans were written a week at a time. Though brief, they included objectives, procedures and assessments. For example, instruction for a week of lessons about World War I included a video and worksheet, questioning sequences, lecture, discussion, student produced letters home from the front, primary source readings, music of the time period, and a simulation (LP, 2/00). Although some suggestions regarding management and presentation were made, John's lead mentor teacher observation during that week concluded, "Good classes, John" (OB, 2/00).

As the third quarter drew to a close, however, John's planning began to decline. He explained,

> Regardless of whether you planned out a whole week or a unit, maybe you tweaked it that day, you can go in that morning and – I remember freaking out the night before, "Oh my God, I don't know what I'm going to teach tomorrow!" But that doesn't matter. You know you can come up with

something, and not just something, but something meaningful – some of the time (IN, 3/00).

By spring He was teaching the same topics, World War II and then the Cold War, to both his World History and American History students. He justified this practice by asserting that it "helps if I teach the same thing in both – it helps cut down on the preps [preparations]" (IN, 3/00). He continued this practice through the end of the year, believing that he was doing fine by gliding through without much planning.

During the final quarter of the internship, the time and effort spent on planning seemed to decrease. Before an observation, John claimed he was trying to try to ease himself back into teaching after spring break (IN, 4/00). He explained, "Today is a get-back-into-the-swing-of-things day – not a ton of information…. I found an article on the Internet that I thought was pretty interesting" so he decided to base a lesson on it (FN, 4/00). The article, which was about the current cost of nuclear weapons, was only distantly related to the topic of the Cold War and did not relate to the school's curriculum guidelines. However, John found it to be an easy prompt around which to build a lesson. When asked about daily, weekly, or monthly planning, John acknowledged that he planned his lessons on a day-by-day basis without creating unified units due to a lack of time.

> Just didn't have time this year. And right now, I'm just trying to get through the content. Units will design themselves over a few years as you accumulate methods and materials and stuff. Next year is when it'll get better – I'll have this information under my belt… (IN, 4/00).

John held strongly to his belief that "units will design themselves" sometime in the future without him having to put forth a significant effort. Despite the lack of planning, John was obviously surprised by the poor student involvement in his lessons (FN, 4/00).

By the last month of his internship, John had given up any pretense of planning. He admitted that lesson plans "would get drawn up later. I – you couldn't type all that stuff up. You just didn't have time. I only typed it up when I had to – when I had to turn it in" (IN, 5/00). He recognized that he had not reached a consistent planning pattern, even by the end of the year. In regards to writing daily lesson plans or units, he said,

> It would depend. Some weeks were better than others. If I was organized, I'd have the whole week planned. Other times, I'd have it in the back of my mind by Monday what I wanted to do, what material needed to be covered, but I didn't know what activities I was going to do (IN, 5/00).

John also expressed a desire to plan more consistently in the future.

Based on his instructional effectiveness in class, it was apparent that the "other times" were prevalent. For example, John began class saying to his students, "Yesterday, we relaxed some. Today, we need to get to work" (FN, 5/00). The "work" for the day was for students to individually answer 20 multiple choice questions in 30 minutes in order to review for the school district-wide common exam. Students were all finished within 20 minutes. John then provided the answers to the questions with explanation, but the students were not paying attention at all (FN, 5/00). In another class, John's lack of structure, especially for the introduction, was observed and noted (OB, 5/00). John also admitted that once the common exam was over, he did not really expect to be doing much teaching. Thus, the year ended as it had begun, with a strong reliance on impromptu teaching and the expectation that experience would replace the need to plan. John's failure to consistently devote adequate time and care in creating lesson plans and units prior to instructing students was evident in both his beliefs and his actions. Without this preparatory effort, consistently fulfilling the CITE theme of Instruction was unachievable.

Instructional strategies. Based on his success at the end of his professional year, John entered his intern year with the desire and intent of using a variety of instructional methods. His desire was to "use the book kind of as an outline and then try to fill in where [he] can put in a variety of teaching methods and interesting activities that will make it a little more acceptable to the students" (IN, 9/99). While he did use a variety of instructional methods, his instruction was flawed. For example, early in September, John provided articles to students regarding conservative and liberal viewpoints. After time was given for reading, students were given questions to answer. Only 13 of his 31 students started the reading, while "most of the students just sat there…most were just daydreaming" (OB, 9/99). As John started talking about liberals and conservatives, "several students [were] carrying on side conversations. John talked louder" (OB, 9/99). Thus, although he attempted to use a variety of instructional methods, they were not matched to the students' behavior. His lead mentor teacher suggested in a written observation to John, "Stop talking when students are talking. You can't just raise your voice. Ask students to stop and if they don't, you have to have consequences" (OB, 9/99). This advice went unheeded.

A few days later, John assigned students to work in pairs and define vocabulary words concisely on index cards. Each pair had one or two vocabulary words, which were pre-printed on the index cards along with the page number on which to find the information. John nearly had to shout over the students to be heard as he provided these directions. At the end of the allotted seven minutes, students shared their definitions aloud and John wrote them on the board. Due to students' off-task behavior, the class covered only eight of the definitions by the end of class (FN, 9/99). When asked about

203

the amount of material covered, John said glibly, "Hey, well, we got something done today. That's better than normal" (IN, 9/99).

By October, John claimed to have given up on using a variety of instructional methods with his classes due to their behavior. He explained,

> I can't have a discussion with them right now. I cannot have a lecture discussion. We can't discuss because they don't know how to behave themselves. And part of that would be because I didn't establish that at the beginning of the year. But now it's gotten to the point where I'm just going to have them come in. I'm going to give them a list of terms to know, give them a pre-test, give them – say, read the chapter, do the questions, do a worksheet, review, take a quiz at the end of the week. It's going to have to be that Monday through Friday for the next couple of weeks until they learn how to behave. And then gradually, I'll work back to where we start doing interactive stuff. Group work? Forget it! (IN, 10/99).

By the second week of October, this plan was in place. For example, John had the students individually complete political maps of Europe; identify of people, places, and events from their textbooks; and read chapters in class (LP, 10/99). He also gave very structured lectures using an overhead projector, short videos, and vocabulary worksheets (OB, 11/99).

In November, students' behavior had improved and John once again began to use a wider variety of instructional methods, especially using a student writing exercises. For example, to gain the students' attention, he asked them to "write down six things that they would need to survive on an island and why. All of the students participated" (OB, 11/99). John transitioned from this to what Lewis and Clark needed to take on their explorative journey westward in 1804. During that lesson, he also had the students "put a deed together on the sale of [the] high school. Students were given an example of a deed on the overhead" (OB, 11/99). In December, John showed a video on Reconstruction,

after which students were put into groups to design plans for Reconstruction from either the President's or Congress' viewpoint. In a lesson a few weeks later, students, in pairs, created timelines. The students, sitting at desks and on the floor seemed very concerned with doing quality work (FN, 12/99). Mid-way through the year, John's beliefs and actions regarding the use of instructional strategies began to align with the goals of the CITE program. He continued to espouse that a variety of methods were needed to reach each student and that it was necessary to adapt instruction to each group of students (IN, 12/99).

John continued to use a variety of instructional methods from January through April. For example, he had students create Decision-T's ("for" and "against") when learning about the Spanish-American War and imperialism (OB, 1/00). He had students watch videos, write He letters home "from the perspective of a solider on the front line," analyze primary source documents, propaganda, and songs, role-play the creation of the Versailles Treaty, and debate ethical dilemmas confronting world leaders during World War II (LP, 1/00, 2/00, 3/00, 4/00). Most of these lessons also included lecture for a segment of the class. A mentor teacher characterized John's classes "interactive" and noted that John got a lot of "mileage" out of the students (OB, 1/00).

After spring break, the situation changed. John mainly used seatwork and lecture-discussion claiming to feel overwhelmed by the creation of his portfolio and job search,. As his planning decreased as did the variety of his instructional methods (FG, 3/00). His top concern became "just getting through the end of the year. Wrapping it up, keeping them on task" (FG, 3/00).

Management. Because John entered classrooms that were already smoothly running during his professional year placements, John had not needed to worry too much about implementing management techniques and developing a classroom climate prior to his internship. That situation changed as an intern. Preparing for the internship, John rewrote and adapted a paper from his classroom management class. It showed his initial expectations and ideas about managing a classroom. For example, he recognized that it was important to "establish procedures each day for checking attendance" and that "students should behave in the classroom appropriately at all times. As students enter the classroom, expected behaviors should be exhibited immediately" (RE, 5/99). John expected students to behave responsibly, signing the "in/out" sheet near the door "when they need to leave the room for cases other than emergencies… [and] waiting for an appropriate break during instruction to leave the room" (RE, 5/99). He also provided detailed expectations regarding student group work and class participation. However, while writing what students should do, he never included what the consequences would be if they did not cooperate..

At the beginning of his internship year, managing his class became his main concern, especially as his preconceived expectations were challenged. As he explained during an emotional interview, "The management class was a joke. This is just trial by fire" (IN, 9/99). When asked if anything could have been done to help, he replied, "Nothing can be done to be prepared. I will be teaching in the suburbs or rural schools. I'm going to high tail it when this year ends" (IN, 9/99). These beliefs were influenced by the situations he experienced in his classes early in the intern year. For instance, a class observation in mid-September found John struggling to give directions to students. He

206

could not be heard above the din of student conversations. The students were off task and appeared to have no desire to start on their homework. John continually said, "Class! Class" trying to get the students to quiet down. A boy whom he had kicked out of class continued to stand by the door, waiting to be told to leave again. After class, John looked a leaf that he took from one of his students: it was definitely marijuana (FN, 9/99).

By October, John's frustration with the student behavior, absenteeism, the administration, and his own lack of ability to change the situation was nearly palpable.

> I've never been in an environment where I've just had maybe seven, eight, ten kids that just don't care. That know they're not going to graduate. They don't want to graduate. That as soon as they turn 16 or whatever, whenever, they're able to, they're going to quit school. Some might quit by the end of the year. I've never had to deal with kids that just don't care. That's an impossible situation, because they come in and they want to talk. I mean, you can keep throwing them out of your class, but you've got to have supportive administrators (IN 10/99).

Later in that conversation, John added, "The racial mix doesn't even bother me that much. But just a place where kids have a bit of respect. A lot of them don't here" (IN, 10/99). John, who went to school in rural Pennsylvania, found that his prior experiences as well as his university courses had not prepared him for the culture of a large inner-city high school.

In order to gain support, John tried to talk directly with the building administrators.

> I've told them, "Okay, that day, I've had problems with this class. I need you to deal with them." But sometimes they don't. I mean, they—I understand the assistant principal's point of view, the disciplinarian point of view. He says, "I have a stack of things this high I got to go through, you know? And then problems come up during the day where kids get into a fight and kids get arrested. They've got to go to the hospital and I got to deal with all those things. And other things and this stack keeps getting bigger and bigger and bigger, and it's like, by the time I get to your kid down here, it's a week later or something." What can you do? What can

you do? You know what I mean. You try to deal with it as best you can (IN, 10/99)

John vacillated between caring very much to improve his management techniques and improve classroom climate and not caring at all and feeling powerless. In an interview in October, John first said he was "basically on cruise control, waiting for June," because January to June was going to be the real sprint, the important time in getting them ready for the common exam (IN, 10/99). Later he said,

> But they're [students] being difficult so I'm going to be real difficult with them I mean, I'm just going to – I'm going to make it where they'll be busy the entire period. They're doing individual seatwork. If they mess up, they're out. I'm kicking them out. It's got to be that way. Got to be that hard starting tomorrow (IN, 10/99).

His daily struggle to keep any control of his classroom was burning him out even as he had only begun teaching.

By November, John's beliefs vacillated to the far extreme. Complaining that his students could be tardy seven times before getting suspended, John's solution was to "lock the damn doors first bell" to make students accountable and keep the trouble makers out (IN, 11/99). To John, the school seemed like a chaotic free-for-all in which effective instruction or learning could not take place.

John claimed to be trying to follow the set discipline policies of the school. "I've redone the seating chart and tried to start working on it that way. I've talked to kids on an individual basis, given them detentions, given them referrals, started booting them out of class." (IN, 10/99). Finding that did not work, John latched onto any advice given to him. He found teachers who could offer support and advice in and out of the social studies department. "I have a math teacher down the hall that's so supportive of me. I like him a lot. We get along well. I use him as a kind of a second mentor. He tells me it takes years

to develop a discipline style…." (IN, 10/99). He changed his views on instruction because they did not mesh with the management techniques he was advised to use. He also considered the very structured weekly pattern Mr. Hatford, his lead mentor, followed:

> Monday they get questions. Tuesday, they work out of the book. Wednesday is videos. Thursday is review. Friday is a quiz. He does that every week of the year. He does not deviate…. In an urban environment, [that structured week] is what works. In the suburban, it would be boring. And he would probably get chastised by parents and other teachers (IN, 10/99).

While this structure went against John's preconceived view of management and classroom climate, he decided to follow it for "the next couple of weeks until they learn how to behave" (IN, 10/99). His desire was to "encourage on-task behaviors using routines and procedures" as the CITE Instruction Theme promotes (CITE, p. 36).

With this new management strategy in place, John gained more confidence in his ability to keep control in the class and develop a positive classroom climate. "I've gained confidence in lesson planning, management strategies and situations. Like there was nearly a fist fight in the class today and I handled it" (IN, 12/99). In the hallway, John talked to the students in a calm, authoritative voice and pacified the students (FN, 12/99). On the chalkboard that day, a student had written, "Mr. Tindal is the best history teacher" (FN, 12/99). Although management problems had not disappeared, they had lessened significantly and the classroom climate had improved.

As the year continued, John was able to manage students better. Part of the improved behavior was due to the number of his students who dropped out of his class. He began the year with well over 115 students among his three classes; by March, he had about 60. In some respects, John returned the philosophy he had accepted at the

beginning of his first field experience, which he stated as "Maybe they're not always paying attention 100% – maybe they're just sitting there. But they're not making noise, they're not cutting up. So for those who don't want to learn and for me, who wants to teach, I think it's going to be a pretty good situation" (IN, 1/99). His lead mentor teacher observed this philosophy in action.

> A few students took [a simulation] seriously and worked on the assignment, but too many just talked or stared into space…. John, you need to have more structure in what you re doing to get more kids involved. Majority of kids weren't involved. Chaos reigned (OB, 2/00)

However, John felt that the students who wanted to learn had been given the opportunity to do so and he had done an adequate job teaching.

This concern with only the students that want to learn showed that John had given up on some of these students. He confirmed this, saying,

> I'll tell you what surprised me was the thirds…. There was a third that are going to succeed, there is a third that can go one way or the other and there is the bottom third that literally don't care…. Half make it, half don't and that's the exact percentage 'cause when you start ninth grade and have a group of 500 that enroll, by the time you get to twelfth grade, there's only 250 that have made it (IN, 3/00).

Additionally, his view of students, especially in comparison to neighboring suburban schools, solidified. John claimed that he could a lot about the students and the community just by looking at the faces of students as they walk down the hall. For instance, he claimed that the students "look like they're healthier, they're not as tired, there's not as many drug problems, there's not as many single parent homes, things like that. Not as much alcohol. I think the kids are more motivated [at suburban school]" (IN, 5/00). These assumptions about urban students factored into his management techniques and expectations.

210

In May, reflecting about the year, John believed he had been ill prepared in regards to classroom management techniques, lacking the knowledge to

> plan out things like seating charts, or different discipline ladders or how you're going to deal with certain situations or how you're going to deal with students coming in and leaving your class. Or getting new students three weeks in or sending home a letter…. Nothing can prepare you for it. You just have to go through it to learn how to deal with those things (IN, 5/00).

Part of his problem, he stated, was also the lack of support from the administration regarding management policies (IN, 5/00). John's frustration with the institutional constraints, especially absenteeism and a lack of policy about it, was very obvious.

> At [this] high school, [the discipline policy] is pretty random: no attendance policy and they say that year after year that attendance is their number one problem. Well you know what? If anyone misses 20 days, they're done. Kick them out. Do it. This is our policy. Make it public knowledge…. If we have a mandatory 20 days and you're out policy, kids will come to school. And those who are going to make it are going to stay. They're going to make it there and they're going to get their education. Scores are going to improve; test scores are going to improve. If kids drop out, so be it. They're overloaded every year. It's not a problem. Believe me, they get two, three, four-hundred kids there each year that have no business being there (IN, 5/00)

Despite its harshness, this statement illustrates that John continued to hold his early views regarding management techniques. Similar to coaching a team, he was in favor of helping and teaching those who wanted to learn and work; the rest could be dropped as dead weight, interfering in the goals of the team.

To summarize, John entered the CITE program with the preconceived belief that classroom management would be the same as coaching a team. Good rapport with the students would exist, but he would be in charge without question. This heavily moderated custodial management theory was strengthened by his field experiences, but was greatly challenged by his internship. Despite considerable fluctuations during the year, John's

211

management by the end of the year was only slightly more custodial than it had been at the beginning of his entrance in the CITE program.

Case 3: Kim

Kim's beliefs were aligned with the CITE Instructional Theme, but her actions at times fell short of her desired goal. She was continually encouraged by her team to use a greater variety of instructional strategies, improve clarity in articulating directions and expectations, and be consistent in her management strategies. Kim's overall improvements were noted by her team and in her own reflections.

Variety of strategies. At the beginning of her intern year, Kim's desire to use a variety of instructional strategies was often hindered by her ability to provide clearly articulated directions and expectations for classroom activities. In addition to making it less effective than it may have been otherwise, it also caused management problems (discussed in the management section). This was observed by her university supervisor, Dr. Wilson, who commented, "Students need clear, specific directions for classroom activities. As evidenced by the number of questions students asked regarding what they should do, the tasks were unclear. Be sure to provide specific procedures and criteria, including time limits" (OB, 9/99). Likewise, a mentor teacher suggested, "Write out warm-up directions as clearly and detailed as possible" (OB, 9/99). This latter observation concluded,

> The biggest issue is student off task behavior. Several strategies should help: first, most of your problems are related to a lack of planning. Work harder at providing clear, detailed directions, anticipate possible areas of confusion and misunderstanding. Second, create systems that reduce confusion and mixed messages. Students want to know what's expected; they want to do the right thing. Try to make it as easy as possible for them (OB, 9/99).

Other observations by the lead mentor teacher, site liaison, and other team members echoed these sentiments: "Be sure directions are clear. Your lessons plans should be very specific as to the behaviors and materials you want and need" (OB, 9/99). While Kim recognized her "need to make sure directions are clear" and to have "clear expectations for behavior," she attributed her deficiencies to inexperience (RE, 10/99).

Kim worked on improving her ability to provide clear directions as well as using a variety of strategies in her class. One method Kim favored was project-based cooperative learning. She explained that she tended to go from project to project as it kept the students focused and involved, and allowed her to clarify content that the students did not fully understand (IN, 10/99). In addition to students learning the content in-depth, the project approach permitted more interaction with peers and the teacher. This approach put Kim in the role of facilitator and clarifier, rather than a provider of knowledge. She confided that she preferred this role because it put her less in the limelight (IN, 10/99). Kim described one such project with obvious pride. The students worked in small, cooperative groups using stories, readings, and other information, to make

> one map of the Native American Tribes and their regions. They worked on either Central, Eastern or Western United States. And that's a poster map. And then two other maps. They're outlining natural resources…and physical characteristics and climate. Then they're to compose a presentation two to three minutes long about how – how did they think culture was affected by environment and climate and natural resources. So they're, they're liking the drawing of the posters, but – and without them realizing it—they are gaining the map skills…(IN, 10/99).

After the students finished their maps, she had them pretend to be a Native American children and write about how those lives would be different than their current lives (IN, 10/99). Kim liked this writing assignment because she was "real big on the literature," viewing writing as a means to higher-level thinking. "As Dr. Wilson says, the proficiency

test is going to be on what you can do more than on what you know…. If you have this information, what can you do with it? So that's what the making of the map is about as well" (IN, 10/99).

Despite some successes, Kim's university-school team, consisting of Dr. Wilson, Mrs. Salinger, the site liaison, and two mentor teachers, felt that Kim was not sufficiently meeting CITE goals for the Instruction Theme. On her first quarterly assessment, the team commented,

> Uses adequate instructional strategies and management techniques. Will benefit from employing a wider variety of teaching methods…. Consistently providing clear and explicit directions, both orally and in writing, will enhance instructional effectiveness…. Greater attention to planning is needed (FA, 10/99).

Interestingly, Kim claimed to spend a great deal of time on her lesson plans, feeling vulnerable without them (IN, 10/99). She shared, "John wings it, and Theresa doesn't even write lesson plans – <laughs> I'm not that brave, but I have to believe – I know my students would suffer from that…. And I can't bullshit good, but, you know, it just seems like that" (IN, 10/99). However, she added that she had not put in as much time into planning as she expected. "But I don't think that's a good thing. I know that beginning now; I need to have more detailed lesson plans. And the organization, which is an issue for me in my entire life, is becoming more of an issue in teaching" (FG, 11/99).

Following her admission of needing better lesson plans and the formative assessment, Kim created a chart at her team's direction, entitled "Mentoring Action Plan" (RE, 11/99). She listed the constructive criticism in the left column, the necessary changes under the heading "implementation" in the center column, and described her responsibilities in improving in the right column. Responding to the lack of variety, she

wrote, "I will employ at least three different teaching methods each week" which corresponded to "I will share my lesson plans with mentor teacher at least once a week. This will include a week's worth of lesson plans" in the right column (RE, 11/99). To provide clearer directions, "I will pre-write directions for students and use them orally when explaining;" This was to be monitored by her mentor (RE, 11/99).

During the following quarter, written observations shows that Kim increased the variety of instructional strategies she used. For example, she used a Jeopardy style game to review the Salem Witch Trials. The site liaison observed, "The game format for class is often a difficult one to manage. I commend your willingness to tackle it. You took the correct proactive avenue by making sure that the students knew the rules and expectations before you began…" (OB, 11/99). In another lesson, the students read "Defending the Redcoats," an account of John Adams' choice to defend the British after the Boston Massacre. Following the reading, the students created a "decision tree," learning how to generate alternative choices, predict consequences, and make decisions (FN, 12/99). In a geography lesson, students worked in pairs to create a fictional world tour for their favorite musicians, using longitudinal and latitudinal directions (OB, 12/99). The site liaison who observed this lesson noted that the activities worked well and that Kim "made good adjustments when things didn't go as expected" (OB, 12/99).

At an interview in December, Kim was asked if she was receiving adequate feedback about her teaching. She responded, slightly bitterly, "No, I don't really need more feedback. I know that I need to improve in planning. I get feedback though, from [two career teachers], Wilson and Salinger. I get more feedback here than they get anywhere else." However, some of this feedback clashed. "Mrs. Salinger says [the test I

gave] was too hard – that I give them too much reading…. Mrs. Salinger has really good proficiency rates – like 85% – but it's all drill and practice. It's exactly against what Wilson says" (IN, 12/99). She added "And Wilson doesn't have a grasp on what goes in schools now. He's got a lot of really good ideas, but they just aren't practical" (IN, 12/99). This tug-of-war between drill-and-practice and idealism led Kim to trying to please two masters, a near-impossible goal.

Despite the clash, Kim continued to work on improving the clarity of instruction and instructional variety. In an observation, Mrs. Salinger wrote that Kim "organized the students to work in groups to work on compromises involving the tariff and slavery" (OB, 1/00). She noted, "Instructions were specific…. Your questioning techniques were very good. You were able to help them sort their arguments" (OB, 1/00). In another lesson, she was criticized by Dr. Wilson for "the very slow pace of the lesson" (OB, 1/00). However, she earned his praise for adapting information into a handout for the students and using analogies to "help explain the nature of federalism" (OB, 1/00).

In her second formative assessment, the team noted that Kim had increased the variety of instructional strategies used and had become more consistent in providing clear and explicit directions. They were still not satisfied with her overall planning, however, noting, "Effective planning is a key to successful instruction. Needs to improve in this area" (FA, 1/00). This conclusion differed from Kim's self-assessment. She spoke in more positive terms when she wrote, "A wider variety of teaching methods has been employed…Greater attention to planning that includes writing out questioning sequences has also aided my instructional effectiveness" (RE, 1/00). In order to improve, Kim took

Dr. Wilson's advice to create a quarterly plan in which she outlined the content she wished to teach over the following 10 weeks.

Kim continued to increase the effectiveness and number of instructional strategies and resources used until she left for maternity leave at the end of March. For example, in a lesson concerning the roles and effects of political parties, the site liaison observed,

> The entire format for this lesson was a good one. The portfolio activity was an interesting one. There was variation and opportunity for students to be producers of their own knowledge. Students were organized into different groupings with whole group at the beginning and end. There was some written work and creativity involved in getting students to make posters that presented rationale for the issues (OB, 2/00).

However, providing explicit directions continued to be problematic for Kim. The liaison concluded with this suggestion:

> With a little more attention to pacing, smoother transitions, and clearer directions, this could have been a better lesson…. Try to slow down the pacing at transitions…. Try setting up expectations for behavior and then calmly leading them into the activity in an orderly way. Also, be sure to go over at least one example before setting them off on their own (OB, 2/00).

As with other constructive criticism, Kim internalized it and began to work on improving her instruction, including "chunking" lessons in order to make them more manageable and meaningful for students. She reflected,

> I could probably list a lot of things that I should be doing that I'm not. You can always put more time into planning and more organized. That's my big thing. I'm not sure that I'll ever think I'm doing everything I can be. But I don't know. I guess I think I have a decent rapport with my students and I think that maybe on average, I'm getting across to them what I want to. I wouldn't say I'm way up here. I don't feel like that. Probably okay, but not horrible. I think of what the evaluations say. That's probably where I'll be at the end of the year, that I'm capable and confident, but by no means extraordinary (FG, 3/00).

Thus, although not consistent, Kim believed she was competent in her ability to facilitate constructivist learning in her class.

By the end of third quarter, Kim's self- assessment stated, "Greater attention to planning has been my focus. I have used a variety of teaching methods and approaches to enhance my effectiveness…. Directions have consistently been increasingly explicit in both oral and written forms" (RE, 3/00). The team's formal assessment echoed her self-assessment, praising her use of teaching methods, including adaptations to accommodate students' differing ability levels (FA, 3/00). However, like the two previous assessments, it concluded, "Will benefit from more detailed planning of lessons" (FA, 3/00).

Kim returned to teaching after just under six weeks of maternity leave. When she returned, she was tired, but she wanted the school year to end positively for herself and her students. She claimed to want to put everything she learned into practice for the remaining few weeks. The four areas in which Kim wanted to improve were: (1) Clearing up her own thought process, (2) not making assumptions about students' knowledge and skills, (3) not "breaking things down enough," and (4) clarifying directions (IN, 5/00). Improvement in the area of organization was one of her future goals. She explained,

> I still have such a hard time with that and everything is scattered all of the time and I still think I'm – breaking things down into small parts for the kids. I can do it, but I don't – I still don't think I've trained my mind automatically to it. So I have to stop in lessons sometimes, re-do it.… But I've learned so much this year (IN, 5/00).

She concluded, "Time has been my enemy all year. And I don't think that will go away" (IN, 5/00). Reiterating this, Mrs. Salinger said, "Kim did pretty well – there were extenuating circumstances which made it so that she did not make as much progress as she could have – mainly time constraints" (IN, 5/00).

When asked about her best lessons for the intern year, Kim responded that she was pleased with the lessons she had done on elections and compromising, calling them "good lessons." She explained, "The give and take. I think that's important thing for them to learn. To compromise. I also put people together that didn't like each other when we did this. It worked out most of the time. And I think they've gotten better at that kind of thing" (IN, 5/00). Laughing as she remembered Dr. Wilson's feedback that she spent too long on negotiation and compromise, Kim added, "These kids don't get enough of this [compromise/negotiation] in their lives" (IN, 5/00). Thus, even through the end of her intern year, Kim reflected on what the students needed in their lives that would be meaningful, relevant, and needed.

Kim did not complete her required portfolio, but said that it was a matter of time before she would (IN, 5/01). However, based on the field notes and observations, interviews, lesson plans, and formal assessments, it is obvious that Kim accepted the overall philosophy of the CITE's Instruction goal from the start. She believed that a teacher should use a variety of strategies to accommodate students, utilize a variety of resources, and alter instruction to promote the content and meet the students' needs. She accepted constructive criticism and was able to make progress in aligning her actions with the goals, such as improving her articulation of directions and expected outcomes. More than any other intern, Kim tried to fulfill the goals in the Instruction Theme. Unfortunately, responsibilities outside of the CITE program prevented Kim from accomplishing complete alignment.

Management. When Kim started her intern year, she tried to use the same management techniques that worked for her during her professional year. However, two

important differences existed. First, Mrs. Salinger did not socialize the students prior to Kim entering the room. Second, Mrs. Salinger was not in the room, dispelling discipline problems simply by her presence. These factors combined with Kim's lack of clarity in articulating directions and expected outcomes led to management problems in her class early in the year.

Dr. Wilson noted classroom management problems in a mid-September observation. He indicated students were asking "lots of questions" and the "noise level rising" during the course of the lesson. In this formal observation, he wrote,

> Effective classroom management hinges on three components – (1) effective, well-planned, well-paced lessons, (2) a positive, supportive, business-like environment, and (3) proactive teacher responses to off-task behavior. Although you felt the students misbehaved during this lesson period, I felt they were quite good overall, particularly in light of the lesson. Much of the off-task behavior was attributable to the design and pace of the lesson. Use proactive measures to minimize off-task behavior. You have a good presence in the classroom. Consider how you can capitalize on your strengths while making adjustments in each of the three component areas. Doing so now will enable you to avoid management problems in the future (OB, 9/99).

One of the mentor teachers echoed this advice in a formal observation later that month.

> The biggest issue is student off task behavior. Several strategies should help: first, most of your problems are related to a lack of planning. Work harder at providing clear, detailed directions, anticipate possible areas of confusion and misunderstanding. Second, create systems that reduce confusion and mixed messages. Students want to know what's expected; they want to do the right thing. Try to make it as easy as possible for them (OB, 9/99).

In her observation later that month, Mrs. Salinger noted that the "students were noisy coming into class," that a couple of "students were out of the seats and talking," that "some students were working on their presentations while they should have been listening," and that the transitions between group presentations were noisy (OB, 9/99).

The advice these three experienced educators offered to Kim centered on the need for her to be more thoroughly prepared and to provide more specific instructions to the students.

Kim recognized that her management skills were problematic, but she viewed it as an effect of using constructivist instructional methods. Kim explained that since Dr. Wilson's visit three weeks prior, she had been primarily using constructivist activities. "But in doing that, I'm losing an immense amount of time in classroom management issues…I'm wasting a lot of time on inappropriate questions and – and I'm dealing with those things. And for the most part, they're at the forefront, because I feel like I cannot get anything else done…" (IN, 10/99). Kim held to the belief that management problems were the result of constructivist activities rather than recognizing the connection between planning and improved management. The more constructivist her activities were, she reasoned the more discipline problems she would experience.

Recognizing that her university supervisor expected her to use constructivist instruction, Kim focused particularly on improving her management techniques. For example, Kim claimed that she tried to improve students' on-task behavior by including questions including "What are Ms. Williams' directions for the day," "What are Ms. Williams' expectations," and "How many maps do I have to make." Kim laughed bitterly, "I spent probably 10 minutes [covering those questions], which was a large portion of time considering that I wrote it all on the board yesterday, and spent 45 minutes going over it" (IN, 10/99).

By the end of the first quarter Kim rated herself as "basic" on a four-point assessment form (i.e., unsatisfactory, basic, proficient, and distinguished). She reflected, "I need to make sure directions are clear. Clear expectations for behavior" are needed

221

(RE, 10/99). Her team agreed, also rating her as "basic," commenting, "Continued efforts in managing groups are needed" (FA, 10/99). They also stated that Kim "Demonstrates respect and caring for students" (FA, 10/99). Although this latter commented was noted under the Context Goal, these comments combine to illustrate Kim's desire to mentor her students rather than to punish them into submission, showing her humanist management philosophy.

As the next quarter progressed Kim's management techniques improved. For example, in a November observation, the site liaison wrote, "You worked hard to consistently tell students what expectations you set for the [review] game" (OB, 11/99). She pointed out that when a student no longer wanted to play this game due to peer's comments, Kim "took the time to point out how this behavior (mocking others) is received by others" (OB, 11/99). The site liaison also indicated that Kim handled two bickering students well by "not engaging in an argument or any kind of verbal exchange" with them (OB, 11/99). In a lesson that I observed, Kim used her physical presence to keep students on task, walking up and down the aisles as the students read, touching students' shoulders if they were not on task (FN, 12/99). In a January observation, Mrs. Salinger remarked positively on her explicitness in stating the expected learning outcomes, and directions for lesson activities. She also complimented Kim on how well she handled off-task and misbehaving students (OB, 1/00).

When asked about her developing management skills, Kim explained that she received good ideas and feedback from Mr. Sentry, a veteran teacher in the building.

> He has good ideas regarding dealing with the kids. His observations are
> real, practical, in-line with my own ideas and philosophies. Kind of like, if
> Dr. Wilson is over here (to one side) as an idealist and Mrs. Salinger is

over here (on the other side), then Mr. Sentry is right in the middle. If you combine the two of them, he's what you get (IN, 12/99).

She explained that somewhere in the middle was where she hoped to be as well.

For her second quarter self-assessment, Kim noted that her use proactive management techniques that encourage on-task behavior had improved, but this was still a concern for her (RE, 1/00). Her team agreed that Kim had improved, but only slightly. While noting that Kim "became more proactive in [using] management techniques," they also stated that she needed to make greater use of positive management strategies and review and update the classroom rules and procedures (FA, 1/00).

During the third quarter, Kim continued to improve in this area. For example, when students worked in groups and began talking loudly, Kim circulated through the room, using proximity to quiet students and complimenting those students who remained on task. She also assigned one student who would not stay in his seat a lunch detention. Her team recognized this progress, remarking that she "consistently shares expected instructional and behavioral expectations with students. Needs to use more positive management techniques (e.g., praising desired behaviors; reducing reliance on threats of punishments)" (FA, 3/00).

After returning from maternity leave, Kim's management techniques became increasingly custodial. The influence of the students and her mentor teacher caused much of this change. For example, her attitude towards using worksheets changed slightly.

> Mrs. Salinger – she uses worksheets. That's just what she does and it has been effective with the discipline...I'm probably less against them now than I was before this year...because it offers some structure. When kids are going bonkers and you can't get them – it's hard to get them to work in groups when they're arguing with each other – so there are times where that is more effective, more effective than anything else I could do (IN, 5/00).

While Kim still preferred to use a constructivist approach, worksheets became a positive method to use, especially in helping to control students behavior.

It is apparent that her overall improvement in management strategies was mixed in relation to the CITE Instruction Theme expectations. On the one hand, she often did "create instructional environments in which on-task behavior was encouraged, ending off-task behavior with minimal disruption of the class" (CITE, 1999) She sought to "protect the self-worth of all parties," as she cared for her students. However, the CITE goal of "minimizing tactics that are punitive in nature" went unfulfilled. Kim's management strategies moved more toward custodial management as her intern year passed.

Case 4: Frank

Until his internship, Frank did not take responsibility for much of the day-to-day activities involved in teaching. As he recognized early in his intern year

> There's just a lot of things that you don't cover in your classes like the student teaching part of it that you have to cover now. Attendance. You never had to take attendance before. Grades, recording grades. Passing work back to kids, um, dealing with people who are absent. Never had to deal with that. Everything. Going to meetings. Running off copies in a timely fashion. Learning how to work the copy machine. Things that you just don't take into account that you go into the student teaching [teaching associate] setting and everything is set up for you. All you have to do is walk in and teach. Walk out and you're done. Whereas now, everything (9/99).

In addition to all of these non-teaching activities, he also not only had to plan daily lessons, but to organize them logically in units.

During the intern year, Frank perceived that he was not as successful on his own as he was the previous year. Without a mentor in the class to help smooth over

224

management problems, absenteeism, or re-explain directions to the students, Frank's instruction was less fluid and less effective. He not only complained about receiving little support from his mentor, but also missed the praise he received at Mineo High. As he struggled to plan daily lessons, he began to doubt his ability to teach and to believe that the time invested was Frank justified by his performance. As he stated a few weeks before he quit, "I feel right now I could just sit down all day and plan. And my lessons still wouldn't be as good as my lead teacher" (FG, 11/99). At the end of November, he dropped out of his intern year and left the CITE program.

Instructional strategies. Frank entered his intern year, excited and anxious. His main concern during the first few weeks of school was "keeping everything fresh and interesting – and planning" (IN, 9/99). To do this, he used some of the instructional methods from his professional year. "I picked up some stuff at Mineo. A lot of things that I'm incorporating I saw over there. The *History Alive* type of stuff" (IN, 9/99). He also wanted to "raise the level" of critical thinking in his class (IN, 9/99).

> I use Bloom's Taxonomy a lot when I'm developing lesson plans. When I was starting off, I wasn't getting much above the knowledge level and comprehension and things like that. Now, I try to incorporate application and stuff…. I have 72 minutes – a lot of time. So I try to have two – I try to break the class up into two different parts. Like the first part of the Renaissance and the Renaissance ideals and then I tried to shift gears and did Machiavelli. Just kind of broke it up (IN, 9/99)

In one class, he had students read excerpts from Plato's *The Apology* (OB, 9/99). In another class, he used Tupac, a rap artist popular with the students, to introduce Machiavelli (FN, 9/99). He also created an "Olympic Week" simulation. Five groups of students, representing the cities of Athens, Sparta, Corinth, Argos, and Megara, designed a flag and motto, for their city and then prepared a short overview about the city-state to

225

present to the class (OB, 9/99). Students also wrote responses in their journals to open ended questions such as "What city-state would I rather live in and why (from Sparta, etc.)," "Assume the role of a patrician, soldier, plebian,, etc. and write a letter to a friend," and "Select a modern day figure that represents the Renaissance ideal" (FN, 9/99).

Unlike his previous experience in Manchester High, Frank did not use the textbook with his students. "I told them that they would start getting into it, but up 'til now, we've not used it at all. I have read it, read the chapter, and then decide 'that's good, that's not'" (IN, 10/99). Instead, Frank used the teacher's edition from Mineo's World History class. "Mr. Sipps told me to go ahead and keep it…. I've actually gotten some ideas out of that textbook" (IN, 10/99).

During a focus group in November, Frank claimed to still not be using the teacher's edition of Manchester's textbook very much. "I mean, I haven't gotten anything from there. I just sit down…I've used my activities log a few times…" (FG, 11/99). The activity log, a description of instructional strategies, had been an assigned project in his social studies methods class the previous year. Activities pulled from the log included "jigsaws, and roundtables, and think-pair-share-square, and that kinda stuff" (FG, 11/99).

Three months after leaving the program, Frank explained in an informal interview that he did not feel capable of planning the type of lessons expected of him. It took a lot more time, effort, and energy than he had expected (IN, 2/00). And yet, through the end of his time in the CITE program, Frank's beliefs and actions had been aligned with the directive to use a variety of instructional strategies which match the needs and

226

abilities of the students. He incorporated many of the instructional strategies he learned

through laboratory experiences, university classes, and cooperating teachers.

Planning. At the beginning of his internship, Frank's planning appeared to be

going well. His university supervisor, Dr. Wilson, even noted its obvious presence under

"strengths of the lesson."

> You had selected and duplicated the excerpt from *The Apology* and pre-
> written some questions about it in your lesson notes. You had also
> prepared and duplicated group material for the Olympic segment. Colored
> markers and paper were available for students to use in the flag creating
> segment of the lesson (OB, 9/99).

Frank appeared well-planned and prepared in another lesson when he presented notes to

the students. The overhead transparencies outlining the information were pre-written.

Frank presented detailed, well-researched information without using his notes and asked

a variety of questions, including higher level ones. Likewise, the examples he presented

to the students were obviously thought about prior to the lesson (FN, 9/99).

In an interview during the first month of his internship, Frank appeared willing to

put forth the effort to improve in his planning. For example, he said that he could

"definitely work on" the "little things" pointed out by his university supervisor Dr.

Wilson and lead mentor teacher Mr. McKee (IN, 9/99). Making the "big idea" obvious

was one area of perceived weaknesses. "I think if I definitely go in with those big ideas

that I want [the students] to get, it will definitely help my clarity of instruction, give it

more of a direction" (IN, 9/99). Despite this talk of needed improvements, Frank seemed

pleased with the system he had worked out for planning.

> I'm staying about a week ahead of the game. So I'm all planned up for the
> rest of the week . Once I get into the week, I can kind of firm up. At night,
> I'll actually write up the lesson plan. Like today, something could have
> happened. I may not have gotten through this lesson plan. I have found

that if you draw up a lesson plan and set it in stone, you start getting the lesson plans – You could have three lesson plans lined up for the day. You have a little of this one left to teach, a full lesson plan, and you might get through that one early so you have this one. I get here [to the school] about 7:30 in the morning and we don't start until 8:30. So I'll sit down and firm up exactly what I want to do for that day (IN, 9/99).

Although Frank felt that he knew what would happen for "the whole week ahead of time," he was actually creating his lessons day-by-day (IN, 9/99).

In the same interview, Frank admitted to being overwhelmed by planning. He felt he often could not find chunks of time on weekends to plan due to track meets (IN, 9/99). He said that he tried to grade papers and plan lessons on the bus, but there were too many other things going on at the same time (IN, 9/99). He was also frustrated because he had to meet the school's standards, listed in "strands." Frank explained,

I've been through planning and it's just kind of overwhelming. There's six strands and strands under each of those. It's just overwhelming because you have to – there are 50 some enablers you have to cover in the course of the year. A lot of them you are supposed to cover multiple times. And they get really specific, like having the kids compare philosophers of the Renaissance (IN, 9/99)

Frank did not link these enablers to the "big ideas" suggested by his supervisor and mentor. Instead, he added each demand to a growing to-do list. This list included taking attendance, recording grades, passing work back to students, going to meetings, and running off copies. He complained that during the field experiences, "everything is set up for you. All you have to do is walk in and teach. Walk out and you're done" (IN, 9/99). He did not recognize these activities as parts of the full planning processes for a teacher.

Six weeks later, Frank had changed his planning methods and was less confident in his abilities. He began to meet weekly with Dr. Wilson, in addition to the regular team meetings and the weekly applied social studies methods class. Frank recommended this

practice to other participants in order to gain suggested ideas prior to teaching a lesson (FG, 11/99). He also now had full lesson plans a week ahead of time. Proud and embarrassed, Frank shared, "Right now, knock on wood, I'm a week ahead in my planning…All next week … It was only with severe prodding from upper management that I got a week ahead" (FG, 11/99). He laughed about the lack of time he spent planning during first quarter. "There's some mornings I woke up and I was like, 'Oh crap!' I set the alarm for 6 o'clock, get up, and dream something up by 8:30" (FG, 11/99). After some good-natured teasing by the other focus-group participants, Frank explained his new method of planning.

> I mean, I sit down. And actually have planned out the entire month of November, what I want to cover on those days. Using the credit granting standard and our textbook and things like that. And then I just stay down and started picking-off week by week. I just go through and I try to… if I'm doing slavery, there's certain things I want to do about slavery I just go to a bunch of different sources that…uhh…Like Mr. McKee, my lead teacher has, and I'll just pull stuff out of there. Go to [teacher resource library]. Just find different sources and… I'll get the ideas of the topic from the textbook a lot of times but I'll go somewhere… to any outside source I can find to try to get that across.

> Even with this great plan, though, time became problematic for Frank.

> It's definitely the most time consuming thing I've ever done. Probably the hardest thing I've ever done…. It's definitely way harder than I thought it would be initially…all the time, the preparation…even when you do put the time into it you can still come out with complete crap…. Something that looks great on paper. When you get in the classroom and you're like, "Damn, this sucks" (FG, 11/99)

He continued to believe that his most time-invested lessons would still be steps in quality below Mr. McKee's lessons (FG, 11/99). So although Frank had a greater understanding of what lesson planning entailed and a support system in his mentor and supervisor, his self-confidence was waning and the amount of time demanded to plan well taxed him.

Management. Entering his intern year, Frank was positive about the students and confident in his ability to manage the classroom. Just as he had during his professional year, Frank believed that having a good rapport with the students and knowing the popular culture on students' level could lead to both easy classroom management and improved learning. Frank explained, "I can talk to these kids. When I was planning for this lesson, I was like 'Oh man! Talk about Machiavelli. I'd better work in Tupac on that one" (IN, 9/99). He explained that rap-artist Tupac's posthumous album was titled Machiavelli, because both supposedly faked their own deaths (FN, 9/99). Frank reflected after the lesson, that he liked

> using sports or rap or something like that. I mentioned Tupac twice and the whole class. Everyone starts talking and getting involved. It turns them on…. That part went well. They're definitely going to remember Machiavelli, better than they would have otherwise (IN, 9/99).

Based on Machiavellian ideals, student pairs created governments, considering the goals, types of leaders and laws (FN, 9/99). Frank walked around the room, helping the students. After class, he explained that this particular class was harder to engage. He found it easier to give notes at the beginning of the class because they got quiet with that (IN, 9/99).

How Frank handled students' complaints when assigning of new seats showed Frank's desire to "protect the self-worth of all parties and minimize tactics that are punitive in nature" (CITE, 1998, p. 36). "I ain't sitting in the front," stated one student. Other students also complained, some stomping their feet. Frank proceeded calmly in the assignments. One student, sitting in the back, was angry about his seat and decided to ignore Frank. Frank approached the student, asking "Can you handle it?" The student nodded and shook Frank's outstretched hand (FN, 9/99). Later, when he told the students

230

that their test scores were low, a student started making bird-whistling sounds. Frank looked at the student, calmly asking, "Do you want to go to ISS [in school suspension]?" The student stopped immediately with no further recurrences (FN, 9/99).

Frank tried to align his actions to the CITE theme by establishing a set of classroom procedures to create an orderly environment (CITE, 1998, p. 36). For example, after writing the question "When did modern time begin" on the board, Frank verbally asked the question. When a student shouted out the answer, Frank ignored him and then called on another student who had raised his hand (FN, 9/99). Despite these observations of using successful management strategies, Frank believed that he was learning on the job.

> Management was weak over there [at the university] – not a lot of useful things were given to us…. In instructional management we had a book that just glanced over stuff like that. We didn't do anything practical with it. We didn't experiment with different things. We just talked about it and wrote things down. It was all in a big line, so I don't remember what we talked about (IN, 9/99).

Nonetheless, Frank appeared at ease in front of his students and his classroom seemed well-managed, despite Frank's feelings.

By early November, Frank's confidence in his management strategies had lessened. He shared, "Management is becoming a problem" (FG, 11/99). He felt that his lack of management skills were due to deficiencies in his university classes and field experiences, lack of support from his mentor teachers, and the students' apathy and lack of motivation.

Frank contended that neither the university classes nor the field experiences had prepared him for effectively managing a classroom (FG, 11/99). He felt that a greater

emphasis on management was needed in the program, especially in the field experiences.

He commented,

> We were walking into a classroom environment that was always created for us by our mentor teacher. We had zero training in how to create the environment that we wanted to have in our classroom and goals for our class. I mean, like, what you're going to put on a syllabus, information sheets, stuff like that. We didn't talk about that at all…. You just don't get any idea of the total responsibility that we're going to have this year in the student teaching environment, as far as grading, and preparing lessons on a daily basis and stuff like that. And, we really didn't get any training in that. Uhh…how to manage a classroom. I mean, we took a class in it but…We didn't get training in it, and…That was the most overwhelming thing (FG, 11/99).

> In a focus group discussion, Frank contended that his situation was very difficult.

He said, "Supposedly, our team [in the school] is one of the harder teams to deal with.

We've got some kids that have a lot of problems, and IEPs and behavioral problems"(FG,

11/99). When John tried to console Frank, the following conversation ensued.

> *John*: And, I mean, the more that you don't know and have to react to on the fly is going to make you a better teacher in the future. I know it's painful, and it still is sometimes, but, we're going to be so much better prepared next year.
> *Frank*: I don't know if I agree with that logic: Stick your finger in that light socket… ZZZZZZT! You'll know next time not to stick your finger in that socket…(FG, 11/99).

Similarly, John and other participants tried explaining to Frank that learning management

strategies on the job was par for the course, but he dismissed their comments. He was

frustrated because, although he recognized it was his first year, he was not as good as he

wanted to be.

> I don't think I'm as far as I'd like to be right now. I am just a little frustrated, I guess. <pause> I'm not as good as I'd like to be, and I know it's first year, and, I mean, the kids –, but…I don't know.…And, I guess I just wasn't expecting that when I was teaching (FG, 11/99).

Again, Frank's preconceptions about teaching contradicted what he was actually experiencing. This contrast between perception and reality, causing cognitive dissonance, may have led Frank to quit the CITE program two weeks later.

<center>Learning</center>

Case 1: Theresa

By the end of the two years, Theresa had rejected the constructivist philosophy in many ways. She said that she would use direct teaching methods, with the teacher as sole producer of knowledge via notes, even if her students were perfectly behaved and intelligent (IN, 5/00). Yet, when asked about her "best lessons" throughout the two years, Theresa always chose lessons that were constructivist in nature. They were student-centered with students being the producers of knowledge and their projects were goal-oriented. In this way, her espoused theory regarding learning was dichotomous. She claimed lecture was the best way to teach students, but gave examples of constructivist lessons as *her* best lessons. This irony was lost on Theresa; she was unable/did not recognize her inconsistencies.

Constructivist learning. Almost from the beginning of her intern year, Theresa reverted back to her original premise that constructivist learning and classroom control cannot develop together. As early as the third week of school, Theresa stated, "Fourth bell is too wild to get into cooperative groups. It wouldn't work" (IN, 9/99). When the methods she learned in university classes were not working for her, she blamed Dr. Wilson for her predicament. On the one hand, she claimed that Dr. Wilson "has no idea the situation we're in" and that he "taught us to teach in an ideal world" (IN, 9/99). On the other hand, she said, "I go home everyday feeling like shit. Maybe if I could teach

<center>233</center>

like Dr. Wilson, it'd be okay. But I can't" (IN, 9/99). These contradictory statements show Theresa's feelings of failure and her desire for that failure to be someone else's fault.

By the end of September, Theresa was writing class notes on the chalkboard as the students passively copied them. Few students actively participated in any discussion or answered questions (FN, 9/99). Theresa fell into the practice of answering her own questions, asking "Now let me tell you what the government could do under the Articles of Confederation. Does anyone know? Were they allowed to tax, reserve for national army…." She proceeded to list all of the things they could do, dumbing down the questions to make them all rhetorical. (FN, 9/99). In like manner, she handled student-answered portfolio questions. The question on the chalkboard asked, "Why did the framers of the Articles of Confederation NOT want a strong central government (5 sentences) Explain it" (FN, 9/99). Her verbal directions made clear that she expected them to merely copy the reasons she had provided them with rather than think of answers on their own.

Theresa did not recognize that she was doing this. For example, in teacher-directed lessons, Theresa contended that students were constructing knowledge when they answered questions in class, which she believed to be higher level thinking questions. In reality, Theresa told them exactly what they needed to know, how they should know it and what answers she expected to see on the test. When asked why her students should learn the information, she said,

> It's not a matter of the lesson being good enough or exciting enough…. If you want to get down to it, this is the rationale. The rationale is, our society values a high school education. If you want to get a high school diploma, you have to do this. You don't want to have me again next year.

You have to do it. So sit down and do it. Life is not fair. We all have to do stuff that we don't want to do…. You sit down, you be quiet, and you get through it. That is the goal, to get through it" (IN, 10/99).

Theresa's theory-in-action clearly indicated that the desired outcome from her lessons was not student learning, but merely that she be allowed to present the information with minimal interruption.

Theresa accepted that the students would not "get" the content "because the attendance is so bad" (IN, 10/99). She further explained that she could not do projects that would make the content more meaningful because "those are very much dependent on what was done the day before and that is very, very much dependent on what we started a week ago. These kids can't remember what I said yesterday, or two hours ago, much less what happened last week" (IN, 10/99). She accepted this as normal, remarking, "Of course there's sometimes where they're not going to pay attention" (IN, 10/99). Additionally, Theresa believed that her students' "number one priority" was to prevent her from teaching (IN, 10/99). She felt, "If I teach them anything at all, it's better than nothing" (IN, 10/99).

On the other hand, in October Theresa's students completed a five-paragraph research project centering on Supreme Court cases and constitutional amendments. She provided a checklist of what was to be included in each paragraph and allowed the students to choose from a list of cases and amendments. She felt this was successful because "I felt like I was the most prepared. It had the most interesting activities, and it was close to their lives…. They could relate to it" (IN, 10/99). Despite her success with this activity, Theresa did not attempt to repeat it at any other time during the year.

Theresa's pattern of lecturing and asking rhetorical questions continued for the remainder of the school year. For instance, in October it was observed that she lectured the entire class period. When she asked questions, she continued to lecture whether a student answered her question or she did. Theresa gave no recognition to any student who participated (FN, 10/99). In one case, Theresa asked her government students a question regarding Vice-President Al Gore's home state. She reminded them, "It was on your last test." Students responded with "I don't think I got that one" or "I can't remember that far back." Theresa provided the answer and proceeded to ask a few more questions, all of which she ended up answering herself (FN, 12/99) . She justified her reliance on lecture and teacher-directed strategies saying, "I am teacher directed because this is the only way I can maintain control" (IN, 12/99).

It appeared that Theresa's goal was to present basic information from the textbook and have students memorize it. She infrequently assessed students' learning and understanding. When she did assess, it was chiefly by checking the students' notes to determine if the notes had been copied from the transparencies into the notebook. Comprehension was assumed (OB, 1/00). In this way, the content only had to be clear enough for the students to be able to find the answers in their notes. Similarly, she read a reverse discrimination case from the book to the students, but asked no questions to check comprehension (OB, 3/00). Comprehending the content in any meaningful way did not seem to occur. Instead, Theresa's main concern was that students were kept under control, not whether she made the content understandable and meaningful (IN, 3/00).

In April, she passed out a hand-out entitled *Case Study: The Media – Television and Election Politics*. "Take a minute to read this hand-out," she told the students as she

passed out the papers. "Do we have to *do* anything?" one student asked. Theresa ignorned his and proceeded to ask basic comprehension questions about the reading, mainly either/or type questions. Few students participated, and those who did missed almost every question (FN, 4/00).

At this time of the year, it appeared that Theresa only cared if the students remained quiet enough for her to present the material. On one occasion, the students were not involved at all. One girl had her head down on her desk while another cleaned her purse and yet another applied her make-up. Many of the students were chatting as Theresa lectured. She asked them to be quiet, but they were not. Theresa continued to lecture anyway, raising her voice over theirs (FN, 4/00). Later, when asked about the girl who had her head down on her desk, Theresa explained, "I just don't mess with her. If she puts her head down, at least she's quiet and not disrupting class" (FN, 4/00). In this fashion, Theresa seemed to accept that sometimes the students would pay attention and other times they would not. The amount of student learning occurring did not seem of concern to Theresa.

By the end of April, Theresa moved completely away from any learning activities that was student-centered, active, or goal-oriented. When asked about the Learning Theme, Theresa became very defensive, defiantly, "I'm going to be teacher directed even if [Dr. Wilson]'s breathing down my throat because that's who I am. He didn't want us to be who we are – he wants us to be him. And that's just not happening!" (FN, 4/00). She blamed him, any criticism he had given her, and the methods courses he had taught, for any lack of success she experienced.

237

By the end of the year, Theresa gave the students pages of overhead notes each day in class. One day, she changed the format as a punishment for throwing books out the window by having the students answer questions from the book for the entire class period. Prior to an observation, Theresa readily admitted that the class would be boring. In class she defended boring lesson by telling students that this approach was a quick way to cover all of the information on the upcoming common exam (FN, 5/00). The transformation from constructivist learning to knowledge transmission was complete only a year after she had criticized Mr. Ferris for his boring, non-constructivist lessons.

A significant part of this change could be due to her mentor teacher, Mr. Hatford, who appeared to endorse her decision to be teacher directed. In an interview, he explained his philosophy:

> These kids need structure – you need to care, but you're the teacher and set rules. Once you have control and set the expectations, *then* you can do cooperative classroom stuff….I stress getting the kids involved, not doing straight lecture. Like I'll put some things on the board and discuss those and ask questions to draw the kids in. It's very structured and I get them involved…. Many of the UC interns show up and have no clue about teaching inner-city kids – the professors don't either. The interns show up and try to bring theory in and want to do group stuff. The kids took advantage of it and talked. With four kids in a group, two may work and the other two may talk about what they're doing this weekend. Theory may work beautifully in some classes and not at all in others. Lots of theory is trash; I go with my instinct (IN, 5/00).

In this way, he communicated his rejection of constructivist learning and his belief that the university was not preparing students for the current school

When asked how she knew if her students were learning, Theresa replied, "I pray." After a short pause, she continued,

> I don't. I don't know that my students are learning. I assume that my students are learning because *I'm* learning so much and I can't be doing the same thing that I'm having them do and them not be learning. See, I

238

> basically when I do my lesson plans, I read the chapter and pull out the stuff. I write the notes. I do the basic book work. Then I do all of the assignments that I planned for them I'll do them myself. And then I'll do the test myself. And I'm learning it. So if I'm learning it, I'm sure somebody else is learning it. I mean, I'm making that assumption and I don't know if they're learning it. But do we ever really know if they're learning? I know that some of my kids *tell* me that they're learning. They tell me they feel comfortable with the subject, but are they learning for sure? Who knows? (IN, 5/00)

What Theresa failed to realize was that she was describing the process she used to construct her own knowledge. *She* was reading, interpreting, organizing, and evaluating the content. *Her students* were merely writing down what she told them was important to know. They did not have to think about the content, except to memorize what they were told. She also ignored the difference in knowledge and experience. She was 24 years old with a college background; they were 16 or 17 in high school.

In the end, Theresa claimed to be teacher directed. In a May interview of the intern year, Theresa explained what she meant.

> I give lots of notes, I give lots of assignments, I have an assignment for nearly everyday…. Either book work or worksheet or some kind of supplemental reading and worksheet, a video and worksheet, that kind of stuff. And I think it's a management issue and that's why I'm so teacher-directed 'cause I'm scared to death 'cause I had so many management problems in the beginning that I'm <u>not</u> going to be able to teach and manage my students. So in order for management, I keep myself in constant control of the classroom (IN, 5/99)

However, when given a hypothetical situation where classroom management would not be a problem, she said that she would probably continue teaching the same way.

Thus, it would appear that Theresa's beliefs and actions about student learning were in agreement. The teacher and the textbook are the creators and holders of knowledge; the students passively absorb the knowledge.

Case 2: John

Although not always implemented as designed, John's attempts to create more constructivist learning continued until the last part of his intern year. At that point he resorted to teacher-directed lessons to review for the common exam. Significantly, he and Theresa, who both interned at Oakmont High, shared the same mentor teacher, Mr. Hatford.

Constructivist learning. John entered his intern year expecting to be able to teach with a constructivist approach. This is evident in his Classroom Management Plan, originally written for his Instructional Management class and later adapted for his intern classes. General procedures, including those class, out of room situations, use of materials and equipment, and the end of class constitute the first section (RE, 5/99). The second section focuses exclusively on group work. This heavy emphasis on group work in this management plan revealed John's belief that he could and should use group work with his students, allowing them to be active, collaborative, goal-oriented producers of knowledge.

During the first month of his internship, John attempted to act on his beliefs. He created a variety of lessons in line with constructivist principles. For example, one of his first lessons was intended to introduce

> liberal, conservative and moderate philosophies through a whole-class discussion in which they are prompted to give examples of these philosophies in their everyday lives such as dating, parental rules, alcohol consumption, etc. Students will then apply these broad definitions to political issues such as abortion, defense spending, and the death penalty…(LP, 9/99).

Despite his constructivist intentions, John failed to implement them. His lead mentor teacher observed the lesson, noting,

> John collected articles that students were supposed to have read and given conservative and liberal viewpoints. [He] passed out textbooks. Students told to read and answer questions on page 303. Nine out of 31 started reading. Most of the students just sat there (OB, 9/99).

John had either ignored his lesson plan or had felt that he was not in control and abandoned it. Nowhere in his lesson plan were individual seatwork nor answering textbook questions mentioned. His constructivist plans were not put into action and most students appeared passive, bored and off-task (OB, 9/99). This pattern continued during the intern year. John developed lesson plans in which students were to be active producers of knowledge, but when implemented, the students were passive and off-task.

By October, John abandoned constructivist approaches due to students' misbehavior.

> I can't have a discussion with them right now. I cannot have a lecture discussion…But now it's gotten to the point where I'm juts going to have them come in; I'm going to give them a list of terms to know, give them a pre-test, give them…say, read the chapter, do the questions, do a worksheet, review, take a quiz at the end of the week. It's going to have to be that Monday through Friday for the next couple of weeks until they learn to behave (IN, 10/99).

This new plan heavily reflected his mentor's philosophy.

By second quarter, John's classes were more under control and he was able to create projects in which students were active producers of knowledge. For instance, he allowed students to work with partners in creating timeline projects. The students chose a time period from the ones John listed and put 10 events of their choosing on it. Their work was then posted in chronological order around the room (FN, 12/99). Students were actively engaged and concerned about the quality of their work, as shown by their requests for rulers, pencils, and discussions about the best way to create it (FN, 12/99).

Despite some examples like this, John claimed he could not implement constructivist lessons more frequently. "There's no way I can do with my kids what [Dr. Wilson] wants us to do…. I look forward to teaching those types of lessons –I can't do them as a first year teacher" (IN, 12/99).

John knew how to write lesson plans using constructivist principles. He even wrote some of the lesson plans for his fall quarter Applied Methods: Social Studies class, believing that his real lesson plans would not be acceptable to Dr. Wilson. Although the lessons for Dr. Wilson's class were supposed to be actual examples of best practice lessons, John admitted, "I've made up a few of them. I say, 'Yeah, they went okay in class'" (IN, 12/99).

Thus, John understood constructivism and knew how to write lessons consistent with them, but implementation was lacking. He asserted that "constructivist/student-centered instruction has been limited by attempting to establish the type of environment where this type of learning can take place" (RE, 1/00). Nonetheless, he felt comfortable with those types of activities and tried to implement them periodically (RE, 1/00).

The constructivist lessons John did attempt were not very successful, despite what seemed to be good ideas. For example, in one lesson, students were split into Allies or Central Powers and "they were to put down their ideas for Treaty of Versailles" (OB, 2/00). However, an observer noted that only "a few students took it seriously and worked on the assignment, but too many just talked or stared into space. One boy looked at pictures" (OB 2/00). In another lesson, John started by saying, he was going to place a student in charge of the country. Other students were asked what they would do to take control of the country. John wrote ideas on the board (OB, 2/00). But his mentor teacher

242

noted that John had not explained why certain events occurred, concluding, "Students must be able to bring all together and understand cause and effect" (OB, 2/00). Despite constructivist intentions, the poor implementation prevented their realization. This problem continued throughout the remainder of the intern year.

As the school year ended, I asked John how he knew if his students were learning. Instead of writing about the students' learning, he talked about the importance of being able to communicate well, his own forte.

> And as the year went on, I came up with little writing exercises. Sometimes as an introductory thing and sometimes it was more of a concluding thing. It was a little more in depth. You know, we talked about something – an article that they would read, we'd discuss it, then I would say, "Hey, here's the exercise. Write half a page, three-quarters of a page or a page on that.' And some of the responses I got were great. They really showed some insight. There were times I thought, "Man, my students didn't pay attention this whole week." But on a Thursday or Friday, I'd give one of those in lieu of a test or a quiz perhaps, and boy! They really write pretty well. I was impressed. Of course, you get some that are just chicken scratch. But more than 50%, I thought, did just an outstanding job putting their thoughts down.… I mean, those kids have a legitimate shot of doing okay. And that just makes me feel pretty good. It's not like I taught them how to write like that, but I had them do this type of exercise where they were just given the information and then they had to think about it and write something down (IN, 5/00).

John viewed learning as the ability of students to put down information in a written format. He ignored the fact that for many of these writing situations, students did not have to think critically. They merely had to reproduce the answers he provided. John did not use objectives to assess student learning nor did he seek to do this on a daily basis. Instead, he relied on their written products at the end of the week.

Addressing the Learning Theme in his portfolio, John never once mentioned constructivist principles as a tool for student learning. Instead, his focus for student

learning was on having a classroom climate conducive to student learning, a positive and approachable teacher, and well behaved, cooperative students. He wrote,

> I feel that through years of experience (or even one year of experience), the coupling of my enthusiastic and positive style with structured routines, discipline, and clear expectations will generate a 'positive classroom environment' in which students have the maximum opportunity for success" (P, 5/00).

In other words, John believed if the classroom was well-managed and a positive rapport existed, learning would automatically result.

John demonstrated the ability to design lesson plans that reflect the CITE Learning Theme, but his implementation of those lessons was flawed. While he successfully implemented some constructivist lessons, he more often undermined them by not allowing sufficient time for students to think, collaborate with others, and produce knowledge.

Case 3: Kim

Throughout her intern year, Kim was concerned with how much the students learned, hoping she provided enough breadth and depth within the institutional constraints at Lockwood Middle School. She attempted to create constructivist lessons in which the students were active, goal-oriented, knowledge producers. While believing that using constructivist methods would result in management problems, Kim nevertheless remained committed to using the constructivist methods, thus remaining closely aligned with the CITE Learning Theme.

Constructivist learning. In the first written observation, Kim was said to lack "evidence of constructivist principles" (OB, 9/99). For the lesson, Kim used two commercially-prepared geography worksheets to have students practice longitude and

latitude skills for 65 minutes. Additionally, she failed to debrief her students at the end of class or to have the students summarize what they had learned (OB, 9/99). The observer suggested an alternative to worksheets: "Have students plan trips to those states, dealing with tasks consistent with your objectives (e.g., relative location, absolute location, directions, latitude and longitude positions, distance, etc.)" (OB, 9/99).

The following week, Kim implemented the suggestion, adapting the lesson to her students' interests. In that lesson, the students "worked in pairs to create a fictional world tour for their favorite musicians" (OB, 9/99). The observer noted, "There were a number of constructivist elements in the lesson as well as opportunities for students of various learning styles to benefit" (OB, 9/99).

> In a subsequent lessons, the observer, Dr. Wilson, commented that Kim
>
> provided opportunities for students to be the producers of knowledge. When identifying definitions for "stereotype" and "culture," you first asked students to share *their* definitions. Then you *built on what they said* to formulate the definitions. To clarify the concepts, you *elicited examples from students,* affirming correct examples and pointing out incorrect ones (OB, 9/99).

In an October interview, Kim described another lesson that involved students working together in three- to four- person groups, creating maps of the Native American Nations and the regions in which they lived. On these maps, students depicted the region, natural resources, physical characteristics, and the climate related to their respective Native American Nation. Groups then gave two- to three-minute presentations describing how the regional environment affected the culture of their Native American group. Later, students created a chart showing the differences between contemporary culture and that of the group they studied (IN, 10/99).

When asked about her use of constructivist learning in her classroom, Kim complained that having students actively involved in her class created management problems (IN, 10/99). Accepting this false dichotomy, she nevertheless continued to use constructivist methods because she felt Dr. Wilson, her university supervisor, demanded it (IN, 10/99).

Kim said that she did "not want anyone to sit in my class and do nothing," but she also conceded that for some students, constructivist learning was a poor option (IN, 10/99). She believed that some students needed more structured lessons because other, more critical problems impeded their academic achievement. In this opinion, she disagreed with her supervisor. "Well, [Dr. Wilson] doesn't buy into that. He says, 'If they act up or don't care, it's because your lesson is not good enough.' And that's just not true. I mean, ideally, you should strive…but there are just some kids…" (IN, 10/99). Thus, while Kim continued to create lessons fostering constructivist learning, she was experiencing doubts about it being the best way to teach all students.

Despite these doubts, Kim continued to create lessons in which students were active, knowledge-producers. This was evidenced in her first formative assessment. Team members wrote that Kim "demonstrates evidence of constructivist lessons. Provides some opportunities for students to be producers of knowledge" (FA, 10/99). In explaining how she planned her teaching, Kim said,

> I don't do pedagogy…. I think the idea of cooperative learning and making kids the producers of their own knowledge are always in my head, but I don't – I use the promotion standards—I use that as plans…. I don't think about it consciously (FG, 11/99).

Consciously planned for or not, Kim continued to promote learning in a fashion aligned with the CITE theme. For example, in November during a review game, Kim

246

"pointed out a place in the story about the Salem witch trials where John Proctor had a conflict of values which included losing his life. She explained how this can happen more often as you grow older" (OB, 11/99). The site liaison commented,

> You presented the idea of conflict on a high stakes level, allowing the opportunity for students to make those connections to their own experiences. Real learning can take place when a student can see the universality of a story that originated from a different culture or experience (OB, 11/99).

Additionally, during the review game, Kim asked open-ended questions that "gave students a chance to engage in discussion rather than just compete for the right answer or phrase" (OB, 11/99). In a December lesson, Kim imitated Dr. Wilson's lesson from the previous year's social studies methods class using a section from *Reasoning with Democratic Values* to help develop students' decision-making abilities. Focusing on John Adam's decision to defend the British soldiers involved in the Boston Massacre, the students constructed "Decision Trees," a graphic organizer designed to generate alternative choices and the consequences of those choices before making a decision (FN, 12/99).

During this period of her internship, Kim expressed a strong desire for her students to think and develop skills, not just memorize facts. However, she worried because this was different than Mrs. Salinger's class. "The kids are learning in my class – I hope they won't be at a disadvantage next year because they're learning differently. I want them to have the ability to *think*" (IN, 12/99).

Kim volunteered that she used a lot of the constructivist ideas presented in the methods classes with Dr. Wilson and said that he was a major influence on her use of constructivist methods (IN, 12/99). More hesitantly, she shared that Mrs. Salinger was

also big influence on her teaching, but in a different way. "Mrs. Salinger has been very helpful, even though she's more drill and practice than I am. She can also be kind of overbearing" (IN, 12/99). She described herself as being caught in between Dr. Wilson and Mrs. Salinger. "If Wilson is over here as an idealist [to one side] and Mrs. Salinger is over here [on the other side]" then Kim "is right in the middle." The students, too, affect Kim's planning: "Some weeks [the plans] change because the kids don't get things as fast as I want them to. Kids don't want to think. That's been frustrating" (IN, 12/99). Despite this tug-of-war between university and school, Kim tended to stick with constructivist methods and continued to improve her alignment with the CITE Learning Theme.

Kim acknowledged this progress in her second quarter self-assessment. She wrote,

> I frequently exemplify the constructivist approach to learning. Students are often given opportunities to be producers of knowledge and usually provided occasions to become actively involved in the process of learning. I have improved in the area of stating rationales with content connections to students' lives

Her second formative assessment by her team confirmed her perceptions, stating "[Kim] provides opportunities for students to be actively involved in student centered activities that allow students to be producers of knowledge" (FA, 1/00).

Kim's alignment with the CITE Learning Theme continued through the third quarter of the year. For example, students applied their knowledge about unitary, confederative, or federal governments by classifying existing countries' governments and writing an explanation for their choices (OB, 1/00). In another lesson, student pairs created posters showing the Republican or Federalist positions on assigned issues, such as the whiskey tax, the National Bank, and the French Revolution. After the posters were created, the class voted on which position they favored (OB, 2/00). An observer noted,

248

There was variation and opportunity for students to be producers of their own knowledge. Students were organized into different groupings with whole group at the beginning and the end. There was some written work and creativity involved in getting students to make posters that represented rationales for the issues (OB, 2/00).

Kim's actions continued to illustrate her belief that students should actively construct their own knowledge.

By March, Kim shared that her main concern for the remainder of the year was her planning. The focus of this worry was her students' learning. "I would say mine is again, my planning. How much are my students learning? Have I made it a valuable year for them? Or have I not? Have I failed to teach them what I should have?" (FG, 3/00). Just before Kim departed for maternity leave, the team wrote that Kim "demonstrates an understanding and commitment to a constructivist approach to learning. Has made deliberate efforts to have students become producers of knowledge. Has increased efforts to engage students in higher level thinking" (FA, 3/00). Despite Kim's worries, her team believed that her students were learning.

When she returned to school in mid-May, Kim's continued to design lessons in which students were active, goal-oriented, producers of knowledge. However, Kim claimed that she did not "lean as heavily on the cooperative [learning] as I'd like to because it's much more difficult when you're *in* a classroom. And they tend to get off task with that" (IN, 5/00).

Kim said that most of her lessons were constructivist in nature, even though

the biggest influence in teaching is probably *away* from constructivism at Lockwood. Not – there are some teachers who are, my team is not, real constructivist. I guess that's Mrs. Salinger – she uses worksheets. That's just what she does and it has been effective with the discipline. So I can't say that – I'm probably less against that now than I was before this year because it offers some structure (IN, 5/00).

In addition to worksheets, Kim said she used quizzes, game formats, and writing activities to check for student learning. The writing activities included having the students "explain things in their own words" and "letting them make up the questions" (IN, 5/00). Kim considered this second activity successful, not because the students enjoyed it, but because "they were learning. Because they felt like they were in charge. Because I told them that if their questions were good questions, I would use them. So they felt the responsibility. They liked that. They wanted to see if everyone else would get them" (IN, 5/00). In essence, Kim considered the activity a success when students' were involved and actively constructing their own knowledge.

Case 4: Frank

Frank wanted to use methods in his classroom that promoted constructivist learning. He wanted to make the content meaningful to the students so that they could connect it to prior learning. Although effective implementation of constructivist lessons did not always occur, Frank's beliefs, for the most part, mostly remained aligned with the CITE Learning Theme through November, when he left the program.

Constructivist learning. Frank began his intern year aspiring to facilitate constructivist learning in his classroom. He assigned journal writing topics to the students that required the use of higher level thinking skills and the integration of new information with prior knowledge. Journal assignment included writing responses to such prompts as "What city-state would I rather live in and why?" and "Assume the role of a patrician, soldier, plebian, etc. and write a letter to a friend" (FN, 9/99). They also worked in small groups, creating a flag and motto for a city state and preparing a 60-90 second summary

250

of the city-state and presenting it to the class (OB, 9/99)In this way, student-produced knowledge was shared with other students.

Frank believed that if he made the content relevant, students they would connect it to their own lives more easily. So when he taught about Machiavelli, Frank began the lesson by asking the students "How many think Tupak is still alive? How many think he's dead?" (FN, 9/99). Using the students' obvious interest in Tupak, Frank related Tupak to Machiavelli as both supposedly faked their own deaths and segued into Machiavelli's views as written in *The Prince* (FN, 9/99). After this discussion, students worked in pairs to create a government based on Machiavellian ideas (FN, 9/99). In these ways, Frank followed the CITE Learning Theme's expectations. He took explicit steps to help students fit new information into their present knowledge and provided opportunities for students to be goal-oriented producers of knowledge.

Frank was not always successful in implementing constructivist lessons. For example, in a class Dr. Wilson observed in September, his university supervisor wrote, "He passed out the reading (with no questions to guide student reading or indicate they had read – and understood – the reading) and students read it silently for the next 10 minutes" (OB, 9/99). Though Frank asked questions after students had read the material, (e.g., "What do you think this means?" "Who is Socrates addressing?" and "Why did Socrates not beg for his life?") Dr. Wilson noted that the "responses were very limited. Mr. Bradford did little probing" (OB, 9/99). Thus intentions did not match results.

Despite setbacks, Frank's overall beliefs were aligned with these the CITE Learning theme. He wanted the students to use higher level thinking and to be active, goal-oriented producers of knowledge. Describing how he planned, Frank said,

I use Bloom's Taxonomy a lot when I'm developing lesson plans. When I was starting off, I wasn't getting much above the knowledge level and comprehension and things like that. Now I try to incorporate application and stuff. When I sit down and plan lesson, I'm like "got it, get it." Raise the level (IN, 9/99).

Likewise, Frank claimed to use constructivist methods learned during his professional year during his internship. He shared, "I've used my activities log [from the social studies methods course] a few times…Like, jigsaws, and rally tables, and think-pair-square, and that kinda stuff" (FG, 11/99).

Despite using these methods, Frank was frustrated with what he perceived to be the students' lack of learning. In a November focus group, he shared,

I don't know, I don't think I'm as far as I'd like to be right now. I am just a little frustrated, I guess. <pause> I'm not as good as I'd like to be, and I know it's first year, and, I mean…I don't know. There's some days that I just walk out of there and it's like…I don't know if the kids got anything right now…And, I guess I just wasn't expecting that when I was teaching (FG, 11/99).

The discouragement evident in these comments reveals his frustration with himself and with the lack of content the students were gaining from his teaching. Shortly after this focus group, Frank quit the CITE program and this study.

Chapter 6: Analysis

Socialization Based On Dialectical Theory

As people move through their daily lives, they filter the important and relevant events and ideas from the unimportant and irrelevant. The important and relevant are noticed, accepted, and attached to prior learning. They may influence the beliefs and actions of the individual, reinforcing or altering prior beliefs. The unimportant and irrelevant may be noticed, but are discarded, rarely impacting beliefs or actions unless it is to strengthen already held beliefs. It is important to note that this is an individual process, occurring due to each person's personal background and experiences.

This process is equally true for preservice teachers as they move through the university education program (see Figure 3). At each stage of the process, as defined by Schempp and Graber (1992), a variety of socialization factors are present. As each takes shape, the individual either accepts or discards the events or ideas. If it is accepted, a change occurs in belief and/or action. If it is discarded, no change appears to happen.

A variety of socialization factors exist at each phase of the study. During the initial phase of the university teacher education program, class requirements, professors, stated goals of the program (specifically, the CITE Program's eight themes), and textbooks offered ideas and philosophies. In the second phase, the content from the initial phase continued while socialization factors within the field experiences were added. These factors included the university supervisor, university requirements, cooperating teacher, students in the classes, and successes the participant experiences while teaching. Likewise, when the participant entered the intern year, all of the previous

Figure 3: Socialization Based on Dialectical Theory
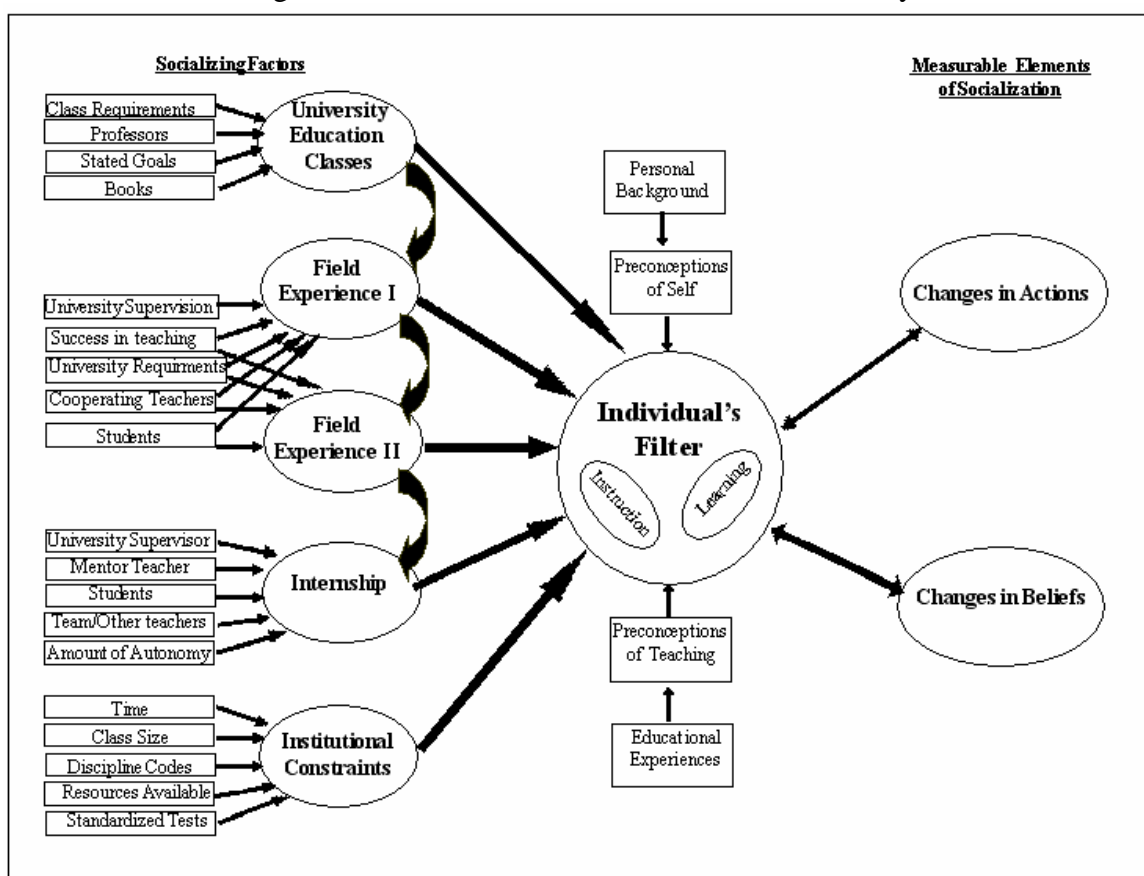
socialization factors remained, but new factors took central stage. These included the amount of autonomy allowed to the participant. Additionally, institutional constraints were filtered through the participant's views, allowing for possible new perspectives about instruction and learning. These socialization factors included class size, discipline codes, available resources, standardized tests, and time available both within each class and a given day.

Although similar influences are presented to each participant, their acceptance or rejection of each is based on their internal socialization (Lortie, 1975). This internal socialization, based on the participants' prior experiences and educational background, affects how they view themselves and the teaching profession overall as well as the

strength of those preconceptions. Thus, for obvious reasons, few generalizations can be made about what is or is not fully accepted by all participants. Instead, each participant needs to be viewed individually in order to see what is accepted and why. This statement in itself is an overall finding of the study: No single influence is going to be *the key* to socializing preservice teachers.

<center>*Socialization Based On Theory-in-Use*</center>

The psychological theory of cognitive dissonance suggests that when a conflict exists between actions and beliefs, the resulting inconsistency creates an internal imbalance in a person. In order to restore equilibrium by gaining internal consistency, the person must change beliefs or actions to match the other. Preservice teachers need to reconcile what they espouse to believe about teaching with their actions lest they suffer disequilibrium (See Figure 4). Taken one step further, if they claim to have one belief, but really believe something else and/or act against their espoused belief, disequilibrium occurs. This is the basis for the Theory-in-Use proposed by Argyris and Schon (1974).

According to Argyris and Schon's (1974) framework, what people say (espoused theory) and what they do (theory-in-use) may be two different things. Their true beliefs are shown through their actions. Therefore, only by looking at a person's actions can their beliefs truly be known. For example, if a preservice teacher applauds using cooperative learning in a formal paper but does not practice it in the field, disequilibrium ensues. The balance can be restored by changing one's belief, dismissing actions as "something done for class," or by changing one's actions by implementing cooperative learning practices.

<center>255</center>

Figure 4: Theory-in-Use vs. Espoused Theory as It Affects the Socialization Process
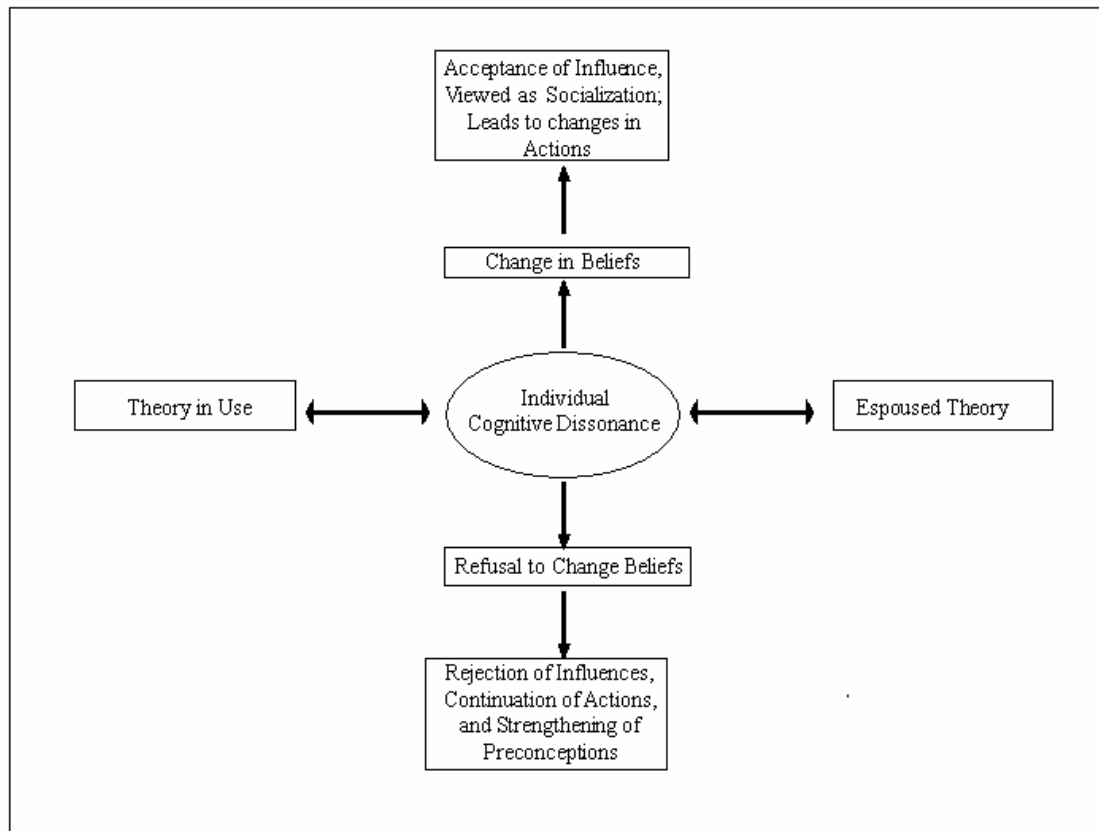
This theory complements the Dialectical Theory, providing a partial explanation of how the "filter" works. For instance, if a new ideas from an education program contradict a person's prior conceptions, then cognitive dissonance may occur. Rejecting the new ideas or events allows for equilibrium, as does accepting the new ideas or events and rejecting previously espoused beliefs. However, one cannot have equilibrium while holding two contrasting beliefs. How one responds to the influences is again based on one's preconceptions and the strengths of those preconceptions.

In each case, it is important to first look at the participant's preconceptions of self and their preconceptions of teaching to be able to analyze their socialization during the two-year time frame. Because the two theories go hand-in-hand with each other, they will

both be used in analyzing each case. Following the individual analyses, cross-case patterns will be explored.

Individual Analyses

Case 1: Theresa

Theresa's preconceptions of self and teaching were extremely robust and resilient, as some educational researchers claim they would be (Wubbels, 1992; Joram and Gabriele 1998; Pajares, 1993). Although changes in socialization towards the CITE goals seemed to occur in the first year, these changes were short lived and not permanent as McDiarmid (1990) suggested.

To accept or not to accept: Conception of self. A striking pattern found throughout Theresa's progress was that she accepted or rejected methods and ideas based on how the person from whom they came affected her conception of self. If accepting a new idea or a person's statements allowed Theresa to retain a positive view of herself, then she accepted it. If it hurt her self-image, she adamantly rejected the person and the idea. This may be because Theresa did not have a strongly positive view of herself. She had problems with her self-confidence and difficulty monitoring her successes or failures, viewing the extremes as the only possibilities.

Early in the program, Theresa seemed to warm-up to the instruction and learning themes of the CITE program. She tried to fulfill the instructional methods expected for the microteaching sessions and lesson plans. In her reflective paper and interviews, Theresa indicated that she wished to meet the goals stated in the CITE Themes. However, as the quarter progressed, she received less-than-exemplary grades and comments from

Dr. Wilson. Taking the feedback as criticism of herself as a person, she began to reject his methods and philosophy for she was unable to separate the idea from the person.

During her first field experience, Theresa used teacher-centered methods, but started to use more student-centered methods as well. This cause was twofold. First, she recognized that the students enjoyed the variety of strategies, especially the constructivist ones. Second, she received praise from Mr. Titus and from me as her university supervisor for her willingness to try new things. By the end of that first field experience, she wanted to have a "good mix" of methods. She had not entirely given up her preconceptions favoring teacher-centered learning, but she was beginning to find a balance between the two. Because of his positive comments, support, and kindness, Theresa viewed Mr. Titus as an excellent teacher and wanted to emulate him.

In her next field placement, Theresa felt that Mr. Ferris did not provide her with the same degree of support or kindness as Mr. Titus had. Therefore, she found reasons to criticize Mr. Ferris. For example, she claimed that Mr. Ferris did not challenge the students and appeared to not really care whether they learned. She deliberately used methods she felt Mr. Titus would approve of while ignoring Mr. Ferris' suggestions. Thus, Theresa continued to attempt using a variety of methods, including student-centered teaching methods borrowed directly from her social studies methods course. At the end of this experience, she criticized Mr. Ferris for *not* using methods more aligned with the CITE Themes.

When Theresa experienced a lack of success with student-centered methods at the beginning of her intern year, she quickly abandoned them in favor of passive, teacher-centered lessons that were favored by Mr. Hatford, her mentor. He criticized the

university education program as being idealistic and impractical, thereby removing any responsibility for management problems from Theresa's shoulders. She quickly and wholeheartedly accepted his influence because it allowed her to maintain a positive view of herself.

Theresa accepted the socializing factors when they supported her preconception of self, rather than the effectiveness of the methods themselves. By the end of her intern year, she no longer associated using a variety of constructivist methods with her beloved Mr. Titus, but with her despised Dr. Wilson. She could not espouse the positive aspects of the CITE program without condemning herself as a failure. Therefore, she had to condemn the CITE program as idealistic and unrealistic. By the end of the intern year, she proudly stated that she wouldn't use student-centered instruction even if her students were angels and she had every resource available.

In Theresa's case, i appears that all the influence from the socializing factors were sorted first through her self-preconception filter. If an idea or event threatened her self-image, she rejected and discarded it. Thus, many ideas and events were discarded without close analysis. This may be why she, above all the other participants, so fully rejected the CITE Themes.

Preconceptions of teaching: Rejection of themes. At the beginning of the two years, Theresa envisioned her class as a welcoming place where students could express themselves and develop positive relationships with others. She did not want to yell or be mean to the students, or to be the giver of low grades, even for a student who turned in poor work. During her first field experience, she asked, "May I have your attention?" to gain their attention, even when it lost its effectiveness. Mainly, she wanted everyone to

259

like her, believing that their affection proved her effectiveness as a teacher. These beliefs continued through her second field experience. She believed that having high expectations for her students and creating a welcoming environment would allow them to be more successful.

By the end of the first semester of her internship, Theresa exemplified Fuller's (1969) findings. She was concerned with the expectations and requirements, including her ability to answer questions and maintain discipline, not with pedagogy and pupil learning (p. 209). This change in focus was partially because her preconceptions of self (as discussed above) and partially because what she was doing did not work in her classroom. Thus, she needed to change something.

Confronted with problems with the classroom early in the internship, Theresa initially questioned her instructional strategies. With the assistance of her mentor Mr. Hatford, Theresa concluded that the student-centered instructional approach endorsed in the CITE Program was unrealistic. She did not question her planning nor implementation of these methods lest it damage her delicate ego. However, even when she changed to using her five-day weekly plan that relied heavily on teacher-centered activities, she still did not have control of the students. Unable or unwilling to find other causes, Theresa then questioned the students' motivation and willingness to behave. This caused her to change her management techniques.

Theresa became custodial and imperious, which she interpreted as developing a backbone. She yelled at students, embarrassed them, allowed her frustration and anger to show, and punished the whole class to prove that she was in charge. She never questioned whether this was the best way to proceed nor did she reflect on its effects. Instead, she

was proud of herself, believing that she was successfully managing her classroom and preventing anyone from walking all over her. However, even in stating this, she admitted that management would always be an issue for her.

Interestingly, she did not associate her behavior with the students' feelings towards her. She expressed that students found her very fair and also that they hated her, never recognizing the incongruity of these two statements.

Case 2: John

John exemplified three of Joram and Gabriele's (1998) four core concept findings (See Literature Review, p. 25). He believed that he could become a good teacher by copying past models, that learning and teaching were non-problematic, and that his problems lay with managing the class, not with teaching (p. 179-180). His beliefs opposed Joram and Gabriele's finding that university classes had little to offer preservice teachers. Instead, he believed that some university classes, especially the methods courses, had a lot to offer him as a preservice teacher. This belief supports Yon and Passe's (1990) earlier finding that a strong relationship exists between methods courses and preservice teachers' beliefs.

Preconception of self. John saw himself as easy going, able to get along with everyone, and able to do anything. Holding to this, John sought to do well. On the occasions where he did not perform up to his own expectations, he often sought help to improve his performance. Because he was willing to seek and accept help, John was influenced by some of the socializing factors. For instance, much of his management strategy paper was based on a book from his social studies methods course. Likewise, he took advice from Dr. Wilson and me to adapt and change lessons during his field

261

experiences. On other occasions, when John believed he could not be successful, he joked that the assignment was idealistic or impossible for a new teacher to attain. In these ways, he was able to hold on to his preconceived image of himself.

Preconception of teaching. Throughout the two years, John wrestled with this dichotomy, often espousing praise for the CITE program while practicing more teacher-directed methods. This was due to John's preconceived vision of a teacher. As a student, he liked history teachers who had stories for every era. Additionally, because his father was a history professor, John was accustomed to teaching as lecturing. As Su (1992) found, good teachers and family members exert strong influence on preservice teachers' values. Thus, John held a strong preconception of teachers as knowledge holders and knowledge givers. This was strongly evidenced in his microteaching sessions: Assigned to use questions to facilitate students' construction of knowledge, John consistently provided the answers for them.

John's preconceived vision of teacher as knowledge giver directly conflicted with the CITE program's promoted image of teacher as facilitator and guide. For example, in an interview, John said that he wanted to be more like Dr. Wilson, using a variety of student-centered approaches matched with content. However, soon thereafter, he closely identified with his cooperating teacher, Mr. Clarke, calling him nearly perfect, even though his teaching style and educational philosophy was in contrast to what the CITE program encouraged. John's actions proved that his theory-in-use was closer to Mr. Clarke's than to Dr. Wilson's. He did not turn his back on the CITE program, but attempted to use the instructional strategies it promoted. For example, during his field

262

experiences, John designed lessons in which students could be active producers of knowledge.

John was not intentionally hypocritical. It appeared that he genuinely wanted to accept the CITE goals and wanted students to be active learners. Even lessons that were not to be turned in showed this desire. However, when his lessons failed early in his internship, he readily moved away from the CITE goals, stating that they were not meant for urban classrooms. Instead, he returned to acting as the knowledge giver. When the students' behavior improved, he tried to move back towards the CITE goals. However, even on the occasions where he planned student-centered lessons, his implementation of the lessons impeded them. It was as if he could not bear to not be in complete control lest the students miss one morsel of information that he could have provided. Additionally, he was often confounded by the fact that the students did not hang on his every word because it was all so interesting to him. John struggled in a constant state of disequilibrium, internally arguing between the CITE goals and his own preconceptions of teaching. Interestingly, his espoused theory always supported the CITE goals, even when his theory-in-action contradicted his speech. In all, John capably "talked the talk" even when he was unable to "walk the walk."

Another related preconception was that good teaching was something that comes with time and experience, not something that needed to be worked towards. This may have been a rationalization to shield him from his own inconsistencies. Nonetheless, this belief remained unchanged over the two years, although he tried in spurts to implement the types of lessons promoted by the CITE program. He repeated throughout the two years a mantra of "It'll get easier, I'll be able to do the types of lessons I want in a few

years." Interestingly, he knew what was expected to such a high degree that he was able to create false documents for the applied methods class.

Educational experience: coaching as teaching

Lastly, and perhaps most strongly, John believed that coaching and teaching were the same thing, although they occurred in different settings. It appeared that coaching, not teaching, was the real draw to teaching. On the field was where he felt most alive and he could not wait to return there. Teaching was merely a means to this end. Autumn was football season, then winter break. Winter was hockey, then spring break. In the Spring, football training restarted. Teaching itself was secondary.

Teaching was merely a different way to implement coaching. His master degree's work in sports and his in-depth prior experience coaching informed this view. For example, he described planning for a game in the same dimensions as planning for a class. He was able to coach "off the cuff" so he figured that he could do the same in the classroom. He did not like "dead time" on the field, which influenced him against wait time in class. Also, he believed he could motivate a student in class via a pep speech like he used on the field.

John's management skills were also informed by his coaching experience. On a football field, players listen to the coach without question. The coach chooses players and strategies, benevolently leading the team. The rapport between coach and player is paramount and, even if not friendly, respect is always demanded. Management is not a problem. This was what John expected in the classroom and he was surprised not to find it.

Case 3: Kim

Unlike Theresa or John, much of the socialization desired by the CITE program did not merely pass through Kim's filters, remaining unconnected to her beliefs. Instead, she internalized many of the ideas and goals, connecting them to previously held knowledge and beliefs. Because of this, she changed in both beliefs and actions over the two-year period. Furthermore, by the end of the two years, Kim's espoused theory and her theory-in-use about using multiple strategies, humanist management, and constructivism matched and often reflected the CITE goals.

Educational experience. Kim's educational experience and its effect on her self-perception affected her filters. She talked freely of her having dropped out of junior high school, single-parent motherhood, and the difficulties of teaching secondary students when she had never experienced being a high school student herself. She was proud of her achievements given her underprivileged background: Passing the GEDs, being accepted into the CITE program, owning her own trailer. Her pride showed in the offense that she took when others made derogatory remarks about urban students or parents. This background and pride explained Kim's desire to work in Lockwood Middle School and why Kim identified with her students so strongly. Furthermore, the message she shared with her students was that if *she* could succeed, then *anyone* could succeed. This belief guided her practices throughout the two years.

Kim's educational experience clearly influenced her conceptions of teaching. Although Kim dropped out in seventh grade, she had a great respect for education, believing it to be the key to a better life for her and for urban students. She also believed, that caring teachers who taught relevant, meaningful content through constructivist ways

were effective. She lamented that she had not experienced this type of teacher. She wanted to be the teacher that she never had. Perhaps due to her self-perceived educational deficiency, Kim was never satisfied with what she did. Instead, she continually sought to improve, as shown by her reflections and her acceptance of constructive criticism. For this reason, her second cooperating teacher, Ms. Cass, frustrated her. Ms. Cass did not provide constructive feedback that Kim desired, accepting Kim's work as great, even when Kim knew it to be mediocre. Also, Kim saw Ms. Cass as lazy, believing that the students were deprived of the education they needed and deserved. In contrast, while she did not always agree with the teaching methods or content of Ms. Salinger, her first cooperating teacher and mentor, Kim respected her desire to help the students pass the state proficiency test, recognizing it as an obstacle to graduating. This admiration for Ms. Salinger increased from her first placement to her internship and then throughout the intern year.

Preconception of teaching and socializing factors. Throughout the two years, Kim's overriding desire was to help students learn meaningful, relevant content and skills and to be supportive of students. This strong desire was caused by her educational background. As Weinstein (1989) contends, beliefs strongly influence actions. Accordingly, Kim's actions supported this belief, her espoused and in-use theories matching. For example, Kim spent an entire period focusing on compromise in history, believing negotiation to be a needed and often neglected skill in the students' lives.

The cognitive dissonance Kim experienced did not stem from a clash between her real beliefs and her espoused beliefs, but from her perception that she could not teach well enough to implement her espoused theory.

Entering the CITE Program with her preconceptions of self and teaching already molded, Kim credited Dr. Wilson's classes (specifically instructional planning and social studies methods) for providing the means through which she could accomplish her desired outcomes. When she did not get the grade she desired, she talked to Dr. Wilson, accepting his suggestions most of the time to improve her work. Furthermore, throughout her field experiences and internship, she often referred back to assignments and lessons from his class for inspiration. While not always able to implement methods from the class due to institutional constraints, she used many of them. By the end of the two years, she called Dr. Wilson the best teacher she ever had. This significant relationship between her methods coursework and her beliefs supports Yon and Passe's (1990) findings.

Because of the openness of Kim's filters, it was not surprising that she would be influenced by factors outside of the university teacher education program. Her students influenced her beliefs and actions a great deal. Her management became more custodial and she used less cooperative learning because she believed the students needed it to be that way. Further, she partially accepted Ms. Salinger's belief that the ideas presented by the university were idealistic and impractical. Thus, Kim's beliefs and actions found themselves settling into new paradigms, combining the influences from a variety of factors. However, it is important to note that they were changed by the various factors and did not revert back to previously held conceptions like Theresa's had.

Tug-of-war between socializing factors. These various socialization factors often contradicted each other. More than any other participant, Kim experienced the tug-of-war issue (Koeppen, 1998; Borko and Putnam, 1996; Chase et al., 1996). She recognized in her first field experience that Mrs. Salinger's continuous use of worksheets contradicted

267

Dr. Wilson's teachings. At that time, however, her beliefs mirrored Dr. Wilson's and she attempted to align her actions with the CITE Themes. During that first round, the tug-of-war was clearly won by the university education classes. No second round of tug-of-war occurred during her second field placement: Ms. Cass neither provided feedback nor shared her beliefs enough to mold Kim's beliefs or actions. However, during her internship, the Kim began to move away from Dr. Wilson's side, accepting some of Mrs. Salinger's views.

By the middle of her internship, Kim wanted to be somewhere between Dr. Wilson's idealism and Mrs. Salinger's routines. This shift concurs with findings by Koeppen (1998), Su (1992) and Metcalf (1991) that cooperating teachers are a powerful influence on student teachers. Kim's case shows how cooperating teachers can diminish or wash away teachings from the university – and this from a professional partner school that is supposed to be aligned with the university goals.

Case 4: Frank

Of the five case studies presented, Frank's was the most painful to record. He wanted to become a teacher since the tenth grade and came very close to reaching his goal. Of the participants in this study, he seemed to be the most likely of the participants to internalize and implement the CITE Themes, both in instruction and in learning. And then, with no apparent warning, he dropped out of the program.

Preconceptions of teaching. Frank's downfall was due to his anticipatory socialization. His preconception of teaching was based solely on the "performance side" of classroom teaching (Clark, 1988). For example, Frank and his friends thought he would make a good teacher because he was funny. In contrast, they never compared his

dedication to long-distance running to the necessary perseverance of teachers. Instead, they believed that a good personality was necessary to be a good teacher. This finding supports Lortie's (1975) analogy that being a student is akin to a long apprenticeship in teaching. But instead of actually learning to teach, this pseudo-apprenticeship leads to believing that teaching is based on personality, intuition, and imitation.

Added to these misperceptions about teaching is the "unrealistic optimism" and confidence with which preservice teachers enter the program (Weinstein, 1989). After Frank's microteaching sessions, he was eager to be teaching. Also, he believed he had mastered two methods even though he had never taught them to real students.

This "unrealistic optimism" increased due to the support he received during his first field experience. Instead of recognizing his status as a preservice teacher learning the practice, Frank indicated that he and Mr. Sipps were equal partners in planning for the students. He claimed the successes for himself, grateful to Mr. Sipps for teaching him all that he needed to know. Frank was blind to Mr. Sipps' continued support, guidance, and management, which allowed him to glide so effortlessly and gracefully through the placement.

When he entered his second placement, Frank was disappointed that it did not resemble his first placement. He grudgingly accepted the situation, but believed that he could recreate his first field experience in his own class during the intern year. He managed to wade through it, teaching one class and focusing on the future.

Frank's internship year was not what he envisioned. The support and camaraderie shared with Mr. Sipps did not exist with Mr. McKee. Resources, ideas, and lessons were not handed to him. As Lederman and Gess-Newsome (1991) describe it, Frank's

269

experience was like being thrown into the deep end of the pool. However, instead of being able to merely survive using any tools available as Theresa and John had, Mr. McKee and Dr. Wilson expected Frank to use effective practices from the university. Unfortunately, Frank lost confidence in himself, believing he did not have the tools, resources, or ability to meet the expectations. And, like the new teachers Lortie (1975) interviewed, Frank found teaching to be more difficult, time consuming and draining than expected.

Socializing factors: The power of synergy. During his teaching experiences, Frank continually referred to the university teacher education program and his first field experience. He often explained his instructional methods in terms of these two socializing factors. For example, during his first field experience he happily noted his use of written debates, taught that week in his methods class. Likewise, during his second field experience, he referred back to instructional successes achieved during the first field experience. Thus, it is evident that these two factors strongly affected Frank's beliefs and instruction.

It is unclear whether Frank was influenced more by Mr. Sipps as a cooperating teacher or by the university education program because Mr. Sipps' actions in the classroom supported the CITE Themes. Perhaps, the combination of two teachers that Frank admired modeling and advising similar methods of teaching provided socializing synergy. Frank's actions and beliefs completely aligned with their models. This synergy may provide an additional support for school-university partnership, countering the tug-of-war issue.

For Frank, these partnerships did not always provide a positive outcome. Accepting all that progressed through his filters, Frank internalized the combined pressure from Mr. McKee and Dr. Wilson to implement all the CITE goals during his internship. This may have been partially responsible for Frank's eventual resignation from the program.

Frank experienced an imbalance between his expectations of the internship and the actual internship. Not receiving the assistance and support from Mr. McKee he expected, Frank's excitement at the partnership diminished and his tendency to lean on him transferred to Dr. Wilson. Additionally, Frank did not succeed as easily as expected. Again, an imbalance occurred as Frank questioned his ability and his students' ability and motivation. Having to see Dr. Wilson weekly for assistance made Frank feel that he could not teach on his own. This pierced Frank's preconceptions of himself as a teacher. Thus, the great self-confidence present prior to his internship diminished into nothing by November, when he shared that his lessons could never equal the expectations Mr. McKee and Dr. Wilson had for him. As he shared during the focus group, his lack of instant ability frustrated him, making him feel inadequate. Soon thereafter he dropped out.

Case 5: Shelley

From the beginning of this study, Shelley was the outlier of the group. Her responses and views were never in line with everyone else's. For example, while the other four participants all were emotional and agitated about microteaching, Shelley claimed to have had no fear nor trepidations about teaching. While the other four recognized to varying degrees when instruction had not been successful, Shelley never

271

doubted the success of her instruction. Furthermore, when confronted with constructive criticism or feedback about a teaching episode, Shelley defended herself, even if it meant lying. She laid the responsibility at the feet of her cooperating teacher and institutional constraints or claimed lack of experience. She never admitted that her planning or implementation of a lesson could be at fault.

Preconceptions blocking the filters. Some researchers (McDiarmid,1990; Wubbels, 1992; Joram and Gabriele 1998; Pajares, 1993) suggested that university education classes do not impact preservice teachers' beliefs or actions because their preconceptions of self or of teaching are so strong. For Shelley, her preconceptions of *both* self and teaching were so strong that her beliefs remained unchanged by the classes. As everything passed through her filters, she accepted the parts that confirmed her preconceptions. The rest, she dismissed.

Shelley believed that university classes offered nothing necessary for her to become an effective teacher. This was clearly shown by her indifferent actions: Within the first year, Shelley willingly entered class late, threw paper at classmates during class, failed to buy a book for class and then used that as an excuse for not attempting the work due, and neglected to register for mandatory classes. Instead, she explained that by being a student for years, she already knew how to teach. Additionally, when she received poor grades or missed an explanation in class, she criticized the teacher for being unclear, confusing, or unfair. The fault was never hers. Even when confronted with inconsistencies between her preconceptions and her actions, Shelley suffered no cognitive dissonance. Instead, she continued to believe that everything she did and thought was correct and those who disagreed were obviously mistaken. When she left the

272

program after the first year, her confidence had not waned. She continued to view herself as a teacher, evaluating herself as an 8 out of 10 on a scale that held 10 as a master teacher.

Surface changes in actions. Foss and Kleinsasser (1996) found that their preservice teachers emerged from the math methods class as "poor duplicators…instead of initiators of learning" (p. 429). Further, preservice teachers ignored the philosophy conveyed in class and relied on their own previously held knowledge (p. 439). These findings describe Shelley's beliefs and actions during her year in the CITE program.

During her microteaching sessions, Shelley experienced cognitive dissonance when Dr. Wilson provided negative feedback about a lesson plan. However, instead of accepting it, she showed the lesson to her cooperating teacher, who gave her the assurance she desired. After that, she mocked Dr. Wilson's expectations, preserving her preconception of self. Furthermore, Shelley disagreed with Dr. Wilson's assignment, acting as if she knew what was needed more than he did. Thus, the strength of her own preconceptions was so resilient that no socialization factors were internalized.

On the occasions that she was observed, Shelley attempted to implement methods from university classes, but only achieved a shadow-image of them. For example, she asked varying levels of questions, but often reduced them to rhetorical questions. She used warm-ups in her class, including "When I think of…" and agree/disagree questions, but never referred to them or scaffolded additional information from them. She used specific lessons (e.g., Motel of Mysteries) in her own class, but never with huge success. This lack of success can be traced to two underlying reasons. First, she did not take the time to plan. She believed that she could swing anything based on her natural ability.

Second, as Foss and Kleinsasser (1996) suggested, she never accepted the philosophical views of the university, seldom appearing to reflect on the underlying reason for using those methods and how they would influence student learning. Instead, she held tightly to her preconception of what teaching should look like in her classroom and her confidence in her ability to teach.

<div align="center">Cross Case Analyses</div>

The benefit of case studies is that more descriptive, valid portrayals are presented and the effects of individual's backgrounds, experiences, and preconceptions are illuminated. However, the patterns that emerge provide a broader picture regarding the participants overall. While not indicative of every preservice teacher, these patterns may nonetheless provide insights concerning the socialization of preservice teachers.

Socializing Factors: Initial Acceptance of CITE Themes

According to Argyris and Schon's theory, people will change either beliefs or actions in order to eliminate cognitive dissonance. Thus, having preservice teachers *take* an action forces them to either change their beliefs or to disregard the action as worthless. Following this logic, requiring preservice teachers to perform specified methods during microteaching sessions could lead them to accept those beliefs. In addition, by reflecting on their actions and on best practices as defined by Kauchak and Eggan (1998), the participants were required to espouse similar beliefs in order to get a high grade.

The participants' actions and beliefs followed the expected transformation. During and after their microteaching experiences, all the participants except Shelley espoused that they wished to fulfill the CITE Themes of Instruction and Learning. They each said that they had, to varying extents, achieved the desired goals during their

microteaching. For example, Theresa was pleased with her use of three methods during her first microteaching session and recognized a need to work on her wait time and clarity. In her second microteaching session, Theresa said that she wanted students to be problems solvers and expressed a willingness to change her plans in order for students to really learn a skill. John's espoused goal was to emulate Dr. Wilson, who followed the guidelines set out by Kauchak and Eggan (1998) perfectly. John continually referred back to what Dr. Wilson or the text said, directed, or did. Kim conferenced with Dr. Wilson prior to her first microteaching experience, hoping to meet the expected goals. She continually berated herself for not meeting the highest standards set by CITE during her microteaching sessions despite her efforts. Frank accepted the CITE goals as measuring stick of success. Thus, he proudly boasted that he mastered both the questioning and modeling methods by the end of the second microteaching session.

The only person who did not follow this pattern was Shelley. She disregarded the CITE expectations and feedback given. She believed she had done exceptionally well in both microteaching sessions, perceiving that no substantive changes were needed to either her planning or implementation of the lessons. Instead, she conveyed her belief that she already knew how to teach and disagreed with the assignments. As mentioned in her individual analysis, Shelley's views often differed than her peers, possibly because of the resilience her preconceptions.

Socializing Factors: The First Cooperating Teacher

The participants' first placements – whether at an urban or suburban school, whether they received lots of feedback or very little, and whether they were strongly supported or virtually ignored – became part of each participants' new vision of what

275

social studies classrooms and teachers should be like. All the participants accepted their cooperating teachers' instructional methods and philosophies as realistic, professional, and appropriate, even when they disagreed with the CITE program. For example, Theresa showed a willingness to change her beliefs and actions because of Mr. Titus, whom she considered a perfect teacher. Her second cooperating teacher, and even her acclaimed mentor teacher, could not hold a candle to Mr. Titus She claimed everything she learned during the two years was from him. John considered Mr. Clarke perfect and saw himself becoming like him in 25 years. He later said that a suburban school with that kind of population was where he saw himself, not the urban placements he later had. Kim initially disagreed with Mrs. Salinger's methods, recognizing the differences between the CITE program goals and Mrs. Salinger's practices. Yet, Kim imitated them in her second placement and acknowledged a longing to return to Lockwood Middle School. Frank, too, found his first placement to be the ideal. He always referred to Mr. Sipps' as the ideal teacher, his room the ideal place to teach. Frank even returned to Mr. Sipps to gain ideas during his later teaching experiences. Shelley also favored Mr. Payne, her first cooperating teacher, to Mr. Poole, her second. She believed that Mr. Payne was organized, able to gain respect of his class, and keep the classroom well managed. In describing her desired classroom, Shelley re-described what she had said about Mr. Payne's instruction and classroom.

Initially, it seemed that the socializing factors from these first placements were so strong because the institutions and mentors matched the participants' preconceptions and personalities. However, this is not accurate: Theresa's cooperating teacher was *very* different philosophically than she was, and yet she changed to reflect his beliefs and

276

actions. Likewise, Kim's cooperating teacher incorporated methods opposed to the CITE program, which Kim had adopted. Both participants believed that they grew tremendously in their vision of teaching during their first field experiences. These findings supports Hollingsworth's (1989) conclusion that pairing preservice teachers with cooperating teachers holding different philosophies leads to growth of the preservice teacher. Thus, it appears that *any* first field experience has a strong effect.

The strength of the mentor teachers' influences may be because they represented reality in teaching to the participants, each of whom had implied that what was taught at the university was idealistic in nature, and therefore not accurate in today's schools. Researchers' (Spady, 1975; Laktasic, 1976; Hoy and Rees, 1977; Metcalf, 1991, Su, 1992; Koeppen, 1998) findings show that cooperating teachers often exert among the strongest socializing influences.

Overall Change in Beliefs: A Move Towards Custodial Management

Because participants filtered the socializing factors individually, few changes in actions or beliefs were constant for all. However, during their intern year, all remaining participants changed towards more custodial management techniques, though to different degrees. By the time they progressed through the first quarter of their internship, each began using more custodial techniques. Each believed that more ordered structure and stronger punitive consequences were needed. This pattern supports Hoy and Rees' (1977) finding that preservice teachers become more custodial in management as they progressed through their teaching experiences (p. 24).

If custodial-humanist management techniques are seen on a spectrum, Theresa would have moved to the far custodial end. By October of her internship year, she

277

distrusted the students, claiming that their goal is to stop her from teaching. She viewed each class as a battle, winning if she could keep the students under control. She complained to the administration and guidance counselors, asking to have disruptive students removed from her class. Theresa blamed the administration for their laxity, the students for their attitudes, and the education program for not providing practical advice (e.g. how to write referrals for detentions). By March, Theresa was pleased with herself for keeping 37 students "controlled" for 50 minutes. The possibility of students not raising their hands that she had entertained during her first field experience vanished.

John, too, moved towards the custodial management end of the spectrum during his internship year, although not to the extreme that Theresa had. During his field experiences, John had not had to contend with behavior issues. Instead, he joked or teased the students, allowing the cooperating teacher to assume responsibility for managing the class. When he entered his internship, John was shocked. Calling his management training a trial by fire, he swore he was leaving for the suburbs as soon as he the internship ended. He yelled over the din, kicked students out of class, and finally decided that he would be tough with them. He shared that it was impossible to teach in those conditions and that students should be locked out of the school if they skipped, were late, or interrupted his teaching.

Of the four participants, Kim moved only slightly towards custodial management from her humanist philosophy. She continued to use positive reinforcement, blaming her own lack of clarity and organization and the constructivist methods for management problems. However, she began sending students to the office and keeping the class in at lunch if they did not behave. She felt that these consequences were more realistic and

practical than the philosophy from the university. Additionally, Kim accepted the use of worksheets as a means of controlling student behavior. Thus, while she was not custodial as Theresa and Frank were, she became more custodial as the year passed.

After Kim, Frank remained the most humanist in his management techniques. However, he also became slightly more custodial. Frank became frustrated with his lack of management techniques early in the intern year. He believed that no practical management skills were modeled in his management class and he could not recall much information from it. Further, the amount of total responsibility in managing a class shocked and overwhelmed Frank, who walked into Manchester feeling unprepared for the challenge. While he mainly depended on his rapport with the students, he began to infrequently use the in-school suspension room as a means of removing students. By November, Frank believed that management was a problem that he was untrained to handle.

Three aspects, repeated by each participant at various times, caused this change towards more custodial management. The first aspect mentioned by all the participants was that the university education program had not prepared them to fully manage a classroom. Not knowing how to set up a classroom at the beginning of the year was the second factor. Lastly, the participants blamed their lack of experience regarding discipline during field experiences. Overall, they shared the belief that in the non-idealistic classrooms outside of the university, a totally humanistic management philosophy would not work. Instead, they needed to use more custodial management techniques to establish their authority and maintain discipline in their classrooms.

Socializing Factors: Supervisors, Autonomy, Institutional Constraints

The four interns split into two camps. In one camp are Theresa and John, who did not fully accept or fulfill the CITE goals. In the other camp are Kim and Frank, whose beliefs and actions appear to be more aligned with the CITE goals. In trying to understand why this distinction occurred, a few patterns emerged. These include being an undergraduate or post-baccalaureate student at an urban magnet or neighborhood school, and having different supervisors and amounts of autonomy.

Lortie (1975) claimed that the 16 years of pretraining strongly affected preservice teachers' conception of teaching. Accepting this and looking at the data of this study, it is necessary to question whether four additional years of apprenticeship in classrooms increases the resiliency of those conceptions. Thus, it is interesting to note that the two undergraduates, namely Kim and Frank, were more accepting of the CITE Themes than Theresa, John, and Shelley, who were pursuing their post-baccalaureate certification and concurrently, master's degree. It appeared that the filters of the undergraduates did not disregard information as quickly as the post-baccalaureate students, thus socializing the undergraduates more towards the CITE goals, as shown in both their actions and beliefs. While this may be true, no generalizations can be made based on such a small sampling. More likely, however, were the influences of the institutional constraints, supervision, and autonomy. This conclusion is based on the fact that Theresa, a post-baccalaureate student, altered her actions and beliefs greatly during her professional year of the program, only to reverse her actions during the intern year. Thus, it seems less to do with years of apprenticeship and more with the nature of the intern year experience.

Theresa and John were both at Oakmont High School, a large urban neighborhood school. According to John, only one-fourth of the students who entered as freshman graduated as seniors. They shared the same mentor teacher, Mr. Hatford, whose philosophy of education centered on transmission of content, routine, and custodial management. He openly criticized the CITE Program to both interns. In contrast, Kim interned at Lockwood Middle School, an urban magnet middle school whose priorities were orderly behavior and having students pass the state proficiency tests. Although transmission of content was Mrs. Salinger's goal, she demanded that the students be actively involved in instruction. She also accepted, although not completely, constructivist learning as long as the students learned the desired material. Manchester High, where Frank interned, was also an urban magnet school. It housed four "school-within-a-school" programs, thus having the feel of a smaller high school because of it.

These differences undoubtedly affected the institutional constraints influencing the participants. Specifically, the socializing factors that differed included students' attitudes, class sizes, resources available, and the discipline codes at the schools. According to Wildman et al. (1989), students are possibly the strongest socialization factor for preservice teachers. For example, John complained that his students did not care whether they passed and that the assistant principal did not take care of referrals from his class because more serious occurrences happened daily. Likewise, the day that John put a student out of class, the student waited near the doorway until John again told him to leave. In contrast, Frank merely had to threaten a student with in-school suspension for the student to calm down. Kim was able to hold her students in during

lunch without administrative repercussions. Additionally, the philosophy of the school revolved around order, so she received lots of support to this end.

Another apparent difference between the two pairs was their university supervisors and, in conjunction with this, the amount of autonomy they were given. First, according to Theresa and based on observations, the supervisor observed once per quarter, not always arriving when expected. Theresa further complained that the supervisor had "decreed" that they meet at 2:30 PM Friday, adding, "Can you think of a worse time?!" (IN, 12/99). Overall, Theresa felt these meetings were non-productive as the interns were asked if they had anything pressing to talk about. When no subjects arose, they sat and talked about nothing for the rest of the time (IN, 5/00). Interestingly, Theresa never mentioned these weekly meetings or her supervisor unless asked directly. Likewise, John seldom mentioned the supervisor, but was more positive when directly asked about the supervision he received.

> I've had some good individual suggestions from [the supervisor] and I think she gives us some good feedback in our… roundtable…. She's given me some real helpful ones about how to-- and I think they're realistic and valid suggestions that would work in an urban classroom. But I think--It goes kinda hand-in-hand with just the way we have autonomy over there at Oakmont that it would be out of sorts if we had her there all the time playing the same role as, like, Dr. Wilson plays at Manchester and Lockwood (FG, 11/99).

Interestingly, neither John nor Theresa mentioned their supervisor in conjunction with changes in their instruction nor in their perception of learning. Additionally, their supervisor's observations never referred back to the CITE Themes in conjunction with her suggestions. This data supports Metcalf's (1991) finding that university supervisors are perceived as having little influence and little effect upon preservice teachers' instruction.

In contrast, Kim and Frank shared Dr. Wilson as their supervisor. They both commented on his influence on their teaching and that they sought his advice. In observations from Dr. Wilson, every strength and area of improvement was directly tied to a CITE Theme. This could be why Kim commented, "Dr. Wilson is the program" (FG, 11/99). His influence was felt throughout their intern experience. For instance, Kim received continual feedback from Dr. Wilson, often claiming that she changed a lesson based on his suggestions. Likewise, Frank met with Dr. Wilson weekly in order to align his lessons with the CITE Themes. It is debatable whether Kim or Frank may have strayed from CITE Themes if they had been given less supervisory attention or the autonomy that Theresa and John received.

Chapter 7: The Conclusion

As calls for educational reform continue to sound, a variety of interested parties voice their suggestions. These include the Holmes Group, The Carnegie Foundation, American Federation of Teachers, and National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education , who have collectively called for more rigorous standards for teacher education, for preservice teachers to major in the subjects they want to teach, for teacher education programs to be expanded to five years, and for full-year internships to be included. While programs like the CITE Program have responded to these directives, little research exists regarding the effects such a program could have on teachers' beliefs and actions regarding instruction and learning. To paraphrase Shoenfeld (1999), it is necessary to study the program now that it is built.

Thus, five preservice teachers were followed in an attempt to understand how a five-year education program influences the socialization process. The questions posed at the beginning of this study asked whether the robust preconceptions and beliefs held by preservice teachers would transfer to the field and whether participants would be socialized as the university desired. However, instead of finding simple answers, the study raised more questions. Based on each participant's individual background and preconceptions, the variety of socializing influences affected participants differently. The conclusion that "everybody is different" is true, but too simplistic. Therefore, in this conclusion, the questions change slightly. The first question considers what overall influences appeared to have the greatest influence in socializing preservice teachers. The second suggests what direction future research should follow.

The Influences and Recommendations

It is important for university education programs to be cognizant of the influences that socialize their preservice teachers; otherwise, the desired socialization cannot occur. Based on the findings in this study, three influences appear to strongly socialize preservice teachers: (1) Preconceptions about teaching and learning; (2) partnerships between university and schools; and (3) relationships between university supervisor and student teacher/interns. Preconceptions are strong and resilient. If university programs desire to change preservice teachers' preconceived beliefs, then preservice teachers must be required to reflect on their own beliefs and actions in comparison to university expectations. When partnerships between the university and school were strong, the message sent to preservice teachers remained consistent. This strong partnership prevented university messages from being washed away and tug-of-war problems from occurring. Likewise, if university supervisors are to influence the actions of student teachers/interns, then positive relationships must be developed.

According to the Dialectical Theory, people's beliefs and actions do not change if socializing factors are not internalized. Only by forcing people to consider the ideas or socializing factors, however briefly, is there a chance of internalization. In writing reflective papers during the first two quarters of their Professional Year, the participants tied their actions during microteaching and the first field experience to desired practices (Kauchak and Eggan, 1998). They described their successes and proposed improvements for the future. Through interviews and observations, it appeared that they truly wanted to practice what they wrote. This further supports Argyris and Schon's (1974) theory: The participants had to practice what they wrote or suffer from cognitive dissonance that

285

arose from differences between espoused theory and theory-in-practice. Thus, during microteachings and the first field experience, the participants attempted to implement practices either supported by the CITE goals or rationalized why they had not. None of them even implied that they disagreed with the CITE goals, as Theresa and Frank later did during their internships. Thus, by forcing students to reflect on their preconceptions, beliefs, and actions in comparison to the desired goals, preservice teachers changed their beliefs and actions towards those goals, even if only for a brief time.

The second influence appears to be the nature of the partnership between university and professional practice schools, as well as the close partnering between university supervisors and Professional Practice Schools (PPS) mentors. Although Manchester, Lockwood, Oakmont were all considered PPSs, the commitment to the CITE Themes differed among them. Because of this inconsistency, an enormous difference in socialization towards the CITE Themes occurred. For instance, Manchester's close proximity to the university along with Dr. Wilson's close bonds with the mentors there cemented the implementation of the CITE Themes. Thus, a consistent message regarding expectations was relayed to Frank during his internship. In contrast, Kim was caught in the middle of a tug-of-war between the university and Lockwood Middle School. Mrs. Salinger expected custodial management techniques to be used while the CITE Goals called for non-punitive, humanist management. However, Mrs. Salinger directed Kim to teach in the manner Dr. Wilson expected when he observed, how to return to "normal" when he was absent. In this way, Kim received mixed messages, and this diluted the influence of the socializing factors from the university. At Oakmont High School, Theresa and John's mentor teacher was unashamedly critical of the university program,

calling it unrealistic, and idealistic, and claiming that the professors were clueless about teaching inner city students. Because Theresa and John worked with him daily and because his structured routine method worked for them, Theresa and John abandoned the CITE Goals without considering why success did not occur. Similar to Palonsky and Jacobson's (1989) findings, ideas and methods from the university quickly lost their impact and were abandoned when confronted with the cooperating teachers' perspectives. Thus, if close partnerships between university professors and mentor teachers are not formed, the influences from the university "wash-out," leaving little to no trace of ever having existed (Chase et al., 1996). Thus, forming partnerships between the university and schools is critical if the influences from the university are to remain during and after the internship.

Additionally, choosing the cooperating teachers carefully is of utmost importance. Throughout the literature, cooperating teachers are consistently recognized as a major influences on preservice teachers' socialization (Hoy and Rees, 1977; Laktasic, 1976; Metcalf, 1991, Su, 1992). The data in this study also support this claim. Certainly, Theresa, Kim, John, and Frank were strongly influenced by the cooperating teachers in their first field experience. Participants identified strongly with, and strove to imitate, their cooperating teachers, even when these models opposed the program's themes. But while Theresa's and Frank's cooperating teachers taught using constructivist methods consistent with the university's desires, John's cooperating teacher was the antithesis. All three participants, however, continually referred back to their first field experiences, particularly the teachers, and methods they continued to want to imitate. Therefore, especially for their first field experience, it is critical for cooperating teachers to support

287

and model beliefs and actions consistent with the university's vision for preservice teacher socialization.

For the desired beliefs to be reinforced during the intern year, the minimum preparation necessary would be making sure that cooperating teachers are familiar with the university expectations. In-depth training for the cooperating teachers according to these expectations would be even better. This does not mean that every cooperating teacher must be identical or have identical teaching styles – an impossibility because institutional constraints and personalities vary. However, this type of training could allow cooperating teachers to support university goals more, or at least to have a common language to refer to when their beliefs and actions diverged from those of the university. Without a partnership, the preservice teachers are asked to serve two masters, and if no strong university presence prevails, it appears they are likely to follow their mentor's lead, because they work with this person daily.

The third external influence on preservice teacher socialization is clear guidance from a supervisor, including a positive rapport between the university supervisor and preservice teacher. According to Zeichner and Gore (1990) and Metcalf (1991), university supervisors have little effect on preservice teachers' beliefs or actions. However, according to this study, their findings may not be accurate in every case. If one compares the heavily supervised interns, Kim and Frank, to Theresa and John, whose intern year was largely guided by professional teachers, it is apparent that strong supervision from a university supervisor affected instructional and management techniques. Part of this university presence is a full understanding of the desired product and the ability to articulate that understanding. The other part is the relationship and

rapport that the supervisors need to develop with their interns. For example, Kim felt a strong connection to Dr. Wilson, even when he criticized her. She did not want to disappoint *him* by dismissing the CITE Themes. Likewise, it was his supervisor that Frank met with when initially facing failure during his internship. In both these cases, the preservice teachers' personal connections to their supervisor affected their beliefs and actions. Ignoring the program's demands would equal ignoring their supervisor, and neither wanted to do that. Thus, in order to eliminate any cognitive dissonance, they accepted both the CITE Themes overall and the great majority of suggestions by their supervisor. In contrast, Theresa and John rarely mentioned their supervisor in any positive fashion. Theresa saw her as inconsiderate for making meetings on Friday afternoons and for missing a scheduled observation earlier in the year. When pressed about his supervisor, John indicated that she was mildly helpful, offering good ideas once in a while. Her overall influence on their beliefs or actions appears to be minimal at best. She did not focus on the Themes and portfolio, but asked if they had any issues they wished to discuss. Mainly, she kept the flow of conversation general in their meetings. Thus, cementing the relationship between the university supervisor and preservice teachers can be an important factor in the socialization process.

The strongest socializing influences affecting the participants were their own preconceptions, based on their individual experiences and backgrounds (as suggested by Lortie, 1975; Eisner, 1992; and Graber, 1996). Participants' preconceptions proved to be very resilient to change. For example, Shelley continuously held firmly to her beliefs about what good teaching was, even when Dr. Wilson or I provided contrary information. In order to minimize the cognitive dissonance between her preconceptions and new,

contradictory information, she merely dismissed the feedback, claiming it was personal, overly critical, and incorrect for a real classroom. Similarly, while John and Theresa accepted the CITE goals during the Professional year, both returned to their preconceptions and dismissed much of the CITE program's goals during the Intern year. John returned to telling stories and using teacher-centered instructional methods; Kim relied on notes, book reading, and other passive instruction that she enjoyed as a student. Their actions support McDiarmid's (1990) finding that changes through university classes are short lived. As the Dialectical Theory of Socialization indicates, preservice teachers' actions and beliefs will not be changed permanently unless the socializing factors are caught in the filter, replacing or attaching to preconceptions. Thus, preservice teachers need to be forced to confront their own preconceptions about teaching, including their understanding of instruction and learning, before teaching as the university conceptualizes it can be accepted. Otherwise, the participants return to their preconceptions, and this allows the university education program's ideals to blow through their filters with no lasting effect.

These preconceptions affected not only their long term beliefs about instruction and learning, but also beliefs regarding their ability as a teacher. As Weinstein (1989) found, many preservice teachers enter with "unrealistic optimism" and overconfidence in themselves. Further, as long-time teacher-watchers, preservice teachers have only seen the performance side of teaching (Clark, 1988). If preservice teachers articulated their preconceived understandings about what teachers do, it might be possible to illuminate the reality of planning, grading, and long hours. This candid discussion might allow preservice teachers like Frank to be corrected by professors and/or teachers before reality

shock breaks their unrealistic optimism and forces them out of the teaching profession permanently. Also, it may allow preservice teachers like John to recognize that hard work, not just experience, is necessary to be successful, and that teaching is not the same as coaching.

Recommended Further Research

This study supports the Dialectical Theory of socialization and suggests a variety of socializing factors during the various periods of a teacher education program. Within and between these variables are a wide range of issues and questions that need to be further researched. In addition, it is impossible to know whether the findings presented in this study generalize to other students and to similar five year programs. Thus, additional qualitative and quantitative research needs to be completed, specifically regarding the influence of university classes and supervision, cooperating teachers and field experiences in general, and the intern year with application classes.

Much of the literature regarding preservice teacher socialization recognizes that preservice teachers enter with very resilient preconceptions about teaching and learning. While that is broadly accepted, future research needs to explore how university classes influence preservice teachers' beliefs and for how long. McDiarmid (1990) found preservice teachers' beliefs changed only temporarily when confronted with a single exceptional teacher. Price (1999) measured preservice teachers' beliefs at the beginning and end of an introduction to education class, Principles and Practices of Teaching for Secondary Educators, and found that a change had occurred. Unfortunately, no additional data exists regarding how long that change lasted. In this study, it appeared that Frank and Kim experienced long-lasting changes in their beliefs about instruction and learning.

291

However, the changes in belief for John and Theresa were short-lived, and for Shelley the changes never occurred. Therefore, in order to identify the factors that allow for permanent changes toward university-desired socialization, more long term studies focusing on changes in beliefs need to be conducted. Until college/university education programs are able to consistently affect those preconceptions, the desired socialization will remain a losing battle.

Similarly, the literature indicates that university supervisors have little influence on student teachers' performances (Metcalf, 1991; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). However, my data indicate that when personal rapport exists between the supervisor and the intern, it may result in a stronger university influence because the interns do not want to disappoint their supervisor. Future studies could measure university supervisor influence in relationship to rapport in order to see if that makes a significant difference. Additional research could also focus on the consistency between what the supervisor demands and what the preservice teachers learned in their methods course. In this current study, two of the interns received consistent message because one professor taught the methods course *and* acted as their university supervisor.

Much research has been completed regarding the influence of cooperating teachers on preservice teachers' beliefs and actions (Hoy and Rees, 1977; Laktasic, 1976; Metcalf, 1991, Su, 1992). Additionally, Chase et al. (1996) reported on the easy transfer from coursework to classroom in their study, crediting the university-PDS partnerships for this ease. In addition to the partnership, however, the student body, administrative responsiveness, parental involvement, socioeconomic status of the community, and institutional constraints need to be considered. How do each of these factors influence the

preservice teachers' socialization within a partnership? Do these partnerships work better in some areas than others? Does the commitment of the individual cooperating teachers significantly change the success? According to my data, the partnership only worked completely at one school, a magnet school in close proximity to the university, and one in which both the university supervisor and cooperating teacher were both strongly committed to the CITE Themes. In a second school, a middle school, the partnership was recognized, but not fully accepted. Kim, the intern there, was caught in a tug-of-war. In the third school, an urban neighborhood school in a low socioeconomic area, the partnership had no impact on the teachers or the participants. Therefore, the university-school partnerships that exist need to be actively studied, taking into account the variables mentioned above.

The last recommendation for future research revolves around the benefits of a five-year program with a full-year internship. The most significant question is whether the extra year is making a difference in the effectiveness of the graduating teachers. By the end of this study, Theresa and John, the only two participants who graduated with their education certificates, did not appear to be socialized towards the CITE Themes. I do not believe this is an indication of the program as much as it is an indication of their urban experience with their mentor teacher during the intern year. Further, with such a small sample, the program can in no way be evaluated based on this study. However, with large universities around the country changing to five year or post-baccalaureate education programs, it is necessary that many more studies be completed in order to investigate the full effects on preservice teachers' socialization. Further, after many such studies are completed, a research review should be conducted to discover what influences

293

and methods are successful overall. These influences and methods, then, should be instituted immediately.

The focus of this study was to add to the growing body of knowledge about preservice teacher socialization, specifically regarding instruction and learning, in order that college/university teacher education programs graduate more effective teachers who in turn educate our country's youth more effectively. The findings and conclusions shed a bit of light on the issues, constraints, and possibilities regarding socialization. Additional lights will illuminate the best way to help preservice teachers move from coursework to classrooms in the future.

Appendices

Appendix A – Typical Schedule for Preservice Teachers in the CITE Program

      A1: Undergraduate Schedule

      A2: Post-Baccalaureate Schedule

Appendix B – Secondary Education Program Themes

Appendix C – Secondary Education Intern Performance Rubric

Appendix D – Data Collection Charts with Related CITE Theme

      D1: Theresa

      D2: John

      D3: Kim

      D4: Frank

      D5: Shelley

Appendix E – Coding Tree

Appendix F – Codes for Data Sources

Typical Schedule for Undergraduate Preservice Teachers During the Last Two Years of the CITE Program

PROFESSIONAL YEAR

AUTUMN QUARTER		WINTER QUARTER		SPRING QUARTER	
Optional Start-of-School Field Experience					
Instructional Planning	3 hrs	Sec. Teaching Methods*	3 hrs	Instructional Management	3 hrs
Human Learning	2 hrs	Field/Clinical Experience I*	3 hrs	Field/Clinical Experience II*	3 hrs
Reading, Writing, Learn. Strat.	3 hrs	Assess. and Evaluation	2 hrs	Instructional Technology	2 hrs
Arts and Sciences Courses	9 hrs	Arts and Sciences Courses	9 hrs	Arts and Sciences Courses	9 hrs

INTERNSHIP YEAR

AUTUMN QUARTER		WINTER QUARTER		SPRING QUARTER	
Internship Teaching I	9 hrs	Internship Teaching II	9 hrs	Internship Teaching III	9 hrs
Sec. Applied Tchng Meth.*	2 hrs	Student Support Services I	2 hrs	Student Support Services II	2 hrs
Individual/Diversity	2 hrs	Applied Prof. Know./Values I	1 hr	Applied Prof. Know./Values II	1 hr
		Individual/Development	2 hrs	Social Inequalities & Schooling	2 hrs
		Portfolio Presentation I	1 hr	Portfolio Presentation II	1 hr

* subject specific

Appendix A:
Typical Schedule for Post-Baccalaureate Preservice Teachers During the Two Years of the CITE Program

PROFESSIONAL YEAR

AUTUMN QUARTER		WINTER QUARTER		SPRING QUARTER	
Instructional Planning	3 hrs	Sec. Teaching Methods *	3 hrs	Instructional Management	3 hrs
Human Learning	2 hrs	Field/Clinical Experience I *	3 hrs	Field/Clinical Experience II *	3 hrs
Reading, Writing, Learn. Strat.	3 hrs	Assess. and Evaluation	2 hrs	Instructional Technology	2 hrs
Sch. and Tch. Grad. Equivalent	3 hrs	Human Dev. Grad. Equivalent	3 hrs	Curriculum in Sec. Schl. *	3 hrs

Optional Start-of-School Field Experience

INTERNSHIP YEAR

AUTUMN QUARTER		WINTER QUARTER		SPRING QUARTER	
Internship Teaching I	9 hrs	Internship Teaching II	9 hrs	Internship Teaching III	9 hrs
Sec. Applied Tchng Meth. *	2 hrs	Student Support Services I	2 hrs	Student Support Services II	2 hrs
Individual Diversity	2 hrs	Applied Prof. Know./Values I	1 hr	Applied Prof. Know./Values II	1 hr
		Individual Development	2 hrs	Social Inequalities & Schooling	2 hrs
		Portfolio Presentation I	1 hr	Portfolio Presentation II	1 hr

* subject specific

297

Appendix B

Cincinnati Initiative for Teacher Education :
Secondary Education Program Themes

Our common vision of secondary school teachers serves as a primary focus for the preparation of CITE school teachers. Around this vision have been assembled eight themes the program strives to develop with each candidate and to which each candidate is held accountable. These themes correlate with the Ohio Performance Based Licensure Areas {listed in brackets for theme}.

LEARNING {Student Learning} Learning is an active, goal-oriented, constructivist process dependent upon the mental activities of the learner. Learners are seen as producers of their own knowledge, not merely consumers of information delivered to them. This constructivist view of human cognitive learning addresses various mental activities involved in human information processing.

INSTRUCTION {Planning, Instructional Strategies, Learning Environment, Assessment} Instruction is the design, construction, and adjustment of environments and activities aimed at the achievement of specific outcomes by learners. Students interact in this managed environment and change in some way as a result. The environment surrounding a learner is filled with other people (classmates and teachers), texts and other media, activities, and assignments. By interacting in this environment a student processes information, and that mental activity gives rise to learning.

CONTENT {Subject Matter} Content is the academic specialty around which the goals of the curriculum are formed. Content is the materials to be taught and learned by students in the schools. Teachers need a rich, deep understanding of the content related to their teaching specialty. They are and should view themselves as members of a scholarly community, requiring them to understand the structures of the subject matter they teach, the principles of conceptual organization that relate to that subject matter, and the principles of inquiry that lead to the production and verification of knowledge.

CURRICULUM {Subject Matter, Planning Instruction} Curriculum is the publicly announced expectations of what a school intends to teach its students. These expectations are manifested in curriculum policies, curriculum guides, courses of study, textbooks, and other materials. Schools use curricular structures and materials to advance explicit aims of organized schooling. Curricular patterns and courses of study organize knowledge in meaningful ways to meet stated goals for learners.

CONTEXT {Learning Environment, Diversity of Learners} Learning and teaching are inevitably embedded in socio-cultural, functional, structural, and temporal dimensions of school life that form their context. These contexts are numerous and multifaceted. Those influencing teaching, learning, and the management of students range from the physical environments of a neighborhood, school, and classroom to the cultural background and values of a particular community or individuals in it, to the particular

forms of interaction within a classroom (curricular, instructional, evaluational, behavioral, social, etc.). Finally, there are transcending contexts that frame all of the others (e.g., social class, ethnic background, and/or religious beliefs) and their complex interactions.

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT {Professional Development}
The professional growth of a teacher is itself a constructivist process where teachers work to develop their own professional knowledge. Socialization to the norms of the profession of teaching is a gradual process and depends upon the collaboration with other professionals. A key aspect of the professional development process is systematic reflection upon one's goals and aspirations coupled to indicators of attainment in consideration of actions taken.

GROUNDED THEORY AND KNOWLEDGE Theories are the methodical explanations of phenomena and must be grounded in the realities of practice. Theory and knowledge coupled to the actual practice of teaching improves the decision-making abilities and performances of teachers when confronted with classroom situations.

COLLABORATION {Student Support, Communication} In the maintenance of performance standards and in the development of professional knowledge, the teaching profession needs to be a collegial enterprise. From the development of individual teaching skills, through the sharing of professional knowledge and values to the cooperative effort required by the nature of work to be done, collaboration improves the quality of the product. Cooperation and collaboration cope with large and complex tasks beyond the capabilities of a single teacher.

Appendix C

Cincinnati Initiative for Teacher Education
Secondary Education Intern Performance Rubric

LEARNING

Exemplary

The intern exemplifies the constructivist (active, student-centered, productive, goal-oriented) approach to learning. The intern consistently gives students opportunities to be producers of knowledge and regularly provides occasions for them to become actively involved in the process of learning. The intern consistently aids learners' processing of new information and helps learners fit that information into their present system of knowledge and to make connections with their own lives. The intern continually demonstrates that he/she understands the complexity of learning and the high-level processes used to acquire learning.

Competent

The intern frequently exemplifies the constructivist (active, student-centered, productive, goal-oriented) approach to learning. The intern often gives students opportunities to be producers of knowledge and usually provides occasions for them to become actively involved in the process of learning. The intern generally aids learners' processing of new information and helps learners fit that information into their present system of knowledge and to make connections with their own lives. The intern usually demonstrates that he/she understands the complexity of learning and the high-level processes used to acquire learning.

Marginal

The intern sometimes exemplifies the constructivist (active, student-centered, productive, goal-oriented) approach to learning. The intern occasionally gives students opportunities to be producers of knowledge and infrequently provides occasions for the m to become actively involved in the process of learning. The intern seldom aids learners' processing of new information and helps learners fit that information into their present system of knowledge and to make connections with their own lives. The intern seldom demonstrates that he/she understands the complexity of learning and the high-level processes used to acquire learning.

Unacceptable

The intern has little understanding of the constructivist (active, student-centered, productive, goal-oriented) approach to learning. The intern consistently gives students little opportunities to be producers of knowledge and rarely provides occasions for them to become actively involved in the process of learning. The intern rarely aids learners' processing of new information and rarely helps learners fit that information into their present system of knowledge and to make connections with their own lives. The intern seldom demonstrates that he/she understands little about the complexity of learning and the high-level processes used to acquire learning.

Secondary Education Intern Performance Rubric

INSTRUCTION

Exemplary

The intern uses <u>exemplary</u> instructional strategies, management techniques, and assessment tools to teach a variety of content ideas which are thoughtfully matched to meet the needs of students with varying abilities and behaviors. The intern <u>consistently</u> assesses students' prior knowledge and experiences and <u>clearly articulates</u> the expected instructional and behavioral outcomes to the students. The intern <u>consistently</u> selects the appropriate teaching models to match the students' prior knowledge and experiences and employs a wide variety of teaching models and lessons to accommodate the differing ability levels, developmental stages, or needs and cultural diversity o f students. The intern <u>consistently</u> uses effective questioning sequences that elicit thoughtful answers from learners. The intern has created a classroom environment where students <u>consistently</u> interact with the teacher and the "text," other learners, technology, print and non-print resources to obtain, process, and produce information. The intern <u>consistently</u> uses proactive instructional management strategies designed and implemented to help students learn appropriate behavior. The intern <u>consistently</u> creates instructional environments in which on-task behavior is encouraged, ending off-task behaviors with minimal disruption of the class, protecting the self-worth of all parties and minimizing tactics that are punitive in nature. The intern works with students to establish a set of classroom procedures and routines that creates an orderly environment that is conducive to learning. The intern <u>consistently</u> models, reinforces, and maintains these procedures and routine throughout the school year. The intern <u>consistently</u> reflects upon and alters instructional strategies, assessment tools, and classroom environment to promote content ideas and to meet student needs.

Competent

The intern uses <u>suitable</u> instructional strategies, management techniques, and assessment tools to teach a variety of content ideas which are thoughtfully matched to meet the needs of students with varying abilities and behaviors. The intern <u>generally</u> assesses students' prior knowledge and experiences and <u>clearly articulates</u> the expected instructional and behavioral outcomes to the students. The intern <u>usually</u> selects the appropriate teaching models to match the students' prior knowledge and experiences and employs a wide variety of teaching models and lessons to accommodate the differing ability levels, developmental stages, or needs and cultural diversity of students. The intern <u>usually</u> uses effective questioning sequences that elicit thoughtful answers from learners. The intern has created a classroom environment where students <u>usually</u> interact with the teacher and the "text," other learners, technology, print and non-print resources to obtain, process, and produce information. The intern <u>usually</u> uses proactive instructional management strategies designed and implemented to help students learn appropriate behavior. The intern <u>usually</u> creates instructional environments in which on-task behavior is encouraged, ending off-task behaviors with minimal disruption of the class, protecting the self-worth of all parties and minimizing tactics that are punitive in nature. The intern works with students to establish a set of classroom procedures and routines that creates an orderly environment that is conducive to learning. The intern <u>usually</u> models, reinforces, and maintains these procedures and routine throughout the school year. The intern <u>usually</u> reflects upon and alters instructional strategies, assessment tools, and classroom environment to promote content ideas and to meet student needs.

Marginal

The intern uses <u>adequate</u> instructional strategies, management techniques, and assessment tools to teach a variety of content ideas which are thoughtfully matched to meet the needs of students with varying abilities and behaviors. The intern <u>randomly</u> assesses students' prior knowledge and experiences and as a result <u>has difficulty</u> selecting the appropriate teaching models to match the students' prior knowledge and experiences. The intern <u>inconsistently</u> articulates the expected instructional and behavioral outcomes to the students. The intern employs a <u>limited variety</u> of teaching models and lessons to accommodate the differing ability levels, developmental stages, or needs and cultural diversity of students. The intern uses questioning

sequences with <u>limited</u> effectiveness in eliciting responses from learners. The intern has created a classroom environment where students mainly interact with the teacher and the "text," yet attempts to foster interaction with other learners, technology, print and non-print resources to obtain, process, and produce information. The intern <u>attempt</u> to use proactive instructional management strategies designed and implemented to help students learn appropriate behavior. The intern <u>attempts</u> to create instructional environments in which on-task behavior is encouraged, ending off-task behaviors with minimal disruption of the class, protecting the self-worth of all parties and minimizing tactics that are punitive in nature. The intern attempts to work with students to establish a set of classroom procedures and routines that creates an orderly environment that is conducive to learning. The intern <u>occasionally</u> models, reinforces, and maintains these procedures and routine throughout the school year. The intern <u>randomly</u> reflects upon and alters instructional strategies, assessment tools, and classroom environment to promote content ideas and to meet student needs.

Unacceptable

The intern uses <u>unsatisfactory</u> instructional strategies, management techniques, and assessment tools to teach a variety of content ideas and does not meet the needs of students with varying abilities and behaviors. The intern <u>rarely</u> assesses students' prior knowledge and experiences and as a result <u>has difficulty</u> selecting the appropriate teaching models to match the students' prior knowledge and experiences. The intern <u>ineffectively</u> articulates the expected instructional and behavioral outcomes to the students. The intern <u>does not</u> employs a variety of teaching models and lessons to accommodate the differing ability levels, developmental stages, or needs and cultural diversity of students. The intern <u>fails to use</u> proactive questioning sequences in eliciting responses from learners. The intern <u>does not</u> create classroom environments where students interact with the teacher and the "text," other learners, technology, print and non-print resources to obtain, process, and produce information. The intern <u>fails to use</u> proactive instructional management strategies designed and implemented to help students learn appropriate behavior. The intern <u>does not</u> create instructional environments in which on-task behavior is encouraged, ending off-task behaviors with minimal disruption of the class, protecting the self-worth of all parties and minimizing tactics that are punitive in nature. The intern <u>does not</u> work with students to establish a set of classroom procedures and routines that creates an orderly environment that is conducive to learning. The intern <u>does not</u> model, reinforce, and maintain these procedures and routine throughout the school year. The intern <u>rarely</u> reflects upon and alters instructional strategies, assessment tools, and classroom environment to promote content ideas and to meet student needs.

APPENDIX D
Data Collection Charts with Related CITE Theme

Appendix D1
Theresa's Data

EVENT	DATE	THEME
Microteaching I: Interview I	19-Oct-98	content, learning
Microteaching I: Reflective Essay #1	27-Oct-98	Learning, Grounded Theory, content, instruction
Microteaching I: Assessment Rubric	19-Oct-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Graduate Article Review I	16-Nov-98	Grounded Theory, learning, context
Microteaching II: Interview	18-Nov-98	instruction, context, learning, curriculum
Microteaching II: Assessment Rubric	Nov-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Reflective Essay	23-Nov-98	Grounded theory, learning, content, context, instruction
Field Experience I: Interview	13-Jan-99	Instruction, learning, context, grounded theory, prof growth
Field Experience I: Field Notes	25-Jan-99	curriculum, instruction, content
Field Experience I: Field Notes	8-Feb-99	Instruction, content, context, learning
Office Visit -- informal conversation	8-Feb-99	prof growth, curriculum
Ten Day Unit Draft I	7-Feb-99	curriculum, instruction, content
Field Experience I: Field Notes	25-Feb-99	context, content, learning, instruction,
Field Experience I: Interview	10-Mar-99	context,curriculum, grounded theory, instruction, learning
Ten Day Unit Final Draft	12-Mar-99	Instruction, content,curriculum,
Field Experience II: Field Notes	15-Apr-99	content, instruction, learning, context
Field Experience II: Field Notes	6-May-99	Instruction, Learning, curriculum
Field Experience II: Interview	24-May-99	Learning, Instruction, context, collaboration, prof devment
Internship: Phone Conversation	5-Sep-99	collaboration, learning, content
Internship: Mentor #1 Assessment	15-Sep-99	instruction, content
Internship: Field Notes	20-Sep-99	learning, instruction, content, context
Internship:Informal Interveiw w/John	20-Sep-99	Learning, Instruction, context
Internship: Mentor #2 Assessment	Sep-99	instruction
Internship: UC Supervisor Assessment	4-Oct-99	instruction, content, learning, context
Internship: Interview	5-Oct-99	collaboration, content, instruction, content, context
Internship: Formative Assessment	15-Oct-99	ALL 8 with comments
Internship: Focus Group	2-Nov-99	curriculum, content, instruction, learning, theory
Internship: Liason Assessment	11-Nov-99	Instruction, Curriculum, context, Learning
Internship: Mentor #2 Assessment	12/2/199	Instruction
Internship: Interview	22-Dec-99	collaboration, learning, instruction, grounded theory, curriculum
Internship: Field Notes	22-Dec-99	context, curriculum
Internship: Mentor #1 Assessment	11-Jan-00	Instruction
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	18-Jan-00	Instruction, Learning, content
Internship: Mentor #2 Assessment	19-Jan-00	Instruction, context
Internship: Formative Assessment	21-Jan-00	ALL 8 with comments
Internship: Unit Lesson Overview	7-Feb-00	content (for both government and world history)
Internship: Focus Group	7-Mar-00	theory, instruction, curriculum, content, learning
Internship: Mentor #4 Assessment	12-Mar-00	Instruction
Internship: Mentor #2 Assessment	15-Mar-00	Learning, Instruction, content
Internship: Interview	18-Apr-00	curriculum, instruction, collaboration
Internship: Field Notes	18-Apr-00	context, instruction, grounded theory, content, curriculum
Internship: Supervisor Assessment	2-May-00	Context, Instruction, content,
Internship: Field Notes	11-May-00	content, instruction, context
Internship: PORTFOLIO	May-00	All 8
Internship: Final Interview	May-00	All 8

Appendix D2
John's Data

EVENT	DATE	THEME
Microteaching I: Interview	20-Oct-98	content, grounded theory
Microteaching I: Interview	20-Oct-98	content, instruction
Microteaching I: Reflective Essay	16-Oct-98	grounded theory, instruction, learning
Microteaching I: Lesson Plan	20-Oct-98	instruction, content
Microteaching I: Assessment Rubric	20-Oct-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Interview	17-Nov-98	N/A
Microteaching II: Interview	18-Nov-98	grounded theory, learning, context
Microteaching II: Lesson Plan	18-Nov-98	content, instruction
Microteaching II: Assessment Rubric	18-Nov-98	learning, instruction
Microteaching II: Reflective Essay	22-Nov-98	Instruction, Learning, Grounded theory
Field Experience I: Interview	13-Jan-99	context, grounded theory, learning, curriculum, instruction
Field Experience I: Telephone Conv	24-Jan-99	instruction, collaboration
Field Experience I: Field Notes	25-Jan-99	instruction, learning, content, collaboration
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	27-Jan-99	content
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	1-Feb-99	contnet, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	1-Feb-99	content
Ten Day Unit Draft I	6-Feb-99	content, collaboration, learning
Field Experience I: Field Notes	8-Feb-99	content, instruction, learning, curriculum
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	22-Feb-99	content, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	22-Feb-99	content
Field Experience I: Field Notes	1-Mar-99	context, content, learning, instruction, curriculum
Field Experience I: Record Log	3-Mar-99	content
Field Experience I: Interview	12-Mar-99	context, curriculum, grounded theory, learning
Field Experience II: Field Notes	15-Apr-99	learning, context, content, instruction
Field Experience II: Lesson Plan	15-Apr-99	content, learning, instruction
Classroom Mgmt Plan (Class Paper)	Spr Qtr 99	instruction
Field Experience II: Interview	24-May-99	prof growth, grounded theory, context, curriculum, collaboration
Internship: Class Rules to Parents	1-Sep-99	Instruction
Internship: Lesson Plan	7-Sep-99	instruction, content
Internship: Lesson Plan	10-Sep-99	instruction, content
Internship: Mentor #2 Assessment	14-Sep-99	learning, instruction, context
Internship: Lesson Plan	14-Sep-99	learning, instruction, content
Internship: Grading Policy and Syllabus	20-Sep-99	curriculum
Internship: Lesson Plan	20-Sep-99	content, learning, instruction
Internship: Field Notes	20-Sep-99	instruction, learning, curriculum
Internship: Lesson Plan	29-Sep-99	instruction, learning, content
Internship: Mentor Assessment	4-Oct-99	curriculum, content, instruction, learning
Internship: Mentor #2 Assessment	4-Oct-99	learning, instruction
Internship: Lesson Plan	5-Oct-99	instruction, learning
Internship: Focus Group	2-Nov-99	curriculum, content, instruction, learning, theory
Internship: Mentor #1 Assessment	? Nov 99	instruction, content, learning
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	? Nov 99	learning, context
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	16-Nov-99	instruction, content, curriculum, learning,
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	1-Dec-99	content, instruction, learning
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	15-Dec-99	instruction, learning, content
Internship: Interview	22-Dec-99	collaboration, instruction, theory, curriculum, content
Internship: Field Notes	22-Dec-99	learning, instruction, content, curriculum
Internship: Mentor #1 Assessment	11-Jan-00	instruction, context, content
Internship: Mentor Assessment	13-Jan-00	content, instruction, learning, context
Internship: Rough Draft Self-Assess	18-Jan-00	All 8 themes

Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	19-Jan-00	instruction, learning, context, content
Internship: Lesson Plan	7-Feb-00	instruction, learning
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	10-Feb-00	instruction, learning, content
Internship: Mentor #3 Assessment	17-Feb-00	learning, instruction, content
Internship: Focus Group	7-Mar-00	theory, instruction, curriculum, content, learning
Internship: Lesson Unit	early April	(modified and implemented 10 day unit)
Internship: Interview	18-Apr-00	instruction, learning, curriculum, content, collaboration
Internship: Field Notes	18-Apr-00	learning, content, instruction, context
Internship: Supervisor Assessment	3-May-00	instruction, context, content
Internship: PORTFOLIO	1-May-00	All 8 themes
Internship: Field Notes	11-May-00	instruction, context, learning
Internship: Interview	23-May-00	All 8 themes

Appendix D3
Kim's Data

EVENT	DATE	THEME
Microteaching I: Interview	19-Oct-98	learning, content, instruction
Microteaching I: Reflective Essay	15-Oct-98	instruction, grounded theory, learning
Microteaching I: Lesson Plan	15-Oct-98	content, instruction
Microteaching II: Interview	Nov-98	content, instruction, learning
Microteaching II: Lesson Plan	14-Nov-98	content, instruction
Microteaching II: Assessment Rubric	Nov-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Reflective Essay	23-Nov-98	learning, instruction
Field Experience I: Interview	27-Jan-99	instruction, context, learning, content
Field Experience I: Field Notes	28-Jan-99	instruction, learning, context, content, curriculum
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	28-Jan-99	content, grounded theory, instruction
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	4-Feb-99	content, instruction, learning
Ten Day Unit Draft I	6-Feb-99	instruction, content
Field Experience I: Field Notes	16-Feb-99	instruction, learning, context, content, curriculum
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	16-Feb-99	grounded theory, content, instruction, learning
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	18-Feb-99	content, instruction, learning
Field Experience I: Field Notes	4-Mar-99	context, learning, instruction, content, curriculum
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	10-Mar-99	curriculum, content, instruction, learning, collaboration
Field Experience I: Interview	3-Mar-99	instruct, context, learning, prof growth, ground theory, content
Field Experience II: Office Visit	5 Ap 99	Instruction, professional growth, collaboration
Field Experience II: Field Notes	29-Apr-99	Learning, instruction, curriculum, content
Field Experience II: Interview	26-May-99	learning, curriculum, instruction, content, context, grounded theory
Internship: Supervisor Assessment	15-Sep-99	Instruction, curriculum, learnng
Internship: Mentor Assessment	22-Sep-99	instruction, learning, content
Internship: Supervisor Assessment	24-Sep-99	learning, instruction curriculum, content
Internship: Mentor Assessment	26-Sep-99	instruction
Internship: Supervisor #2 Assessment	1-Oct-99	Instruction, Curriculum, Context
Internship: Interview	7-Oct-99	content, curriculum, learning, instruction, collaboration
Internship: Formative Self-Assessment	15-Oct-99	ALL 8 (from her perspective)
Internship: Formative Assessment	15-Oct-99	ALL 8 (from the team's perspective)
Internship: Mentoring Action Plan	1-Nov-99	Learning, Instruction, Prof Growth and Curriculum
Internship: Focus Group	2-Nov-99	curriculum, content, instruction, learning, theory
Internship: Supervisor #2 Assessment	19-Nov-99	instruction, context, learning, content
Internship: Lesson Plan	22-Dec-99	Content, curriculum, instruction, learning
Internship: Interview	23-Dec-99	collaboration, theory, content, curriculum
Internship: Field Notes	23-Dec-99	instruction, learning, content, curriculum,
Internship: Mentor Assessment	13-Jan-00	instruction, learning
Internship: SELF-Form Assessment	16-Jan-00	All 8
Internship: Formative Assessment	21-Jan-00	All 8
Internship: Supervisor Assessment	21-Jan-00	instruction, content, curriculum, context
Internship: Quarter Plan #3	1-Feb-00	curriculum (overview of 10 week quarter)
Internship: Supervisor #2 Assessment	24-Feb-00	content, learning, instruction, context
Internship: SELF-Form Assessment	30-Mar-00	All 8
Internship: Formative Assessment	30-Mar-00	All 8
Internship: Focus Group	7-Mar-00	theory, instruction, curriculum, content, learning
Internship: Field Notes	15-May-00	Content, context
Internship: Final Interview	17-May-00	All 8

Appendix D4
Frank's Data

Event	Date	Theme
Microteaching I: Interview	23-Oct-98	Instruction, Content, Prof Knowledge
Microteaching I: Lesson Plan and Assessment	18-Oct-98	Instruction
Microteaching I: Assessment Rubric	23-Oct-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Interview	Nov-98	Instruction, Content
Micro teaching II: Assessment Rubric	Nov-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Reflective Essay	24-Nov-98	Learning, Instruction, Grounded Theory, Context
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	7-Jan-99	content, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan I	7-Jan-99	Learning, Instruction, Grounded Theory, Context
Field Experience I: Interview I	26-Jan-99	collaboration, instruction, learning
Field Experience I: Field Notes I	26-Jan-99	instruction, learning
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	26-Jan-99	content, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan II	26-Jan-99	Learning, Instruction, Grounded Theory, Curriculum
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	9-Feb-99	content, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan III	9-Feb-99	Learning, Instruction, Grounded Theory, Curriculum
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	11-Feb-99	content, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan IV	11-Feb-99	Instruction, Learning, content
Field Experience I: Field Notes II	16-Feb-99	instruction, learning, collaboration, content
Ten Day Unit Draft I	1-Feb-99	instruction, content, curriculum (w/feedback from professor)
Field Experience I: Mentor Assessment	16-Feb-99	content, instruction
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan V	16-Feb-99	instruction, content, learning
Field Experience I: Field Notes III	23-Feb-99	instruction, context, learning, grounded theory
Field Experience I: HW Review Sht	23-Feb-99	Collaboration, instruction
Field Experience I: Log and Reflections	23-Feb-99	context, instruction, learning, content, collaboration
Field Experience I: Interview II	5-Mar-99	context, instruction, content, grounded theory, learning
Ten Day Unit Final Draft	12-Mar-99	Learning, Instruction, Content, Curriculum, Grounded Theory
Field Experience II: Field Notes	2-May-99	Instruction, Learning
Field Experience II: Interview	2-Jun-99	Learning, Instruction, context, grounded theory, collaboration
Internship: Supervisory Observation	10-Sep-99	Instruction, Learning
Internship: Interview I	20-Sep-99	curriculum, instruction, context, content, grounded knowledge
Internship: Interview II	6-Oct-99	collaboration, instruction, grounded theory
Informal Interview Re:dropping out	12-Jan-00	instruction, curriculum

SHELLY'S DATA

EVENT	DATE	THEME
Microteaching I: Interview	27-Oct-98	professional growth, instruction, content
Microteaching I: Reflective Essay	26-Oct-98	instruction, grounded theory, learning
Microteaching I: Assessment Rubric	27-Oct-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Interview	Nov-98	grounded theory, instruction, learning
Microteaching II: Assessment Rubric	Nov-98	Instruction; Content; Prof Knowledge
Microteaching II: Reflective Essay	12-Nov-98	Learning, Instruction, Grounded Theory, Context
Field Experience I: Interview	12-Jan-98	context, curriculum, instruction, learning, grounded knowledge
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	25-Jan-99	Content, Curriculum, Instruction
Field Experience I: Field Notes I	2-Feb-99	Instruction,curriculum, learning, collaboration, prof growth
Field Experience I: Field NotesII	24-Feb-99	collaboration, learning, instruction, content
Ten Day Unit Draft	6-Feb-99	content, instruction, curriculum (w/feedback from prof)
Field Experience I: Field Notes III	2-Mar-99	Curriculum, content, instruction, learning
Field Experience I: Mentor Assess	2-Mar-99	Content, Instruction, Prof Growth
Field Experience I: Lesson Plan	2-Mar-99	Content, Curriculum, Instruction (NOTE: plan not used)
Field Experience I: Log	3-Mar-99	(no reflections….)
Ten Day Unit Final Draft	5-Mar-99	Curriculum, content, instruction, learning
Field Experience I: Interview II	10-Mar-99	Professional growth, learning, instruction, icontent
Field Experience II: Mentor Assess	27-Apr-99	Content, Instruction, Prof Growth
Field Experience II: Field Notes	4-May-99	curriculum, instruction, context, content
Field Experience II: Interview II	24-May-99	context, prof growth, content, instruction, instruction, curriculum
Drop Out Notice: Interview w/Prof	29-Apr-99	

Coding Tree

I. INSTRUCTION

A. Uses instructional strategies, management techniques and assessment tools teach a variety of ideas which match the needs of students w/varying ability and behavior
B. Assess students' prior knowledge
C. Clearly articulates expected instructional and behavioral outcomes
D. Employs a variety of teaching models
E. Uses effective questioning
F. Uses a variety of sources to obtain, process and Produce information
    a. Resources Used
G. Classroom climate encourages on-task behaviors using routines and procedures
H. Reflects upon and alters instructional strategies, assessment tools and environment to promote content ideas and to meet students' needs
I. Planning (e.g., how do they plan)
    a. Time

II. LEARNING

A. Constructivist in Nature (student centered, active, productive, goal oriented)
B. Students are producers of knowledge
C. Uses higher level thinking skills
D. Helps learners fit new information into present knowledge/make connections

III. CONTENT

A. Demonstrates the ability to make content understandable to students
B. Content is consistent with curricular objectives and students' needs/abilities
C. Presents accurate information in both planned and impromptu situations
D. Makes interdisciplinary connections
E. Has sound rationales for teaching
F. Models beliefs/values/attitudes that influence students' appreciation/motivation for the content
G. Recognizes the need for further research

IV. GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

A. Personal Information
B. Information about the school
    a. Class, Grade, etc.
C. Attitude towards teaching
D. Requirements

1. Internal Socialization

i. Previous teachers
ii. Previous experiences as a teacher
iii. Image of self as teacher
iv. Image of what teaching is
v. Family/Friends

2. University/College Education Program
   i. Professors
   ii. Supervisors
   iii. Textbooks
   iv. Papers/Projects
   v. Classes
   vi. Lab Experiences
   vii. Goals of the Program

3. Field Experiences
   i. Mentor Teacher(s)
   ii. School Climate
   iii. Ecology of the classroom
   iv. Students/Pupil socialization
Teams/Other staff
   v. Collegial Influence
   vi. Amount of Autonomy

4. Institutional constraints
   i. Class size
   ii. Standardized Tests
   iii. Discipline codes
   iv. Resources available
   v. Length of bells/schedule

APPENDIX F
Codes for Data Sources

The numbers following each code denote the month and year

CA denotes a Class Assignment, other than a reflective essay

FA denotes Formal Assessment

FN denotes Field Notes, observations made by the researcher

IN denotes Interview

OB denotes a written Observation by a person other than the researcher

OV denotes an Office Visit, a informal exchange between participant and researcher

P denotes Portfolio, created by the participant

RE denotes Reflective Essay, usually as a class assignment

References

Adler, S. (1984). A Field Study of Selected Student Teacher Perspectives Toward
Social Studies. *Theory and Research in Social Education 12, (1),* 13-30.

Ajayi-Dopemu, Y. and. Talabi, J. K (1986). The Effects of Videotape Recording on
Microteaching Training Techniques for Educational Studies. *Journal of
Educational Television 12 (1),* 39-44).

Anderson, T.(1993). *Improving Preservice Education.* Paper presented at the
Annual Conference of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher
Education, San Diego.

Argyris, C. and Schon, D. (1974). *Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional
Effectiveness.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Bair, D. E. (1999) *Professional Roles and Responsibilities: An Interpretive Analysis
of Preservice Teachers' Beliefs.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the
American Educational Research Association, Montreal.

Bogdan, R. C. and Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative Research for Education:
An Introduction to Theory and Methods.* Allyn and Bacon: Boston.

Borko, H. and Putnam, R. T. (1996). Learning to Teach in Berliner and Calfee
(eds.) *Handbook of Psychology.* New York: MacMillan Publishers.

Brezinka, W. (1994). *Socialization and Education: Essays in Conceptual
Criticism.* (J. S. Brice, Trans.) Westport Connecticut: Greenwood Press.

Brown, D. and Hoover, J. H. (1990) The Degree to Which Student Teachers

Report Using Instructional Strategies Valued by University Faculty. *Action in Teacher Education* 12 (1), 20-24.

Bunting, C. (1988). Cooperating Teachers and the Changing Views of Teacher Candidates. *Journal of Teacher Education 39 (2),* 42-46.

Bruner, J. (1996). *The Culture of Education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bryant, C. and Brown, K. (1999). *Transcending Self-Orientation in a Teacher Education Program: When Do Preservice Teachers Perceive themselves as Other Oriented?* Paper presented at the College and University Faculty Assembly, National Council for Social Studies, Orlando, Florida.

Burrell. G. and Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological Paradigms and Organizational Analysis.* London: Heinemann.

Carnegie Forum (1986). *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21ˢᵗ Century.* A report of the task force on teaching as a profession. New York: Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy.

Carter, K. (1994) Preservice Teachers' Well-Remembered Events and the Acquisition of Event Structured Knowledge. *Journal of Curriculum Studies 26 (3)*, 235-252.

Chase, S., Merryfield, M. and Chism, E. (1996). *Bridging the Gap Between Campus and School Through Collaboration in a Professional Development School Network in Social Studies and Global Education.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York , New York.

Clark, C. M. (1988) Asking the Right Questions about Teacher Preparation:

Contributions of Research on Teaching Thinking. *Educational Researcher 17 (2)*, 5-12.

Clemson-Ingram, R. L. and Fessler, R. (1997). The Maryland Redesign of Teacher Education: A Commitment to System Reform *Action in Teacher Education 19 (1),* 1-15.

Clifton, R. A., Mandzuk, D. and Roberts, L. W. (1994). The Alienation of Undergraduate Education Students: a Case Study of a Canadian University *Journal of Education for Teaching 20 (2),* 179-192.

Collins, M. L. (1997). Imperatives for Teacher Education Faculty in Higher Education. *Action in Teacher Education 19 (1),* 47-54.

Cruickshank, D R. and Metcalf, K. K. (1990). Training Within Teacher Preparation in W. Robert Houston (*ed.*) *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education.* New York: MacMillan Publishers.

Deal, T. E. and Chatman, R. M. (1989). Learning the Ropes Alone: Socializing New Teachers. *Action in Teacher Education 11 (1),* 21-29.

Doyle, W. (1990). Themes in Teacher Education Research in W. R. Houston (*ed.*) *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education.* New York: MacMillan Publishers.

Eisner, E. W. (1992). Educational Reform and the Ecology of Schooling. *Teachers College Record 93 (4),* 610-627.

Eley, R. K. and Hess, C. A. (1992). *Effects of Videotaping on Preservice Teacher Performance* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 348338)

Feiman-Nemser, S. and Remillard, J. (1996). Perspectives on Learning to

Teach in F. B. Murray (*ed.*), *The Teacher Educator's Handbook: Building a Knowledge Base for the Preparation of Teachers*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publications.

Feiman-Nemser, S. and Buchman, M. (1985). Pitfalls in Teacher Preparation. *Teachers College Record 87 (1),* 53-65.

Foss, D. H. and Kleinsasser, R. C. (1996). Preservice Elementary Teachers' Views of Pedagogical and Mathematical Content Knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education 12 (4),* 429-442.

Fuller, F. (1969). Concerns of Teachers: A Developmental Conceptualization. American Educational Research Journal 6(2), 207-225.

Goldman, P. (1987). *Occupational Versus Organizational Socialization of High School Teachers: Theoretical and Policy Issues.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association, Chicago.

Graber, K. C. (1996). Influencing Student Beliefs: The Design of a 'High Impact' Teacher Education Program. *Teaching and Teacher Education 12 (5),* 451-466.

Greenes, C. and Mitchell, E. (1975). Teacher Preparation: A Process of Socialization." California Journal of Teacher Education 2 (4), 21-32.

Guest, L. (1993). *Improving Teacher Preparation: What the Reform Reports Recommend*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

Hirsch, E., Koppich, J. E. and Knapp, M. S. (1998). *What States Are Doing To Improve the Quality of Teaching: A Brief Review of Current Patterns and Trends*. University of Washington: Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy.

Hollingsworth, S. (1989) Prior Beliefs and Cognitive Change in Learning to

316

Teach. *American Educational Research Journal 26(2),* 160-189.

Hoy, W. K. and Rees, R. (1997). The Bureaucratic Socialization of Student

Teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education 28 (1),* 23-26.

Hull, R. and others (1981). *Research on Student Teaching: A Question of Transfer.* A

report of a research seminar conducted at the University of Oregon.

Joram, E. and Gabriele, A. J. (1998). Preservice Teachers' Beliefs:

Transforming Obstacles into Opportunities. *Teaching and Teacher Education 14*

(2), 175-191.

Kauchak, D. P. and Eggan, P. D. (1998). *Learning and Teaching: Research Based*

Methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Kettle, B. and Sellars, N.(1996). The Development of Student Teachers'

Practical Theory of Teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education 12 (1),* 1-24.

Koeppen, K. (1998). The Experiences of a Secondary Social Studies Student Teacher:

Seeking Security by Planning for Self. *Teaching and Teacher Education 14 (4),*

401-411.

Kroener-Ekstrand, M. (1999). *The Construction of Practical Knowledge: The Case of*

a Student Teacher in Social Studies. Paper presented at the annual meeting of

the College and University Faculty Assembly, National Council for Social

Studies, Orlando, Florida.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing.*

Sage Publications: Thousand Oaks.

Laktasic, S. (1976). *Achieving Transfer of Learning Through Simulation*. EDRS

150 144.

Lederman, N. G. and Gess-Newsome, J. (1991). Metamorphosis, Adaptation, or

    Evolution? Preservice Science Teachers' Concerns and Perceptions of Teaching

    and Planning. *Science Education 75 (4),* 443-456.

Lin, H-L., Taylor, J., Gorrell, J., Hazareesingh, N., Carlson, H. L.,

    and Asche, M.. (1999). *Early Childhood and Elementary Preservice*

    Teachers' Beliefs. A paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American

    Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

Lockwood, A. L. and Harris, D.E. (1985). *Reasoning with Democratic Values: Ethical*

Problems in United States History. New York: Teachers College Press.

Lortie,D. (1975) *The Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study*. Chicago: University of

    Chicago Press.

Martin, W. C. (!981). Transferring the Learning of Teaching Models. *Journal of*

    Social Studies Research 5 (1), 40-45.

McArthur, J. T. (1978) What Does Teaching Do to Teachers? *Educational*

    Administration Quarterly 14 (3), 89-103.

McDiarmid, G. W. (1990). Challenging Prospective Teachers' Beliefs During

    Early Field Experience: A Quixotic Undertaking? *Journal of Teacher Education*

    41(3), 12-20.

Mertz, N. T. and McNeely, S. R. (1991) *Cognitive Constructs of Preservice*

    Teachers: How Students Think about Teaching before Formal Preparation. Paper

    presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research

    Association, Chicago.

Metcalf, K. (1991) The Supervision of Student Teaching: A Review of Research.

Teacher Education 26 (4), 27-42.

Metcalf, K., Hammer, M.A. R, and Kahlich, P. A. (1996) Alternatives to

 Field Based Experiences: The Comparative Effects of Non-Campus

 Laboratories. *Teaching and Teacher Education 12 (3),* 45-54.

Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994). *An Expanded Sourcebook:*

 Qualitative Data Analysis. Sage Publications: Thousand Oaks

National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (1995). *Standards,*

 Procedures, and Policies for Accreditation of Professional Education Units.

 Washington, DC: NCATE.

Nettle, E. B. (1998). Stability and Change in the Beliefs of Student Teachers During

 Practice Teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education 14 (2*), 193-204.

Newell, S. T. (1996). Practical Inquiry: Collaboration and Reflection in Teacher

 Education Reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education 12 (6),* 567-576.

Newman, S. (1996). Reflection and Teacher Education. *Journal of Education for*

 Teaching 22 (3), 297-310.=

Palonsky, S. B. and Jacobson, M. G. (1989) Student Teacher Perceptions of

 Elementary School Social Studies: The Social Construction of Curriculum.

 Journal of Social Studies Research 13 (1), 28-33.

Pajares, F. (1993). Preservice Teachers' Beliefs: A Focus for Teacher Education.

 Action in Teacher Education 15(2). 45-54.

Pape, S. L. (1993) A Case Study of Secondary Student Teachers' Curriculum Decisions

 Action in Teacher Education 14 (4), 52-60.

Pataniczek, D. and Isaacson, N. S. (1981). The Relationship of

Socialization and the Concerns of Beginning Secondary Teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education 32 (3),* 14-17.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods.* Sage Publications: Newbury Park, CA.

Popkewitz, T. S. (1994). Professionalization in Teaching and Teacher Education: Some Notes on it s History, Ideology and Potential. *Teaching and Teacher Education 10 (1)*, 1-14.

Portman, P. (1993). Barriers to Change in Teacher Education. *Action in Teacher Education 15 (1)*, 14-21.

Price, M. A. (1999). *Beliefs of Secondary Preservice Teachers: A Case for Foundations?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the America Educational Research Association, Montreal, Quebec.

Putnam, J. and Johns, B. (1987). *Potential of Demonstration Teaching in Teacher Preparation and Staff Development Programs. Research and Evaluation in Teacher Education: Program Evaluation Series No. 14.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 280845).

Ross, E.. W. (1987). *Preservice Teachers' Perspectives Toward Secondary Social Studies Education.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC.

Schempp, P. G. and Graber, K. C. (1992). Teacher Socialization From a Dialectical Perspective: Pretraining Through Induction. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education 11*, 329-348.

Schoenfeld, A. H. (1999) Looking Toward the 21st Century: Challenges of

Educational Theory and Practice. *Educational Researcher 28 (7),* 4-14.

Spady, W. G. (1975) Teacher Socialization and Vulnerability. *California Journal of Teacher Education 2 (4),* 1-20.

Stone, B. (1987). Learning to Teach: Improving Teacher Education. *Childhood Education: Infancy Through Early Adolescence 63(5),* 370-375.

Su, Z. X. J. (1992) Sources of Influence in Preservice Teacher Socialization. <u>*Journal of Education for Teaching* 18 (3)</u>, 239-258.<u>=</u>

Tabachnick, B. R. and Zeichner, K. M. (1984). The Impact of the Student Teaching Experience on the Development of Teacher Perspectives. *Journal of Teacher* Education 35 (6), *28-36.*

Verma, G. K. and Mallick, K. (1999). *Researching Education: Perspectives and Techniques.* Philadelphia: Falmer Press.

Wang, N. and Taraban, R. (1997). <u>Do Learning Strategies Affect Adults' Transfer of Learning?</u> (University Microfilms No. ED413 419)

Weinstein, C. S. (1989).   Teacher Education Students' Preconceptions of Teaching. *Teacher Education. 40 (2),* 53-60.

Wildman, T. M., Niles, J. A, Magliaro, S. G. and McLaughlin, Ruth Anne (1989). Teaching and Learning to Teach: Two Roles of Beginning Teachers. *The Elementary School Journal 89 (4),* 471-490.

Wolcott, H. F. (1994) *Transforming Qualitative Data: Description, Analysis, and Interpretation.* Thousands Oaks: Sage Publications.

Wubbels, T. (1992). Taking Account of Student Teachers' Preconceptions. *Teaching and Teacher Education 8(2),* 137-149.

Wulf, Steve. (1997) A New Lesson Plan. *Time.*

Yon, M. and Passe, J. (1990). The Relationship Between Elementary Social
Studies Methods Course and Student Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. *Journal of
Social Science Education 14 (1)*, 13-24.

Yong, Y. (1994) *The Effects Of Videotape Recording During Microteaching:
Perception Of The Learner On The Usefulness Of Videotaping As An
Educational Tool.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University

Zeichner, K. M. and Gore, J. M. (1990) "Teacher Socialization" in
W. Robert Houston (*ed.*), *The Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. New
York: MacMillan Publishing Co., 329-348.

Zeichner, K. M. and Grant, C. A. (1981) Biography and social structure in the
socialization of student teachers: the re-examination of the pupil control
ideologies of student teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching 7 (3),* 298-314.

Zeichner, K. and Tabachhnik, B. R. (1981). Are the effects of University Teacher
Education Washed out by School Experiences? *Journal of Teacher Education
32,* 7-11.

Zeichner, K. and Tabachnik, B. R. (1985). The Development of Teacher Perspectives:
Social Strategies and Institutional Control in the Socialization of Beginning
Teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching 11 (1),* 1-25.

Zernike, K. A National Test for New Teachers Sought by Union. *New York Times*
14 April 2000, natl. ed.: A1.