The Role of Teacher Education Experiences in Addressing the Concerns of Apprentice Teachers

Mary McVey
THE ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION EXPERIENCES IN ADDRESSING THE CONCERNS OF APPRENTICE TEACHERS

by

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Abstract

This study investigated the role of a teacher education program in helping apprentice teachers to address their teaching concerns. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of program data were used to answer the following questions: What are the concerns of apprentice teachers? Do they differ between public and private school teachers? Do they differ between elementary and middle school teachers? How well did the teacher education program at Franciscan University help teachers to be prepared to address their concerns and does preparedness differ between public and private, and elementary and middle school teachers? What program experiences were perceived as most effective in helping teachers to address their concerns? What are the effects of situational change on teachers in regards to their concerns?

A mixed methods approach was undertaken, focusing on the data obtained from surveys and a focus group discussion. The use of survey data allowed the researcher to identify the types of concerns, self, task, or impact (Fuller, 1969) of the apprentice teachers. The completion of ANOVA determined that apprentice teachers had significantly higher impact related concerns than self or task concerns, but no differences were found among the self and task related concerns. ANOVA also determined that teachers felt more prepared to be able to handle their impact and self related concerns than their task concerns. Results indicated no differences between public and private, and elementary and middle school teachers on their type of concerns or their level of preparedness.

Qualitative analysis of open-ended survey questions and a focus group
discussion consisted of determining apprentice teachers’ perceived experiences from their teacher education program that prepared them to handle their concerns. Experiences listed most frequently included student teaching, field experiences, and methods courses. A small number of participants commented on volunteer requirements, the Fellowship program, tutoring reading, liberal arts coursework, and Praxis III preparation. Finally, comments regarding the situational aspects influencing teacher concerns involved issues related to school administration and organization, curriculum, security, technology, and personal concerns. The various situational concerns demonstrate the importance of involving future teachers in teacher education programs with a myriad of organizational experiences in multiple contexts.
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Mary K. McVey
Doctor of Education, December 2004
Duquesne University
Chair: Sarah Peterson
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Dedicated to

Future Teachers Graduated from Franciscan University of Steubenville

Teacher Education Program

May each of you have a continuing passion for becoming master teachers.
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The teaching profession is currently facing several important challenges. These challenges have an impact on a variety of stakeholders, including policy-makers, professional organizations, higher education, schools, communities, and students (Chance, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1994). Teaching professionals, particularly those who are responsible for teacher preparation, must continually find ways to respond to these challenges.

First, a continuing challenge is the necessity of preparing highly qualified teachers. The No Child Left Behind Act – PL 107-110, renewed by President George Bush in 2001, requires that every child have a “qualified teacher.” “Every child needs - and deserves- dedicated, outstanding teachers, who know their subject matter, are effectively trained, and know how to teach to high standards and to make learning come alive for students (President Clinton, 1998).” The standards and expectations that have been set forth in this legislation have strong implications for stakeholders involved in the education profession.

Several reports emphasize the importance of the teacher as one of the most important influences on student learning, in classrooms today. The report of the National Education Association’s (NEA) Task Force on Reading (2000) stated that it is not a particular method or program that teachers use, rather it is the teacher that makes a difference. A position statement from the International Reading Association
calls for further research on the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs in preparing teachers to teach reading, indicating that teacher preparation has a strong role in preparing beginning teachers for this task (Reading Today, 2003). The National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (Darling-Hammond, 1998) emphasizes the preparation of competent, caring and qualified teachers, and that quality teacher education is critical.

Second, school systems are facing a growing shortage of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Zeichner, 1996). This shortage means that teacher education programs need to respond by improving both teacher recruitment into the profession and retention of licensed teachers after they begin teaching. Retention of apprentice teachers will be necessary to meet the demand of teacher shortages in some subject areas and geographical locations, especially in the subject areas of special education, math, and sciences, and in rural poor and inner city schools. Teacher preparation programs must prepare future teachers for a myriad of diverse situations and environments. Knowledge, skills, and dispositions related to rural, urban, and suburban school populations are essential. Preparing teachers to address concerns in multicultural environments may reduce the reluctance of teachers to work in urban, poor, and language minority schools (Reading Today, 2003; Zeichner, 1996).

Third, the problems and demands experienced by beginning teachers are overwhelming, with as many as 30 percent leaving the profession within the first five years of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 1998). Some teachers working in inner city schools resign in their first three months of teaching (Wasserman & Emery, 1992). Weinstein (1988) suggested that teachers are undertrained in their teacher preparation
programs for the demands that they must face. The demands of beginning teachers involve a multitude of contexts and issues that need to be addressed in methods, field experiences, and student teaching courses (Richardson & Placier, 2001). Others believe that problems and demands of beginning teachers should be considered in teacher preparation programs, in light of preservice teachers’ prior beliefs about teaching and learning (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998).

Current reform in teacher education requires teachers to be prepared to meet performance requirements in their first year of teaching. Accountability in teacher education is at an all time high. External influences include state program approval which relies on programs adhering to standards from Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC, 1992), North Central Association for Teacher Education (NCATE, 2000) and National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS, 1991). Most recently, H.R. 2660 passed by the House of Representatives on July 11, 2003 - sent to the Senate, and on November 20, 2003 returned to the House of Representatives for amendments, called for the Institute of Education Sciences to look at teacher preparation in the United States. These issues, related to accountability and preparation of highly qualified teachers, must be acknowledged as teacher educators design their programs (Howey, 1996).

Teacher education programs have a critical role in helping to prepare quality teachers for 21st century schools. One way of doing so, is to better understand the concerns of preservice and beginning teachers and to adequately prepare them to handle their concerns in various contexts and situations, in their teacher preparation program (Barone, Berliner, Blanchard, Casanova, & McGowan, 1996). Therefore, this
research project seeks to examine teacher preparation program experiences useful in preparing teachers for the concerns they encounter when they begin teaching. An understanding of teacher concerns will benefit teacher educators as they learn to address concerns of teachers, in a variety of contexts, throughout the teacher education program.

Understanding the Concerns of Beginning Teachers

Several frameworks for understanding the concerns of beginning teachers have been conceptualized. One way is to examine the issues that teachers deal with in various career phases, beginning with the inherent concerns of novice teachers in their teacher preparation program, to the final phase where they leave the teaching profession, but continue to be involved in helping others with teaching concerns as emeritus teachers (Steffy, Wolfe, Pasch, & Enz, 2000). Research using this framework has shown that beginning or apprentice level teachers in their first, second, or third year of teaching (Steffy et al., 2000) have unique concerns.

Others view teacher concerns through a developmental perspective of life stages based on age, where teachers in mid-life have more opportunities to be professionally committed, and more successful in assisting students in reaching satisfactory performance. Research from this perspective has also shown that teachers at each life stage throughout their career have unique needs and concerns (Peterson, 1978; Ryan & Kokol, 1992).

Fuller’s (1969) theoretical framework provides a third way to understand teachers’ concerns by examining a developmental progression of concerns. Fuller (1969) proposed that teachers progress through three different types of concerns. The
first type of concerns is self concerns, centered on the concern for the teachers’ survival related to the teaching task. For example, teachers may be concerned about whether their students will like them, or whether they will obtain a good evaluation from their building administrator or principal. The second type of concerns is task related concerns, focusing on specific duties that teachers must carry out on a daily basis. Specifically, they are concerned about where to get appropriate instructional resources, or whether they have time to cover content in an effective manner. The third type of concerns is impact related concerns, related to the ability of teachers to make a difference and to be successful with their students and the teaching and learning process. They are concerned about meeting the social, emotional, and academic needs of all of their students.

Fuller and Bown (1975) have suggested that teacher concerns are developmental. They are progressive and all teachers go through them. They even suggest that earlier concerns must be resolved before advancing to later concerns. Once teachers’ self or survival concerns are addressed and the teacher gains professional experience, concerns tend to be more mature in nature, or as Fuller and Bown suggest, they become task, then impact related concerns.

Some research evidence suggests that preservice teachers’ concerns do not follow a “lock-step” progression, as originally proposed by Fuller (1969). While it is true that concerns move from self to task, then to impact, they may also move to impact, and later back to task or self, depending on various situations in one’s life or career (O’Connor & Taylor, 1992; Pigge & Marso, 1997). Therefore, while it may be important to examine the developmental progression of individual teachers’ concerns,
it may also be useful to examine teachers’ concerns as they change according to the specific situation or context in which they are teaching (Richardson & Placier, 2001).

Because Fuller and Bown’s (1975) theory emphasizes three distinct types or levels of concerns, as self, task, and impact related, teacher education programs can address these concerns in preservice teachers’ professional development. One way of understanding beginning teacher concerns is to engage in dialogue with program graduates regarding their concerns of teaching. The concerns they exhibit may shed light on the types of experiences or components that would have been helpful in their teacher preparation program. By looking at the types of concerns faced by beginning teachers, teacher educators can be more prepared in addressing these critical issues during the teacher preparation program.

The Role of the Teacher Education Program in Preparing Teachers to Handle Concerns

Certain teacher preparation program experiences better facilitate the concerns development of teacher candidates, but evidence is needed (Pigge & Marso, 1997). For instance, some would argue that more time spent in professional development schools, longer internships, increased field experiences linking theory and practice, increased content knowledge, and cohort arrangements provide the preservice teacher more opportunities to develop their professional identity or to deal with their variety of teaching concerns. An understanding of apprentice level teacher development experiences in the above mentioned contexts will be helpful to those working with these pre-professional teachers. Specifically, determining the experiences that are relevant to teacher professional growth will assist in planning more effective teacher
education courses. Perhaps some teacher education learning experiences are more effective in preparing preservice teachers to be able to handle particular teaching concerns during their first years of teaching.

The role of teacher education in the early years of a teacher’s career is important in the development of a strong professional identity (Barone et al., 1996). This study seeks to determine how apprentice teachers perceive the role of professional development experiences or opportunities in their teacher preparation program, as it has impacted their growth and prepared them to handle their concerns.

Teacher preparation programs play a variety of important roles in preparing beginning teachers to handle their concerns. It is important that teacher educators provide opportunities for preservice teachers to deal with a variety of concerns in multiple contexts. Therefore, an understanding of apprentice teacher concerns will be useful to professionals working in teacher education programs. Adequate preparation to handle a multitude of teacher concerns may be closely scrutinized in particular components of a teacher preparation program. Program experiences may include a myriad of opportunities, which should enhance the preservice teachers’ professional identity.

*Methods Courses/Content Pedagogical Knowledge*

Preservice teachers should be able to understand teaching in terms of various types of student learning and various contexts. Preservice teachers need to look at theories and strategies, the ramifications, and test them in a variety of contexts. The use of action research projects, cohort grouping, and extensive use of case studies will
help advance the preservice teachers’ developmental needs and concerns (Barone et al., 1996).

Some teachers in the field may report on concerns about the diverse population of students in their classrooms. Research suggests that a majority of teachers in classrooms today are white females and as a result, there is a growing need to recruit teachers from various cultural backgrounds, in addition to a need for male elementary teachers (Barone et al., 1996). Studies suggest that teacher preparation programs provide opportunities for preservice teachers to examine their cultural assumptions and values, not only in methods coursework but also in collaboration with a diverse population of peers, the community, and families (Barone et al., 1996).

Teacher concerns may also be related to the use of technology in the classroom. Adequate preparation in utilizing both telecommunications and micromedia applications is important. Methods courses should model the use of technology in the classroom (Barone et al., 1996).

Field Experiences, Partnerships, and Opportunities to Dialogue about Concerns

The role of the teacher education program in collaboration with P-12 schools is crucial. Teacher education programs must provide opportunities for dialogue between preservice and inservice teachers, and students, thus enhancing the personal and professional growth of all learners (Chance, 2000). Field experiences need to provide time for preservice teachers to integrate theory into practice, to reflect on lessons taught, to receive meaningful feedback, and to engage in dialogue with others regarding their beliefs and experiences (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999).
Preservice and apprentice teachers may benefit from having the opportunity to engage in teacher conversations about their needs and concerns. A study by Yonemura (1982) pointed out how experienced teachers’ conversations concerning reflective practices, needs, and concerns helped less experienced teachers mature in their professional growth.

Providing teachers with opportunities to engage in dialogue with others about their concerns has numerous benefits (Hollingsworth, 1992; Johnston, 1994). Preservice teachers may be involved in dialogue with those working in professional development schools or with other inservice teachers (Huling-Austin, 1989, 1990). Having opportunities to dialogue about these concerns may help teachers to feel more successful, thus resulting in positive socialization within the school environment or context. It follows then, that benefits of conversation may help the preservice or inservice teacher have a feeling of success, thus resulting in the ability to continue to engage in dialogue with apprentice teachers well into the first or second year of teaching.

*Student Teaching*

According to some researchers (Wideen et al., 1998) the current student teaching model needs to be reformed. Education programs have a pivotal role in designing effective student teaching programs. The success of a strong student teaching program depends on many factors. Student teachers need opportunities to work with cooperating teachers that have both similar and opposite ideologies (Barone et al., 1996). These experiences may facilitate the student teachers’ professional
identities in a positive direction, in addition to helping them make a smooth transition from the university to their first year of teaching (Gold, 1996).

Another important role of the student teaching program is to assure that the student teacher practices procedural knowledge and skills, in addition to theoretical knowledge and skills (Kagan, 1992). Simple routines and non-instructional duties are critical skills needed. It may be important to discuss psychological issues related to teaching as well. Teachers leaving their student teaching experiences with high self-esteem and confidence may be more effective in their first year (Gold, 1996).

Universities are encouraged to maintain a role in the first year teachers’ induction period (NCATE, 1992). Some universities have shown support with beginning teacher collaboration through the use of university mentors, hotlines, support groups, advisory committees, faculty visits, and the use of technology (Gold, 1996).

In summary, teacher education programs have an instrumental role in helping preservice teachers to be able to handle the concerns they will encounter as beginning teachers. A variety of beginning teacher concerns, encountered in multiple contexts, can be addressed in teacher education program experiences including methods courses, field experiences and internships, and student teaching. A continuing relationship with program graduates is needed in order to continue the dialogue regarding effective experiences in the teachers’ preparation program.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the role of a teacher education program in addressing the concerns of apprentice teachers. Specifically, the study will take
place at Franciscan University in Steubenville, OH, and therefore is specific to the components of its teacher education program.

In preparation for its state program review, Franciscan University has been in the midst of a “self” study in order to determine the strengths and weaknesses of its teacher education program. Data collected for this self study will provide the opportunity for this researcher to analyze aspects of the program that graduates believe helped prepare them to handle their concerns related to teaching.

The concerns of beginning teachers will be analyzed in order to address the following research questions:

1. What are the concerns of apprentice teachers who have graduated from Franciscan University of Steubenville?
   1a. Do these concerns differ between private and public school teachers?
   1b. Do these concerns differ between elementary and middle school teachers?

2. How well did the teacher education program at Franciscan University help teachers address their concerns?
   2a. Does the perceived level of preparedness differ between private and public school teachers?
   2b. Does the perceived level of preparedness differ between elementary and middle school teachers?

3. Which program experiences were perceived as most effective in helping teachers to address their concerns?
4. What are the effects of situational or organizational change on teachers in regards to their concerns?

Teacher education programs have a pivotal role in preparing beginning teachers to be able to handle the concerns of their first year of teaching. The concerns beginning teachers exhibit can be viewed in light of various life stages, types, and contexts. Teacher education programs can engage in dialogue with their program graduates in order to discuss the concerns experienced, in a variety of contexts, during their beginning years of teaching. This understanding can be incorporated into various teacher education program experiences, in order to better prepare preservice teachers to be able to handle their concerns regarding teaching.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the role of experiences of a teacher education program in addressing concerns of apprentice teachers. Doing so will reveal opportunities to improve or inform the courses taught in such a program. Understanding the concerns of beginning teachers is important for teacher educators so they can provide the types of experiences that are warranted in helping teachers’ professional growth. The time has come for teacher educators to provide preservice teachers experiences in multiple contexts such as teaching in high poverty schools, schools with limited resources, and schools with large minority populations. Learning about teaching concerns from our graduates may be one resource in helping us to understand these various contextual issues (Schuck & Segal, 2002).

Goals of the Literature Review

The literature review will examine areas of educational research that contribute to an understanding of apprentice teacher concerns, in addition to teacher education program experiences that might facilitate the development of teacher concerns.

The literature provides evidence that teacher education programs do need to improve (NCATE, 2000). Ultimately, it is the quality of the teacher in the classroom that makes a difference in student learning (Darling-Hammond, 1998). An overview of influences on programs will be established.
Several models of teacher development are discussed (Peterson, 1978; Ryan & Kokol, 1992; & Steffy et al., 2000) with emphasis placed on Fuller’s (1969) framework, which is used in this study. Fuller’s (1969) conceptual framework for understanding the individual developmental nature of teacher concerns is described, in addition to an overview of several other studies (Borich, 1996; Pigge & Marso, 1997) using the Teacher Concerns Checklist. A review of the literature related to not only individual, but also situational or contextual concerns is included (Richardson & Placier, 2001).

An overview of characteristics of effective teacher education program experiences will be addressed. Literature on teacher education will address how teacher educators teach or facilitate “how to teach” (Howey, 1996). The literature sheds light on the need for teacher education programs to teach not only pedagogical content knowledge, but to involve students in various contexts of teaching, and pre-professional development opportunities as well (Barone et al., 1996). Methods including case studies, action research, and reflective practices will be discussed in terms of how teacher education courses may include these best practices (Barone et al., 1996).

Discussion will include the importance of acknowledging diversity in the classroom. Beginning teachers are reluctant to teach in urban and poor rural schools (Zeichner, 1996). Some believe that it is difficult for teachers to identify with problems associated with poverty, racism, etc., when they experience quite the opposite (Haberman, 1991a, 1991b). Teachers need a myriad of opportunities to
interact with and acknowledge diverse populations, and not just isolated or "piecemeal" experiences (Gomez, 1996).

The role of technology and the importance of modeling the use of it with preservice teachers will be discussed. Because of the fact that many teachers feel inadequate in using technology (Handler, 1993), the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE, 1992) has developed standards for teacher educators. Researchers have shown positive results with applying technology and teacher learning (Nevin, Hood, & McNeil, 2002).

A review of literature is included on teachers’ opportunities to dialogue with others about their reflective practice, and how these may enhance their personal growth, and ultimately move the teacher to more mature concerns related to student growth (Hollingsworth, 1992, Yonemura, 1982). Included will be the argument for intense collaboration between teacher education programs and pre-K – 12 schools, or field experiences (Chance, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1994).

Finally, literature on effective student teaching experiences as the capstone to the teacher education experience is described. Included is the role that universities have in helping preservice teachers to feel prepared for their first year of teaching, in addition to the universities’ role in helping the teacher to make a smooth transition into the classroom (Gold, 1996). Programs need to include experiences that discuss the psychological as well as the instructional issues and needs of teachers (Gold, 1996). Some discussion involves the importance of student teachers’ need to engage in the "politics of teaching" (Barone et al., 1996). Finally, the notion that the student
teaching experience and the first year of teaching are one developmental phase, is discussed (Kagan, 1992).

The literature review is organized into the following sections:

- Accountability
- Models for Understanding Development of Teacher Concerns
- Fuller’s Framework of Concerns Model
- Organizational and Situational Impact on Teacher Development
- Characteristics of Effective Teacher Education Program Experiences

Accountability for Educating the “Highly Qualified” Teacher

Standards for Teacher Education Programs

Accountability for preparation of highly qualified teachers is at an all time high. Many teacher education programs are restructuring programs to include current best practices such as better integration of theory and practice in field experiences, collaborative school and university experiences, and cohort involvement in training future teachers.

One external force that may be an incentive for designing effective teacher education programs is set forth by the Institute of New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC, 1992). This organization has great influence on standards put forward by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1991, (NBPTS) which guides states in initial licensing of teachers. A summary of the core INTASC standards include:

(1) The teacher understands the discipline they teach and can create meaningful learning experiences for students;
(2) The teacher understands how children learn and develop intellectually, socially, and personally;

(3) The teacher makes adaptations to diverse learners and understands how students differ in their learning;

(4) The teacher makes use of a variety of strategies to encourage critical thinking and problem solving;

(5) The teacher understands individual and group motivation and creates positive learning environments, active learning engagement, and self-motivation;

(6) To foster interaction in the classroom the teacher uses effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication;

(7) The teacher can plan instruction based on knowledge of subject matter, students, and their community and curriculum objectives;

(8) The teacher is familiar with formal and informal assessment strategies and evaluates continuously the social, emotional, and intellectual development of students;

(9) The teacher is an effective practitioner of self-reflection and actively seeks opportunities to develop professionally;

(10) The teacher fosters and engages in relationships with colleagues, families, and the community in order to support students’ learning and well-being (Howey, 1996, p. 164).

The establishment of standards should inform both teacher educators and preservice teachers of the variety and type of experiences they will be expected to
learn in becoming a highly qualified teacher. Opportunities to engage in these learning experiences should be critical components of an effective teacher education program.

Assessment of Teacher Education Programs

In order to assure that future teachers are highly qualified, teacher preparation programs adhere to strict accountability. INTASC standards portray a shift in how teachers are prepared (Howey, 1996).

Howey suggests that universities, in preparing teachers, should shift their procedures for assessing programs from periodic evaluations of particular teacher behaviors to assessments that more fully measure the development of the preservice teacher over time, with a particular emphasis on the teachers’ ability to articulate reasons for their particular behaviors.

Howey (1996) recommends that teacher education programs have an understanding of what aspects of their program contribute to the preservice teachers’ knowledge, dispositions, and skills. However, he suggests that an assessment standard that includes a “follow-up” survey of graduates is an ineffective manner of evaluating or assessing its program, as graduates’ perceptions of their preparation program have been influenced by a variety of individual and contextual factors (Howey, 1996).

One research study examined teacher education graduates’ perceptions of their preparation program, in order to determine their feelings about the impact of their program on their teaching (Peterson & McKay, 2001). Ten teachers, nominated as “exemplary” from their school districts participated in the study. Specifically, the teachers were asked:
(1) What led you into teaching and describe those who have been mentors to you.

(2) Describe a course or professor who stands out in your mind, and what part of your teacher education training has influenced your teaching.

(3) What do you remember about your student teaching and field experiences?

(4) How can teacher education programs facilitate “good” teaching, what is a “good” teacher?

(5) How can universities better prepare teachers for their first year of teaching?


Results of the interviews provided comparisons consistent with five models of research on teacher education programs. The authors identified the five models as the a) personal and moral model, b) technical and teacher reflection model, and c) the socialization into the culture model (Peterson & McKay, 2001).

Characteristics of the personal and moral models include the teachers’ perceptions of reasons for teaching as being “innate,” or because of their “love of children.” They suggested that programs can’t teach these things, however they could be fostered and developed throughout the four year program. Preservice teachers can make emotional and moral commitments to children early in their programs. They can aspire to teach like a “model” of good teaching from their university program. They are described as one who “cares about her students and places them at the forefront of her teaching and the teacher who possesses practical knowledge based on teaching experience.” (Peterson & McCay, 2001, p.138).
The pedagogical content knowledge and field experiences were those experiences perceived as necessary in the technical and teacher reflection models of learning to teach. Teachers were unanimous in their belief that education courses address “real life” issues that may occur in the classroom. In this category were the importance of learning curriculum expectations, planning for instruction, and classroom management that contained a high degree of meeting the needs of children from various cultural, racial, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Teachers believed the field experiences were the most helpful aspect of their program, because it was “hands-on,” and it provided them the opportunity to reflect on their role as a teacher (Peterson & McCay, 2001).

Finally, the socialization model was depicted from the teachers’ discussions on their student teaching experiences, where they had an opportunity to develop their own teaching styles. The opportunity to try various strategies learned in methods courses was included in this experience. An important point raised in this discussion was the evaluative role of the cooperating teacher, suggesting that the evaluative component is shared among cooperating teachers, student teachers, and university supervisors. Student teachers may gain greater autonomy in developing their personal style, without feeling that they have to develop the style of the cooperating teacher, for fear of reprisal (Peterson & McCay, 2001).

In summary, implications for educating highly qualified teachers should require teacher education programs to assess not only preservice teacher behaviors, but also the experiences provided in the program that may allow teacher graduates to feel prepared for teaching. An examination of the teacher education model chosen by
universities to educate future teachers, in addition to an examination of the role of teacher development in the process of learning to teach is important to those educating future teachers, as implications for accountability and assessment remain strong.

Models of Teacher Development

A multitude of teacher development models exist. Teacher education programs may benefit from an understanding of teacher development models, as they provide a glimpse of a variety of developmental issues that may occur in the life or career of a teacher. Following are a few models described in order to establish this phenomenon.

Life Cycle Model

The authors of the Life Cycle Model (Steffy et al., 2000) believe that all beginning teachers can reach a standard of excellence within the first five years of teaching, with support of educational administrators, universities, mentors and various other stakeholders. Steffy et al. (2000) describe the Life Cycle Model as an “advocacy” model, a prescription for improving the profession. The authors claim that teachers develop and progress through distinct phases of their career. The six progressive phases include:

1. Novice teacher – the preservice teacher in practicum experiences and student teaching. Reflecting on newly acquired skills and self-confidence provides growth for teachers in the next phase.

2. Apprentice teacher – The first year teacher, continuing into the second or third year of teaching. In this phase teachers have much energy, are usually idealistic, motivated, and passionate about their craft. They may feel
overwhelmed and disillusioned about their job. Help must be provided in order for the teacher to avoid possible withdrawal from the profession, and growth toward the next phase.

(3) Professional teacher – During this phase teachers grow in their self-confidence, becoming advocates for their students. Teachers in this phase are considered reliable and competent, and generally begin to look beyond the classroom for interaction and reflection.

(4) Expert teacher – The authors describe teachers at this phase as being “with it.” Teachers are in tune with their students’ learning styles, needs, and interests. They have student, family, peer, and community respect. They contribute as leaders in professional organizations, and in the community.

(5) Distinguished teacher – Usually designated for truly “gifted” teachers who exceed all expectations. They are revered by others and are recipients of awards. Often, they become involved in education-related issues related to politics.

(6) Emeritus teacher – Some teachers leave the profession after a lifetime of achievement, but serve the profession in other roles including work with preservice teachers at the university level, mentoring, administration, etc.

Along the continuum, teachers engage in the reflection-and-renewal process, and grow professionally. If teachers’ reflections and concerns are left unnoticed, and if educators enter into withdrawal, as Steffy et al., (2000) contend, they can become detriments to the profession, and most importantly, to students.
The Life Cycle Model provides a framework for designing supportive professional growth opportunities and for helping to create a workplace that promotes positive professional development at all stages of the teaching career. The opportunity for teachers to develop as professionals requires a strong and positive social context and learning environment, thus resulting in strong implications for those involved in the education profession (Steffy et al., 2000).

**Age Phase Model**

Peterson (1978) divided teachers’ careers into phases defined by age ranges. The first phase is described as ages 20-40, a time of ups and downs that ends when the job feels secure, the second phase 40-55 is characterized as high professional commitment, growth, and morale, and the third phase 55-retirement is a time characterized by teacher withdraw and enthusiasm. Little consideration during the 1970’s was given to the nontraditional student entering the teaching profession. For example, forty-five year olds getting established in the teaching profession and just beginning their commitment to teaching would fall into the first phase. It seems possible that Peterson’s age or stage theory could work for teachers who begin their career in the twenties and continue throughout retirement, but a limitation could exist as the theory is applied to non-traditional students or those entering the profession under alternative certification.

**Career Phases Model**

Ryan and Kokol (1992) reviewed investigations and insights of the developmental perspective of the aging teacher. The older, experienced teachers “will be the wheelhorses in our schools, and as such, they deserve our attention and our
support” (Ryan & Kokol, 1992, p. 60). According to the researchers’ review of the literature, older teachers, those who have been teaching twenty years or more, have unique characteristics including systematic classroom behavior, learning centered viewpoints, professional commitment, and great wisdom. Success in the mid-career led the older teacher to be successful in assisting students in becoming happy and responsible adults, helping students to achieve civic responsibility, reaching satisfactory performance in their own teaching career, having leisure time, relating to significant others, and adjusting to the aging process of self and family (Ryan & Kokol, 1992). Perceptions of older teachers were found to be both positive and negative. On the positive side, older teachers believed that they had an increased ability to get along with students, in addition to making changes in their teaching methods. On the negative side, the level of satisfaction inherent with teaching decreased. Reasons provided included young people’s materialism, students’ lack of discipline, and students’ family problems.

The needs of teachers throughout their career may be examined in the Ryan and Kokol Model of Teacher Development (Ryan & Kokol, 1992). The model includes seven areas representing knowledge needed by teachers at different points in their teaching career. Specific to the model are seven components or stages. The stages include the first three years of undergraduate teacher education courses, which is the time for the future teacher to learn content areas through a strong liberal arts teacher preparation program. During the teaching practicum, the next stage, the teachers’ interest in learning content knowledge and strategies and skills drop slightly, with a sharp drop noticed during the first year of teaching. The researchers noticed a trend in
content learning upward as the years progressed, possibly as a desire or need for intellectual stimulation and career mobility. Also during the teacher’s practicum, but more so during the first five years, the researchers note the significance of the teacher gaining knowledge of best methods, strategies and skills needed to succeed. During this stage, teachers will attempt to make revisions in the materials, strategies, and methods until they have made them meaningful and manageable to their craft.

Classroom survival skills are the next category in the Ryan and Kokol (1992) model. According to the researchers, the most significant stage is establishing and maintaining discipline, keeping students on-task, and bringing about student learning, which occurs during the first year, and decreases as the skills are mastered. In the Ryan and Kokol model, the educational thought and research category remains low until the teacher begins to reach the professional and mastery years, when the teacher, happy with his or her own success, begins to take an interest in what is happening “in the field.” Non-classroom professional skills increase as teachers begin to master their craft, around the 2-4 year and beyond. During this time, teachers begin to contribute to their school community through coaching, membership in professional organizations, curriculum committees, and leadership positions. In the model, Idiosyncratic Teaching Skills is where teachers make “teaching their art” (Ryan & Kokol, 1992, p. 69). They have learned the tricks-of-the-trade through much trial and error. According to the researchers, this learning occurs during the professional and mastery years. Finally, in personal growth and learning, the researchers speak of this stage as being a time when the teacher’s own physical, intellectual, and spiritual development is focused on being energized and happy. Teachers may have reached
career peaks and face few new challenges, in addition to a possible decline in energy and health. As quoted from the authors, “the most professionally enhancing experience for teachers at this stage is often personal, something that rekindles their spirit” (Ryan & Kokol, 1992, p. 70).

The Ryan and Kokol Model of Teacher Development provides those who work in the teaching profession reasons to listen to the concerns of teachers at all phases of their teaching career. Acknowledging the various needs at different phases may be useful information for those educating future teachers. The concept of meeting teachers’ needs at all phases of the teaching career is best exemplified in the following quote:

As the young add fuel to the simmering fire, the old regulate and temper the raw material pouring into the vessel. Fresh knowledge is balanced with the wisdom of what to make of and how to use that knowledge; youth is balanced with maturity, and entry is intertwined with exit. With the flow of continual giving and receiving, the possibility of simultaneous teaching and learning comes within grasp. A self-sustaining community is at hand (Ryan & Kokol, 1992, p.72).

Fuller’s Framework of Stages of Concerns

Types of Concerns

The self, task, and impact phase of teacher developmental concerns was theorized by the late Frances Fuller (1969), a pioneer in the progression of developmental teaching concerns. Fuller’s works were motivated by her desire to improve the relevancy of teacher education courses (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown,
1975; Fuller, Parsons, & Watkins, 1973). Fuller’s (1969) initial study examined concerns of prospective preservice teachers in order to find out what these teachers were concerned about and how their concerns could be conceptualized. The research consisted of two studies. The first study involved group counseling for two hours per week with student teachers, to discuss any of their concerns. Frequencies of their concern statements were calculated according to the topic area of the concern. During the initial weeks of student teaching, concerns most expressed involved getting used to the situational context, and discipline issues. In the latter part of the semester, student teachers related concerns mostly toward student learning. In the second study, 29 student teachers were asked to make written statements about their concerns. Their responses were categorized as concerns related to their self, concerns related to various tasks of teaching, and concerns related to their perceived impact on student learning. The results indicated that student teachers overwhelmingly expressed a majority of self-adequacy and discipline concerns, and none expressed concerns related to pupil learning. Fuller concluded her initial study by suggesting that concerns could be conceptualized into three phases including:

1. preteaching: nonconcern – teaching is thought about in terms of prior beliefs
2. early teaching: self-concern – concerns about coping with school situations, classroom control, self-adequacies, and evaluations from administrators and peers
3. late concerns: concerns with students – the teacher is concerned about their impact on student learning
Fuller (1969) believed that evidence indicated concerns could change during teacher preparation. Based on her research, Fuller asked whether phases of concern were a function of the teacher, the situational context, or both. Were the concerns particular characteristics of people? Could one skip a concern phase, be in concern phases simultaneously or regress in phases?

Fuller’s (1969) phases were revised based on subsequent research by Fuller and Bown (1975), and were described as what concerns were about at the preteaching and beginning teaching phases. Beginning teaching phases were described as self, task, and impact phase concerns. Moving from the preteaching phase of no concern to the first year teaching position is a transition that brings about Fuller and Bown’s (1975) first phase of teacher development, the survival phase. Characteristics of this phase include concerns focusing on one’s own well-being, and are termed “self” concerns. Using Fuller’s framework, Borich (1996) suggested that these concerns diminish during the first month of teaching, but end when a new set of concerns begins. The new concerns, in the second phase are termed “task” concerns (Fuller & Bown, 1975). Teachers may feel confident about the routines of the classroom and begin to feel that they have mastered the content. The final phase in Fuller and Bown’s (1975) model is described by Borich (1996) as the “impact” phase. Teachers in this phase are concerned with the impact of their teaching on students, in addition to having a concern about students’ social, emotional, and academic needs and the best way to meet these needs. This developmental growth pattern may extend over months or years of a teaching career. Fuller (1969) believed that all teachers pass through
these phases, some more quickly than others. Additionally, Fuller believed that teacher preparation programs could facilitate preservice teachers’ professional development toward higher level concerns by identifying the present level of concern, and providing opportunities to resolve them, thus moving to higher level concerns.

Borich (1996) contended that a lack of knowledge or support during pre-teaching and student teaching experiences could result in a slower shift from self to task to impact concerns. The kind of knowledge and experiences teacher educators provide preservice teachers can help to make the transition from one phase of concerns to another more effective (Borich, 1996). A suggestion for facilitating preservice teachers present level of concerns may include the use of Borich’s (1996) Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC).

**Borich’s (1996) Teacher Concerns Checklist**

The Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC), also known as the Stages of Concern questionnaire, was originally developed in 1974 by Frances Fuller and Gary Borich. The revised Borich and Rogan (1988) version began the concerns checklist validation process. The 1988 (Borich & Rogan) version consisted of 50 items. This version was field tested with preservice and in-service teachers enrolled in graduate courses. A factor analysis was performed on all items (self, task, impact), resulting in the second version (Borich, 1992) which contained 45 items, 15 each of self, task, and impact related comments. This second version (1992) was then field-tested with a larger and more diverse sample resulting in four items which were replaced for the final version. The final version (Borich, 1992) was administered to 969 preservice, apprentice, and professional teachers and no subsequent changes were made to the instrument.
(1992) checklist was selected for this research study on teacher concerns because of the description of concerns at self, task, and impact phases of development.

Rogan, Borich and Taylor (1992) performed psychometric analysis of the (1992) Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC), demonstrating high reliability and validity. First, Cronbach’s alpha reliability for the means of all three type of items (self, task, impact) yielded high reliabilities: self 0.91, task 0.84, and impact 0.94. Additionally, the factor analysis for all items were satisfactory with 0.55 coefficients and above on all impact items, 0.49 or above for 14 of 15 self-concerns, and 0.37 coefficients or higher for 13 of 15 task items.

Results of the Rogan et al. (1992) study called into question the developmental sequence of teacher concerns. The researchers suggested that teachers do not experience concerns in a lock-step fashion as Fuller (1969) suggested, but most teachers experienced all concerns in varying degrees. They concluded that the validation study was not significant in determining the development of teachers’ concerns over a period of time, but determined that the questionnaire would be valid and reliable for use on the concerns model.

Borich (1996) included the final (1992) version of the Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC) in his book “Effective Teaching Methods,” to allow preservice teachers the opportunity to analyze and score their intensity of self, task, and impact related concerns. Additionally, he provided suggestions for addressing the concerns at each phase, which could ultimately help the teacher to grow professionally.

The current research project will utilize Borich’s (1996) Teacher Concerns Checklist to examine the self, task, and impact concerns of apprentice level teachers
and to engage in discussion with them about experiences in their teacher preparation program that most prepared them to handle their concerns about teaching. Other studies have used the Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC) in order to examine Fuller’s concerns development theory.

Research Studies Utilizing Fuller’s Framework of Concerns

Research studies examining Fuller’s framework of concerns have shown mixed support. Several studies have shown support for Fuller’s developmental sequence of concerns theory (Butler & Smith, 1989; O’Sullivan & Zielinski, 1988; Richards & Gipe, 1987). Others have not shown support for Fuller’s concerns development. (Pigge & Marso, 1997; Reeves & Kazelskis, 1985; Sitter & Lanier, 1982; Smith & Sanche, 1992).

Sitter and Lanier’s (1982) study showed support for Fuller’s theory, in that commonalities of concerns, i.e. concerns about self, survival, teaching tasks, pupil learning, materials, etc., were expressed by student teachers, as expressed by Fuller (1969), but they occurred simultaneously, rather than sequentially. In his longitudinal study, Adams (1982) found support for Fuller’s early concern about self and instructional tasks, but no significant difference was found in pupil impact concerns for teachers with varying years of experience, suggesting an error in Fuller’s theory. Significant differences were reported between elementary and secondary teachers.

Other researchers (Reeves & Kazelskis, 1985) found in their study of preservice and experienced teachers a difference in impact concerns for both types of teachers. No difference between the self and task concerns were found. Both preservice and experienced teachers showed greater impact than self or task concerns.
These studies suggested a possible inconsistency with Fuller’s concern theory, or as the former researchers have suggested; a problem in the measurement of the impact concerns using the teacher concern questionnaire (TCQ), a 15 item instrument developed by George (1978). Reeves and Kazelskis (1985) also suggest two other possible explanations. One is based on the theory of personal constructs, as written by Bannister and Fransella (1971) whereby the preservice and experienced teachers were responding to the questions on the teacher concern questionnaire based on their personal construct system where they were anticipating how they would respond to impact related items when confronted with these concerns. Secondly, they suggest that teachers may inherently have a difficult time recording that they have no concern for items listed under “impact” related concerns.

Weinstein (1988) argued that a possible explanation for this inconsistency with Fuller’s (1969) work has to do with the “optimism” characteristic of preservice teachers at the stage of no concern, as they have not yet experienced the “real world” of teaching, and can ultimately focus their preconceived thought on more impact related issues. Using a 33-item questionnaire, Weinstein sought to determine preservice teachers’ expectations about the first year of teaching. Her study supports her argument that preservice teachers entering their first year of teaching have “unrealistic optimism.” Weinstein argues that preservice teachers’ expectations of their first year of teaching are unrealistic; they believe that they will experience little difficulty in their beginning year of teaching. The transition from the college environment to the classroom is characterized by “reality shock,” which according to Weinstein (1988), is because teachers are not trained for the demands of the
classroom. It follows then that teacher preparation programs should provide numerous experiences in a multitude of contexts, in order for teachers to employ various options in regards to the concerns that they might experience as beginning teachers.

Another study examined the concerns of preservice teachers, particularly minorities who were enrolled in separate teacher education programs at two California State University campuses, in order to gain information important to recruitment and retention of candidates. O’Connor and Taylor (1992) believe it is important to understand preservice teachers’ needs and concerns and to address them adequately, in order to increase retention of candidates in teacher education programs.

In the study, the Teacher Concerns Checklist (Borich & Rogan, 1988) was administered to 171 students at the beginning and end of their student teaching experience. Results provided the researchers with an identification of 14 concerns ranked by the highest mean scores. The researchers performed extensive data analysis on the concerns appearing most frequently among the subjects. Interestingly, eight of the 14 highest ranked items or concerns were impact-related concerns. O’Connor and Taylor (1992) suggest that teacher educators address preservice teachers’ concerns in order to provide the necessary skills needed to handle the concerns. Having this knowledge may aid those working with preservice teachers by inclusion of experiences related to self, task, or impact related concerns.

One suggestion made by O’Connor and Taylor (1992) is that teacher education programs should survey students’ concerns as they move through their program. This notion is in agreement with Fuller’s (1969) personalized education program whereby teachers’ professional development could be enhanced by identifying present levels of
concern and providing opportunities to resolve them, thus moving to higher levels of concern. O’Connor and Taylor (1992) suggest additional strategies that teacher educators should use to acquaint themselves with the needs of their students, including use of discussion, journals, interviews, and informal conversations. The researchers believe that by addressing preservice teachers’ concerns, recruitment efforts will be enhanced, particularly with minority preservice teachers (O’Connor & Taylor, 1992).

Another study utilizing the TCC involved the Faculty in the College of Education at the University of Saskatchewan. The faculty studied their “Extended Practicum,” a component of their teacher education program. The practicum was predicated on Fuller and Bown’s (1975) teacher development model; where it would help preservice teachers successfully move from an initial concern for survival to the task concern of teaching, and finally a concern for student learning toward the end of their experience (Smith & Sanche, 1992). In their initial study (Smith & Sanche, 1992), using the Teacher Concerns Checklist (Fuller & Borich, 1988), results differed from Fuller and Bown’s (1975) model; whereby interns showed significant concern for students (impact phase) throughout the practicum.

Smith and Sanche (1993) added the use of open-ended questions in order to solicit personally expressed concerns, in addition to the use of the TCC to determine whether results would be different from the original study and to determine whether individually expressed concerns would correspond to the checklist. An important finding was that teachers expressed concerns that were labeled as “other” types of concerns, concerns regarding family relationships, financial situations, and employment issues. An important finding in Smith and Sanche’s (1993) study was the
number of individually expressed concerns not included on the TCC, suggesting that context has a significant role in teachers’ development. Faced with various concerns, teachers’ developmental progress is not fixed, but evolves and overlaps simultaneously, suggesting that practica experiences should address solicited preservice teacher concerns and not assume a fixed developmental progression. According to the researchers, out of category concerns can have an effect on preservice teachers’ growth if not addressed (Smith & Sanche, 1993). Other researchers (Adams, 1982; Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1987; Pigge & Marso, 1997; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984) have also demonstrated a lack of support for the concept of a developmental sequence of concerns; rather the interns dealt with both persisting and newly developed concerns simultaneously (Smith & Sanche, 1993).

Researchers suggested the need for extended longitudinal data regarding the Fuller model. Pigge and Marso’s (1997) longitudinal study examined the model in relationship to personalized education for teachers; that preservice teachers’ capabilities are related to teacher development. According to the researchers, an investigation of possible relationships between teacher concerns and teaching behaviors could possibly shed light on the development of teachers and student growth.

Pigge and Marso’s (1997) study of Fuller’s theory showed support for the association between personal and academic attributes of preservice teachers. They conclude that grade point average (GPA), gender, and type of personality are all attributes related to teacher concerns. In this study, Pigge and Marso (1997)
administered the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ) four times during the teacher’s career: first, at the beginning of the preservice teacher’s study in teacher education, second; at the end of student teaching, and then at the end of the third and fifth school years. A limitation to this study might be that teachers would feel they needed different responses each time they completed the same questionnaire.

Using a one-factor ANOVA, results revealed an increase in concerns consistent with the Fuller model, in that teaching task concerns increased after initial experience with the teaching process, and self-concerns decreased after the teacher began to feel success. However, results indicated that impact-related teachers’ concerns remained both stable and higher than both the self and task concerns.

Two-way ANOVA between the self and impact concerns revealed significant interactions with particular teacher characteristics, including GPA and the teacher’s Myers-Briggs sensing-intuitive classification. The researchers speculated higher achieving teachers and those who scored with “sensing” preferences on the Myers-Briggs reached impact concerns sooner and more frequently throughout their careers (Pigge & Marso, 1997).

Finally, Pigge and Marso’s (1997) study also argued for further research on teacher concern theory, including longitudinal studies beyond a teacher’s fifth year, and concerning the impact stage of concern. Support for Fuller’s premise that certain teacher preparation programs or experiences better facilitate the concerns development of teacher candidates is needed, in addition to possible relationships between teacher concerns development and the effect on student growth.
In summary, Fuller’s (1969) framework suggests that teacher education programs emphasize individual teachers’ concerns. Research also supports the idea that the school and situational context have an important role in the development of teachers as well.

Organizational and Situational Impact on Teacher Change and Development

Not only are teachers’ developmental concerns individual as research using Fuller’s framework has shown, but the concerns that teachers experience as they change can also be viewed in terms of individual and small group change, or concerns about change involving the aspects of the organization (context, relationships, etc.). Richardson and Placier (2001) contend that research on the developmental process of teachers involves more complex issues relating to context, self, prior beliefs, and one’s personality. They also believe that teachers are changed more by schools, than effecting change in schools themselves. The people that help to socialize or change the teacher are first the students because of their great diversity, next the colleagues (mentors, supervisors), and finally the parents.

The field experience component in teacher education is important because of the importance of teacher socialization. A study of teachers as they transitioned from early field experiences through their first year of teaching has been explored (Hall, Johnson, & Bowman, 1995).

Using the constant comparative method in analyzing qualitative data from observations, interviews and journals, Hall, Johnson and Bowman (1995) discovered that six themes or patterns emerged in the transition from student to teacher, for seven preservice teachers, six student teachers, four fifth-year graduate student teachers, and
eleven first year teachers. The themes included: teaching as a metaphor, the realities of teaching, relationships of teaching, reflections of teaching, transitions in teaching, and teaching practice. Growth in each theme was determined to be spiral, not stepwise in nature. For example, in the realities of teaching theme, pre-student teachers discovered the reality that a few students and teachers have poor attitudes. Student teachers also discovered this reality, in addition to a new reality concerning non-teaching duties. Fifth-year student teachers and first year beginning teachers understood the realities of student and teacher attitudes, non-teaching duties, but learned new realities in their socialization process. Hall et al. (1995) suggested that as teachers developed, they repeated each theme, and items related to the theme increased as the teacher gained in experience, became more involved in the socialization process, and became more aware of themselves as an emerging teacher. The authors of the study indicated that the teacher socialization process has implications for the field component of teacher education programs. They should connect experiences and guide student conferences and evaluations through the emerging themes (Hall et al., 1995).

Based on a review of the literature, Richardson and Placier (2001) stated that helping preservice teachers to develop new beliefs is very difficult and in some instances more successful once they have begun their teaching careers. The role of socialization experiences may be critical to the development of the teacher.

One study that provided a context for learning or developing beliefs about urban high schools was Dandridge’s (1993) study involving the views or concerns of high school teachers who wanted to restructure their schools to be culturally
responsive. In Dandridge’s (1993) study, the teachers believed that more attention should be directed to students’ social as well as academic lives. Teachers acknowledged a need for resources in order to meet the needs of their students. Preservice teachers in education programs need to understand that great disparity exists in resources among schools.

Teachers in Dandridge’s study suggested that they must be given time to participate in school reform, they must be given a voice, and they must be given opportunities for collaboration and communication among teachers. Implications regarding this study may be that preservice teachers need to engage in dialogue with one another regarding the concerns of urban high school teachers, as they are part of the socialization or culture of teaching (Dandridge, 1993).

Preservice teachers may learn much about the variety of teaching contexts by having opportunities to engage in dialogue with beginning and veteran teachers. Yonemura (1982) discussed the learning outcomes of conversations that took place between 23 pairs of experienced teachers. They were opportunities for teachers to dialogue about their reflective practices, to gain release from teaching tensions, and to understand the relatedness between theories, beliefs, and teaching practice. The author concluded that a rich collaboration between universities and school systems could provide the leadership to both explore and evaluate teacher conversational outcomes.

Hollingsworth’s (1992) study showed support for how conversation was the context in which seven teachers in their first year of teaching learned how to teach. The group of seven beginning elementary teachers met once a month for 3.5 years, and engaged in dialogue about issues in learning to teach, in addition to “intimate”
conversation, which helped form trusting and supportive relationships.
(Hollingsworth, 1992).

In Hollingsworth’s (1992) conversations, story excerpts illustrated the evolutionary nature of the issues and concerns raised. Initially, participants were not interested in discussing instructional issues related to the teaching of reading, but “survival” issues dealing with classroom relationships. Eventually, issues turned to diversity, school, community, power and professional voice, finally, to literacy instruction and its “impact” on students. Evidence was presented that participants had moved higher in their professional development to a thinking transformation that included participation in national conferences, professional presentations, and participation in teacher support groups. Evidence could be made as to the role of conversation and dialogue in helping teachers to move from “self” to “impact” concerns, as demonstrated in Hollingsworth’s (1992) study. A critical feature of Hollingsworth’s “collaborative conversation” process was the focus on learning based on common “practice-based” concerns relevant to their current needs (Hollingsworth, 1992).

Hollingsworth (1992) states that collaborative conversation as a means of learning is grounded in several theories, including meaningful knowledge construction via shared understandings (Vygotsky, 1978); feminist epistemology, which values one’s experiences (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986); and feminist therapeutic psychology, where emotion is deemed important in learning about self and others (Schaef, 1981).
Richardson and Placier (2001) sum up their review of literature on individual and organizational change with the notion that both personal and contextual interests regarding teacher development must be addressed. Considering the fact that teachers’ concerns are individual, situational, and contextual, let us next examine the role that teacher preparation components or experiences may have in helping prepare preservice teachers to handle individual, situational, and contextual concerns related to teaching.

Teacher Education Program Experiences

Understanding the concerns of the apprentice teacher is important for those working in teacher education programs. The question remains: how can teacher education programs be structured to help preservice teachers effectively handle the concerns they will face as apprentice teachers? In planning effective teacher education programs, Howey’s (1996) extensive review of literature sheds light on what researchers suggest should be the structure of teacher preparation. Howey (1996) states that in order for this structure to contribute to more coherent programs they should be guided by five general assumptions which include:

(1) Teacher education programs are guided by perspectives dealing with social justices, locally, nationally, and globally.

(2) The nature of socialization, in addition to pedagogy need to interact more effectively in teacher education programs.

(3) Programs need to interact more with P-12 schools.

(4) Programs need more interaction within the higher education community.

(5) Programs need to be extended into the early years of teaching.
In his review of literature, Howey discussed the Research about Teacher Education (RATE VI, 1992) study that examined the structure and components of 50 diverse teacher education institutions. Faculty members from each institution reported their progress on various attributes assigned to the study, which included the following:

1. a well-thought-out conceptual framework
2. themes and key activities interrelated throughout courses
3. student cohorts to promote socialization
4. diagnosis and screening of preservice teachers
5. incorporation of pedagogical laboratories and clinics in on-campus facilities
6. use of student portfolios for systematic evaluation and student development
7. integration of a core curriculum that is guided by best practice and research

In the RATE study, the development of student portfolios, laboratory facilities, and diagnostic screening activities were reported by faculty as the highest percentage of “no progress.” For “excellent progress,” faculty reported the development of a conceptual framework to guide the teacher education program and the development of a core curriculum. Faculty reported all other attributes as “marginal” progress.

Implications of the RATE study involve ongoing development of attributes among diverse teacher education programs.

Also important to the structure of a teacher education program is providing preservice teachers the opportunities to examine their beliefs regarding teaching and
learning. A review of literature by Wideen et al. (1998) suggests that the way in which preservice teachers experience their teacher education programs depends heavily on their prior beliefs. In addition, research has shown that beliefs vary among the population of beginning teachers (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Mertz & McNeely, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

Some researchers believe that prior beliefs may filter and interact with program experiences (Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Zulich, Bean, & Herrick, 1992). If beginning or preservice teachers define teaching or learning in specific terms, they may be unwilling or unable to examine alternative views (Wideen et al., 1998). Some suggestions for influencing the beliefs of preservice teachers have been offered and include a focus on reflection, inquiry, and the use of case studies. Research has shown that the use of action research is a positive means of influencing preservice teachers’ beliefs (Weinstein, 1988; Ullrich, 1992).

Kagan’s (1992) review of empirical research was based on her desire to formulate a model for teacher education programs that focused on the promotion of professional growth by understanding the developmental processes and stages of preservice and beginning teachers. Kagan’s (1992) review of empirical research shed light on various issues important for those working in teacher education programs to consider. Specifically, Kagan’s (1992) review showed support for the following themes that should be included in the structure of teacher education programs:

1. Examining the novice teacher’s image as a teacher, as positive professional growth, may occur if prior beliefs are evaluated and dysfunctional beliefs are critically critiqued and altered. According to the researcher, preservice teachers have an
idealized and oversimplified view of teaching. If these views are not confronted before entering the classroom, the apprentice teacher becomes frequently overwhelmed with class control and designing instruction, and sometimes reverts to controlling or authoritative management strategies.

(2) Research projects that involve the preservice teacher in an interaction with students and classroom life are crucial (Kagan, 1992). These projects can serve as a catalyst for the preservice teachers’ modification or reconstruction of their personal identities.

(3) Teacher preparation programs should include “cohort” involvement. The cohorts may have opportunities to dialogue about perceptions of teaching and the relevance of their experiences, in addition to observing one another in the classroom. Cohort field experiences may also be useful in helping preservice teachers address their beliefs about teaching (Weinstein, 1988). Rust (1994) investigated beliefs about teaching and whether these beliefs changed following teacher education preparation, specifically during the beginning years of teaching. She concluded that teachers’ beliefs about teaching during their first year are consistently idealistic, and are strongly affected by the workplace conditions, school climate, and administrative support. She reminds teacher educators that they must be prepared for the difficult task of training individuals who have experienced teaching and learning in contexts radically different than experienced as elementary or high school students. It follows then, that issues relevant to various contexts would include concepts in classroom management, organizational, administrative, and interpersonal issues that influence teachers’ lives in the school and classroom context (Rust, 1994).
Short-term cohort arrangements may be beneficial in the design of teacher education programs, particularly for socialization purposes (Howey, 1996). However, Howey contends that the research is limited on this phenomena. It is suggested that groups of six to eight preservice students work with specified goals in the following areas:

1. Promoting interpersonal development
2. Planning as a team for instruction
3. Engaging in cooperative learning activities
4. Rotating assignments as teachers and learners in microteaching or teaching clinic arrangements
5. Pursuing collaborative action research projects
6. Forming political action committees to address specific issues on campus or in the community
7. Helping one another develop portfolios
8. Providing feedback collectively to faculty about the multiple effects of programs (Howey, 1996, p. 164).

In summary, much has been written regarding the structural experiences of effective teacher education programs. Those involved in working with preservice teachers have many challenges as they debate the numerous structural elements. It is therefore important that teacher educators involve preservice teachers, apprentice teachers, schools, and the community in deciding the structural experiences needed.

Researchers (Barone et al., 1996) described their study involving conversations with preservice and in-service teachers, about their teaching journey and how their
teacher preparation programs enhanced or encouraged them to grow as educators. Based on these conversations the researchers suggested reform in teacher education preparation in five key areas, including:

1. developing an educational ideology for interpreting curricula
2. acquiring teaching methods
3. understanding the general pedagogical knowledge base
4. being responsive to a multicultural student body
5. understanding technology.

Furthermore, Barone et al. (1996) described the image of the teacher as “a strong professional,” and discussed this professional in terms of the articulative, operational, and political dimensions. In the articulative dimension of strong professionalism, the teacher should be able to “profess” beliefs or to have a well-established platform about educational ideas and practices rooted in theory and practice. The operational dimension of strong professionalism requires teachers the opportunity to be able to articulate their personal beliefs. On a political dimension, teachers must possess strategies or skills necessary for defending their perspectives to those utilizing top-down organizational management (Barone et al., 1996).

How then can we educate preservice or future teachers for strong professionalism? Barone et al. (1996) called for teacher education programs to incorporate curriculum leadership and teacher professional elements. Suggestions include:

1. Teaching educational ideologies including:
   a. holistic progressivism
b. reconstructivism

c. academic rationalism

d. scientific management

(2) Foster talents that will move students from the “knowing that” phase to the “knowing how” phase. One suggestion for accomplishing this is through the requirement of participating in action research, which enables preservice teachers to critically examine an issue of interest which may ultimately have an influence on their personal identity or behavior (Barone et al., 1996, p. 1114-1115).

Teacher educators are in the midst of educational reform and have much to consider in planning their coursework. They must engage in dialogue about what experiences should be included throughout the program.

Content Pedagogy and Methods

How do teachers learn how to teach? Content and methods courses have a significant role in this endeavor. The ability to integrate at least two conceptions on learning to teach is useful in thinking about the conceptual framework for quality teacher preparation. Programs might be designed from a teacher development perspective (Fuller, 1969) which would influence program design and coursework with a focus on individual teachers’ capacities, or they may be designed with a teacher socialization perspective incorporating workplace influences (Rosenholtz, 1989). According to Howey (1996), emphasis should be on integrating both perspectives. Thus, an integrated framework for learning to teach may contain multiple principles as advocated by Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1989), further elaborated into areas of
content, students, pedagogy, context, prior experiences and beliefs, and personal values. Constructivist perspectives, critical perspectives, teacher reasoning, human development, cognitive instruction, and multicultural education become critical in forming the highly qualified teacher (Howey, 1996).

Another perspective has been described by Wideen et al. (1998), as the positivist tradition. The researchers describe it as the traditional institutional model whereby beginning teachers learn to teach. This model is characterized as one in which the program or university provides the theories, skills, and knowledge through coursework; and the preservice teachers participate in practical experiences in the community schools. Innovative practices within this tradition have been termed progressive, characterized by attempting to understand what beginning or preservice teachers already know and how that knowledge is acquired (Widden et al., 1998). Several researchers (Barone et al., 1996; Goodlad, 1990; Grant, 1994) have suggested reform of the traditional teacher education model.

Barone et al. (1996) called for reform in teaching methods courses, which include those that have a purposeful, integrative, constructivist, engaging, holistic pedagogy. Program participants could work to create an effective program that would enhance teacher professionalism. The authors offer four guiding principles.

1. Purposeful instruction – “What is modeled is as important as what is transmitted” (Barone et al., 1996, p. 1122). Opportunities to plan, teach, assess, and inquire in a collaborative manner are essential. Both theoretical and proactive concerns are addressed and discussed.
(2) Integrative instruction – An alternative of offering one-credit modules of target topics is suggested. Coursework should be integrated with field experiences.

(3) Constructivist Instruction – Again, opportunities to teach, plan, assess, and inquire should be ongoing. The authors suggest courses be taught by an “instructional team” consisting of professors, graduate students, and teachers. Students should have opportunities to design assignments and “self-direct learning experiences” (Barone et al., 1996, p. 1123). Constructivist instruction should provide preservice teachers opportunities to examine theories and strategies, and apply and evaluate them in a multitude of contexts (Barone et al., 1996, p.1124).

4). Engaging Instruction – Preservice teachers would serve as “interns” with coursework “site-based,” the emphasis being close integration of coursework and experience. Training to make decisions in various contexts is crucial (Richardson & Placier, 2001).

One research study (Schuck & Segal, 2002) was conducted in order to determine beginning teachers’ perceptions regarding implementation of science and math learned from their content methods courses. Seven participants in their first year of teaching participated. Six taught in state or public schools, one in a private Catholic school. The schools were low socio-economic and middle-class, and all seven participants taught early childhood classes.

Initially, four workshops were held to discuss the project and the beliefs of teachers regarding the teaching of math and science. Because of the difficulty in keeping reflective journals, the researchers phoned the teachers weekly. Notes on issues and happenings were transcribed. Both challenges and successes regarding
lessons, models, approaches, and the rationale for selecting such were recorded (Schuck & Segal, 2002).

Interestingly the researchers (Schuck & Segal, 2002) suggested that the research project became “interactive,” where data collection actually became an avenue for beginning teachers to address their concerns, ask questions, or just seek emotional support. Because of the personal relationships formed with the beginning teachers, the researchers sought research assistants to interview them about how their preparation to teach science and math in their teacher preparation program could be improved (Schuck & Segal, 2002).

Using a grounded theory approach, several findings emerged. First, views about teaching math and science as learned in the methods courses were evident. However, the school context was a large barrier to implementing some teaching methods or philosophies. The researchers had realized that some concerns or issues of the beginning teachers related to various school contexts had not been addressed in their methods courses. Additionally, the researchers found that holding some views learned in the methods courses led some teachers to conflict because of the ways they wanted to teach and the culture of the school. This conflict between teaching philosophy and the realities of the situational context was often a source of great frustration for the beginning teacher. This understanding led the teacher educators to realize that they must also prepare teachers to understand that when things were out of their control they should not blame themselves (Schuck & Segal, 2002).
From the previous research, the researchers learned two critical things. First, more real-life context needed to be discussed in methods courses. Second, application of issues in field experiences was critical (Schuck & Segal, 2002).

Interesting to this research project was Schuck and Segal’s (2002) use of a “graduate survey” which included a teacher concerns checklist. The researchers hypothesized that this could be one method of informing them of teacher concerns from a variety of contexts.

Valuable data could be collected from teacher education graduates. Their concerns related to teaching could be expressed either verbally or in written form (Schuck & Segal, 2002). For example, concerns data could be collected on a first year teacher working with Hispanic students in a public urban school in California, or by a first year teacher working with students who live in poverty in rural Georgia. This data could provide teacher educators with significant “case study” information that should be discussed with preservice teachers.

Content coursework needs to include opportunities for preservice teachers to develop their knowledge base. What knowledge base do researchers believe will contribute to preservice teachers’ professional identity? Barone et al. (1996) assert that we must prepare teachers to “think mindfully about research” (p.1126). The authors believe theories and concepts informative to preservice teachers include:

1. nature and goals of the learning process
2. how knowledge is constructed, development of higher order thinking
3. motivational influences on learning, intrinsic motivation to learn
4. developmental constraints and opportunities, individual differences
social and cultural diversity, social acceptance, and self-esteem,

(6) individual constructions of reality

(Barone et al., 1996, p. 1127).

Teacher preparation programs need to give teachers opportunities to justify, make premises and warrants for their teaching (Rentel, 1992). One way of doing so is for preparation programs to give preservice teachers opportunities to analyze simulated teaching complexities in multiple contexts. Critical perspectives entail giving beginning teachers the opportunity to engage in reflection regarding opposing issues or points of view. The curriculum could be one avenue for enhancing this practice. Additionally, prospective teachers must learn to interact positively with various cultures, an interaction that may be useful in changes in one’s personal perspective (Howey, 1996).

Peer coaching, microteaching, and cooperative classroom methods in realistic and diverse school contexts are experiences needed from a constructivist perspective (Barone et al., 1996). Additionally, the use of case studies has been suggested as one strategy helpful in developing the preservice teachers’ visualization of experiences that they might encounter in a variety of situations, in their beginning year of teaching (Carter, 1993).

In summary, constructivist perspectives, critical perspectives, teacher reasoning, human development, cognitive instruction, technology, and multicultural education become critical components or experiences needed in teacher preparation programs (Howey, 1996). The constructivist perspective would integrate views of learning and application of knowledge, referred to as “pedagogical content knowing.”
According to Howey (1996) these theoretical viewpoints need to be grounded in meaningful classroom experiences. Students need opportunities to engage in conversation about the real world application of these ideologies.

*Diversity*

How well do teacher education programs prepare preservice teachers to handle or deal with diversity? Should diversity issues be integrated into content and methods courses?

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (1999), results of a survey of more than 4,000 teachers revealed that working with students of diverse backgrounds was an area in which teachers felt inadequate. Learning to teach in diverse contexts is a developmental process, which often involves the lifetime of a teacher’s career (Zeichner, 1996).

The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2000) defines diversity as “differences among groups of people and individuals based on ethnicity, race, socioeconomic status, gender, exceptionalities, language, religion, sexual orientation, and geographical area.” Forty percent of school-age youth will be students of color by the year 2020; and comprise a majority in half of the nation’s 50 largest school districts, located in New Mexico, Texas, and California (Zeichner, Melnick, & Gomez, 1996). NCATE has developed a standard on diversity which calls for all teacher education programs to provide experiences so that teachers will be “highly qualified” to help all students learn.

An issue regarding diversity in teacher education is the shortage of minorities teaching in the profession. Recruitment of diverse people into the teaching profession
is very important. Four in 10 public school children are members of a minority group, and one in five speaks English as a second language. Overwhelmingly, white women predominately teach these minorities. The National Educational Association (NEA, 2003), as well as numerous other organizations are concerned about this issue. Better recruitment efforts to hire non-white teachers are instrumental in keeping up with diverse populations. Two programs, Teach for America and Troops To Teachers, are currently addressing this reality (Toppo, 2003).

Other initiatives demonstrating success in recruiting minorities into the teaching profession include:

(1) The Pathways to Teaching Careers Program in collaboration with Norfolk State University
(2) Project Promise in collaboration with Colorado State University
(3) Teacher Cadet Corps in collaboration with South Carolina Center for Teacher Recruitment


Characteristics of successful recruitment initiatives include involvement with higher education and practicing teachers, recruitment in middle and high school years with organized activities, incentives for teaching in particular fields and geographical locations, and recruitment from other careers with coursework and classroom experiences, in addition to dialogue during the first and second years of teaching (Promising Practices, 2003).

Experiences in teacher education programs related to diversity are varied. One researcher, Zeichner (1980) believes that diversity issues become compartmentalized
in teacher preparation courses. He has written numerous papers regarding the importance of teacher education programs implementing culturally relevant teaching in all aspects of its program. Zeichner (1980) believes we must begin addressing preservice teachers’ knowledge, skills, and dispositions about multicultural education, so that teachers will be qualified and prepared to teach English as Second Language learners, urban, and poor students. He provides a list of key elements, which should be taught to preservice teachers in their teacher education programs, for effective teaching regarding diversity. They include the following:

1. Teachers have a clear sense of their own cultural identities.
2. Belief that all students can succeed is communicated to students.
3. Teachers are committed to achieving equity for all students, and believe that they make a difference in student learning.
4. Teachers cease seeing their students as “others.”
5. Students receive a high quality curriculum, inclusive of contributions from different ethno cultural groups.
6. Instruction is given by creating meaning about content in an interactive and collaborative environment.
7. Learning is seen as meaningful by students.
8. Scaffolding is provided that links curriculum to students’ background.
9. Teachers explicitly teach the school culture, maintaining students’ sense of pride and identity.
10. Parents and community are actively involved in school decisions, sources and staffing.
(11) Teachers are involved in making the community more just and humane. 

(Zeichner, 1996, p. 149).

Preservice teachers need to examine their perspectives on teaching diverse students. Noordhoff and Kleinfeld (1991) studied preservice teachers enrolled in two different education programs at the University of Alaska. The teachers were being prepared to work with native Alaskan rural high school students. As the teachers worked throughout their field experiences, seminars, and student teaching, the researchers studied the preservice teachers’ changing perspectives. In addition to traditional on-campus work, the teachers had to both live and practice in the rural communities. Using a case study method, Noordhoff and Kleinfeld (1991) analyzed videotaped teaching samples for changes in perspectives and found that teachers were involved in considering their students’ backgrounds when planning and presenting their lessons, and concluded that their students’ perspectives had increased positively from the beginning of the teaching experience (Noordhoff & Kleinfeld, 1991).

Haberman (1991a, 1991b) believes changes in beliefs or perspectives are a long process and sometimes difficult to effect. He argued that attempts to change beliefs of preservice teachers, many who are young people trying to understand their own identities, is one problem. He suggested that it may be difficult to influence young, female, white, and inexperienced preservice teachers to understand problems associated with poverty, racism, etc. Second, Haberman (1991a, 1991b) contended that no single course or field experience could be successful in changing one’s values. He believed that these are isolated attempts of teacher education programs to educate its teachers about “others.” Others, (Willison, 1989) have documented case studies of
unsuccessful demonstration in achieving positive cultural insights, and who were not successful in including culturally relevant teaching in their classrooms.

Positive results were found in one study (Scott, 1995) that involved preservice teachers in a multicultural experience in their reading methods course. A variety of multicultural contexts and teaching strategies were discussed and used by preservice teachers. Activities included an examination of multicultural readings and literature, the use of cooperative learning activities and reciprocal teaching, and a myriad of journal entries. Overall responses to the activities by predominantly white female preservice teachers were positive. Students enjoyed discussing bias in literature, the importance of researching cultural norms versus stereotyping, understanding language differences, and developing culturally responsive lesson plans.

Several resources exist that educators may use in exposing preservice teachers to issues relating to diversity. For example, one resource is an article concerning California high school Latino students (Lucas T., Henze, R., & Donato, R. 1990). Another is Ladson-Billings’s (1991) study of successful teaching with African American students. Other resources include case studies written to help preservice teachers examine their attitudes regarding “others,” and include those written by Banks, Kleinfeld, and Shulman & Mesa-Bains (Zeichner, 1996). Literature such as Richard Rodriguez’s (1982) Hunger of Memory, an autobiographical account of his schooling, and Taylor and Dorsey-Gaine’s (1988) Growing Up Literate, the stories of poor African-Americans, can also be helpful in asking preservice teachers to become more sensitive to diversity (Zeichner, 1996).
Preservice teachers can examine their beliefs regarding diversity in the form of socioeconomic status. Some evidence exists that preservice field experiences may be helpful in how teachers view poor parents (Zeichner & Melnick, 1996). This evidence was documented with several student teachers involved in a “Teach for Diversity” program at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Students articulated how their attitudes had changed because of the experience involving parents participating in a weekly parenting group and discussion with those who lived in government-subsidized housing.

A strategy using “funds of knowledge” to connect students’ homes and the classroom has been supported by research (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992). The strategy involved using qualitative research to understand households or families in the community. Based on systematic observations and field-notes, the classroom teacher collaborated with others in the development of instructional activities that built on real life experiences of Mexican and Yaqui families in their community. Other students involved in a program with Native Americans discussed how their learning from the community was useful in making lessons relevant to their students’ lives (Zeichner & Melnick, 1996).

Community field experiences can sometimes be problematic. At times, preservice teachers may not receive adequate feedback regarding the experience. Additionally, inadequate supervision and degree of preparation may be lacking. Critical reflections of the experience are often neglected (Zeichner & Melnick, 1996).

In order to develop cultural competence in preservice teachers, schools, and universities must be in full partnerships in preparation, support, and instruction.
(Zeichner, 1996). Another researcher, Gomez (1996) agrees, suggesting that reform concerning diversity in teacher education has not been adequate. She urged universities to act in partnership with one another in helping future teachers to learn about “others.” She concluded that no isolated activity such as case studies, community service, tutoring, seminars, etc. could succeed in changing preservice teachers’ beliefs and perceptions about diversity.

Technology

Universities must do a better job in preparing teachers to be able to incorporate technology into their instruction (Handler, 1993). Barone et al. (1996) suggest that the application of technology in teacher education courses is lagging. The International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE, 1992) lists suggestions for what teachers should be able to do in the 21st century classroom. NCATE standards also call for teacher preparation programs to commit to technology. The question remains how preparation programs can integrate and model the uses of technology in K-12 classrooms, and for what reasons (Promising Practices, 2003).

Teachers have concerns related to technology, as many feel unprepared to use it (Handler, 1993). One study was designed to evaluate education graduates’ perceptions of the value of their experiences with computers in their preparation, and their current use of computers in their classrooms (Handler, 1993). Two groups were formed, one who felt their program prepared them to use computers in their classroom, and another group who felt ill-prepared to use computers in the classroom. Only 18.8% reported feeling prepared to use computers in their instruction.
However, significant factors emerged that may prove important for those planning teacher preparation programs. These factors included the importance of an introductory computer course in education, particularly for those who lacked prior experience, the use of computers in methods courses, and both the observation of experienced teachers using computers and the practice of using computers for instructional delivery, in the student teaching experience (Handler, 1993).

A significant finding with implications for teacher educators, was that teachers who had frequently experienced their professors using technology in methods courses felt significantly more prepared to use technology for instruction than those who had not (Handler, 1993). Qualitative data from Handler’s (1993) study provided suggestions for how teacher preparation programs could improve in helping teachers to feel more prepared in using technology. They included: (a) more information regarding computer hardware and software, (b) opportunities to practice using technology for instruction, and (c) practice in using the computer for electronic grading, etc.

Other technological applications may be in utilizing technology to integrate knowledge learned in graduate courses. In the Nevin et al. (2002) study, cohort groups of graduate students who were beginning teachers were required to communicate through a listserv by responding to questions posed by the class facilitator. The practicing educators applied class learning to their respective work environment and responded accordingly. Implications of this study show support for engaging in continual dialogue with teacher education graduates in order to make their first year of teaching a more positive transition.
The use of the internet in instructional delivery, as well as online learning communities will be widely acceptable, and considered “best practice” (Nevin et al., 2002). It follows then, that teacher educators should find ways to connect with program graduates or beginning teachers, in order to address, offer support, and to learn from teacher concerns.

Collaboration and Opportunities to Dialogue in Field Experiences

Early field experiences can be an effective component of all teacher preparation programs. If designed effectively, they may provide the preservice teacher with the knowledge and skills necessary to help them to be successful or feel prepared for their first year of teaching.

The effective design of teacher education programs includes laboratory preparation where preservice teachers can learn to teach by exposure to a variety of phenomena and perspectives (Howey, 1996). Methods including clinical diagnoses, structured observation, videotaping teaching, simulations, case development and analyses, microteaching, and teaching clinics may be critical components of educational coursework (Howey, 1996).

The most effective format for designing early field experiences is being debated in the literature (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999). Simply adding more field experience courses or adding more time spent in the classroom is not enough. We must also examine the nature of the use of time and the qualities involved in early field experiences (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999).

In a study involving students’ perceptions of the quality of their field experience several promising characteristics were discovered (Kragler & Nierenberg,
One hundred sixty six preservice teachers were divided into three groups based on the type of field experience in which they participated. Results of survey data and open-ended questions indicated several statistically significant differences among the groups.

The traditional group was the program that consisted of a seminar and a teaching component. During the seminar, preservice teachers met 2 to 4 times per week for 7 weeks to discuss various topics related to teaching. In the teaching component, teachers spent 6 hours per week, for 7 weeks. The curriculum consisted of teaching small group lessons and one whole-group lesson in their last week. Additionally, they planned lesson units, a learning center, and a bulletin board. This group held the highest number of mean values, which meant that they either disagreed with the survey statements, or were unsure of their answers. Open-ended responses yielded several important findings. These preservice teachers believed that they needed more opportunities to develop lessons based on students’ various needs and lessons dealing with diversity (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999).

The EXEL field experience component involved cohort groups, which required preservice teachers to make a 4-year commitment to the program. Once teachers had chosen this program, they registered for a block of classes, which involved several of their methods courses and classroom management. The content of each of these courses was integrated with field experience in the public schools. Seminar hours were 2 hours each day for 3 weeks, before teaching. During the teaching component, they taught 2 hours each day. They spent 5 weeks in a primary and 5 weeks in an intermediate classroom and the remaining part of the semester was seminar. On open-
ended questions, these teachers felt they needed more opportunities to integrate technology into their instruction (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999).

Finally, the third group participated in the EDEL-O field experience component. This program consisted of completing the field experience requirement over a summer session in England. It involved 10 weeks of seminars, school visits, teaching and traveling. Preservice teachers were in classrooms 4 days each week for 4 weeks. Classes were small, urban, and had many minorities. Preservice teachers were involved in working with cooperating teachers who had child-centered philosophies and frequently used thematic teaching methods. Interestingly, this group responded in open-ended questions that they needed more opportunities to try strategies for diverse students (Kragler & Neirenberg, 1999).

Results of survey items indicated that EXEL and EDEL-O preservice teachers reported their field experiences were significantly more beneficial than the traditional group on the following items:

(1) learned how to develop lessons
(2) became more aware of students’ needs
(3) opportunity to develop lessons based on needs
(4) increased awareness of diversity
(5) broadened my world view
(6) helped prepare for student teaching
(7) better understanding of future job
(Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999, p. 51).

The EXEL group mean on “trying diverse teaching strategies” was higher
than the other two groups, attributed to the fact that they participated in diverse settings, and the EDEL-O group mean was higher than the other two groups on “the chance to integrate lessons,” attributed to the fact that lessons were commonly taught through an integrated approach abroad (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999).

Implications of Kragler and Nierenberg’s (1999) study suggested that field experiences should provide time for preservice teachers to implement content learned through seminars and methods courses. This time should include opportunities to try various strategies with a variety of students, to reflect on these lessons, and to receive meaningful feedback. Teacher educators need to be informed as to how theories are being implemented in the classroom. Additionally, preservice teachers need to be given time to engage in dialogue with others about their beliefs (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999).

The importance of collaboration between higher education and the teacher education community in restructuring efforts is critical (Howey, 1996). In the face of great school diversity, it seems obvious that teacher education programs should incorporate a variety of initiatives into program goals. A variety of P-12 school initiatives exist that hold implications for teacher preparation program design, including The Edison Project, Success for All, Comer’s School Development Program, The Higher Order Thinking Skills Program, Levin’s Accelerated Schools, Reading Recovery, Sizer’s Coalition of Essential Schools, Hirsh’s Core Knowledge, and the Foxfire Project. For example, a beginning teacher may teach in a school that incorporates Reading Recovery, or a school that adheres to Hirsh’s Core Knowledge.
A familiarity with these initiatives should provide preservice teachers with an understanding of the various contexts in which they may teach.

Field experiences can provide socialization to preservice teachers that will make them feel empowered (Kuzmic, 1994). Kuzmic’s study is based on the perspective of problems and concerns raised by a beginning teacher rather than a quantitative research design based on groups of beginning teachers. Kuzmic’s subject reflected on her qualities as a teacher and had an excellent image of herself. However, these images were not actualized as the subject encountered several constraints, including classroom management problems and time management. Kuzmic (1994) contended that the experiences that his subject felt threatened her image and confidence, which he referred to as “internalization of external constraints.” The subject could not see the problems she experienced as existing externally and “context dependent,” but rather she internalized them seeing them as faults within herself, thus resulting in conflict with her image as an excellent teacher. However, Kuzmic noted that with time Kara was able to reflect on her teaching, thus realizing that her situational context had an enormous role on her teaching.

One important consideration Kuzmic made is that his subject’s image of herself thus limited her ability to adapt to her situational context. Kuzmic’s study provided the rationale for teacher preparation programs to include discussions about various situational contexts in which beginning teachers may find themselves. Additionally, preservice teachers need to explore the various external sources that might impact the teaching experience (Kuzmic, 1994), or as Blasé (1985) refers to as “organizational literacy,” or the “politics of teaching.” Implications of Kuzmic’s study
may provide a rationale for including organizational awareness issues within the contexts of methods courses and field experience observations and discussions, so that teachers may not feel as ill equipped when faced with particular challenges (Kuzmic, 1994).

Awareness of organizational or school issues could be addressed in professional development schools (PDS). Teitel (1997) suggests that PDS have a role in field experiences and have the potential of transforming teacher leadership, but require changes in roles for teachers, administrators and higher education. These changes include:

(1) involvement in the preparation of pre-service teachers
(2) working on the continued professional development of experienced educators at school and the university
(3) developing high quality education for diverse students
(4) continuous inquiry into improving practice
(5) collaborative, inclusive approaches to decision making within these school-university partnerships

(Teitel, 1997, p.10-13).

A renowned researcher (Darling-Hammond, 1994) in the teacher education literature believes in the PDS concept and states:

If PDSs become the doorways that all new teachers pass through as they launch their careers, they can transform the culture of teaching and the expectations for collaboration along with the nature of teaching and learning individual classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 1994, p. 8-9).
Positive support with the collaborative component of professional development schools has been documented (Phelan, McEwan, & Pateman, 1996; Smith, 1996; Yerian & Grossman, 1997). Chance (2000) discussed the process of the University of Memphis PDS collaborative including the development, challenges, pitfalls, and benefits. Support was shown for the empowerment of preservice, novice, and veteran teachers. This collaborative effort was based on the guiding principles of The Holmes Group (1991), whose most recent goal was “to work collaboratively to enhance the quality of schooling and academic programs in accordance with the principles and goals of tomorrow’s teachers, tomorrow’s schools and tomorrow’s schools of education” (Chance, 2000, p. 11). Chance reminded us that collaborative PDSs must engage in simultaneous renewal, as demonstrated in the 7-year history of the University of Memphis PDS project. Additionally, she encouraged her readers to reflect on the professional development school concept as a paradigm shift reflected in the African proverb “it takes a village to raise a child,” but modified to “it takes a whole professional education community to successfully educate teacher education candidates and the children of this nation” (Chance, 2000, p.157). Similar results were found in Ruscoe, Whitford, Egginton, and Esselman’s (1989) interview of teachers within a PDS in Kentucky.

In contrast, negative results concerning PDS have also been reported (Stoddart, 1993). The researcher described an unsuccessful approach to professional development in one PDS site. Seminars were unsuccessful because teachers and learners were unable to construct their own understanding of the information presented. The information was not personally relevant, thus they were disengaged.
Finally, there is limited research documenting the impact of teaching and learning effects, and the impact of restructuring efforts that may be occurring in the PDS setting (Book, 1996). She contended that an operational definition of a PDS and its components was warranted.

Schools and even teacher preparation programs must determine creative ways for preservice and in-service teachers to have time to dialogue about their concerns, perhaps giving them an important opportunity for higher professional growth and development, namely; the “impact” phase of Fuller’s (1969) theory, or as Genareo (2000) suggests, the “theory and practice” level of teaching and learning. One manner of doing so may be to incorporate the use of technology into field experiences.

Genareo’s (2000) study involved novice teachers’ development of theory and practice in an on-line learning environment. The novice teacher, after engaging in dialogue and conversation over a ten-week period in such an environment, was found to develop in three distinct levels of thinking; namely “opinion-based” thinking, “practical and theoretical-based” knowledge in isolation, and “theory and practice” simultaneously.

According to Genareo’s (2000) study, dialogue at times revealed concerns not related to teaching, also consistent with Smith and Sanche’s (1993) “out-of-school” concerns. For instance, in Genareo’s case study, one participant’s concern was her approaching wedding. Due to this personal concern, Genareo found a regression in her thinking level.

Conversation and dialogue may help when the teacher suddenly feels disequilibrium. The disequilibrium in participants in Genareo’s study caused the
participants to seek further answers. Setting personal learning goals and having the opportunity to dialogue about them was supported by Genareo’s (2000) study. The teachers in the study developed more quickly in relating theory to their practice.

Findings related to the “time factor” were relevant in Genareo’s (2000) study. Teachers who spent more time in the on-line learning environment developed more quickly to the highest level. In fact, Genareo stated that one participant initially seemed to be in the “survival” phase of Fuller’s concern theory. Questions and responses from participants in Genareo’s (2000) study of the “on-line” learning environment, showed support for the benefits of dialogue about teacher concerns, as the beginning teachers noted that responses they received from others greatly affected them. One participant wrote, “I have had great discussions. The most significant is the opportunity to be able to throw an idea out to a wide variety of educators and know that in a day or two, someone would respond” (Genareo, 2000, pp. 132-133).

The final experience where preservice teachers can learn and discuss their concerns related to diversity, technology, and methods and strategies in a particular context, is during their student teaching internship. This is a time when the preservice teacher can engage in dialogue with professional teachers and other significant people about the craft of teaching and the culture of the school.

*Student Teaching*

Universities have a significant role in designing student teaching programs that will allow student teachers to feel highly prepared for their first year of teaching (Gold, 1996). Teacher education programs must help students develop skills required in the “politics of teaching” (Barone et al., 1996). These skills may be acquired
through providing student teachers opportunities to work with cooperating teachers who share similar ideologies, and through assigning student teachers to schools not totally compatible with their own beliefs. Ideologically challenging situations can help student teachers to develop stronger professional identities (Barone et al., 1996).

In Wideen et al.’s (1998) review of literature, they argued that the current model of the student teaching practicum should be questioned. The culture of the school and the university must be bridged according to the researchers. Kagan (1992) agrees, stating that the student teacher’s final year of a teacher education program and their first year fall into a single developmental phase (Kagan, 1992). During this phase, preservice teachers form an image of their self as a teacher. Programs need to provide teachers with opportunities to modify those images. Also during this phase, teachers need opportunities to learn classroom procedural knowledge, in a multitude of contexts, with multiple types of pupils, parents, other teachers, resources, and administrators (Kagan, 1992).

In a study by Johnston (1994) investigations of utilizing dialogue to enhance the concerns related to student teachers are portrayed. The differences in dialogue of two student teachers are examined as they are confronted with dilemmas during their student teaching experience. In the first case study, dialogue early in the experience consisted of concerns related to whether or not the children were learning. Later in the experience, the student teacher began questioning his ability to teach as well as his image of himself as a teacher. In contrast, Johnston (1994) found in the second case study, that the concerns expressed in the dialogue were different. They were more
positive, suggesting that the student teacher’s education program had helped her to connect more closely with her preconceived views about teaching.

Perhaps the teacher preparation period is a critical time to discuss not only instructional issues, but the psychological issues of teaching as well. Identifying needs and concerns of preservice and apprentice teachers is critical in reducing attrition rates, as teachers who are insecure and have low self-esteem or confidence in themselves, may not be effective at teaching (Gold, 1996). Stakeholders involved in the education profession must begin to impact beginning teachers’ professional development in areas of instructional and psychological concerns.

A smooth transition should occur between the university student teaching experience and the first year teaching position. One promising feature of California’s statewide induction program is a component of The Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Program (BTSA); the use of authentic measures of assessing, informing, and individualizing the support needed for the beginning teacher. The Individual Induction Plan (IIP) gathers information about the beginning teacher and proposes activities to meet these needs (Gold, 1996). This feature appears relevant to this research study because of the importance of identifying the teacher’s developmental concerns through dialogue and a needs assessment, and then providing suggestions for professional growth in collaboration with the beginning teacher.

Organizational support for the beginning teacher is imperative. Although research suggests that administrators have a crucial role in whether teachers remain in the profession (Chapman, 1984; Harris & Associates, 1992), research is not conclusive on administrator influence and teacher retention (Gold, 1996).
Some teachers are placed in the most difficult or largest classes, and the least desirable situations or assignments (Pataniczek & Isaacson, 1981). Other researchers (Wasserman & Emery, 1992) have generated assumptions inherent with new teacher support. First, they believe that beginning teacher support must be contextually based, must meet the teacher demands, be requested by the teacher, and separated from evaluation procedures. The work load needs careful attention as well, suggesting a reduced teaching load, matching of expertise with teaching assignments, smaller class sizes, and mentors not involved in evaluation or personnel decisions (Bullough, Knowles, & Crow, 1989).

What is the role of the teacher education program or the university in the continued professional development of the beginning teacher? Zeichner (1980) believes that teacher preparation can be a factor in first year attrition rates although Chapman and Green (1986) disagree. In Chapman’s (1984) study of beginning teachers who graduated from the University of Michigan, Chapman (1984) found that the first year of teaching experience was a stronger prediction of attrition than the students’ academic preparation, thus providing evidence for instructional and psychological support in the first year.

Universities have a role in induction programs, namely to assist beginning teachers with the transition from preservice to in-service teachers (Gold, 1996). Specifically, she refers to this concept as a mandate from (NCATE), accreditation guideline, Standard II.B (NCATE, 1992, p. 50). Some facets of university support programs for beginning teachers have included university training of mentors, mentoring by faculty, use of alumni as mentors, telephone hotlines, support groups,
advisory councils, computerized bulletin boards, and faculty visits to beginning teachers (Gold, 1996). NCATE accreditated universities are taking a more active role in the induction of beginning teachers (Ishler & Selke, 1994). Further research in the short and long-term results of university support is needed (Gold, 1996).

Help-Line, a university-based beginning teacher support program was developed to help teachers address “survival” demands and concerns, in hopes of propelling the teacher toward a focus on instruction (Wasserman & Emery, 1992). The authors warn that although some beginning teacher support programs are developed according to an understanding of new teachers’ needs, it is important to model programs whereby new teachers have the opportunity to request help in their perceived concerns. This opportunity produces a more efficient means of accommodating to teachers’ individual differences and needs (Wasserman & Emery, 1992). University support programs for beginning teachers could serve as an innovative approach and a more successful transition into the teaching profession (Wasserman & Emery, 1992).

Harvard Graduate School offered a university-based computer interactive (BTCN – A Beginning Teacher Computer Network) type of support for its first year teachers (Merseth, 1990). The findings involving 39 first year teachers who had graduated from Harvard in 3 different teacher education programs, showed support for the effectiveness of the computer network in providing moral support to the participants, and reducing feelings of isolation.
Summary

Learning to teach may be best summarized by Wideen et al. (1998), who conclude their review of learning to teach with a recommendation for teacher education programs to understand how teachers learn to teach through use of metaphor, reflective practice, action research, and concern theory. The authors propose a new theory of learning to teach, with a full appreciation of the numerous relationships that exist (Wideen et al., 1998).

This literature review has provided the rationale for the careful structuring of teacher education programs. Accountability in educating the “highly qualified” teacher requires teacher education programs to prepare beginning teachers to be able to handle a variety of individual and contextual concerns.

The literature review has established that teachers’ concerns can be related to the individual and to the situation or context of teaching. Many developmental models of teaching exist. The literature established that teachers’ concerns can be viewed in light of Fuller’s framework of teacher concerns theory. The Teacher Concerns checklist can be utilized as an instrument in soliciting teachers’ concerns.

Continuing conversation with teacher education program graduates during their beginning years of teaching can be useful to teacher educators as they prepare future teachers. The conversations can shed light on the perceptions of teachers as to specific experiences in their preparation program that enhanced their professional development, and helped them to be able to handle their concerns regarding teaching,
thus remaining in the profession. Additionally, the conversation may aid the teacher educator in an understanding of the multitude of teacher concerns, and variety of contexts related to these concerns. Teacher education experiences may incorporate this information, thus assuring accountability for beginning teachers to be qualified and competent in their teaching career.

Finally, the literature sheds light on experiences that need to be included in the structure of teacher education programs. Teacher concerns involve having knowledge and experiences in content pedagogy, diversity, and technology. The literature established mixed reviews on the best method of integrating field and student teaching experiences, but researchers agree that current teacher education standards call for collaboration among all stakeholders involved in the education profession, in developing teacher education programs.
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of experiences of the Teacher Education program at Franciscan University in addressing concerns of apprentice teachers. The research sought to determine the types of apprentice teacher concerns according to Fuller’s (1975) framework of teacher concerns. The research also sought to understand the program role in helping teachers to be able to handle their concerns through program experiences. Understanding the impact of these program experiences on concerns of apprentice teachers is relevant to this research project because it informed the researcher, who is a teacher educator, of various elements, characteristics, and contexts which could be incorporated into effective teacher development experiences offered in the program. Data for the current study was collected as part of a larger evaluation in which the researcher sought to improve the teacher education courses in which she teaches, specifically in order to help beginning teachers be prepared to handle their concerns of teaching.

The study used a mixed methods approach (Patton, 2002), with analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative method allowed the researcher to gather empirical data on teachers’ concerns using the Teacher Concerns Checklist survey completed by apprentice level teachers, who have completed the education program at Franciscan University, a liberal arts college in Ohio. The checklist allowed me to identify the types of concerns, self, task, or impact, of the apprentice teachers.
The qualitative method of a focus group discussion and open-ended survey comments allowed me to determine through directed conversation and written responses, the perceived experiences and contextual factors that contributed to the teachers’ professional growth. The focus group discussion allowed participants to provide responses that reflect their concerns and how well they felt prepared to be able to handle or resolve their teaching concerns.

In this study, I addressed the following research questions:

(1) What are the concerns of apprentice teachers who have graduated from Franciscan University of Steubenville (FUS)?
   a. Do these concerns differ between private and public school teachers?
   b. Do these concerns differ between elementary and middle school teachers?

(2) How well did the teacher education program at FUS help teachers address their concerns?
   a. Does the perceived level of preparedness differ between private and public school teachers?
   b. Does the perceived level of preparedness differ between elementary and middle school teachers?

(3) Which program experiences were perceived as most effective in helping teachers to address their concerns?

(4) What are the effects of situational or organizational change on teachers in regards to their concerns?
Description of the Teacher Education Program

Franciscan University is a private Catholic liberal arts college in southeastern Ohio. Students who attend the education program come from various geographic, ethnic, and religious backgrounds. Students attend the university from a myriad of states within the U.S., in addition to those who attend from the local community.

Upon acceptance into the teacher preparation program, education majors decide on either a pre-K through grade three licensure, or a middle school licensure in two content areas. Students may also select Intervention Specialist as a licensure area. The program typically takes four years to complete, in some cases longer.

In addition to coursework in one’s specialty area, a number of core courses in Arts, Humanities, and Theology are required. Students also participate in three Early Field Experiences, which consist of sixty hours each of fieldwork. Several methods courses have field hour requirements which include tutoring, diagnosis and assessment, and general classroom or community observation and participation. Upon graduation, a small majority of students seek employment in Catholic schools, the remaining in the public sector.

In the remainder of this chapter, I will describe the procedures that I used to conduct this study. These include participants, instruments, procedures, and data analysis.

Participants

The participants for this study involved graduates of the teacher education program at Franciscan University of Steubenville, thus resulting in a Bachelor of Arts Degree in Education. I obtained a list of all students who completed the education
program with a Bachelor’s degree from Franciscan University of Steubenville in the past four years. The total population surveyed was 104 graduate students. The population content was students who completed the education program at Franciscan University, and who were currently teaching full time. Certification was not a required component for the population studied due to the fact that some parochial schools do not require their teachers to be certified. Therefore, both certified and uncertified teachers were included in this study. There was no differentiation between traditional or non-traditional teachers.

Apprentice teachers selected for data analysis totaled 47 of the 104 graduates. Five teachers did not fit the operational definition of an apprentice teacher, one teacher was a substitute teacher and two teachers did not complete the survey. Apprentice teachers have been operationally defined as the first or second year teacher, characterized as having much energy, idealistic, and motivated. Additionally, they often feel overwhelmed and disillusioned about their job (Steffy et al. 2000). Therefore, final analysis of data consisted of a total of 40 apprentice teachers.

In this study it was decided to include everyone within a one to four year range in order to avoid limiting the survey size. For instance, some students may have graduated four years ago, but only started teaching within the past year or two. However, the target population consisted of the operationally defined apprentice level teacher.

Potential participants in the focus group consisted of 13 apprentice level teachers. A phone invitation to participate in the focus group discussion was extended to those teachers (apprentice- 0-2 yrs.) who had completed the teacher education
program at F.U.S. in the last two years, who were currently first or second year teachers, and who lived within the geographical area. Thirteen phone invitations were extended, and nine graduates participated.

In conclusion, the entire survey population sample were students who graduated between 1998-2002 (four years), and consisted of a total of 104 graduates. Forty-seven surveys were returned. However, only those who have taught 0-2 years (apprentice teachers) in a public or private elementary or middle school were included in the data analysis portion of this study.

Instrumentation

Teacher Concerns Checklist

Original Survey

The primary instrument used in this study was the Teachers Concerns Checklist (Borich, 1992). (See Appendix B). The checklist explores what teachers are concerned about at different levels of their teaching career. It consists of 45 statements, each of which represents a self, task, or impact concern. The response format is a 5-point Likert type scale. The responses include not concerned, a little concerned, moderately concerned, very concerned, and totally preoccupied. The participant decided which of the five responses best applied to their current concerns. The checklist was scored to determine the concerns important to the apprentice teacher.

Validity and Reliability

Rogan et al. (1992) performed psychometric analysis of the Teachers Concerns Checklist. The original (1989) version of the checklist consisted of 50 items and was field tested with preservice and inservice teachers enrolled in graduate courses. A
factor analysis on all self, task, and impact related items resulted in the second version (1989), with 31 of the original 50 items retained. Nineteen items were replaced or modified for the third version (1992), consisting of 45 items, 15 of each self, task, and impact concerns. This version was field tested in a similar way to the first, resulting in the final version (1992), with four of the original items replaced, and keeping all other of the 41 items. This (1992) version is the checklist used in this study.

Borich’s (1992) version was field-tested with a larger and more diverse population. Specifically, a total of 969 teachers; 478 preservice teachers, 300 student teachers, 98 first year teachers, and 93 teachers with two or more years were tested. All 45 items were factor analyzed with a total variance of the three factors, (impact, self, and task) accounting for 46.6 percent. The three factor responses were then analyzed. All 15 impact related items had coefficients of 0.55 or above, with two task items of 0.53 and 0.45 coefficients also loading on this factor. Factor Two loaded fourteen of the 15 self concern items with 0.49 or above coefficients, and task items loaded on Factor Three; 13 of 15 had 0.37 or higher coefficients. There was one item in the self response that did not load on any factor. Next, mean scores for all groups as a whole, as well as differences between means on items by teaching experience, were analyzed through a one-way analysis of variance. The checklist has a coefficient of internal consistency of 0.89, using Cronbach’s alpha, with reliability for the self factors 0.91, task factors 0.84, and impact factors 0.94. The data suggests that for the self concern items there was a decrease in the level of self concerns as teaching experience increased, as predicted by the Fuller model, in addition to the majority of self concerns expressed as concerns involving classroom management and disruptive
students, and getting good teaching evaluations. For task concern items, data did not demonstrate a significant difference between groups, except between experienced teachers and the three remaining groups. Experienced teachers reported more concern with class size, noninstructional duties, and little support for schools. This data was also consistent with the Fuller model. Experienced teachers has the largest impact scores; however the researchers remind us that the overall means for impact concerns were higher for all groups analyzed. An interesting note concerning the impact factor is that the early preservice teachers had the second highest impact scores, which is not consistent with Fuller’s model, but is consistent with data gathered with other studies based on the questionnaire (O’Connor & Taylor, 1992; Pigge & Marso, 1997).

The researchers (Rogan et al. 1992) suggest that data gathered for the Validation of the Stages of Concern Questionnaire can be used with confidence regarding research related to Fuller’s (1969) stages of concern model. They conclude that data yielded satisfactory factor analysis and reliabilities for all self, task, and impact items. Additionally, they suggest that data supports Fuller’s model that concerns of teachers change over time. The researchers suggest that we examine the idea that teachers do not develop in a lock-step fashion (self, task, and impact), but may change at different points in their career, and for various reasons.

Finally, in this current study, it is suggested that school context may be an important factor in the teacher’s concern development, a factor that may need to be examined in future concern questionnaires, in addition to a longitudinal study involving how teachers resolve their concerns over time.
Additional Survey Questions

In order to examine how program experiences helped graduates address their concerns, an additional group of questions were added to the checklist. For each concern, participants were asked to rate the degree to which the teacher preparation program prepared the participant to deal with or handle the teacher concern. For each of the forty-five items participants had to respond to choices which included: did not prepare me at all, prepared me a little, prepared me, prepared me well, or prepared me extremely well. Additionally, open-ended questions and demographics were added to the original instrument, in order to determine specific teacher education program experiences perceived as important in helping the teacher to handle or address concerns. The open-ended questions provided data regarding specific opportunities that graduates had to resolve their concerns related to teaching both from their teacher education program and from other significant stakeholders in the context of their jobs. Demographic data helped the researcher to identify and compare data of those teachers working in private and public schools, and in elementary and middle schools. Survey questions were reviewed by three people in the field of educational research, assessment, and teaching in order to establish content validity (Survey, Appendix B).

Focus Group Script

In order to proceed through the focus interview Patton (2000) suggested that the facilitator guide the discussion with a script. The following questions provided the context for the focus group discussion:

(1) Let’s take some time to discuss the concerns that we have as beginning teachers.
(2) Do you have opportunities to dialogue about your teaching concerns? Please describe them in light of inservices, mentoring, workshops, or continuing education, or distance learning opportunities.

(3) Describe your mentor or induction opportunities. Were they formal or informal, required or not, Praxis III?

(4) How have you resolved your concerns related to teaching?

(5) What experiences from your teacher education program most prepared you to deal with your teaching concerns?

(6) Have you or your school been involved in major changes in your first or second year of teaching? (Appendix C).

Procedures

I obtained a list of all students who completed the education program with a Bachelor’s degree from Franciscan University of Steubenville in the past four years. These students, those currently teaching and who also had taught up to a maximum of two years, full time in a public or private school, formed the population of apprentice level teachers. After obtaining the master subject database from the Franciscan University Alumni Office, I mailed the survey questionnaire including the cover letter (See Appendix A and B) describing the study. The education department of Franciscan University officially supported this study. I mailed the survey questionnaire in May of the 2003 school year, along with a self-addressed stamped envelope, in order for participants to return their surveys.

A focus group discussion was conducted using a semi-formal approach. Thirteen graduates who are full time teachers, and live within 2.5 hours driving distance from
the university were invited to the focus group discussion; nine participated. The researcher, who is an educator in the education department, conducted the interview on a Saturday morning, at Franciscan University. An interview script was designed (Appendix C) in order to facilitate progression of the discussion, which provided participants the opportunity to respond to questions that focused on self, task or impact related teacher concerns, in addition to questions that related to professional growth opportunities and particular experiences in their teacher preparation program and mentor and induction programs. In order to assure confidentiality participants were given privacy notices and assigned numbers. As discussion ensued, participants spoke into a tape recorder by first identifying their number and then responded to the question from the facilitator or a comment from another participant. The tape recordings were transcribed by someone outside of the education department who had no knowledge of participants’ identity. Participants also completed the Teacher Concern Checklist. The meeting gathered for approximately two and a half hours.

Data Analysis

To ensure credibility, dependability, and trustworthiness of data, several procedures were employed (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Analysis of data employed a mixed methods (Patton, 2002) procedure, which included both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Results of this research project can only be generalized to the context of the teacher education program at Franciscan University. Completed instruments were scored and then entered into a statistical data base (SPSS). I used a variety of descriptive and inferential data analysis techniques on the questionnaire responses and demographic information forms received. The first step in the
quantitative analysis was to run descriptive statistics for the entire population. Two 2-way ANOVAs were used to check for significant differences between means on self, task, and impact teacher concerns items, and between subjects including private and public school teachers, and elementary and middle school teachers.

An inductive approach recommended by Miles and Huberman (1984) and Patton (2002), was used to analyze the qualitative data received from the open-ended survey questions and the focus group transcript. The inductive approach provided me the opportunity to comment on frequencies, emerging themes and categories, and direct comments of the open-ended survey questions and focus group data. This inductive reasoning was interpreted by the researcher. Notes regarding survey and focus group question content, along with direct quotes were recorded onto note cards arranged by topic or theme. Preliminary themes or patterns were developed after a comparison of the responses. Once themes appeared constant throughout all data forms, they were recorded onto another set of note cards with supporting information. Data not congruent with evolving themes were reconsidered for a revision of themes. Consultation with colleagues regarding inductive reasoning or errors of interpretation were employed by providing colleagues the opportunity to comment on initial results of the report.

Analysis began with the researcher coding a total of thirty-one responses on the open-ended survey question that asked participants to comment on experiences from their teacher education program that most prepared them to deal with their concerns, and why. The researcher read each response and highlighted specific key experiences
or themes which participants thought most prepared them to be able to handle their concerns. For example, teacher #11 wrote the following:

The information and training from all of my methods type courses has been invaluable as I design units, centers, bulletin boards, etc. Student teaching provided a wonderful experience of the “real-life” day-to-day aspects of teaching, as well as working with all of the school and administrative extras!

In the example, the researcher highlighted methods and student teaching as two experiences helpful to this teacher. Additional comments were recorded as supporting information regarding specific aspects of these experiences. For instance, supporting information that teacher #11 gave for the belief that methods courses helped her was in designing units, bulletin boards, etc., and supporting information for the student teaching experience was because it helped her with the “real-life” aspects or context of teaching.

Next, the researcher coded the transcript of the discussion of nine focus group participants. Likewise, they were asked what experiences from their teacher education program most prepared them to be able to handle their teaching concerns. Again, the researcher coded the responses on the transcript according to key words spoken by the apprentice teachers. The following is an example of the teacher response from #6:

My teacher education program I felt was very successful in preparing me for my first year of teaching. I was familiar with many of the knowledge and theories that goes behind education and I also had many experiences to be involved with the classroom. We were required to have volunteer work along with our early
experiences and our student teaching. I felt that they were always connecting me with the local school district. During my first year of teaching I had to go through the Praxis III assessment and I was very well prepared for this. My staff at my school along with my principal were very surprised that I was so knowledgeable on this topic. Other educators were very impressed with the quality of education that I had received.

In the above example, the researcher highlighted the key teacher education experiences as methods courses (knowledge of theories), early field experiences, volunteer work, student teaching, and Praxis III preparation. The comment regarding “connection with the school district” was recorded as an element of the field experience.

Finally, after all thirty-one open-ended survey questions and the focus group transcript was coded, and specific quotations were recorded, the researcher tallied the frequency and percentage of responses perceived as important in helping teachers to be prepared to handle concerns related to teaching.

In order to determine reliability of inductive analysis, the researcher met with a colleague in the field of education to review all survey and focus group analyses. The researcher discussed with the colleague the teacher education experience themes that had arisen from the data. Additionally, the researcher shared examples of how to code the themes on both survey and focus group data. Next, the researcher’s colleague independently coded survey and focus group data. Finally, the researcher and colleague shared results. A total of 87 comments were coded into the various themes.
Originally, the researcher and colleague agreed on 98% of the comment themes. In the two comments of disagreement, discussion ensued and consensus was made.

To summarize, the following questions provided data which helped me analyze whether patterns emerged using mixed methods procedures.

Specifically:

(1) What are the concerns of apprentice teachers? Data analyzed came from the Teacher Concerns Checklist survey. Descriptive analysis was employed describing the types (self, task, and impact) of concerns of participants.

a. Do the concerns differ between private and public school teachers? This question was answered by using descriptive statistics and two-way mixed ANOVA with type of school (private and public) as the between-subjects factor, and the type of concern (self, task, and impact) as the within-subject factor. The dependent variable was the level of concern.

b. Do the concerns differ between elementary and middle school teachers? This question was answered by using descriptive statistics and two-way mixed ANOVA. The first factor was between subjects (elementary and middle school), and the second factor was the within-subjects type of concern (self, task, and impact). The dependent variable was the level of concern.

(2) How well did the teacher education program help teachers feel prepared to address their concerns? This question was answered by using descriptive statistics for overall using survey data.
a. Does the perceived level of preparedness differ between private and public school teachers? This question was answered by using descriptive statistics and two-way mixed ANOVA with type of school (public vs. private) as between-subjects factor and the type of concern (self, task, and impact) as the within-subjects factor. The dependent variable was level of preparedness.

b. Does the perceived level of preparedness differ between elementary and middle school teachers? This question was answered by using descriptive statistics and two-way ANOVA with type of teacher (elementary vs. middle) as between-subject factors and type of concern (self, task, and impact) as the within-subjects factor. The dependent variable was level of preparedness.

(3) Which program components were most effective in helping teachers to be prepared to handle concerns? This question was answered by using an inductive approach to analyze themes or patterns. Data was reported using frequency counts, emerging themes, and comments substantiated from open-ended survey questions and focus group discussion.

(4) Describe effects of situational or organizational change on teachers in regards to their level of concern. This question was answered by using an inductive approach to analyze themes or patterns. Data was reported using frequency counts, emerging themes, and comments substantiated from open-ended survey questions and focus group discussion.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

In order to determine the role of teacher education program experiences in addressing the concerns of apprentice teachers a mixed methods approach was utilized (Patton, 2002) with analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative method allowed me to analyze survey data obtained from university teacher education graduates. Qualitative data was analyzed from open-ended survey questions and a focus group discussion. The data analyzed was part of a larger “self-study” in which Franciscan University’s teacher education program was participating for their upcoming state program review.

In this chapter, results will be presented to address each of the research questions. First, concerns of apprentice teachers are classified according to self, task, and impact related concerns. Results will also demonstrate whether significant differences exist between types of concerns and level of preparedness to handle concerns between private and public, and elementary and middle school teachers. Finally, results will demonstrate experiences that were perceived as helpful in preparing apprentice teachers to handle their concerns, in addition to change or situational contexts that impact apprentice teacher’s concerns.

Demographics of Apprentice Teachers

A total of forty teachers participated in the survey and focus group discussion (thirty-one survey respondents and nine focus group participants). There were thirty-nine (97.5%) females and one (2.5%) male. The mean age for participants was 26.4 years. Thirty-two (80%) taught elementary school and eight (20%) taught middle
school. Thirteen (32.5%) of the teachers taught in the public school system whereas twenty-seven (67.5%) taught in private Catholic schools. Thirty-seven (92.5%) were certified and three (7.5%) were not certified.

Concerns of Public and Private, Elementary and Middle Apprentice Teachers Graduated from Franciscan University's Teacher Education Program

In order to examine apprentice teachers’ concerns, the Teacher Concerns Checklist was analyzed. The checklist included a total of forty five items, 15 of each measuring self, task, and impact related concerns. Scores for each type of concern were derived by calculating mean scores on each of the subscales (self, task, impact). Descriptive statistics for mean scores on self, task, and impact related concerns for public and private teachers are presented in Table 1. A two-way ANOVA with type of school (public vs. private) as the between-subjects factor and type of concern (self, task, impact) as the within-subjects factor indicated a significant main effect for type of concern ($F(2, 37) = 13.17, p=.000$). Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the Scheffé technique with pairwise comparisons. Results indicated that impact concerns were significantly higher than both self or task concerns ($p < .05$). Self and task concerns did not differ significantly ($p > .05$).

Results comparing public and private school teachers’ concerns revealed no significant differences in overall level of concerns ($F(1, 38) = .057, p=.812$), nor was there a significant interaction between type of concerns and type of school ($F(2, 37) = 1.36, p = .268$).
Table 1

*Mean Scores on Self, Task, and Impact Related Concerns for Public and Private School Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Concern</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Maximum score = 5

Descriptive statistics for mean scores on self, task, and impact related concerns for elementary and middle teachers are presented in Table 2. A two-way ANOVA with grade level (elementary vs. middle) as the between-subjects factor and type of concerns (self, task, impact) as the within-subjects factor indicated a significant main effect for type of concern \(F(2, 37) = 9.63, p = .000\). Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the Scheffé technique with pairwise comparisons. Results indicated that impact concerns were significantly higher than both self or task concerns \(p < .05\). Self and task concerns did not differ significantly \(p > .05\). Results examining
differences between concerns of elementary and middle school teachers revealed no significant main effect \( (F(1, 38) = .765, p = .387) \), nor was there a significant interaction between type of concerns and grade level \( (F(2, 37) = .14, p = .871) \).

Table 2

**Mean Scores on Self, Task, and Impact Related Concerns for Elementary and Middle School Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Concern</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Maximum score = 5

Perceived Level of Preparedness for Addressing Concerns Among Private and Public Teachers and Elementary and Middle School Teachers

Survey data also provided the researcher the opportunity to analyze how well apprentice teachers who had graduated from Franciscan University felt prepared to handle their concerns related to teaching. Table 3 provides descriptive statistics for level of preparedness among private and public teachers for self, task, and impact related concerns. A two-way ANOVA with type of school (public v. private) as the between-subjects factor and type of concern (self, task, impact) as the within-subjects factor and
level of preparedness as the dependent variable was analyzed. Results indicated a significant main effect for level of preparedness \((F (2, 37) = 22.84, p = .000)\). Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the Scheffé technique with pairwise comparisons. Results indicated significant differences in level of preparedness among all three types of concerns. Teachers felt significantly more prepared to handle impact concerns than self concerns \((p < .05)\) and significantly more prepared to handle self concerns than task related concerns \((p < .05)\).

Results examining public v. private school teachers’ perceptions of preparedness revealed no significant main effect \((F (1, 38) = 2.52, p = .121)\), nor was there a significant interaction between public and private teachers’ perceptions of preparedness for any of the three types of concerns \((F (2, 37) = 2.40, p = .105)\).

Table 3

**Mean Scores on Level of Preparedness for Self, Task, and Impact Related Concerns for Public and Private Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Type of Concern</th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. Maximum score = 5

Table 4 provides descriptive statistics for level of preparedness among elementary and middle school teachers for self, task, and impact related concerns. A two-way ANOVA with grade level (elementary v. middle) as the between-subjects factor and type of concern (self, task, impact) as the within-subjects factor and level of preparedness as the dependent variable was analyzed. Results indicated a significant main effect for level of preparedness ($F(2, 37) = 22.45, p=.000$). Post hoc comparisons were conducted using the Scheffé technique with pairwise comparisons. Results indicated significant differences among level of preparedness among all three types of concerns. Teachers felt significantly more prepared to handle impact concerns than self concerns ($p = < .05$) and significantly more prepared to handle self concerns than task related concerns ($p < .05$). Results examining elementary v. middle school teachers’ perceptions of preparedness revealed no significant main effect ($F(1, 38) = .360, p = .552$), nor was there a significant interaction between type of concern and grade level ($F(2, 37) = 2.91, p = .067$).
Table 4

Mean Scores on Level of Preparedness for Self, Task, and Impact Related Concerns for Elementary and Middle School Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Concern</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Maximum score = 5

Program Experiences Perceived as Most Effective in Helping Teachers Address Concerns

In order to analyze which program experiences were perceived as most effective in helping teachers to address their concerns, qualitative data obtained from the open-ended survey question and focus group interview were analyzed using an inductive approach recommended by Miles and Huberman (1984) and Patton (2002).

Table 5 summarizes responses to the open-ended survey question and focus group discussion regarding experiences from the teacher education program which most prepared apprentice teachers to be able to handle their teaching concerns. As can
be seen from the table, the types of experiences perceived as most helpful to apprentice teachers were student teaching, methods courses, and field experiences.

Table 5

Experiences from Teacher Education Program that Most Prepared Teachers to Handle Concerns Related to Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Experience or Emerging Theme</th>
<th>Survey Response $n = 31$</th>
<th>Focus Group Response $n = 9$</th>
<th>Total Response $n = 40$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Teaching</td>
<td>26 (84%)</td>
<td>3 (33%)</td>
<td>29 (72%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods Courses</td>
<td>15 (48%)</td>
<td>6 (67%)</td>
<td>21 (52%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Experiences</td>
<td>16 (52%)</td>
<td>4 (45%)</td>
<td>20 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutoring</td>
<td>6 (19%)</td>
<td>3 (33%)</td>
<td>9 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Reading)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praxis III Preparation</td>
<td>2 (6%)</td>
<td>1 (.03%)</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fellowship Program</td>
<td>1 (.03%)</td>
<td>2 (22%)</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (.03%)</td>
<td>1 (11%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts Courses</td>
<td>1 (.03%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (11%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $n$ is the number of survey and focus group participants in the total population.

To further elaborate on aspects of the teacher education experience that helped apprentice teachers feel prepared to address their concerns, comments regarding their teacher education experience were recorded. As shown in Table 6, comments were most frequently recorded for student teaching, methods courses and field experiences.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Teaching</td>
<td>good student teaching in the fall…..the first day of school; great hands-on learning; could apply knowledge learned from classroom experience; good to learn how to deal with paperwork, classroom management, meetings, real-life issues; good for learning how to use curriculum, textbooks, and grading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods Courses</td>
<td>teaching and planning was the easiest part of the first month of teaching because of the background in methods course experiences; invaluable in helping to design units, bulletin boards, centers, etc; professors deviated from text and taught real life practical advice; presentations were helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Experiences</td>
<td>scheduled hours are great; working with teacher paperwork is good; good to do field experience in the freshman year, to practice teaching; good practice developing detailed lesson plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutoring (Reading)</td>
<td>helped in planning based on students’ needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praxis III Preparation</td>
<td>great to have opportunity to know and understand the four domains and how to apply them in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fellowship Program</td>
<td>allowed me to gain confidence as a teacher and to apply what I had learned from methods courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>was like service learning, was useful to the overall educational experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts courses</td>
<td>made me a well-rounded teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Comments recorded from all open ended survey questions and focus group discussion
The final research question sought to determine what situational or contextual changes had occurred during the teachers’ apprentice years. Analysis of qualitative data obtained from the focus discussion and an open-ended survey question yielded responses regarding situational or contextual concerns related to teachers’ beginning teaching. As shown in Table 7 the responses regarding situational or contextual change for teachers were categorized into curriculum, school organization, security, technological, and personal changes. The most frequently cited change reported by apprentice teachers was changes within the organization or school.
Table 7

*Summary of Situational and Contextual Changes Experienced by Apprentice Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Change</th>
<th>Survey Response</th>
<th>Focus Group Response</th>
<th>Total Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N = 31</td>
<td>N = 9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Curriculum</td>
<td>2 (content</td>
<td>2 (Success for All)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>standards)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New staff, Principal</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>1 (tuition)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Dress</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Day</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Organization Issues</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security Issues</td>
<td>2 (code</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>orange/snipers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grad Quick</td>
<td>1 (grades/progress reports)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternity Leave</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Transition</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wedding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Personal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* N is the total number of survey and focus group participants, the numbers listed are only those that commented on contextual changes
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

This study investigated the role of teacher education experiences in addressing the concerns of apprentice teachers. Thirty-one apprentice teachers completed a survey and nine apprentice teachers participated in the survey and focus discussion that identified their teaching concerns related to Fuller’s (1969) self, task, and impact concerns. Additionally, investigation of apprentice teachers’ perceptions of how well they were prepared to handle their beginning teacher concerns, and what experiences most prepared them was completed. Situational or contextual issues that have influenced apprentice teachers’ concerns were identified in the open-ended survey questions and focus discussion. Concerns of public and private, and elementary and middle school, apprentice teachers were compared.

Interpretation of Results

Concerns of Apprentice Teachers

As theorized by Fuller (1969), teachers develop through self, task, and impact related concerns. These concerns begin developing and sequentially progress from self to task, then to impact as preservice teachers continue through their years of teaching. Fuller and Bown (1975) later reformulated this theory and posited that teachers progress through self, task, and impact stages, however not necessarily sequentially. Some teachers may revert from impact related concerns back to self or impact, largely dependent on their situational environment or change in context.
In the current study, apprentice teachers revealed self and task related concerns. However, overall a significant finding was that apprentice teachers graduated from FUS’s teacher education program expressed more concern for their impact on students than their self or task related concerns, a finding also consistent with Smith and Sanche’s (1993) study on the concerns of interns, and Reeves and Kazelskis’ (1985) study involving concerns of preservice and apprentice teachers. The fact that teachers’ concerns were focused on their students, rather than on themselves is promising and could provide evidence of program effectiveness in terms of teaching for student learning, at FUS. It also suggests implications for the program in that we continue our efforts to further address impact related concerns of preservice teachers, as suggested by Fuller and Bown’s (1975) study on the importance of personalized preservice teacher education based on the concerns development of preservice teachers.

The finding that apprentice teachers in this current study expressed more impact related concerns, but also had self and task related concerns is consistent with Pigge and Marso’s (1997) study on teacher concerns, in that concerns do not follow a lock-step progression as theorized by Fuller (1969), but change according to various situations in one’s life. As noted in the comments in table 7, teachers expressed comments regarding several issues related to the contexts of schools, which have an impact on their concerns development.

Examples of impact related items for which apprentice teachers expressed much concern included whether students were reaching their potential, helping students to value learning, challenging unmotivated students, diagnosing student learning
problems, meeting the needs of different kinds of students, recognizing students’ social and emotional needs, and seeking alternative ways to teach subject matter. An examination of the impact related concerns expressed by apprentice teachers reveals the importance of aligning teacher education coursework with standards expressed by INTASC (1992), NBPTS(1991), and NCATE (2000), as many of these standards reflect higher level learning associated with the impact related items on the checklist. Howey (1996) also expressed in his review of teacher education literature the importance of aligning teacher education programs with the aforementioned standards in order to prepare highly qualified teachers.

In the current study, mean scores on self related items revealed that apprentice teachers are a little concerned about items such as teaching with peers, developing adequate lesson plans, what the principal may think if there is too much noise in the classroom, and losing students’ respect (see Appendix B checklist). It is probable that apprentice teachers had numerous experiences in being prepared to deal with these self related concerns and therefore felt adequate in handling them as beginning teachers. It is also probable that the apprentice teachers who expressed the self concerns were addressing the concerns based on the situational context in which they were teaching. For instance, several teachers responded that they had new principals in their schools. For these teachers, the item regarding how the principal feels about too much noise in the classroom may be a concern.

Finally, mean scores on task related items revealed that apprentice teachers had a little concern regarding tasks such as adjusting to a rigid instructional time, insufficient clerical help, inflexibility of the curriculum, and having too many students
in a class. Again, these are concerns that relate to one’s situation or context in the school environment. Discussions regarding task related concerns and how they are context dependent may be warranted in teacher education methods courses. Such discussions would reflect the suggestion by Barone et al. (1996) that teacher educators should prepare future teachers to handle concerns in a variety of contexts within their teacher education program.

There were no differences among public and private apprentice teachers and their level of concerns, which was an interesting outcome to this researcher. Also interesting in terms of differences were O'Connor and Taylor’s (1992) study where no differences in concerns were found among teachers’ ethnicity. O’Connor and Taylor suggested that one reason for this lack of difference may be that people who are attracted to teaching in general, hold similar values.

Little distinction is made in FUS’s teacher preparation program whether one wishes to teach in a public or a private teaching environment. However, in this 21st century era of teacher preparation such a distinction may be forthcoming. In the era of teacher and school accountability, standards, vouchers, charter schools, and home schools, it may be necessary to evaluate the similarities and differences among public and private institutions and the people who serve them, or perhaps we are more alike than we believe as demonstrated in the results of this study. Empirical research is limited on this differentiation among private and public teacher preparation.

Further investigation of university graduates with a larger population will shed light on some useful information regarding teacher education experiences. One such study is currently being undertaken by the Ohio Partnership for Accountability and is
entitled “The Impact of Teacher Education.” The goal of this longitudinal study is to evaluate the components of teacher education programs that have the strongest impact on the achievement of students. The study also seeks to understand teacher attributes, factors supporting the development of beginning teachers, and effects of methods course experiences on beginning teachers’ work with their students. This study is involving all Ohio teacher education institutions, both public and private. It will be interesting to note whether any differences exist among private and public school teachers or institutions in the Impact of Teacher Education study.

In this current study, concerns also did not differ among elementary and middle school teachers. Little has been written regarding differences in concerns among elementary and middle apprentice teachers, even though the research literature clearly suggests elementary and middle school children have unique needs. One such study, Adams (1982), reported differences among elementary and high school teachers. It was reported that elementary school teachers demonstrated greater self, task, and impact concerns than high school teachers. Perhaps a larger population than this current study would yield differences among elementary and middle school teachers. Further research is needed in differences in development for elementary, middle, and high school teachers, in addition to teachers of various ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

Finally, Weinstein (1988) argued that teachers are under trained for the demands they face as beginning teachers. The fact that apprentice teachers in this study expressed higher impact related concerns is promising. Additionally, these results may
support the argument that students in FUS teacher education program are being trained for the demands and concerns that they face as beginning teachers.

Level of Preparedness Among Apprentice Teachers

Apprentice teachers at FUS were asked to respond to their level of preparedness, from their teacher preparation program for dealing with self, task, and impact related concerns. Interesting, apprentice teachers graduated from FUS teacher education program responded that such program had most prepared them to handle impact related concerns, then self related concerns, and finally task related concerns.

One hypothesis for apprentice teachers feeling more prepared to handle self concerns over task concerns may once again involve the situation or context in which one is teaching. Many of the task related concerns are concerns that an apprentice teacher would encounter in a variety of contexts. This result once again supports the current literature on the importance of engaging preservice teachers in a multitude of contexts (Barone et al.; Richardson & Placier, 2001) and in discussing the implications of contexts on teacher concerns in methods courses.

Results examining differences between public and private teachers revealed no differences among the three types of concerns. As addressed in the aforementioned, the teacher education program at FUS accredited to license teachers does not differentiate among public and private school teachers. It would be interesting though to compare concerns of those aspiring to teach who completed their training in the accredited teacher preparation program with those who are receiving training to teach in private Catholic schools through the religious education program.
Finally, elementary and middle school teachers were also asked to respond to how well the teacher preparation program at FUS prepared them to handle their self, task, and impact concerns and again there were no differences between the two types of teachers. In general, teachers graduated from FUS felt well prepared to handle impact level concerns related to teaching. An interesting note regarding elementary and middle school teachers is that Ohio teaching licensure requirements do require separate licenses for elementary and middle school teachers. Therefore, the teacher education program does make a distinction between the classes taken for the two types of teachers. Are the distinct concerns of elementary verses middle school teachers being addressed in various coursework and experiences? While the distinction is debatable, it is promising that graduates feel very prepared to handle higher level concerns.

Teacher Education Experiences Perceived as Helpful in Preparing Teachers

This study also examined the teacher education program experiences that apprentice teachers revealed had an important role in preparing them to handle their concerns. Teacher educators in FUS teacher education program can benefit from knowing what particular aspects of their program have shown success in forming future teachers, particularly in preparing them to handle their concerns related to teaching. This question warrants a thorough examination especially in light of the fact that apprentice teachers felt prepared to handle higher level concerns related to teaching.

Darling-Hammond (1998) suggests it is the quality of the teacher in the classroom that ultimately makes the difference in student learning. It is important that
teacher educators understand the critical role they have in preparing preservice teachers for future classrooms. Comments from apprentice teachers (see table 6) revealed how teacher education experiences specifically helped them to feel prepared to handle their concerns related to teaching.

Results of this study revealed that student teaching, content pedagogy (i.e. methods courses), field experiences, and tutoring were the most frequently mentioned experiences helpful to apprentice teachers. A number of teachers also mentioned particular aspects of the experiences relating to volunteering, the Fellowship program, Praxis III preparation, and liberal arts courses. Each of these is discussed in turn.

Student teaching experiences. Results of the data analysis revealed that 72% of apprentice teachers regarded student teaching as a critical experience in helping them feel prepared for their teaching concerns. This finding is consistent with Peterson and McKay’s (2001) technical and teacher reflection, and socialization –into-the professional culture models of learning to teach. In the socialization model, teachers have the opportunity to reinforce the instructional approaches they have been taught in methods courses and the opportunity to develop their personal teaching styles. In the technical and teacher reflection models, teachers learned about the demands of teachers through application of hands-on skills. They have acquired the content knowledge regarding instruction, assessment, classroom management, and working with others and enjoyed the opportunity to apply it to the real world during student teaching.

Teachers participating in this study provided comments explaining how their student teaching experience helped prepare them (see table 6). These included: the
opportunity to student teach in the fall on the first day of school; hands-on learning; application of content knowledge; learning to deal with school staff and administrators; learning to use curriculum, standards, and grading. Apprentice teachers at Franciscan University strongly agreed that the student teaching experience helped them to be prepared for teaching. In this experience they had opportunities to learn classroom procedural knowledge, to work with administrators, and to discuss their concerns related to teaching with others.

**Content pedagogy experiences.** Results of the data analysis revealed that 52% of apprentice teachers believed that content courses were significant experiences in helping them to be prepared for their concerns related to teaching, also consistent with the technical and teacher reflection models of learning to teach (Peterson & McKay, 2001). In the technical and teacher reflection model of teaching, teachers have acquired an extensive amount of technical knowledge and skills necessary to meet the demands related to teaching. Teachers in this current study commented that content courses gave them the opportunity to gain an extensive amount of content knowledge. In addition, the professors who deviated from texts, offered “real-life” practical advice, and required preservice teachers to present in class were all instrumental in helping them feel prepared to handle their beginning teaching concerns. Having a well-rounded liberal arts curriculum in addition to the required educational content courses was important to one respondent.

Of interest in this study is that a majority of apprentice teachers reported content courses as instrumental in helping them to handle their beginning teaching concerns. Schuck and Segal’s (1999) study found that teachers remembered their methods
coursework during their first year of teaching; however, they also found that the school context was a barrier to implementing some of the methods or philosophies learned from their methods courses.

Some of the concerns related to methods courses were expressed by teachers in the focus discussion and were similar to concerns reported in Schuck and Segal’s (1999) study. In their study they found issues expressed by award winning teachers that they as teacher educators had failed to address in their methods courses. Schuck and Segal’s finding leads to the importance of discussing a variety of situational contexts beginning teachers may experience. For instance, in the current research study, several teachers were highly concerned about the reading program called Success For All, a type of reading program that is discussed minimally in the reading methods courses. Teachers were familiar with the reading program upon graduation from the teacher education program; however, when they encountered teaching the program in one school system their concerns were heightened by the fact that they could not implement their own methods and reading philosophies in their classroom. This became a great source of frustration for the teachers. Learning the effective use of content standards was another source of frustration to one apprentice teacher. The teacher responses from the focus discussion was an important outcome in this research study, as the researcher (a content course teacher educator) will incorporate this important contextual information concerning Success for All and use of content standards in future reading content methods courses.

Field experiences and university collaboration. Literature regarding the field experience component of teacher preparation programs suggests its importance in
teacher socialization (Hall, et al., 1995). In the current study, a little over half of the apprentice teachers reported that field experiences were helpful in preparing them to address their concerns related to teaching. Twenty-two percent of the apprentice teachers reported the helpfulness of the one-on-one tutoring experience, a reading methods course requirement involving the community and university. A small percentage (11%) expressed satisfaction with mandatory volunteer or service learning requirements and liberal arts course requirements. Finally, another small percentage (7%) expressed satisfaction with Praxis III preparation (involving application of domains related to teaching in the classroom), and a preK-12 university collaborative program called the Fellowship program (7%).

Comments from apprentice teachers regarding field experiences, tutoring, volunteering, all include experiences from collaborative programs between the university and public and private schools. According to apprentice teachers, these experiences were helpful because they include opportunities for hands-on learning, learning to work with administrators and the entire school staff, opportunities to observe and to do field experiences during the freshman year (see table 6). Comments regarding tutoring included opportunities to apply university coursework knowledge to the pre-K – 12 environment; learning how to use curriculum and standards; designing units and centers; opportunities to develop detailed lesson plans; application of Praxis III domains in the classroom; and opportunities to diagnose and assess students (see table 6).

These comments were consistent with the study by Hall et al. (1995), where teachers became more aware of themselves as emerging teachers, particularly as they...
transitioned from the early field experiences through their student teaching experience, and finally to their first year teaching experience. Each socialization experience brought about growth at each level of experience, a growth which Hall et al. (1995) refer to as spiral in nature.

As teacher educators plan program experiences according to standards, it is also important to realize that much learning takes place in the contexts of various environments. As preservice teachers are given ample opportunities to engage with preK-12 schools in a multitude of contexts, they should become more effective in being able to articulate reasons for their various teaching behaviors. Howey’s (1996) review of teacher education literature supports the notion that teachers be able to articulate or profess, why they do, what they do, on a daily basis.

**Situational or Organizational Issues Affecting Apprentice Teachers’ Concerns**

Richardson and Placier (2001) suggest that the demands of teaching involve a multitude of contexts and issues. Therefore, this study also examined contextual issues that affect apprentice teachers. Results of this study indicate that a variety of personal and situational issues have an effect on apprentice teachers’ concerns. Beginning teachers in this study experienced several issues related to school organization such as new staff and principals, school programs such as intervention assistance teams, inclusion, all day kindergarten, discipline issues such as a universal discipline plan and dress codes. Apprentice teachers were concerned about financial issues such as tuition increases for private schools. They reported on curriculum changes such as Success For All Reading and Math and standards development. Their technological changes included distance learning and implementation of software programs such as Grad
Quick. Lastly, apprentice teachers responded that personal issues were concerns for them during their apprentice years of teaching. These personal issues included: beginning a master’s program; taking maternity leave; transitioning from college to career; and getting married (see table 7).

In order to help apprentice teachers feel prepared to handle the myriad of issues in which they may find themselves, it is important to discuss situational or contextual issues throughout all courses in the teacher education program. Kuzmic (1994) refers to the discussion of these contextual issues as “organizational literacy” or the “politics of teaching.”

Kuzmic’s (1994) study also points out the importance of providing preservice teachers in teacher education programs with content or experiences relevant to how schools operate, the bureaucratic functions of schools, and the problems and difficulties sometimes inherent in the school organization. Kuzmic refers to this idea as not only learning how to teach, but also to learning about teaching, to learn how particular issues impact the teachers’ classroom or teaching behaviors. For example, a majority of apprentice teachers in this study reported on the situational impact of changing principals. Teacher education programs need to discuss these implications and teachers need to be able to identify how and why these influences can affect their classrooms, in addition to providing reflective and critical tactics for dealing with such changes or realities which are inevitably part of the context of schools.

Generalizations and Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this study should be considered. First, the findings cannot be generalized to another teacher education program. They are limited to the group of
apprentice teachers who have graduated from Franciscan University of Steubenville. These findings may be enriched by a much larger study on different types of teacher education programs.

Since the researcher is an instructor at the university, and most of the survey and focus group respondents have taken courses with such instructor, some respondent bias may have occurred. Respondents may have answered questions based on how they thought the researcher would respond, or they may have chosen experiences in which the researcher was involved as an instructor.

Howey (1996) believes that follow-up with graduates is an ineffective means of program evaluation, as graduates’ perceptions have been influenced by many individual and contextual factors. However, this researcher views the perceptions of graduates as critical in learning about teaching within a myriad of contexts because sharing and engaging in dialogue with apprentice teachers about these contexts can be useful information to share with preservice teachers, who may one day be teaching in a similar context.

Several limitations exist regarding the Teacher Concerns Checklist. First, this researcher is in agreement with the suggestion by Reeves and Kazelskis (1985) that teachers have not necessarily been confronted with some of the concerns expressed in the checklist, therefore were responding to the survey questions based on how they would respond to these concerns when confronted. Secondly, there is some concern that teachers might have a difficult time recording “no concern” for important impact related questions (Reeves & Kazelskis, 1985). Third, some concerns of teachers are not included on the checklist. For instance, concerns regarding the use of technology
are not included. One respondent discussed a situational concern regarding the use of technology in her school for grading purposes, completing progress reports, etc. However, because there were no technological questions this research study can not conclude overall feelings of preparedness in being able to handle concerns related to technology. Another important point regarding technology may involve the availability of resources. Perhaps many of the respondents do not have updated technology or resources in their classrooms and therefore it is not a concern.

Finally, a limitation may exist regarding the focus discussion. In the natural course of dialogue, apprentice teachers continued their discussion on the same topic until the facilitator asked another question. For example, when asked what teacher education experiences were perceived as helpful in addressing beginning teacher concerns several of the teachers began to discuss the Praxis III preparation. This limitation could very well have caused the researcher to have a false sense of what experiences were truly helpful in preparing teachers to be able to handle teaching concerns because much of the discussion involved Praxis III. Considering teachers’ time schedule, an enormous amount of time could not be spent on any one question.

Implications for Teacher Educators at Franciscan University

The findings of this study offer several implications for teacher educators at Franciscan University. These implications are relevant as they are grounded in Howey’s (1996) review of general assumptions regarding coherent teacher preparation programs.

It is apparent from this research project that experiences in Franciscan University’s teacher education program are useful in developing teacher concerns and
preparing future teachers to be able to handle their concerns. Teacher educators at this university may engage in dialogue regarding specific transformation of practice, one in which Peterson and McKay (2001) suggest as having a “shared vision” among a variety of stakeholders including the students, teachers, university, and preK-12 schools.

Current literature reveals that collaboration between universities and pre K-12 schools is necessary (Chance, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Gold, 1996; Howey, 1996). The results of this research study suggest that preK-12 and university collaboration via student teaching, field experiences, tutoring, volunteering, and Fellowship program was critical in helping apprentice teachers to be able to handle their concerns related to teaching. It is important that educators at Franciscan University engage in dialogue regarding university and school collaboration in order to enhance FUS collaborative role.

Kragler and Nierenberg (1999) raised an important point in regards to the organization of the field experience component of teacher education programs. These researchers found significant differences among three different types of field experiences (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999). The organizational differences revealed the importance of a thorough examination of the use of time and qualities of field experiences in a teacher preparation program, demonstrating the importance of everyone involved in FUS field experience component to engage in dialogue regarding the quality of the field experience component.

In light of Kagan’s (1992) review of structural elements that should be included in a teacher preparation program, teacher educators at Franciscan University should
engage in dialogue regarding elements of courses or experiences beneficial to the
development of its future teachers’ concerns. Some of these elements may include
research projects, cohort involvement, microteaching, cooperative learning activities,
or interpersonal development (Barone et al., 1996). Also important in the dialogue
may be Barone et al.’s (1996) four guiding principles (purposeful, integrative,
constructivist, and engaging instruction) for reform in teaching methods courses.
Purposeful reform involves opportunities for future teachers to reflect upon high ideals
and purposes among the community as a whole, to not only learn subject matter but to
have opportunities to understand children in today’s classrooms. Integrative reform
calls for teaching content across disciplines, to think about how to afford our future
teachers the opportunities to merge theory with practice. Finally, constructivist and
engaging reform in teacher education requires that teacher educators provide future
teachers opportunities to make pedagogical decisions, to construct their own learning
with the teacher educator as facilitator and to allow the future teachers time to learn
cooperatively, think critically, and to interact with the prek-12 community.

Finally, consistent with literature regarding diversity (Toppo, 2003; Zeichner,
1996), there is a shortage of minorities teaching in the profession. In light of the
current demographics at Franciscan (97.5%) females and (99%) Caucasian, it might be
beneficial to the teaching profession to engage in dialogue regarding recruitment of
males and other minorities into the profession, in addition to helping the majority of
Caucasian females in our program deal with diversity.
Implications for Future Research

Further investigation of university graduates with a larger population will shed light on some useful information regarding teacher education experiences. Additional tests regarding differences among public and private school teachers and their concerns are warranted because differences may indeed occur with a larger population. In light of the current debate regarding public vs. private institutions it may be of interest to also study similarities and differences, if any, among teachers in these contexts.

As teacher educators, we should continue to learn about teaching and learning in a variety of contexts from our graduate students (Schuck & Segal, 1999). We should be encouraged to seek specific activities from teacher education experiences that prove useful in developing future teachers’ concerns. For instance, does the pen pal writing project done in the methods course entitled “Teaching of Language Arts” between university preservice teachers and fifth grade public school children really provide significant learning? Does significant learning occur for the fifth grade students or the preservice teachers, or both? Are there aspects of the pen pal project that according to Howey (1996), contribute to the preservice teacher’s knowledge, dispositions, or skills?

Studies involving continuation of dialogue with apprentice teachers into their first year of teaching could be useful to teacher preparation programs (Gold, 1996). One teacher who participated in the focus discussion commented on how the conversation regarding teacher concerns was useful. “I think that this is a positive, hearing each other’s experiences and what we need to do to help other people grow.”
and “this is really helpful sharing, people from different areas, different kinds of school settings. We all do have a lot of the same concerns…..it’s good to hear your own concerns reiterated from others.” Hollingsworth’s (1992) study showed support for how conversation enhanced teachers’ first year of teaching.

One way of continuing the dialogue with beginning teachers is through the use of technology (Genareo, 2000; Merseth, 1990; Nevin, et al., 2002). Studies in teacher education research could be enhanced by connecting with teacher education graduates via the internet with distance learning opportunities, perhaps masters degree opportunities, alumni as mentors, telephone hotlines, advisory councils, and faculty visits (Gold, 1996). This opportunity could provide for a continued role between the beginning teacher, schools, and the university.

Zeichner (1996) believes many beginning teachers are reluctant to teach in urban and poor rural schools. Results of this study indicated virtually no acknowledgement of concerns related to diversity, possibly indicating that students in the FUS teacher education program are not teaching in many diverse settings. Studies involving discussion with teachers working in Catholic schools on Indian reservations, urban, suburban, and rural poor contexts would be beneficial.

It may be interesting to research concerns development in light of various teacher education models. For instance, in this current study at FUS, which could be termed a traditional model, teachers were determined to have high impact concerns, in addition to feeling very prepared to handle such concerns. Would higher level concerns be evident in other teacher education program models?
In terms of Fuller’s (1969) model of teacher development it may be interesting to examine the effects of teachers’ concerns on student achievement. For instance, one would believe that a teacher with impact related concerns would be most effective because of concerns on the student rather than on the teacher. However, one could argue that a teacher with high self or task concerns might also be a very effective teacher for many reasons.

Teacher education programs are being designed around standards (Howey, 1996). In light of the data analyzed in this study, evidence may exist that demonstrates how curriculum alignment with standards is influencing the program. Standards portray what effective teachers should know and be able to do in their classrooms, and are reflected in all experiences within the teacher education program. Future research could involve the effectiveness of FUS teacher education program with subsequent curriculum alignment and standards.

Finally, it may be of interest to teacher education researchers to study teacher educators as well as studying teacher education programs. Do teacher educators make a difference in the way apprentice teachers teach? How? How do teacher educators fit within various teacher education models? What impact, if any have they made on future teachers? Are there particular qualities that make more effective teacher educators? Zeichner (1999) argues that having practitioners of teacher education involved in research about the profession is a promising feature of future teacher education research.
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Appendix A

Instructions for Completing Survey
Instructions for Completing Survey

I ask that you complete all sections of this questionnaire in full. Please answer all questions honestly. Remember, you are not being tested or evaluated, so there is no right or wrong answers. All you have to do is answer according to what you feel or what you believe best describes you and your current teaching situation.

Section One asks for basic demographic information. Simply complete the information based on your teaching position during the past 2002-2003 school year.

Section Two contains Items 1-45 which describe possible concerns for practicing teachers. For each item, please notice that you are asked to respond twice (Part A and B). Part A asks you to express the degree of your concern. Your Part A response can vary from not concerned to totally preoccupied. Select a response and fill in the corresponding circle for Part A of each of the concerns in items 1-45.

Section Two also contains Part B for items 1-45. Part B of each item asks you to judge how well the teacher education program at Franciscan University of Steubenville prepared you to handle (deal with, address) that concern. Your Part B response varies from program prepared me “not at all” to “prepared me extremely well”. Select a response and place a check next to the statement that best describes how well the program prepared you to handle the concern.

Section Three contains questions 46-49 that require written answers. Please PRINT clearly, so that we can read what you have written.

Instructions for returning the completed survey (by June 25) can be found on the last page of the survey.
Dear Colleague,

My reason for writing is twofold. First, to ask you to complete the enclosed survey. Secondly, to inform you what purpose the survey data will serve. The data collected will be used for research, providing useful information to the teacher education program regarding concerns of apprentice teachers.

The survey data will be handled in a confidential and professional manner. It is imperative that I have a return of 95% of the surveys in order to effectively establish the criteria for my research.

Enclosed you will find the Privacy Notice and instructions for completing the survey. Thank you in advance for your participation and your willingness to compete the survey.

Your honest responses and speedy return (2-3 weeks) will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Mary Kathryn McVey
Assistant Professor of Education
Privacy Notice

The information you provide on the following survey is STRICTLY confidential. You will notice in the following questionnaire you are NEVER asked for your name, address, phone number, or any other information that could identify you with your survey responses. The surveys do not have tracking numbers, and you do not need to include your return address on the return envelope. This information is being gathered for research purposes only, and will not affect you in any way. Should you choose not to participate in this research project, please discard your survey packet.
Appendix B

Teacher Concerns Checklist
1. What is your age? _____ years old

2. What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female

3. How many years have you been teaching? (Please select most applicable answer; if you have been teaching for an odd number of years, for example, 2 ½ years, please round up to the nearest whole number, in this case, 3 years.

   ☐ 0-2 years ☐ 3-5 years ☐ 6-8 years

4. What grade(s) are you currently teaching?

   ☐ Elementary (K-5) ☐ Middle (6-8) ☐ High School (9-12)

5. What subject(s) do you currently teach? (Please list subject(s) below)

   Subjects: _____________________________________________________________

   ☐ Not-Applicable

6. If your answer to the above question was not “Not-Applicable,” for how many years have you been teaching in this subject area(s)?

   _______ years

7. Which category best describes the school environment you teach in?

   ☐ Public ☐ Private/Parochial ☐ Charter ☐ Home

8. Describe your certification status:

   ☐ Certified ☐ Non-Certified

9. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

   ☐ Bachelors Degree ☐ Masters Degree ☐ Doctorate

Please turn to the next page……
Instructions

Please answer each of the 45 questions below. Each question has two parts, one that examines your level of concern with a particular issue, and one that examines how well your Teacher Education Program prepared you to deal with this issue. For Part A of each question, please fill in the circle that corresponds to the answer that best describes your level of concern towards the RIGHT of the question (use one of the circles in the right-hand column for each question). For Part B, please put a checkmark in the box next to the statement that best describes how your teacher education program prepared you to deal with this challenge towards the BOTTOM of the question. Please answer every question honestly; there are no right or wrong answers.

1. a. Insufficient clerical help for teachers.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

2. a. Whether the students respect me.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

3. a. Too many extra duties and responsibilities.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

4. a. Doing well when I'm observed.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

Please turn to the next page……
5. a. Helping students to value learning.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

6. a. Insufficient time for rest and class preparation.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

7. a. Not enough assistance from specialized teachers.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

8. a. Managing my time efficiently.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

9. a. Losing the respect of my peers.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
      - did not prepare me at all
      - prepared me a little
      - prepared me well
      - prepared me extremely well

Please turn to the next page……
10. a. Not enough time for grading and testing.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   - [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

11. a. The inflexibility of the curriculum.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   - [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

12. a. Too many standards and regulations set for teachers.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   - [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

13. a. My ability to prepare adequate lesson plans.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   - [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

14. a. Having my inadequacies become known to other teachers.
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   - [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

Please turn to the next page……
15. a. Increasing students’ feelings of accomplishment.
   
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   
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<th>A Little Concerned</th>
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16. a. The rigid instructional routine.
   
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   
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17. a. Diagnosing student learning problems.
   
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   
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18. a. What the principal may think if there is too much noise in my classroom.
   
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   
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19. a. Whether each student is reaching his or her potential.
   
   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .
   
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<td>20. a. Obtaining a favorable evaluation of my teaching.</td>
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<td>21. a. Having too many students in a class.</td>
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<td>22. a. Recognizing the social and emotional needs of the students.</td>
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<td>Challenging unmotivated students.</td>
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<td>24. a. Losing the respect of my students.</td>
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### 25. a. Lack of public support for schools.

b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

- did not prepare me at all
- prepared me a little
- prepared me well
- prepared me extremely well

### 26. a. My ability to maintain the appropriate degree of class control.

b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

- did not prepare me at all
- prepared me a little
- prepared me well
- prepared me extremely well

### 27. a. Not having sufficient time to plan.

b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

- did not prepare me at all
- prepared me a little
- prepared me well
- prepared me extremely well

### 28. a. Getting students to behave.

b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

- did not prepare me at all
- prepared me a little
- prepared me well
- prepared me extremely well

### 29. a. Understanding why certain students make slow progress.

b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

- did not prepare me at all
- prepared me a little
- prepared me well
- prepared me extremely well

Please turn to the next page……
30. a. Having an embarrassing incident occur in my classroom for which I might be judged responsible.

   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

   [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

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31. a. Not being able to cope with trouble-makers in my classes.

   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

   [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

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32. a. That my peers may think I’m not doing an adequate job.

   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

   [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

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33. a. My ability to work with disruptive students.

   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

   [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

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34. a. Understanding ways in which student health and nutrition problems can affect learning.

   b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .

   [ ] did not prepare me at all  [ ] prepared me a little  [ ] prepared me well  [ ] prepared me extremely well

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<td>35. a. Appearing competent to parents.</td>
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<td>36. a. Meeting the needs of different kinds of students.</td>
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<td>b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .</td>
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<td>37. a. Seeking alternative ways to ensure that students learn the subject matter.</td>
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<td>38. a. Understanding the psychological and cultural differences that can affect my students’ behavior.</td>
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<td>39. a. Adapting myself to the needs of different students.</td>
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<td>40. a. The large number of administrative interruptions.</td>
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<td>b. Teacher Education Program prepared me to address (deal with, handle) this concern . . . .</td>
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<td>41. a. Guiding students toward intellectual and emotional growth.</td>
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<td>42. a. Working with too many students each day.</td>
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<td>43. a. Whether students can apply what they learn.</td>
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<td>44. a. Teaching effectively when another teacher is present.</td>
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Please answer questions 46-49 in your own words.

46. Do you have opportunities to engage in dialogue with anyone regarding your concerns? (e.g. mentor, colleague, inservice, masters program, distance learning, courses) If so, please describe briefly.

47. Describe your mentor/induction program. (e.g. required/not required, informal/formal, time spent, issues resolved, helpful/not-helpful).

48. What aspect or experiences from your Teacher Education program most prepared you to deal or identify with your concerns? Briefly describe why or why not. (e.g. foundations, methods, core, field experiences, student teaching).

49. Have you or your school been in the midst of a major change? Briefly describe.
Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey. Please return it in the postage paid envelope provided.
Appendix C

Focus Interview Script
Focus Interview Script

Question #1.
Let’s take some time to discuss the concerns that we have as beginning teachers.

Question #2.
Do you have opportunities to dialogue about your teaching concerns? Please describe them in light of inservices, mentoring, workshops or continuing education, or distance learning opportunities.

Question #3.
Describe your mentor or induction opportunities. Were they formal or informal, required or not, Praxis III?

Question #4.
How have you resolved your concerns related to teaching?

Question #5.
What aspects or experiences from your teacher education program most prepared you to deal with your teaching concerns?

Question #6.
Have you or your school been through major changes in your first or second year of teaching?