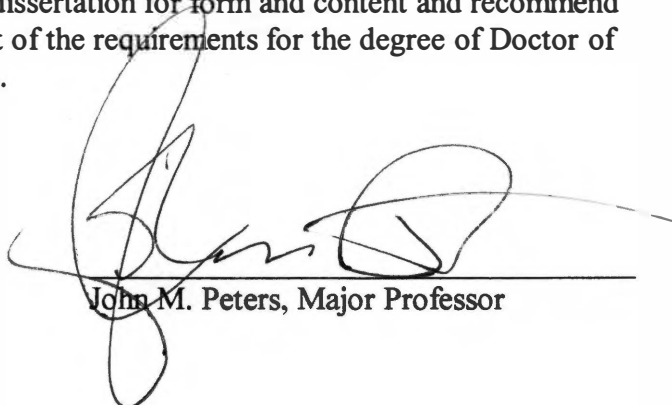


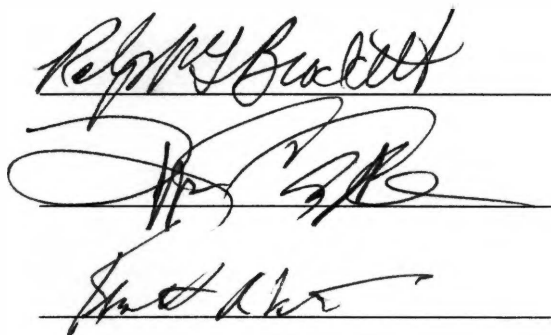
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Robert Eugene Gaddis entitled "Interacting, Learning, Juggling: A Study of the Preservice Teacher Internship." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

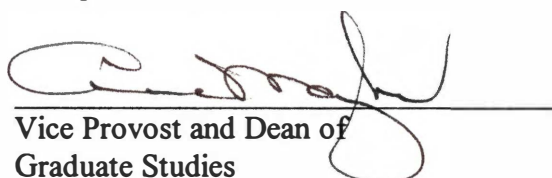


John M. Peters, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and
recommend its acceptance:



Acceptance for the Council:



Vice Provost and Dean of
Graduate Studies

**INTERACTING, LEARNING, JUGGLING:
A STUDY OF THE PRESERVICE TEACHER INTERNSHIP**

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Robert Eugene Gaddis
August 2002

DEDICATION

*Thesis
2002b
.G344*

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Linda,
for supporting and encouraging me,
and to my daughters, Abby and Amanda.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to express my appreciation to all those who helped me complete this dissertation and this doctoral program. Thanks to Dr. John Peters, who has been an unfailing source of encouragement, support and understanding. Dr. Ken Newton helped me in many ways. Dr. Ralph Brockett provided important feedback. Dr. Lynn Cagle encouraged and supported me. You were a great committee.

Thanks also to my family and friends, especially Reb Brickey, for your love, support and prayers.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the teaching internship was experienced by interns and by their mentors, supervisors and university faculty members (FSMs). Phenomenological interviews were conducted with 12 interns and nine FSMs and Boyatzis's approach was used to derive themes from descriptions provided by participants.

Themes from the intern interviews were *Interacting with Others*, *Learning Instructional Strategies*, and *Juggling Competing Demands*. Themes from the interviews of FSMs included *Interacting with Others*, *Learning Instructional Strategies*, *Differing Perspectives*, and *Stress*. The theme *Interacting with Others* describes how interns and perceived and responded to various people in the internship situation. The theme *Learning Instructional Strategies* describes interns' efforts to create or find approaches to the tasks of teaching that fit themselves and the situation. *Juggling Competing Demands* describes the interns' experiences of trying to prioritize and choose among demands on their time and effort. *Differing Perspectives* describes perceptions concerning conflicting views among faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers about significant aspects of the internship experience. *Stress* refers to perceptions of the degree to which interns' experiences were difficult or problematic.

Both groups saw the interns' experiences similarly, i.e., in terms of learning how to teach, having supportive and challenging interactions with others, dealing with differing views on the part of school versus university personnel, and experiencing significant stress due to the various demands and challenges of the internship. Both groups saw the interns as having to deal with problems and difficulties that made it

harder for them to accomplish the aims of the internship. The interns' experienced competing demands in part because there were differences between what school personnel and what university personnel expected of them, and because they had so much to do to meet the expectations of the school and the university. Both interns and FSMs described the internship as an intense, challenging, time-consuming experience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter One: Introduction	1
Methodology	8
Organization of the Dissertation	13
 Chapter Two: Findings.....	 14
List of Themes	15
Themes from the Intern Interviews	16
Descriptions of Themes	16
Themes from Faculty/Supervisor/Mentoring Teacher Interviews	30
Descriptions of Themes	31
Summary	40
 Chapter Three: Review of Related Literature	 42
Interactions with Others	42
Learning Instructional Strategies	64
Differing Perspectives/Competing Demands.....	100
Stress	108
Summary	121
 Chapter Four: Summary, Conclusions and Implications	 122
Summary	122
Conclusions and Implications	124
Postscript.....	144
 References	 146
 Appendices.....	 176
 Vita	 197

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Since the National Commission on Excellence in Education published *A Nation At Risk* in 1983, attempts to reform the U.S. education system continue. There are no simple solutions to our educational problems, unfortunately, because the question of how to create the best possible educational system to serve our children is a complex puzzle made up of many pieces. All the pieces of this puzzle must fit together if we are to provide our children with the educational experience they need and deserve.

One of the puzzle pieces that must be addressed is the issue of how best to prepare teachers for our schools. Given current trends in our society, it is obvious that teachers for the future will need to be better prepared than ever before, prepared to help students who are more diverse and more in need of various kinds of support, and prepared to satisfy the demands of a public that is asking its schools to do more and do it better.

As Goodlad (1994) pointed out, creating good schools depends on having an ongoing supply of excellent teachers. Arguing for the “simultaneous renewal of schooling and the education of educators” (1994, p.2), Goodlad also highlighted the fact that this connection seems to have been overlooked by researchers and writers on education reform. In 1996, the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future recommended “reinventing” teacher preparation and professional development (p.64). Darling-Hammond (1997) advocated investing in building the capacity of teachers and principals, as opposed to spending more on expensive education bureaucracies, in order

to improve the U.S. education system. According to Darling-Hammond, the policy of investing in large organizations that design and monitor teaching, instead of investing in creating knowledgeable teachers who can make decisions themselves, has drained resources from the classroom and led to failure at critical tasks of teaching. As a result, U.S. schools “offer less thoughtful teaching and produce lower average achievement than schools in many other countries” (p. 20).

Faced with the need for teachers who are better prepared than ever before, however, one must ask, are our teacher education programs up to the task? According to McIntyre, Byrd & Foxx (1996), teacher education programs historically have been ineffective. Ducharme & Ducharme (1996) state that graduates of teacher education programs “continue to indicate...that their preparation was inadequate” (p.1035). Most teachers indicate that they actually learn to teach during their first few years of teaching, rather than during teacher preparation programs of colleges and universities (Yinger and Hendricks-Lee, 1993).

It is not only graduates of teacher education programs who appear to be dissatisfied with these programs. Wideen, Mayer-Smith and Moon (1998), in a review of 97 studies on learning to teach, claim that the effects of preservice teacher education are not as great as preservice teachers’ own life histories as students and of the socialization process they experience in becoming teachers at a particular school. Britzman’s (1991) analysis of student teaching experiences led her to conclude that “the structure of learning to teach is fundamentally flawed” (p.221), a conclusion that Wideen et al found to be in accord with their own conclusion based on the studies they reviewed.

The failure of many current teacher education programs to accomplish the goals of teacher educators can be seen in their lack of impact on the views of preservice teachers concerning the theory and practice of education. Wideen et al (1998) state that the researchers in studies they reviewed, most of whom were teacher educators, often see the beliefs of preservice teachers as problematic. Additionally, Artiles, Trent & Kuan (1996) point out that a large proportion of recent studies on teacher education have focused on teacher educators' attempts to change the beliefs of preservice teachers. Still, in spite of the attention and effort teacher educators have given to this area, preservice teachers do not usually change their beliefs as a result of their preservice education. In fact, according to Stoflett & Stoddart (1992), they seem only to get better at defending the beliefs they already held.

Cohen (1991), cited in Ducharme & Ducharme (1996), found that graduates of teacher education programs tended to have negative reactions to the programs of teacher preparation they experienced at the university. It appears not only that teacher education programs have little positive impact on future teachers, but also that they often actually produce negative reactions on the part of their graduates.

If, as the foregoing discussion indicates, teacher education programs are not as effective as they should be according to teacher educators and unsatisfactory according to preservice teachers, what can be done to get better results? One approach is to take nothing for granted, to question every assumption and re-examine every aspect of these programs.

One aspect of teacher education programs that needs to be re-examined is the provision for field-based experiences. Field-based experiences include learning activities

such as student teaching or internships that take place in actual school settings. Teachers often claim that these experiences are the most important part of their educational program.

Recent teacher education reform movements have proposed increasing the amount of time preservice teachers spend in these experiences (McIntyre et al, 1996). Indeed, some teacher preparation programs, such as the one at the University of Tennessee, now include a year-long internship experience. However, Doyle (1990) stated that there has been a lack of research concerning the effectiveness of such field experiences. He also said that the findings of research done in this area show that "despite the widespread popularity and endorsement of field work and student teaching in the education of teachers, the consequences of these experiences are as much negative...as they are positive" (p.17).

Doyle also called for a change in the kind of research being conducted on teacher education, a change from research that only looks for treatment effects to research that seeks to explain "how a practice works and what meaning it has to teachers and students in a particular context" (p.20). Doyle (1990) claimed that a lack of understanding exists on the part of teacher educators concerning "how practitioners come to know and navigate practice settings" (p.18). Wideen et al (1998) argued for using a more ecological approach to research on the learning-to-teach process. Such an approach would do more than merely depict the preservice teacher as the problem in teacher education. Wideen et al recommended that the perceptions of teacher educators should be considered as "valuable and fundamental areas for investigation within the learning-to-teach ecosystem" (p. 170). Wideen et al asserted that an examination of the roles played

by supervising teachers and by the teacher educators themselves are often not found in the research.

Because teacher educators do not understand how prospective teachers' beliefs "interact with and filter program experiences" (p. 145), researchers need to examine this area, according to Wideen et al. (1998). For example, these researchers stated that the student teaching experience involves more tension and conflict than do other aspects of the preservice program, in part due to conflicting expectations and differences in perceptions between teaching candidates and teacher educators

In considering the foregoing discussion, one may fairly conclude that whether the teacher internship, or student teaching, tends to help or to hinder the development of preservice teachers in ways that ultimately benefit student learning is still open to question. Part of the puzzle that remains to be understood is what the internship experience is like for preservice teachers.

In this study, I sought to explore the meanings and interpretations of events within the internship as seen by the interns themselves, while also seeking to compare interns' interpretations of these events with those of teacher educators, supervisors and mentoring (also known as cooperating) teachers. The study involved former interns who were enrolled in various teacher education programs at the University of Tennessee.

Evaluations of the internship at the University of Tennessee, within the context of evaluating the overall teacher education program, have included survey questionnaires administered to graduates of the program. It is possible that the perspectives of interns regarding the internship have not been explored in sufficient depth to understand their

interpretations of these experiences. Such understanding is needed if those who seek to prepare teachers are to understand interns' reactions to various aspects of the internship.

Beisel (1997) studied teacher education interns at The University of Tennessee and found that they considered their internship to have been a valuable experience that prepared them to handle whatever they might face as beginning teachers. Key issues on which interns in her study shared similar views were discipline, paperwork, relationships with mentoring teachers, and relationships with students. They had dissimilar views on other issues, including whether university classes were useful in preparing them to teach, whether they were well prepared in regards to the subject matter of their discipline, and what constituted the worst problem they faced during the internship.

Beisel's study focused, in part, on interns' perceptions of the internship. However, Beisel's study differs in several ways from the study that I conducted. Beisel's data collection methods included, along with ethnographic observation and focus group interviews, individual interviews of interns; however, these interviews were a good deal more structured than those I conducted. Beisel asked 14 questions of each individual interviewed, eight of which were only indirectly related to their internship experiences. Of the other six questions Beisel asked, one is similar to the question I asked. Beisel asked the interns to tell about "what stands out most in your mind about the experience?" (p. 199). The entirety of each interview I conducted was concerned only with internship experiences. I asked interns to "describe in as much detail as possible" experiences they had during the internship.

In addition, Beisel's study was limited in that all the participants were involved in the same program (Holistic Teaching and Learning) within the College of Education, all

had the same courses/professors during their internship year, all were supervised in their internship by the same individual (Beisel, the researcher), all were seeking the same type of certification (Social Studies Education), and all interned in high school or middle school settings. Part of the methodology of the study I conducted was to select participants from a wider variety of settings, majors and programs within the College of Education.

Finally, and most obviously, a significant difference between Beisel's study and this one is that I conducted in-depth interviews of faculty, supervisors and cooperating teachers and compared the findings therefrom with the findings from the interviews of interns.

The aim of my study, then, has been to contribute to the study of teacher education by making a step in the direction suggested by the researchers cited above. As these researchers indicate, much remains to be understood concerning how interns and those who work with them interpret and react to events occurring within the overall internship experience. Increased understanding could point the way toward enhancing the effectiveness of internship programs and thus of teacher education in general.

My study sought to answer the following questions:

1. How do interns view the experiences they have during their internship?
2. How do university faculty, university intern supervisors and mentoring teachers view interns' experiences?
3. How do interns' views of their internship experiences compare to those of university faculty, university intern supervisors and cooperating teachers?

Methodology

Selection of participants

I used a purposeful sampling strategy called maximum variation sampling to select participants for the study (Patton, 1990). This approach was appropriate for this study because it “aims at capturing and describing the central themes...that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation”, according to Patton (p.172). Whereas a great deal of heterogeneity in a small sample, such as I selected, could be seen as a problem, Patton suggests that this strategy turns the weakness into a strength: “Any common patterns that emerge from great variation are of particular interest and value in capturing the core experiences and central, shared aspects or impacts of a program” (p.172).

The diversity in my small samples of interns, faculty, supervisors and cooperating teachers consist mainly of their being involved in different teacher education programs within the College of Education as well as their having numerous individual differences. Therefore, as Patton suggests, data collection and analysis should yield both detailed descriptions of each individual’s experience that will be useful to document their differences and shared patterns (if any exist) that “cut across cases and derive their significance from having emerged out of heterogeneity” (p.172).

I selected for interviews a total of 12 former interns, including at least one graduate from each of the seven units in the College of Education involved in teacher education. These participants were selected based on their having participated in an internship during the same academic year (1998-99) and on their willingness to talk openly and in detail about their internship experience. Eleven of the former interns were

female and one was male; all were 22-25 years of age, and all were white. Eight were elementary or early childhood majors and four were majoring in secondary education.

I also interviewed three faculty members, three intern supervisors, and three cooperating teachers from various teacher education programs within the College of Education. These were selected based on their availability to be interviewed and their willingness to talk about their perceptions of the internship experiences of interns with whom they worked. Of these nine participants, two were male and seven were female; their ages ranged from approximately 30 to approximately 60 years old and they were all white.

The Semistructured Life World Interview

Research on teacher education, as reviewed by Wideen et al (1998), indicates the presence of manifold perspectives and controversies among teacher education interns and the school and university personnel working with them. Because it enables one to capture the diverse views of participants, the phenomenological or semistructured life world interview was chosen for this investigation.

According to Kvale (1996), the purpose of a “semistructured life world interview” (p.5) is to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena. *Semistructured* refers to the interview being neither as rigidly structured as a questionnaire nor as unstructured as an open conversation.

Having appropriately secured the participants’ informed consent to participate in the inquiry and offering them reassurances concerning the confidentiality of their responses, I endeavored to put the interviewee at ease and establish rapport in the

interview situation. Kvale advises that it is important to “brief” and “debrief”

interviewees (1996, p. 127). As a form of briefing, I explained again the purpose of the interview, as follows:

(If the interviewee was an intern)

“Thank you, _____, for consenting to participate in this interview about your experience with the teacher education internship. As we have previously discussed, the purpose of this interview is to obtain concrete, specific descriptions of some situations that occurred during the internship and your reactions to those events. I will ask you about what you experienced and felt and did in dealing with these experiences. Would you like to ask any questions before we begin?”

(If the interviewee was a person who worked with interns)

“Thank you, _____, for consenting to participate in this interview about your experience with the teacher education internship. As we have previously discussed, the purpose of this interview is to obtain concrete, specific descriptions of some situations that occurred during the internship and your reactions to those events. I will ask you about what you experienced and felt and did in dealing with these experiences. Would you like to ask any questions before we begin?”

Debriefing was done by thanking the interviewee for participating, asking them if they had any questions, and informing them that I would send them a copy of the transcript of the interview upon request, so that they might review it for accuracy. I also reminded them that the findings of the study would be available to them, upon request, when the project was completed.

I used the wording in my opening question to each interviewee, as follows:

(If the interviewee was an intern) “Could you tell me, in as much detail as

possible, about an experience you had during the internship?” (If the interviewee was a person who worked with interns) “Could you tell me, in as much detail as possible, about an experience that an intern you worked with had during the internship?”

The opening question was worded this way in order to obtain descriptions of experiences that are meaningful to the interviewee, rather than those which the interviewer might be expecting or looking for. The opening question was also thus the same for all interviewees, so that a comparison might be made between which experiences or kinds of experiences interns chose to describe and which experiences or kinds of experiences those who work with interns chose to describe.

I also used additional probing questions, based on the interviewee’s response to the opening question, in order to achieve rich descriptions of the interviewees’ experiences. I sought specific, concrete descriptions of interviewees’ experiences, rather than general opinions about the internship. My aim, in keeping with a phenomenological perspective, was to gather data that describe experiences from the interviewee’s perspective, as free of interviewer interpretations and presuppositions as possible.

I also used active listening (defined as paraphrasing back to the interviewee what I understood his or her statements to mean) throughout the course of each interview to ensure that the interviewee’s perspective was understood in the way intended by the interviewee. Prior to and throughout the course of each interview I referred to an “Interview Reminder Checklist” (see Appendix A) to help me keep in mind the characteristics of an effective interviewer and criteria for a quality interview (Kvale, 1996). The interviews were recorded on audiotape and transcribed for later analysis.

Analysis of Data

I developed a thematic code from the raw data, using an approach described by Boyatzis (1998, p. 52) as a “hybrid” of the data-driven, theory-driven and prior-research-driven approaches to thematic analysis. The first step in this process was reduction of the raw information by reading each interview transcript, summarizing each unit of data, and creating a synopsis or outline of this summarized data for each transcript.

By comparing the outlines of summarized data for each intern interview, I was able to create a list of themes common to the intern interviews. I then wrote the themes in the format of a “quality code” as described by Boyatzis (p.49). He defines this as a code which includes a label, a description or definition of what the theme concerns, a description of how to know when the theme occurs, a description of any qualifications or exclusions to the identification of the theme, and examples, positive and negative, to help eliminate confusion in identifying the theme (p.53). I then repeated this process for the other groups of interview transcripts (i.e., faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers).

Having thus inductively created thematic codes for each group of interview transcripts, I was able to look for similarities and differences between or among the themes of the groups. At this point, I also began to look to relevant theory and prior research for points of comparison.

Limitations of the Study

Participants for this study were not randomly selected from among the populations of interns, university faculty, university intern supervisors and cooperating teachers at the University of Tennessee or elsewhere. Therefore, the generalizability of

the findings is limited by possible unique features of the participants selected for study. The data analysis is subject to the limitations of my own ability to accurately interpret data based on the procedure outlined by Boyatzis (1998), and others could, therefore, arrive at different interpretations by following a different approach to qualitative analysis.

Bias Statement

A number of elements in my own background have shaped my perspective on the teacher internship. In the course of teaching or helping to teach several classes taken by education majors, I became acquainted with a number of students who later completed an internship in the education program at the University of Tennessee. I also supervised interns for one year. These experiences gave me firsthand knowledge of some of the experiences that some interns went through during their internship and piqued my interest in the internship as a topic for research. Before undertaking this study, I already was inclined to believe that interns experience significant challenges during the internship year. Additionally, having previously studied counseling and having worked as a counselor for two years, I already was somewhat aware of the significance of interpersonal relationships in any setting.

Organization of the Dissertation

This study is organized into four chapters. This chapter provides information about the background, purpose and methodology of the study. Chapter Two contains a presentation of the findings from the interviews. Chapter Three includes a review of literature related to the themes of the interviews. In Chapter Four, I summarize the preceding chapters and discuss conclusions and implications from the study.

CHAPTER TWO

FINDINGS

This chapter contains the themes I derived from the interviewees' descriptions of internship experiences. Themes from the interviews of interns are presented first, and then themes from the interviews of faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers (FSMs) who worked with interns. Following the list of themes from each group's interviews, I describe each theme in detail, providing quotes from interviews that serve to illustrate the theme in the interviewees' own words. The last section of the chapter presents a summarization of all the themes.

As described in the previous chapter, I developed a thematic code from the interview data, using the approach described by Boyatzis (1998, p. 52) as a "hybrid" of the data-driven, theory-driven and prior-research-driven approaches to thematic analysis. First I read each interview transcript and summarized each unit of data (as defined by Boyatzis, 1998). Then I created a synopsis or outline of this summarized data for each transcript.

In the next step of analysis, I created a list of themes common to the intern interviews and another list of themes common to the faculty, supervisor and mentoring teacher interviews. Having thus inductively created thematic codes for each group of interview transcripts, I was able to look for similarities and differences between the themes of the two groups.

List of Themes

Themes from Intern Interviews

Intern Theme 1:

Interacting with others

This theme describes how interns perceived and responded to different people—mentoring teachers, supervisors, other interns, students and others—in the internship situation.

Intern Theme 2:

Learning Instructional Strategies

This theme describes the interns' efforts to create or find approaches to the tasks of teaching that fit themselves and the situation.

Intern Theme 3:

Juggling competing demands

This theme describes the interns' experiences of trying to prioritize and choose among various demands on their time and attention, and their feelings of not having enough time to accomplish everything that needed to be done.

Themes from Faculty/Supervisors/Mentoring Teacher Interviews

FSM Theme 1:

Interacting With Others

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of the ways interns affected and were affected by the various people – students, mentoring teachers, supervisors, other school personnel – in the internship situation.

FSM Theme 2:

Differing Perspectives

This theme describes perceptions of faculty, supervisors and mentors concerning conflicting views among faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers about significant aspects of the internship experience, and how those conflicting views affected interns.

FSM Theme 3:

Stress

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of the degree to which interns' experiences were difficult or problematic and how that affected the interns.

FSM Theme 4:

Learning Instructional Strategies

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of interns' efforts to acquire or develop various teaching skills in order to be successful in the internship.

Themes From the Intern Interviews

In this section, I describe and illustrate the themes I found in the interview data from interns. First, I list all the main themes from the intern interviews, with a brief description of each one, to give the reader an overview of how interns described their experiences. Then, I present a more detailed description of each theme, including quotes that illustrate and exemplify what the interns said.

Theme 1:***Interacting with others***

This theme describes how interns perceived and responded to different people—mentoring teachers, supervisors, other interns, students and others—in the internship situation.

Theme 2:***Learning Instructional Strategies***

This theme describes the interns' efforts to create or find approaches to the tasks of teaching that fit themselves and the situation.

Theme 3:***Juggling competing demands***

This theme describes the interns' experiences of trying to prioritize and choose among various demands on their time and attention, and their feelings of not having enough time to accomplish everything that needed to be done.

Descriptions of Themes**Intern Theme 1: *Interacting with Others***

The theme of “*Interacting with others*” describes how interns perceived and responded to different people—mentoring teachers, supervisors, other interns, students and others—in the internship situation. Interns viewed these interactions as either

problematic and stress-inducing or encouraging and supportive. Interactions with the same person or the same group could be challenging on one occasion and supportive on another.

Interactions with Mentoring Teachers

The interns' comments having to do with their interactions with others were mostly about interactions with their mentoring teachers. The relationship between the interns and their mentoring teachers was obviously of great significance in interns' perceptions of the internship experience.

Interns and their mentoring teachers did not always have the same perspective on situations in the classroom, nor the same style of classroom management. As one intern said, "I had to mimic her in so many ways, otherwise it was going to be chaotic," yet "I constantly reminded myself of how I would do it differently."

Interns did not always share these thoughts with their mentoring teachers, saying that they would wait until they had their own classrooms and could do things the way they saw fit. One stated that, "I thought, How can I do this when you're in here all the time?" but the intern did not say anything to the mentoring teacher about this problem because "in the internship year you've got to watch what you say and do and you don't want to step on any toes."

Some interns and mentoring teachers became "friends, not only inside the classroom—we still e-mail each other." One intern's mentoring teacher tearfully told her on the last day of her internship that she was "the daughter I never had."

Sometimes mentors were seen as being less supportive. One intern shared with the mentoring teacher some very laudatory comments that a parent of one of the students

made to her in a conference – “I don’t know how you’ve done it, but before my son didn’t want to go to college, and now he does because of you”—and several other compliments. The mentoring teacher, according to the intern, reacted with skepticism regarding the parent’s sincerity: “Oh, she’s good at putting on a show.” The intern reported that this reaction by the mentor “burst my bubble.” The intern said that, after this incident, “I never said another word to her about any compliments or anything the kids said about me or anything, because I was afraid she would do that again,” because “we [interns] are going through so much, and any little thing of reward we can take in, we’d like to keep it.”

Other interns noted how the mentors had an influence, simply by their presence in or absence from the classroom, on whether the students respected the interns. One intern stated that “the only time I felt like a teacher was...when the door was shut and I was able to do what I wanted to do, and help those kids.” This was not possible for one intern whose mentoring teacher “would not leave the classroom.” This intern stated that “with him back there...I felt like he was monitoring whether I did my job, like he didn’t have faith in me.”

As another intern, comparing two different mentors’ approaches, put it, “In one class, I’m having full respect because it’s only mine. In the other, I’m having to earn it a little more because the other teacher is in there while I’m teaching.” Another intern spoke of being “able to slowly work some of *me* in there” and of how the mentor’s absence “helped me teach like me and not her...and they did not question my authority.” In the case of this intern, the mentoring teacher’s week-long absence due to illness

became “the first time I felt like I could handle everything” and led to the realization of “how better I am on my own when I am not completely in someone else’s shadow.”

Interactions with Students

As suggested in the preceding paragraph, another concern of interns that relates to interpersonal interactions had to do with gaining the respect of the students, characterized by several interns as being seen as a “real teacher.” Interns described experiences in which they became aware of being regarded as not “just an intern” any longer, but as a teacher who deserved the students’ respect. Other interns spoke of having difficulty attaining “real teacher” status, which they attributed to various reasons, including the aforementioned problem with mentors who would seldom leave them alone with the students.

Descriptions of interactions with their students included comments such as “They test you,” from one intern and, “They drove me crazy some days” from another. However, interns were also aware of the students’ support for them. One said that, at times, “They were cheering me on.”

An intern who felt successful in building good relationships with students stated that “I let them know that I cared...I cared about if they learned or not.” This intern said that the students reciprocated by “letting me know that they cared that I cared,” that “I saw them as people, and they saw me as people in return.” According to this intern, this reciprocal caring “was what was significant...it makes me want to teach.” The intern also asserted, “I never had discipline problems with them, either.”

Another intern described dealing with a student who “had an anger management problem” and “had a bad attitude and would not do anything.” The intern talked

privately with this student and found out that he was not doing any work in any of his classes. Noticing that this student did read novels, the intern developed an agreement with the student that if he would read a certain book and “do projects” based on it, the intern would “get rid of some of the zeroes that he had.” The intern assigned him a novel about “a kid who had an anger management problem” and “he read it and loved it.” According to the intern, “every day he was reading that book...then he started to do his work, then he started to participate in class discussions; he hadn’t done that before.” The intern described an “amazing change I saw come over him” in the course of about six weeks. The intern went on to say that this incident “showed me what kind of, I guess, power I had in influencing these kids’ lives.” In this intern’s view, “I guess other people had just dismissed him, but I tried to work on him and something happened...I just listened to what he had to say.”

The intern quoted in the preceding paragraph also described how students in one of her classes created a booklet in which they all wrote “about how they were going to miss me and they wanted me to come back...and they had a wonderful semester and that sort of thing.” In the intern’s own words, “It was so, *ohhhhh*...that was my payment for the entire year of working for free, right there. That made it all worth it; they drove me crazy some days, but it was a good class.”

Another intern spoke of learning to deal with students as a “trial and error” process in which “you learn to pick and choose your battles” in order to accomplish what needs to be done. In this intern’s words, it was a matter of being “mean and nice” and of finding the answer to the question, “How tough can I be and still have them love me?” This intern felt successful: “I finally got there; it took all year,” but “they decided I was

okay.” The intern took it as a sign of having succeeded when “the child who barely spoke two kind words to you comes up and hugs you at the end of the year. You say, ‘See, I did okay.’”

Interactions with Other Teachers

Interns interact with other teachers in the school, besides their mentoring teacher. Describing an incident in which the intern lost control of the class-- “Something just completely came unglued, they were spiraling towards complete chaos...It was a nightmare.”-- when the mentoring teacher was out of the room, the intern described how another teacher quickly intervened when the intern called her. As the intern described it, the other teacher was “so supportive...I did not even feel like I failed. She did not ask me questions, she just said, ‘If you need me again call me.’” Summing up how it felt to be in this situation, the intern said, “I felt like I had a big huge safety net. And it was not just my mentoring teacher...it was the teacher down the hall and even the PE teacher or the music teacher.”

While the intern’s experience described in the preceding paragraph was obviously encouraging, other interns had experiences in which their interactions with other teachers were not seen in such a positive light. For example, one intern said that other teachers told her she was “too idealistic,” and that “...in four years I would be just like them (i.e., not so idealistic).” This same intern spoke of rivalry and competition among the faculty and how “they (certain other teachers) talked about him (a teacher the intern admired) so bad...they don’t like intellectuals.” This intern also described an incident in which she overheard some teachers demeaning a student, making fun of something the student had

written. According to the intern, "I didn't know how to react...an intern can't say, can't do anything, or they'll turn on you and your reference is gone. It's all political."

Interactions with Other Interns

Interns viewed their interactions with fellow interns as generally supportive. One said, "We complained, fought, and cried with each other. Everybody made sure each other got what they needed somehow. It was one of the greatest things about the whole year." The interns who commented on the topic saw having a cohort of other interns present in the same school and available to talk to as a very good thing. Their view is illustrated in one intern's comment that "we knew each other really well. I didn't feel isolated at all. It was always good when the interns could get together."

Another intern said, "It just helped to have the support team there...knowing that we're in this together." "It helped immensely if we could just all get together and talk about what's going on." These occasions were "very therapeutic...it helps you to keep going," this intern said. In the words of another intern, "When you were up at two a.m., chances are your phone was going to ring ten times from ten other people up doing the same thing. That is a great feeling."

Interns talked to other interns within their cohort about classroom situations. As one intern said, "We found out we had some of the same kids, and we could talk about those kids and how we could help them, and what was going on in each other's class."

Members of this intern's cohort helped each other with their action research papers, with teaching tasks, and in other ways: "Like if I wanted to teach some literature that was strongly connected to history, I could run to the history intern, who I know much

better than the history teachers, and I wouldn't feel inhibited to say, Hey, what can I tell them about history during this time period? And things like that."

One intern stated that "the support of the cohort was really amazing...because you had other people here who were going through the same thing. It was just a real stress reliever." For another intern, "the greatest thing that came out of this internship experience would not only be the things that I learned about myself, but I would have to say my friendship with _____ [another intern]." In describing their relationship, the intern related an incident in which _____ helped her get an important assignment printed out when her printer quit working. After explaining that she had always completed her work well ahead of the deadline, before the demands of the internship kept her running behind, she told how she called _____ crying and distraught late one night because she was unable to print out the assignment that was due in the morning. The other intern invited her to come to his apartment, but their efforts to produce the document were still in vain. They ended up going to a commercial copy store to use the system there. As the intern described the situation, "It is 2:30 in the morning and I am lying in the floor at Kinko's...and he printed them, stapled them together and put them in separate envelopes to be delivered to the professors the next day. It was like when you don't think you can take another step, he took them for me. It is like you meet these people who, when you just don't think you can do it, it just miraculously gets done. It teaches you how important relationships are in whatever profession you have."

Interactions with Others: Summary

As revealed by the interns' descriptions, interactions with various people play a major part in making the internship experience more or less difficult and challenging.

The emotional climate of the school and the classroom, the tenor of each day and the overall feel of the internship year, is built up of the numerous exchanges between people, whether respectful or insulting, discouraging or encouraging. The interns obviously felt this influence.

Intern Theme 2: Learning Instructional Strategies

This theme describes the interns' efforts to find approaches to the tasks of teaching that fit both themselves and the situation. This is the ultimate aim of the teacher internship, to provide interns with an experience in which they can be seen to have acquired, or at least to have demonstrated the ability to acquire, skills that will promote learning in students.

One intern described how the students influenced her in this learning process: "I let them lead me a little bit...it taught me to be flexible." As this intern stated, "I can't tell you how many times I was teaching a lesson...and I would say, 'Okay, who wants to switch gears?'" This intern said that it "became like this joke," that when she realized that a lesson was not working as hoped for, she only had to say, "Okay..." and the students would pick up on her hesitation and say, "Are we switching gears?"

Another intern spoke of trying "anything and everything to get them to open up," to get students involved in classroom discussions and interested in the subject matter of the class. "I would always try to make the material relevant to them, so that they could connect with it somehow."

When the students told this intern that she "looked like the type of person who would hang out in coffee shops and read poetry, a beatnik," the intern, an English teacher, decided, "Okay, here's a learning opportunity...we're going to learn about the

beatniks then.” The intern assigned groups of students to explore different aspects of the beat generation, beatnik poetry and writers, and music of the era. One group was responsible for creating a café atmosphere in the classroom, with candles, incense, coffee and appropriate foodstuffs. The intern gave students extra credit if they wore all black clothes. According to the intern, she had not planned to do all this, “but they kept bringing up the fact that I was a beatnik...”

This same intern described efforts to get students in another class involved in talking about literature. Nothing seemed to work until they had a class discussion on freedom of speech and “why they were not allowed to cuss in school.” According to the intern, “After that discussion, they never shut up for the rest of the semester.” The intern also attributed the students’ increased level of involvement to her sharing of stories about her college roommates, “including psychotic roommates.” The intern said that “they always liked to hear my roommate stories, because I could just connect somehow, with life and how people are now, with literature back then...then they’d give me their stories and their experiences...and on and on...and they would just never shut up after that.” The intern also spoke of being able to connect reading a novel, *Fahrenheit 451*, with the students’ concerns about their own freedom of speech: “Everything that they discussed in this freedom of speech discussion had to do with them.”

Another intern looked for ways to overcome students’ resistance and negative emotions. The intern “got them working on group projects,” which led to the students getting to know each other better. The students progressed from “making fun of each other” at the beginning of the year to “taking up for each other” by the year’s end, according to the intern.

When this intern's students seemed to be "in bad moods every day," the intern would "turn on a song and make them sing it at the top of their lungs to get them laughing--as soon as I felt their negativity, I got them laughing." The intern said she told the students, "Every time you act like this I'm gonna bring in the worst song imaginable and sing it to the top of my lungs...and of course they started laughing and forgot what they were complaining about."

Another intern described overcoming her own lack of confidence in herself in order to begin trying different strategies in the classroom: "It took me all the way through March" to make the transition from "just imitating the mentoring teacher" to "doing stuff I came up with that I didn't even clear with them [the mentoring teachers]." The intern spoke of reaching the point where "I was starting to act on what I thought would be good to do."

One intern described how one of her mentoring teachers helped her learn by giving constructive criticism: "She kept a running feedback journal...she was very encouraging," noting that the mentor would never say, "You did this horrible, this was just a mistake." Instead, the intern said the mentor's comments were more along the lines of "I just needed to work on it a little bit, change things around a little" to get better results. This intern attributed the mentoring teachers' encouraging attitudes to the fact that "they both had been teaching no more than five or six years, so they were still developing what they want to do." In this intern's view, they were "more willing to try things" than the mentoring teachers of some other interns who were older and "weren't willing to try anything." The intern described the older mentoring teachers as having an

attitude of “this is how we’ve always done it, this is how we’re gonna do it--we don’t need to try anything else.”

From these and other descriptions of their experiences, it is apparent that the interns perceived the internship as an opportunity to experiment with instructional strategies. They sought to find what worked for them and their students in different situations. One intern’s statement sums up the approach that she perceived as leading to success, as she and her mentoring teachers worked together: “We had all these different teaching styles going on...and it just worked, because we all learned...we’d kind of feed off each other’s ideas.”

Intern Theme 3: Juggling competing demands

This theme describes the interns’ experiences of trying to prioritize and choose among various demands on their time and attention, and their feelings of not having enough time to accomplish everything that they were expected to do. During the internship, interns work full-time in the school. Additionally, in this particular program, they are taking several graduate-level university courses during the internship year, working toward the completion of a master’s degree. Added to these duties, at least for a number of interns, was the need to earn at least a part-time income. It is not hard to see why many interns find it difficult to have to choose among a number of competing demands on their time and find ways to get everything done, and why the internship year is a challenging and stressful one for interns.

One of the main conflicts for many of the interns involved feeling responsible for the learning and well-being of their students while also trying to fulfill their own responsibilities as graduate students themselves. As one intern put it, “I had to let go of

the AR [action research] project. They [the students] are the important ones, not that thematic unit I'll never use." The interns sometimes perceived the work they were asked to do for their graduate classes as being less important or less relevant than what they were trying to accomplish in the classroom with their own students.

One intern described the frustration of feeling that "the *real* lessons were going on in the classroom with students I did not have time for, because I was leaving to go to another class or another meeting or to work on another lesson plan." Referring to the work required for her graduate classes versus being in the classroom with students, this intern said, "I don't believe that the amount of work our cohort was expected to do in any way made me a better teacher."

This same intern described as "hypocrisy" the way that the college professors told them to tailor instruction to the specific, individual needs of their students while at the same time "expecting us to turn in these projects that were pointless." The intern stated that "it gets to the point where it is just ridiculous because the quality of work you're turning in is not your best when you've been up all night doing it and you have 30 other assignments almost exactly like it." As the intern put it, "That will still burn me up probably five years from now."

Another intern said, "I had to let that paper go, because I was being as good of a teacher as I could...I couldn't write the best action research paper I could because if I did that I wasn't being the best teacher I could be. I needed to put my full effort into teaching." This intern stated that "it was really difficult for me, because my whole life I've felt like 'I have to do the best.'" Having to choose between "looking good to the

university supervisor” and doing what she believed to be best for her students was “very hard for me.”

Other interns addressed the sheer amount of work expected of them during the internship year. One intern stated, “I will never forget how overworked I was this year, ever.” Another said that “it was very hard, dealing with projects, plans, everything all at once.” A third described the internship as follows: “This year was tougher than the four undergraduate years combined. It pushed me harder than anything I ever did—I never could see an end to the work to be done.” In the words of another, “Time was always an issue. In college you can go without sleep...you can’t do that in the internship.”

Added to the stress of conflicting expectations and the volume of work they had to do was the pressure of financial worries and other problems that interns experienced outside the actual school situation. While some interns found their mentoring teachers and university supervisors to be sympathetic and understanding of these difficulties, others had experiences like the one described below:

The fall semester was terrible. It was like they [mentoring teachers and university supervisor] didn’t understand how much pressure I was under...they did not understand. I couldn’t get a loan. I was living off close to nothing, working at a law firm and waiting tables and going to classes and teaching. I was malnourished, crying all the time, not getting enough sleep, and I had no money. I was trying to make them understand this, and they wouldn’t. They thought I was going out every night, trying to live a college lifestyle. They treated me like I wasn’t responsible, like I wasn’t able to make the transition. Money was the main thing. And I got sick. I got strep throat twice, and I ended up getting shingles. They thought I was making up sickness, but it was because I was worn out and not eating like I should. In the spring semester I stopped working because I got loans, and I haven’t been sick because I’ve been able to eat right. I’m taking vitamins and exercising.

The competing demands interns experienced can be summarized as: the teacher role versus the student role; the need to get all the work accomplished versus the need to take care of oneself financially, emotionally and physically; and the need to do quality work versus the need to do a large quantity of work. Having to choose, or to prioritize among, these demands was a source of challenge and difficulty for the interns.

Themes from Faculty/Supervisors/Mentoring Teacher Interviews

In this section, I introduce, describe and illustrate the main themes I derived from the FSMs' descriptions of interns' experiences. First, I list all the main themes from the interviews, with a brief description of each one, to give the reader an overview of how FSMs described the interns' experiences. Then, I present a more detailed description of each theme, including quotes that illustrate and exemplify what the faculty, staff and mentoring teachers said.

FSM Theme 1:

Interacting With Others

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of the ways interns affected and were affected by the various people – students, mentoring teachers, supervisors, other school personnel – in the internship situation.

FSM Theme 2:

Differing Perspectives

This theme describes perceptions of faculty, supervisors and mentors concerning conflicting views among faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers about significant aspects of the internship experience, and how those conflicting views affected interns.

FSM Theme 3:

Stress

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of the degree to which interns' experiences were difficult or problematic and how that affected the interns.

FSM Theme 4:

Learning Instructional Strategies

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of interns' efforts to acquire or develop various teaching skills in order to be successful in the internship.

Descriptions of Themes from FSM Interviews

FSM Theme 1: Interacting With Others

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of the ways interns affected and were affected by the various people – students, mentoring teachers, supervisors, other school personnel – in the internship situation. FSMs perceived these interpersonal interactions to be a very significant aspect of the internship experience.

The nature of the mentor-intern relationship was seen as important by the FSMs. They commented on the degree of similarity between mentors' and interns' teaching styles, which I would call “mentor/intern congruency,” as well as other aspects of the mentor/intern relationship.

A supervisor described her perceptions concerning the dissimilarity between one intern's classroom management preferences and the style of the cooperating teacher: “She [the intern] believed very strongly in a lot of structure and discipline. The teacher where she was interning at that time was quite laid back, had a less-structured classroom, not as well-planned.” The supervisor saw the mentoring teacher's style as “laid back,” and allowing the children “more freedom;” The supervisor said that the mentoring teacher “could tolerate a higher level of noise or movement” while the intern “wanted things to be quiet and orderly.” As the supervisor saw it, this intern was “struggling with

how she could make her style fit in this teacher's classroom and at the same time keep her own sanity."

The same intern, later in the year, had a different mentoring teacher who "had a very quiet classroom, much more organized and methodical in her approach." The supervisor said that the intern "recognized that maybe that wasn't exactly what she wanted, which is what she thought at first she would be more comfortable with." The supervisor said that the intern decided it was "really good for me to be with both teachers to get two perspectives" and that she wanted to be "more in the middle" between the two.

One mentoring teacher said that "the only real concern we didn't get away from" was a difference in how she and the intern interacted with students. The mentoring teacher said that the intern "got to be very strict, probably over what I was at that time," and that she had to work with the intern on "approaching things a little bit more positively" when the intern was too negative about a student's work. The mentoring teacher went on to express the belief that "you discipline by personality," which makes it "really hard I think to get someone to lighten up." Evidently recognizing that she and her intern had different personalities, the mentoring teacher said, "I joke around and cut up a lot, I like a lot of joking and getting my students to respond. But that's not always effective for everyone."

Despite differences in their approaches to classroom management, the mentoring teacher and intern described in the preceding paragraph had a "good relationship," according to the mentoring teacher. "In fact, we e-mail each other all the time now... So we got along really well. We were friends outside of the room, too."

Another mentoring teacher spoke of how university and school personnel who make decisions about which intern would work with which teacher took personalities into account so that the two might “mesh” better. According to this mentoring teacher, “My intern and I last year were not just alike, but we had a similar kind of style, which is nice. So it was a good year.” This mentoring teacher described her relationship with the intern as a very good one: “She’d call me at night if she had a question or problem. Sometimes we’d just call to chat. It was a great relationship, really smooth.”

The same mentoring teacher described her approach to offering suggestions and criticism to the intern as based on the belief that the interns are “grownups.” This mentoring teacher said, “I offer a certain amount of help, but I also want them to ask for help, because I don’t want to step on toes. There is a fine line between giving them some help and guidance and stepping on toes.” The intern in this case was able to listen to criticism, according to the mentoring teacher: “She always tried to take the suggestions and the advice...and she went back and did it again.”

From the perspective of one university faculty member, by about midway through the internship, interns come to think that “they’re ready to spread their wings” and that the university is “just in their way.” The faculty member attributed the interns’ feelings, in part, to “that whole thing between the classroom, which is relevant and exciting and...stuff we’re just hounding them to do.” Yet, as the year drew to a close and interns were preparing a presentation for the benefit of university faculty, the faculty member noted that “it was real important for them to show their professors how they’ve developed...they want us to be proud of them, even though they cuss us regularly.”

FSM Theme 2: Learning Instructional Strategies

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of interns' efforts to acquire or develop various teaching skills in order to be successful in the internship. FSMs were obviously aware of the interns' efforts and challenges in this regard, and devoted time to helping the interns learn to teach.

A university supervisor described the intern's reaction after teaching a math lesson "totally on her own" for the first time: "I was speaking in German and nobody recognized the language. She was totally amazed that they didn't understand what she was saying." The supervisor recounted how the intern "took it many steps further in analyzing her own language, how she had talked over their heads" and then worked at trying to understand "how she could bring the mathematical terms down to a level that they could understand." The supervisor described this intern as "what I call a thinking teacher, one who is able to reflect and really think about their practice and then adjust accordingly." This particular intern's ability and inclination to reflect on her practice was "striking to me because she was able to do that to such an intense degree." The supervisor noted that not all the interns find it easy to do so.

A mentoring teacher described her intern's approach to learning to teach in very positive terms, saying that the intern "was very enthusiastic and willing to learn, and really sought out constructive criticism, if you want to call it that, or suggestions." Of this intern, the mentoring teacher said, "Usually every time after she taught a lesson she would immediately ask for feedback, and would of course happily take the positive comments. The things she needed to work on, she was always really good about accepting those suggestions and trying something different."

Another mentoring teacher saw her intern struggling to develop several skills, including aspects of planning lessons and units of instruction. The mentoring teacher said the intern found it “really hard to know how to sequence the lesson so you get all the parts you’re looking for...I think the most challenging thing for her was to learn how to put together, not just a whole lesson, but a whole sequence of lessons around a theme.” This mentoring teacher stated that “it’s much easier to take the mentoring teacher’s ideas and do those instead of having your own.” The mentoring teacher wanted the intern to come up with her own ideas, “but at first...it seemed like she really needed a lot of help in putting that together.”

The same mentoring teacher also described having difficulty in getting the intern to prepare and plan ahead for math lessons. As the mentoring teacher put it, “I’ve taught the math for years, and I tried to explain to her that I used to take it home every night and go over it.” The intern saw the mentoring teacher not having to write out detailed plans, and so apparently thought it was not necessary to do so. According to the mentoring teacher, “I’ve had to work on...getting them to plan, or the steps in planning.” The mentoring teacher said she realized that “I’m modeling the practice of not planning the math...even though to me I had planned it cause I’ve taught it so long.” Recognizing that the intern saw her as not planning, the mentoring teacher said she intended to start “going back and helping to fill in the steps of planning” with the intern.

One mentoring teacher described how the intern grew during the year, going from “just starting to feel her way and being serious, or just straightforward with the kids” to a point where “she was able to loosen up and be herself” more, and “able to go with that teachable moment, or with being silly.” To this mentoring teacher, it is growth when an

intern starts out “always sticking by the lesson plan...and everything’s really serious” and then moves to being able to “have fun with the class and to joke around with them.”

According to the mentoring teacher, by the fourth or fifth week the intern “started to open up and loosen up and be silly and realize that there are a lot of situations where the kids really respond to that.” The intern “learned how you could be silly and go with the moment and then bring them back,” the mentoring teacher said, “and that’s learning how to do something, because a lot of people can’t do that.”

FSM Theme 3: Differing perspectives

FSMs detected differences in the ways university faculty, university supervisors and mentor teachers see important aspects of the internship experience, and those differing perspectives affected interns. Interns had to choose among the different tasks required by the classroom setting and by university coursework. Sometimes the expectations of university faculty and supervisors were not congruent with those of cooperating teachers. These differences ranged from basic philosophical assumptions, to views about the relative importance of various tasks, to a lack of coordination in the timing of activities. FSMs saw that dealing with the differing perspectives was a challenge for interns.

A university supervisor described a situation in which one intern did not measure up to certain expectations that the supervisor had, yet was given high marks by school personnel at the internship site. The supervisor said, “I never thought she was very strong, and the teachers and assistant principal raved about her all year long.” The supervisor thought “it was just her personality,” and wondered if “there may be a difference in what we’re looking for, on the university level, as opposed to what the

classroom teachers are looking for.” Part of this difference was that, though the supervisor admitted the intern performed well in the classroom, “It was difficult to get her to be reflective.” The supervisor said that “pushing her to think was always hard.” Yet the supervisor was aware that “in the classroom, from the teachers’ standpoint, she always did what was required of her and beyond, on time and ahead of time.” As the supervisor noted, “There were no problems with her from the teachers’ standpoint. It was my frustration with her in trying to move her to the next level. She performed very well. I wanted her to think, along with it.”

One mentoring teacher perceived that the intern she was working with was struggling with the differing expectations and competing demands between the university and the school. The mentoring teacher said, “I know that she did feel torn. She felt like she didn’t do as much as she wanted to here because she had so many other things to do.” It was not only a question of having only so much time, either. According to the mentoring teacher, some times “expectations weren’t clear” as to whether the intern should fulfill duties like helping children to their buses (which the school expected them to do) when doing so would mean being late for graduate classes. The mentoring teacher also observed that there was a lack of coordination between the university and the school that showed when projects required for university classes did not fit well with the school calendar. According to the mentoring teacher, “if they’re involved with teaching, it’s very hard to sit and observe.” The mentoring teacher also noted that the intern was moved to another classroom at about the same time a certain project was due, making it hard to complete the project. Or, as the mentoring teacher put it, “She was frustrated

sometimes that...assignments for the university didn't fit well with what was going on at school."

In sum, FSMs were aware that university personnel and school personnel do not always have the same goals or standards in mind in dealing with interns, and that the school and the university do not always coordinate their efforts well. Interns can be "caught in the middle" between these differences.

FSM Theme 4: *Stress*

This theme describes FSMs' perceptions of the degree to which interns' experiences were difficult or problematic and how that affected the interns. Faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers recognized that many aspects of the internship experience tended to produce stress reactions in interns, and that interns also had problems in their personal lives that caused stress.

As one supervisor noted, "Our job is to get them through the internship, but we can't get them through that internship if their personal lives are so dramatic that they can't." Considering all that the interns have to deal with, the supervisor said, "They're just in a very hard place...it's a hard year for them, and I cannot ignore what's happening to them personally. I just have to recognize that that impacts what happens while they're in school with us." This supervisor pointed out that "they don't have money" and that the time investment required is difficult: "To be there by 7:30 they have to leave their houses much earlier. Most of them stay well beyond 3:30, and then they do work at night." As the supervisor put it, "Most of them have never had that intense of an experience before."

A cooperating teacher identified still other factors that complicated the life of the intern: "I had a baby, and she had knee surgery." She recognized that these "memorable events" were also "distracting...from having time to plan and do things."

As one university faculty member stated, "Especially in the spring, when that action research paper was due, it required a lot of long hours late at night. All of the interns struggle with that. A lot of them, in the beginning, are just physically exhausted."

One supervisor noted that an intern who had been sick with lupus and stayed out of school for a year "had some flare ups during the year...that definitely impacted her." One intern "also struggled with a lot of personal issues, and was making some really big decisions regarding things going on in her personal life...but she was able to keep the two [personal life and internship responsibilities] separated." The supervisor of this intern said that "some of them [interns] will talk about it and some won't" but that such things do affect the interns' performance in the internship.

Part of the stressfulness of the internship is that "You've got somebody watching you all the time, potentially to critique everything you do," one mentoring teacher remarked. Being evaluated is never easy; feeling like you are being evaluated continually can be very difficult. One university faculty member described the internship as being "like a year-long interview."

Some supervisors and mentoring teachers tried to help interns relax and put things in perspective. Describing an incident in which the intern made a mistake in teaching a lesson, the mentoring teacher said, "I just tried to make it funny and not that big of a deal. I think it seemed like a big deal to her. As an intern you don't always have the big picture. I knew we would go over the topic again and again and again."

As pointed out in the section above on “differing perspectives,” FSMs seemed to recognize that incongruencies between what the university and the school expect of interns are another stressful aspect of the internship. One intern “felt torn” between the two, according to a mentoring teacher. Another mentoring teacher said that the intern “felt like she didn’t do as much as she wanted to here because she had so many other things to do.”

Summary

Learning Instructional Strategies, a theme from the interviews of both interns and FSMs, describes the ultimate aim of the teacher internship. The internship is intended to provide interns with an experience in which they can be seen to have acquired, or at least to have demonstrated the ability to acquire, skills that will promote learning by their students. As might be expected, this was a major area of concern for interns and those who work with them.

Both interns and FSMs also described a significant element of the internship experience as consisting of *Interacting with Others*. Interns deal with university faculty and supervisors, mentoring teachers and other school personnel, students, and other interns. The nature of their interactions with others had a strong influence on how the interns viewed the entire internship experience.

FSMs described interns as being faced with *Differing Perspectives* on important aspects of the internship; university personnel and school personnel have different views on what, how and when things should happen in the internship. FSMs are also aware that

the internship itself as well as events in the personal lives of interns contain a number of elements that tend to produce *Stress* for the interns. Relatedly, interns see themselves as *Juggling Competing Demands* for their time and effort as they try to fulfill their responsibilities to the university, the school and to themselves.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter I establish connections between the themes from the interviews in this study and similar or related themes found in the literature of teacher education and adult education. The review of literature is divided into sections based on the themes derived from the interviews. These sections are entitled: Interactions With Others, Learning Instructional Strategies, Differing Perspectives/Competing Demands, and Stress.

Interactions With Others

During the course of the internship experience, interns interact with many people. One of the most significant relationships for interns is the relationship with their mentoring, or cooperating, teacher. Interns also interact with supervisors from the university or college, students, other teachers and school personnel, parents, and other interns. All of these relationships affect the interns in various ways.

The mentor/intern relationship

Numerous studies have dealt with the impact of the mentor/intern relationship on future teachers, as the following discussion indicates. Mentoring programs and their effects are a popular subject in the literature of teacher education and adult education. Many school systems are endeavoring to develop effective mentoring programs as an antidote to the continuing problem of teacher burnout.

Clark (2001) found that effective mentors guide new teachers in sharpening their skills, honing their instructional approaches, and helping shape their attitudes toward

teaching and their students. By being in contact daily with the new teacher, mentors can help alleviate the isolation that many new teachers feel and help to minimize feelings of uncertainty. Mentors help new teachers realize success sooner and overcome the feeling of being overwhelmed that can doom them to failure.

Clark stressed the need for mentors to adapt their mentoring approach to individual teachers' strengths and needs, to build the relationship through listening and establishing trust, and to guide rather than try to manage the protégés. Clark pointed out that mentors who empower teachers to examine their own instructional practice and provide feedback through post-observational dialogues help protégés to recognize the elements of their successes and thus improve their self-confidence and willingness to work hard at creating lessons that they are confident will be successful.

According to Clark, many first-year teachers have idealistic notions of what their students can achieve, while others have considerable self-doubt about their capacity to teach. "Without practical intervention by supportive teacher mentors, both extremes can lead to disillusionment and abandonment of teaching careers," Clark contended (p. 3).

Clark also found an additional benefit to such mentoring relationships. Mentors in the study felt that they had learned from the process, and that being a mentor increased their own sense of meaningfulness and making a contribution in having helped ensure that the next generation of teachers develops the skills and understanding they need to do a good job.

Holloway (2001) reported findings from a number of other studies that support those of Clark. Assigning experienced teachers to guide and support novices enhances the professional development of both, according to Holloway.

Research indicates that well-designed mentoring programs lower the attrition rates of new teachers (National Association of State Boards of Education, 1998). Hegstad (1999) cited psychosocial benefits related to mentoring, as well as career-related benefits.

It is important to point out, however, that mentoring programs need focus and structure in order to be effective. Kyle, Moore, and Sanders (1999) asserted that prospective mentors need to learn about the mentoring process and what is expected of them before assuming their duties. Their research also showed that mentor teachers need the opportunity to discuss ideas, problems, and solutions with other mentor teachers.

Holloway (2001) stated that appropriate training improves the quality of a mentoring program. Holloway cited Evertson and Smithey (2000) to the effect that novice teachers working with trained mentors possessed a higher level of teaching skills than new teachers whose mentors were not trained, indicating that the mere presence of a mentor is not enough; the mentor's knowledge and skill related to mentoring are also crucial.

Giebelhaus and Bowman (2000) studied a large-scale mentoring program, Pathwise, a formal induction process developed by the Educational Testing Service for prospective teachers and their mentors. Their data analysis indicated that prospective teachers who had mentors trained in using this discussion framework demonstrated more complete and effective planning, more effective classroom instruction, and a higher level of reflection on practice than did new teachers whose mentors only had an orientation program. The researchers concluded that formal induction program models like Pathwise work by providing a framework for discussion, reflection, and goal setting and that they

lead to more effective teaching by novices. This is convincing evidence, according to Holloway (2001, p. 2), that “a focused, systematic mentoring program has a positive influence on the performance of new teachers—and is advantageous to mentors as well. Above all, this support for new teachers benefits their students.”

Janas (1996) agreed with Holloway’s conclusions, pointing out that, despite being ubiquitous, mentoring programs still are not well understood as to their goals and development. Janas described the process of staff development needed for establishing effective mentoring programs, addressing how to select and train mentors, match mentors with protégés, set goals and expectations, and establish the program. Janas portrayed the staff developer as a “mentor of mentors” within this process.

According to Janas, the staff developer seeking candidates to become mentors should look for people with the expertise, commitment and time available to help protégés. Citing Freedman (1993), Janas asserted that the characteristic of willingness to nurture another person is most frequently mentioned as being needed for mentoring. Janas also mentioned the qualities of being “people-orientated, open-minded, flexible and empathetic” as desirable, along with having “collaborative and cooperative skills... receptiveness, responsiveness, openness and dependability”, citing Freedman & Jaffe (1993) and Shaughnessy and Neely (1991).

Janas also suggested using questionnaires, surveys and personality inventories such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator; effective teaching instruments to assess knowledge and skill levels; an inventory to assess duties and responsibilities; an inventory of counseling skills (Stupiansky & Wolfe, 1992); and a professional

development plan as means to inform decision-making regarding the selection of mentors.

Noting that successful mentoring behavior can be taught (Gray and Gray, 1985), Janas recommended having orientation sessions and an ongoing program on effective mentoring as part of mentors' training. Janas also pointed out that training in communication and active listening techniques, relationship skills, effective teaching, models of supervision and coaching, conflict resolution, and problem solving are areas that are often included in workshops for mentors (Thies-Sprinthall, 1986).

Asserting that the relationship between the mentor and the protege is the "heart of the supportive process" (Freedman, 1993; White-Hood, 1993), Janas mentioned several points to be considered when establishing mentor-protégé pairs. These include, but should not be limited to, administrative convenience. According to Janas, a successful mentor/protégé relationship depends on both parties' willingness to be involved. Also to be considered are personal and professional traits; gender; and ethnic, racial, cultural or class backgrounds.

The staff developer should be involved, at varying levels of intensity, in supporting the mentor throughout the duration of the mentoring relationship, according to Janas. Staff developers need counseling, mediation and negotiation, intervention, and supervisory skills in order to successfully support the mentor and model the mentoring process.

Turk (1999) offered a mentoring model built on the concept of mentoring teams. Through what Turk calls "reciprocal, collegial teaming"(p. 1), new teachers get support while experienced teachers are able to share the responsibility of mentoring and support

one another in the process. Mentoring teams allow new teachers to see themselves as team members, creating a climate in which they can share in two-way conversations and not just be the recipients of one-way communication. In traditional mentoring programs, one person must assume myriad roles and tasks. In a teaming environment, several members with various skills and expertise can assume various mentoring roles, broadening the support and dividing the responsibilities.

Denmark and Podsen (2000) stated that teachers who are asked to mentor often have very little training on how to coach and mentor while teaching full time. The mentor teacher should possess certain competencies, such as understanding the mentoring role, initiating the relationship, and creating a climate of peer support.

According to Denmark and Podsen, mentoring new teachers is beneficial for experienced teachers and should be considered an important form of professional development. Mentor teachers should be given support and training to become successful mentors. A formal mentoring program established in schools could help the new generation of teachers to have a more successful rite of passage into the teaching profession.

Harwood, Collins and Sudzina (2000) reviewed studies of student teacher failure and examined reasons for students withdrawing from student teaching at one university during 1994-97. Reasons for failure were classified as either personal characteristics, performance indicators or contextual factors. Conflict with cooperating teachers was one of the contextual factors leading to withdrawal from student teaching. The researchers suggested that teacher education institutions should select and educate cooperating teachers carefully in order to address this reason for withdrawing.

A study by Moore (2000), in which the researcher investigated how decisions were made in selecting elementary school cooperating teachers and placing student teachers, found little or no coordination between the formal organizations of universities and school districts. The decision-making process regarding student teacher placement consisted of a series of separate, small decisions made by different individuals with little or no coordination between them. Each participant saw only his or her own role and did not view the process from a systemic perspective. Principals interviewed could not describe objective, written criteria for selecting cooperating teachers. One university placement director estimated that only 10 percent of placement decisions were made in a thoughtful manner.

Phillips and Baggett-McMinn (2000) examined the guidelines used by 71 state-sponsored colleges of education in the southeastern region of the United States for selecting cooperating teachers to work with student teachers. According to the researchers, most institutions appeared to use state-mandated requirements only as guidelines, waiving the requirements when they deemed it necessary to do so.

Highlighting the importance of selecting properly qualified cooperating teachers, Phillips and Baggett-McMinn stated that their study revealed variability among the states and among the institutions within each state as to minimum qualifications for cooperating teachers.

In 82% of the institutions surveyed, decisions regarding placement of student teachers are made by the university. The remaining 18% of the institutions rely on principals, superintendents or a combination of a school administrator and university

personnel to make these decisions. The researchers stated that improved communication between cooperating teachers, colleges of education and student teachers would improve the placement process. They concluded that though differences in opinion exist as to who should have the final say in making student teaching placements, it appears that colleges and schools are making efforts to collaborate and that colleges are making increased efforts to consider needs of the schools in this process. They noted other trends toward requiring training for supervision and increased education levels for cooperating teachers.

Phillips and Baggett-McMinn recommended requiring all cooperating teachers to have masters degrees, at least three years experience teaching, and certification and ongoing training in supervision. They also recommended having university supervisors and cooperating teachers attend yearly training together.

The studies cited in this section, taken together, make a valuable contribution to the literature on the mentor/intern relationship. The studies by Denmark and Podsen (2000), Moore (2000), and Phillips and Baggett-McMinn (2000) point out areas of possible weakness in the selection and preparation of mentoring teachers, while Clark (2001), Holloway (2001) and Janas (1996) offer research-based recommendations for strengthening mentoring programs.

Supervising Interns

Interns also interact on a regular basis with supervisors from the university or college. Supervisors evaluate the interns' skills and make suggestions for improvement, usually in consultation with the mentoring teacher. Because the supervisors' evaluations

determine whether or not the interns complete the internship experience successfully, this relationship is of great significance to interns.

In a review of literature concerning what makes a “good supervisor” for counselors-in-training, Borders (1994) contended that while potentially good supervisors are born, all benefit from certain kinds of training experiences. Borders described good counselor supervisors as having many of the same qualities that good teachers and good counselors have. These qualities include being empathic, genuine, open and flexible; they also include respecting their supervisees as persons and being sensitive to individual differences of supervisees.

According to Borders, giving clear and frequent indications of their evaluation of the supervisee's performance is an important characteristic of good supervisors. Even more important, Borders stated, is that good supervisors really enjoy supervision, are committed to helping the counselor grow, and show commitment to the supervision enterprise by their preparation for and involvement in supervision sessions. Good supervisors function at a high level conceptually, know their own strengths and limitations as a supervisor, and can identify how their personal traits and interpersonal style may affect their supervision. Borders also contended that good supervisors have a sense of humor which helps both the supervisor and supervisee get through difficulties together and achieve a healthy perspective on their work. According to Borders, such personal traits and relationship factors are considered to be as significant as technical competence in supervision.

Borders stated that, in terms of professional characteristics (roles and skills), good supervisors are knowledgeable and competent counselors, have extensive training and wide experience in counseling, and are able to employ a variety of interventions. They choose these interventions based on their assessment of a supervisee's learning needs, learning style, and personal characteristics. Good supervisors seek ongoing growth in counseling and supervision through a variety of means. Good supervisors also have the professional skills of good teachers and good consultants. Borders asserted that they are able to function in any of these roles at any given time with a particular supervisee.

It stands to reason that the same characteristics of a good supervisor of counselors apply to those who would supervise student teachers. In both instances, the supervisee is being prepared to function as a helping professional. Counseling and teaching share many of the same underlying theories, goals and approaches.

Even if counseling and teaching were not similar in these ways, in both cases the aims of supervision are to help the supervisee to acquire knowledge, skills and dispositions needed for success in the respective professions. Supervisors in both situations observe, instruct, encourage and evaluate their supervisees. Therefore it is logical to assume that characteristics of a good supervisor of counselors and a good supervisor of student teachers would be very much alike, if not identical.

Kauffman (1991) discussed barriers to effective supervision of student teachers by university personnel. Kauffman examined factors related to the system of supervision, i.e., to interactions among members of the supervisory triad, rather than the personal qualities of supervisors. Kauffman cited incongruent role expectations on the part of

cooperating teachers and university supervisors, and a lack of substantive communication and collaboration between school-based and university-based personnel as the main factors hindering effective supervision.

Kauffman also mentioned that the literature indicates that the cooperating teacher seems to have greater influence on the student teacher, perhaps because of proximity, than the university supervisor does. Ideas such as eliminating the university supervisor's role altogether, or delineating more explicitly the differing roles for cooperating teachers and university supervisors, are also discussed in the literature.

The solution to these problems, as proposed by Kauffman, lies in promoting better communication, collaboration and understanding among all the parties involved. Kauffman concluded that collaborative efforts have manifold benefits, helping student teachers to incorporate both theoretical and practical views into their teaching and allowing cooperating teachers and university supervisors to create a working relationship based on mutual respect and understanding for each others' expertise, perspectives, and roles.

Dye (2002) addressed three dimensions of the supervisory relationship as described in recent literature on counselor supervision: the relative importance of the relationship within the total supervision process; variables which influence the relationship; and how the relationship differs when working with experienced versus inexperienced counselors. Results of research suggest that the ability to form and sustain relationships is more important than certain knowledge and skill factors, and that effective supervisory behaviors can be learned, Dye stated.

The relative importance of the relationship and the role it plays varies according to theoretical orientation, according to Dye. Some see the relationship as the only important factor in supervision, others as necessary but not sufficient to explain success.

The personal characteristics of the participants and a number of demographic variables affect the relationship between supervisor and supervisee. What Dye calls “static factors”, such as gender and sex role attitudes, supervisor's style, age, race and ethnicity, and personality characteristics are all factors that have received attention in research literature. Dynamic factors are those that may exist only at certain stages of the relationship, or that vary in degree or form. They include process variables (stages: beginning vs. advanced; long term vs. time limited); and relationship dynamics such as resistance, power, and intimacy.

Conflict, another dynamic factor, occurs in all relationships, and the supervisory relationship contains a number of potential sources of conflict, Dye contended. Mutual respect can help reduce conflict in the relationship, and Dye stated that the supervisor, having the role with more power, should take the lead in modeling this attitude so that the supervisee will follow.

Dye stated that what is good supervision depends on the developmental level of the candidate. Supervisors of inexperienced counselors serve in the role of patient teachers, with an emphasis on structure and instruction. The need for instruction lessens as students gain experience, and the supervisory relationship should provide support for advanced students as they assess and reassess their own competencies and qualifications.

Dye also advocated teaching explicitly about roles and expectations in order to minimize threats to the supervisory relationship.

Dye's (2002) study provides a very thorough analysis of factors influencing the nature of the supervisor/intern relationship. As do Borders (1994) and Kauffman (1991), Dye focuses on the nature of the relationship between the supervisor and the intern, more than the supervisor's knowledge and skills related to practice, as crucial to the effectiveness of supervision. All three of the authors cited find that effective communication, mutual respect and understanding are key ingredients in a successful supervisory relationship.

Developing Interpersonal Skills

How people interact with each other in school situations is a matter of concern, not only to the interns in this study, but to many researchers as well. Numerous studies have addressed the issues of how teachers relate to students, to colleagues and to others. This aspect of the professional life of teachers is extremely significant, as the ensuing discussion will show.

Researchers have identified the relationship between interns and their mentoring teachers as being one of the significant factors affecting teacher interns (Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998). Barbour (1989) noted that personal relations with pupils, peers and supervisors were a major concern for student teachers. Brickey (2001) highlighted the importance of establishing good relationships between learners and those who seek to facilitate learning, citing a number of researchers from the field of adult education who addressed this issue (Pratt, 1993; Apps, 1996; Peters and Armstrong, 1998). Knowles'

(1980) writings on adult learners yield the conclusion that the relationship between the learner and the facilitator constitutes the heart of facilitation of learning. Robertson (1996) urged educators of adults to develop trusting, caring relationships with adult learners while at the same time noting that the field of adult education neither adequately prepares nor supports adult educators to manage the dynamics of helping relationships. Collinson (1996) concluded that teachers need training in order to become highly skilled interpersonally, so that they can in turn teach their students. Doxey (1996) found that relationship characteristics were viewed by student teachers as more important than professional expertise for both cooperating teachers and faculty advisers. Oberski, Ford, Higgins and Fisher (1999) found that teachers sought to establish good relationships with their students and with colleagues, and suggested that teacher education programs incorporate training in interpersonal skills into the process of preparation of teachers.

Breitborde (1996) made a convincing argument for the necessity of incorporating training in interpersonal skills into teacher education programs, pointing out that the learning experience depends on the nature of the relationship between teacher and student and that creating community in the classroom is a necessary precondition for learning.

Breitborde contended that attending to human relationships in the classroom is also part of a teacher's social responsibility and that teachers must learn relationship skills in order to model them for their students. According to Breitborde,

“communication, role taking, empathy...ought to be integral parts of the classroom experience. Teachers should model these skills, using them to facilitate problem solving, democratic decision making, and conflict resolution” (p. 370).

Breitborde further stated that the key to creating and sustaining classroom communities is educating for mutual respect, asserting that these goals are attainable only if teachers themselves have these attitudes and skills, and if they understand that it is their responsibility to teach them directly, consistently and persistently. Finally, Breitborde asserted that “the most powerful and pervasive influence in this process is a morally committed teacher whose knowledge of how to create a classroom community is born of personal experience” (p. 373).

Garmston and Weltman (1998) described ways to promote beneficial conversations among professional colleagues, highlighting the differences between dialogue and discussion. Hall and Hall (1988) called for increasing the emphasis on human relations in educational settings and in teacher education. They also argued that learning human relations skills is best accomplished through experiential learning in a low-structure group format.

Although analysis of the studies reviewed in this section may reveal a humanistic bias on the part of many if not all of the authors cited, I would contend that supportive relationships do more than merely make people feel good—they also help people learn more effectively. Breitborde (1996), Brickey (2001) and others (see the ensuing discussion of empathy) come to the same conclusion.

A Key Interpersonal Skill: Empathy

Empathy is a key element in supportive relationships. If interns, mentors, supervisors and others are to understand each other, they must learn to empathize, to put themselves in the other person’s place and see things as the other person sees them.

According to Hammond, Hepworth & Smith (1977), empathic communication involves a willingness to seek to grasp the meaning of another's experience from that person's perspective instead of seeking to impose meaning on the other's experience from outside. Empathy is "understanding *with*" (p.3) another person, as opposed to understanding them from one's own perspective. Empathy, focusing on the feelings that the other person expresses, contrasts with sympathy, expressing one's own feelings of care or compassion.

Rogers (1975) stated that empathic communication also includes more than just reflecting the other person's feelings; it involves sensing the significance to that person of their experiences. It includes the ability to detect the other's meanings, even meanings that the other person is using, yet only barely able to recognize.

Empathic communication includes not only recognizing or becoming aware of the other person's inner world, but also conveying this recognition to them in a way that helps them feel respected and, if not completely and perfectly understood, at least that the listener is committed to working at understanding them. Rosenberg (1999) has stated that empathy is a "respectful understanding of what others are experiencing" (p. 77). He has suggested that empathy requires being "wholly present with the other party and what they are experiencing" (p. 79) and that this quality of "presence" is what distinguishes empathy from either sympathy or mere intellectual understanding.

The ability to convey accurate empathy to the client is "the most fundamental, vital, and complex therapeutic skill," according to Hammond et al. (1977, p.2). They described the therapeutic benefits of empathy, including its being one of the main ways of establishing a relationship between therapist and client. Another benefit of feeling

empathically understood is that one is more likely to take the risk of disclosing deep and personal feelings. In an environment of empathy, where one's feelings are accepted as valid, self-defense and self-protection become less necessary than is usually the case. This situation makes it easier to explore one's own feelings and underlying patterns of thought and belief.

In order to solve "external" problems, situational factors that are creating difficulties, an accurate understanding from the *other's* (client, student, child, spouse, etc.) perspective is needed. In other words, it is not only feelings that may need to be explored, but also objective situations. While the other's view may not be the only source of information on the problem, it is certainly one important source. In other words, empathy is an important means of data-gathering and fact-finding (Kohut, 1984; Reed, 1984).

Empathic responding is closely related to respect, or unconditional positive regard. According to Buber (1966, p.12), respect involves "acceptance of otherness". Or, as Strupp (1973, p.282) asserted, "The respectful counselor displays a commitment to understand, conveyed through attentiveness and empathic recognition of the client's views."

Reed (1984, pp.12-13) gave seven ways of describing empathy. According to Reed, empathy is:

1. both knowledge and communication
2. simultaneously a capacity, a process, and an expression
3. an ability to sample others' affects and to respond in resonance to them
4. a method of data gathering
5. an inner experience of sharing in and comprehending the psychological state of another person

6. a special method of perceiving
7. a means of communication and of nonrational understanding

Pao (1983, pp. 152-153) defined empathy from Sullivan's interpersonal perspective:

To make use of one's empathic capacity to understand another person's needs and wants is not a solo activity. It is a process in which the two participants—the one who desires to understand and the one who desires to be understood—must both participate actively. Together, these two participants will gradually set up a more and more intricate “network” of connected communication.

Chessick (1998) described empathy as taking the position of another person, a process or activity in which “our imagination moves from ourselves into the other person” (p.490). He stated that empathy may involve experiencing physical sensations like those experienced by the other person, or only imagining what they are experiencing, or both. Chessick also traced some of the history of the concept of empathy in psychotherapy and psychoanalysis, with an emphasis on the views of Kohut. According to Chessick, Kohut posited three functions for empathy: as a fact-finding tool, as a means of creating a powerful psychological bond between people, and as an essential ingredient for sustaining human life, providing needed acceptance, confirmation and understanding. Kohut increasingly came to see empathy as important in psychotherapy and all human relationships, according to Chessick .

The kind of self-exploration promoted in a relationship characterized by empathy can facilitate reflection on one's practice. One reason this is needed is that stated by Glasser (1993): self-evaluation is a better approach to evaluation than evaluation by others, because evaluation by others tends to be resisted whereas self-evaluation can lead more readily to change. Evidently this concept has gained some acceptance among those

responsible for evaluating teachers and interns, at least in some states. For example, the State of Tennessee's evaluation process for teachers and interns now begins by having the person who is being evaluated complete a "self-assessment worksheet" before the evaluator(s) actually complete their observations and appraisals (Tennessee Department of Education, 1997).

According to Rogers and Freiberg (1994), certain qualities in the relationship between the teacher and the student are facilitative of significant learning. These facilitative qualities are empathic understanding, genuineness and acceptance or caring. Research has indicated that students benefit in several ways from having teachers who are skilled at relating facilitatively (Stoffer, 1970; Wagner & Mitchell, 1969). Students of such teachers have shown greater gains in reading achievement (Aspy, 1965). They exhibited more learning, more problem-solving and more creativity (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994). According to Schaps and Solomon (1990), development of a caring community-- based largely on the aforementioned concepts of facilitative ways of relating-- led to more effective promotion of the intellectual, social and moral development of the children (in studies conducted in classrooms in seven elementary schools in two different California school districts).

Rosenberg (1999) described a situation in which college faculty learned to listen empathically and express themselves more honestly and vulnerably. As a result, their students talked more openly about problems that were interfering with their studies. This led to the students doing more and better work.

Empathic communication is an important element in conflict-resolution and helping students learn to behave prosocially. Learning to relate to people who are

different from us, learning to build connection and acceptance among diverse people, is important for interns and the students they will work with. Empathy offers a way to do this (Wittmer, 1992). Schmuck (1966) found that when teachers were empathically understanding, students in their classrooms tended to like each other better.

Damon (1995) has recommended what he calls "respectful engagement" as the best approach to teaching. Empathic communication is a major element of respectful engagement. Respectful engagement includes the notion that it is necessary to understand where students are in their thinking before we can hope to bring them to where we are.

In an article written shortly after a violent incident in a Columbine, Colorado high school, Wagner (1999) stated that the greatest concern of most students is not physical violence but that "their schools are uncaring places where lack of respect is the norm" (p.48). He also cited a recent report showing that only 41 percent of public school students surveyed said that most of their teachers treated them respectfully. In the same survey, Wagner stated, 64 percent of the students said they would learn "a lot more" from teachers who cared about them personally. Wagner also called for educators to be held accountable, not only for test scores, but also for how they treat students. He advocated all schools assessing their school climate, that is, how people treat one another at the school. To promote teachers getting to know and care for their students better, Wagner suggested that school organizational units be smaller and that teachers spend several years with the same group of students. He stated that, in schools that have done so, student behavior and achievement have shown dramatic improvement. Wood (1998) described similar benefits in a high school where every teacher (as well as every other

member of the school staff) met daily with a small group of students for approximately half an hour, with the primary purpose of getting to know and care for students who might otherwise have little meaningful interaction with an adult at school.

Crabb contended that "helpful conversations" for people with problems "can occur in a variety of settings with a variety of people, not just with psychotherapists during clinical sessions" (1997, p.199). "The critical feature of all successful therapy...is the therapist's skillful management of the patient-therapist relationship" according to Strupp (1966, p. 1017). Or, as Crabb asserted, "*people who are good at relating are people whose words will be helpful*" [italics in the original](1997, p. 199). While teachers would not necessarily be expected to become "therapists", they could indeed relate to students and to other school personnel in ways that are therapeutic and beneficial.

Education personnel are capable of learning these skills. Myrick & Folk (1991) stated that school-age students can become very effective in helping other peers by learning facilitative communication skills. Rogers & Freiberg (1994) asserted that both teachers and prospective teachers can be helped to develop facilitative ways of interacting with others, and that "these facilitative ways are learned most rapidly in schools where the administrator maintains a facilitative environment for the teachers" (p.342). It is possible for any teacher to develop these skills, according to Rogers and Freiberg.

Yalom (1975, p. 524) called group training a "highly valuable teaching technique" and cited among the benefits of such an experience enhanced relationships and communication among the participants (if the group is led properly). Yalom also discussed desirable qualities of the leader of such a group. He advocated the leader not

having an evaluative role: “The group becomes a far more effective vehicle for personal growth and for training if led by a leader outside the institution who will play no role in student evaluation” (p. 527).

The best training for a facilitator is the experience of learning to be more of oneself with a group, according to Rogers and Freiberg (1994). The group provides an opportunity for experiential learning and the group leader a “model for the conditions of a good interpersonal relationship,” according to Patterson (1985, p. 187). Patterson also recommended a group size of between 4 and 10 members. This size would provide a good number of opportunities for all members to interact while not overtaxing the ability of the leader. Patterson also recommended that such groups be heterogeneous in membership.

The literature of research on human growth, development and learning places great emphasis on human relationships. Researchers in the fields of teacher education and adult education point to relationships—human interactions—as a significant factor influencing learning in a wide variety of situations. The literature reviewed in the preceding section reinforces the notion that relationships affect learning, and that people can and should learn to improve their ability to interact supportively with each other. Teacher interns and those who work with them could benefit from doing so, and in turn could help make our schools better places for children to learn and grow.

Learning Instructional Strategies

The internship provides an opportunity for interns to put into practice in a real-life setting things they have studied, heard about, talked about and observed others doing. Such an opportunity promises to clarify, deepen and vivify the interns' understanding and increase their skills.

This section of the literature review examines what other researchers have written that is relevant to this aspect of the preparation of teachers. Although not all teacher educators may think of them as being so, interns are adults and the literature of adult education is relevant to understanding how interns perceive their educational experiences. Internship experiences can provide opportunities for reflection on one's beliefs, aims and preferences as a teacher; internship experiences can also present challenges to the interns' intent to learn.

Interns as adult learners

Interns and teachers should be seen as adult learners, and principles of adult education should be applied to teacher education in general, and to the internship in particular. Logically, principles of adult education should be considered relevant for planning and conducting teacher education, since preservice teachers can be considered to be in the early stages of adulthood (Craig & Baucum, 2002). In fact, many of the ideas and principles found in the literature of adult education have already been accepted or espoused as worthwhile by teacher educators.

Wadlington (1995) emphasized the need to encourage early childhood teachers to be active problem solvers and lifelong learners in their work with children. Wadlington

suggested applying adult education theory to early childhood teacher education, including the concepts of autonomy or self-directed learning, using the preservice teacher's experience, and concern with practical application of knowledge.

According to Imel (1989), the literature of adult education generally supports the idea that adults' education should be conducted differently than that of children and adolescents. This belief, according to Beder and Darkenwald (1982), is based on "informed professional opinion; philosophical assumptions associated with humanistic psychology and progressive education; and...research and theory on adult learning, development, and socialization" (p.143).

Based on the assumption that teaching of adults should differ from teaching of children, Malcolm Knowles' model for adult education known as *andragogy* has been quite influential. The andragogical model portrays adults as wishing to be self-directed; as having an accumulated body of experiences that can serve as material for learning; as being more focused on solving problems than on learning subject matter for its own sake; and as typically being more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated to learn (Knowles, 1973, 1980).

In Knowles' own words:

"I speculate, with growing support from research...that as an individual matures, his *need* and *capacity* to be self-directing, to utilize his experience in learning, to identify his own readiness to learn, and to organize his learning around life problems, increases steadily from infancy to pre-adolescence, and then increases rapidly during adolescence" (1973, p. 43).

Despite the fact that Knowles (1980) modified his views somewhat, from seeing pedagogy and andragogy as polar opposites to seeing them more as points on a

continuum, this description of the needs and capacities of adult learners is still accurate and still provides sound guidance, I believe, for conducting programs for the education of adults.

Importantly, Knowles also asserted that “the problem is that the culture does not nurture the development of the abilities required for self-direction, while the need to be increasingly self-directing continues to develop organically” (1973, p. 44). While Knowles is evidently referring, in the preceding quote, to the culture of the United States in general, or even to the broader realm of modern culture as a whole, it seems particularly appropriate to apply this insight to the culture of our educational system. The culture of education traditionally has been based on pedagogy, which, being largely didactic and directive, would apparently offer little nurturance for the abilities required for self-direction. Preservice teachers, having come through the traditional educational system, are not well prepared for assuming greater responsibility for their learning. At the same time, being adults, they feel a need to do so, according to Knowles.

The skills needed to be a self-directed learner can be developed, according to a number of authors. A collection of essays in *Developing student autonomy in learning* (Boud, 1981) provides practical suggestions for developing the independent capacity to learn in postsecondary students, according to Houle (1992). Gibbs (1981) provides exercises that can be used to help solidify habits of independent learning for those who have had little experience with anything other than didactic instruction.

Klevans, Smutz, Shuman and Bershad (1992) described self-assessment as an approach to professional development that provides educational guidance yet leaves the individual in control of his or her own professional development. They noted that

traditional views of continuing professional education make an assumption that professionals are skilled lifelong learners who can accurately identify their own learning needs, choose appropriate learning experiences and select the most relevant material from these experiences. This assumption is unwarranted, according to these authors. They state that it is unlikely that professionals have acquired such skills through the course of their preprofessional and professional education programs, because such programs seldom foster self-direction and independence in learning. If this is true of established professionals, it must also be true of novices such as student teachers and interns.

The program of self-assessment described by Klevans et al was developed for professional development of architects in Pennsylvania. Their article cited here also mentioned that other professions were exploring the possibility of creating similar systems. The authors suggested other ways to help professionals examine and reflect on their practice in order to understand their own learning needs better, such as critical incident techniques, chart audits and peer learning projects.

Van Halen-Faber (1997) described the use of narrative as a means of facilitating a change in student teachers from a perspective of being passive receptive learners to being “thinking, rational, intuitive and decision-making teachers” (p.53). Van Halen-Faber described attempts to design educational experiences that increased the involvement of intern teachers as researchers of their own learning. Teacher education programs could be improved if attention were given to these and other ideas that might be characterized as helping teachers learn how to learn.

Echoing Knowles, Jennett and Pearson (1992) contended that “professionals seek learning that is practitioner-directed, experience-based, and organized around practice problems and context” (p. 29). Learning that is linked to practice, that incorporates professional, personal, social and environmental factors; and that facilitates networking with experts and peers “has been found to enhance both performance change and outcome” (Jennett and Pearson, 1992, p.29). They specifically refer to individual learning contracts, evaluated and monitored by a reviewing body of peers, as being found to be an effective means of conducting professional development activities for physicians. The same design could be applied to teacher professional development.

Van Halen-Faber (1997) stated that “fostering a spirit of inquiry characterized by critical reflection allows adult learners to become ‘researchers of their own learning’” (p.52). When student teachers are encouraged to begin to view themselves as researchers and as lifelong learners, they “move toward the thoughtfully responsive way of teaching generally found in more experienced teachers” (Van Halen-Faber, 1997, p.52). Van Halen-Faber cited Williams (1992) to this same effect.

Mezirow (1990a) proposed a transformation theory of adult learning, in which adult learners reassess assumptions made during their formative years through critical reflection on the way they have perceived, known, believed, felt and acted. Distorted views of reality can be addressed and corrected. “Disorienting dilemmas” (1990a, p. 13) can be catalysts leading to transformation of one’s perspective. Experiences such as student teaching or teacher internship would likely fit the definition of disorienting dilemma, since they can often provoke self-questioning and re-examination of one’s assumptions.

Reflective practice and Experiential Learning
in Adult Education and Teacher Education

Reflective practice has become a commonly accepted and widely espoused idea in the field of teacher education and professional development. University personnel participating in this study declared an intent to promote reflective practice on the part of interns, and interns showed evidence of having thought about and modified their practices. This section of the review of literature examines the concept of reflective practice as seen in the literature of adult education and of teacher education.

The concept of reflective practice has gained widespread popularity in academic and educational circles since the publication of two books by Donald Schon, *The Reflective Practitioner* (1983) and *Educating the Reflective Practitioner* (1987). In these seminal works, Schon put forth the argument that “a new epistemology of practice” (1987, p. xi) is needed in order to improve education in the professions.

Schon claimed that professional schools traditionally have given privileged status to knowledge developed through scientific research and neglected the “competence and artistry already embedded in skillful practice” (1987,p.xi). Schon is credited with coining the term “reflection-in-action,” defined as practitioners “thinking what they are doing while they are doing it” (p. xi), to describe an important aspect of the competence and artistry exhibited by skillful practitioners. Schon stated that he believes “education for reflective practice, though not a sufficient condition for wise or moral practice, is certainly a necessary one”(1987, p. xiii).

The problem with the traditional approach, “technical rationality” (p.xi) (application of research-based knowledge to instrumental problems of practice), is that professionals sometimes face situations of uncertainty, uniqueness and conflict in their practice, situations that do not fit the pattern learned in the professional school. There is a gap between research and practice. The practitioner faces a dilemma: choose “rigor” (defined by tradition as knowledge generated by the research university) or relevance (defined by the practitioner as what actually works in the real world of practice)?

Schon gave examples of practice situations where mere technical problem-solving would not be possible. One such situation is where the practitioner must perform problem-setting before he or she can do technical problem-solving. How the practitioner “names and frames” a problem depends on many different variables, including her or his background, role, interests, and political and economic perspectives. Unique cases require that the practitioner improvise, inventing and testing strategies that he or she has created rather than strategies “from the book.” Other examples are where the practitioner must choose “a problem worth solving” (p.6), or where conflicts among values mean that there are no clear ends indicating the appropriate choice of means.

Schon made the assertion that practitioners and critical observers of the professions have come to see the “indeterminate zones of practice”(p.6)--situations of uncertainty, uniqueness and value conflict--as being of central concern. Yet these situations do not fit within the bounds of that which is addressed by technical rationality. For example, “When a problematic situation is uncertain, technical problem-solving

depends on the prior construction of a well-formed problem—which is not itself a technical task” (p.6).

Schon pointed out that the professions are increasingly being criticized for failing within these indeterminate zones, and that there is a “crisis of confidence in professional knowledge” (p.8). Consequently, professional schools are being blamed for not preparing professionals for effective, ethical practice. The problem, according to Schon, is technical rationality.

The foundational assumptions of technical rationality cited by Schon are two: 1) that academic research yields useful professional knowledge, and 2) that teaching this professional knowledge prepares students for “real-world” practice. According to Schon, both these assumptions are questionable and are being increasingly questioned. Academic researchers are increasingly seen as having little to say that is useful.

Schon’s description of the foundational assumptions of technical rationality fit very well the model of teacher education as it has traditionally been conducted. His explanation of the dilemma faced by teachers in making a choice between “rigorous” academic-research based knowledge or “relevant” practical knowledge clearly states what preservice teachers have often declared: The theory they learn in their coursework does not apply to the “real” world of the classroom. This dilemma described by Schon is reflected in the theme of Differing Perspectives based on faculty/supervisor/mentoring teacher interviews in this study. Faculty and supervisors from the university tend to see practice in terms of research and theoretical knowledge, while practitioners rely on practical knowledge in addressing problems.

Schon contended that “inherent in the practice of professionals we recognize as unusually competent is a core of artistry” (p.13). Artistry is a kind of knowing that, though different in important ways from the standard model of professional knowledge, is rigorous in its own terms. Carefully studying the performance of unusually competent practitioners would enable us to learn about artistry.

Schon used a geographical metaphor to illustrate the relationship between applied science and research-based technique, on the one hand, and artistry, on the other:

“In the terrain of professional practice, applied science and research-based technique occupy a critically important though limited territory, bounded on several sides by artistry. There are an art of problem-framing, an art of implementation, and an art of improvisation—all necessary to mediate the use in practice of applied science and technique” (p.13).

Schon advocated looking to education in the fine arts, where learning by doing is emphasized, for ways to enhance education in the professions. The artistry of practitioners of the fine arts closely resembles the artistry of extraordinarily competent lawyers, physicians, managers, and teachers according to Schon; therefore it would be beneficial to examine how students in fine arts acquire competence through being initiated into the traditions of the practice by senior practitioners in the context of practicum experiences. Schon advocated changing educational institutions to include the reflective practicum as a crucial part of professional education.

Addressing educational practice, Brookfield (1995) focused on *critical* [emphasis added] reflection as an aspect of reflection in general. He asserted that reflection is critical when it has the purposes of understanding “how considerations of power undergird, frame and distort educational processes and interactions” and of questioning

“assumptions and practices” that “work against our own best long-term interests” (p. 8). Because “forces present in the wider society always intrude into the classroom,” teachers need to become aware of “the oppressive dimensions of our practice” (p. 9), Brookfield wrote. He thus linked reflection in general to the issues of power and oppression that concern critical theorists.

“The most distinctive feature of the reflective process is its focus on hunting assumptions” (p.2) according to Brookfield. Brookfield defined assumptions as “taken-for-granted beliefs” that seem so obvious we feel no need to state them explicitly (p.2). He sorted assumptions into three broad categories—paradigmatic, prescriptive and causal. Paradigmatic assumptions are “basic structuring axioms” so fundamental to our beliefs that we strongly resist examining them because we take them to be “objectively valid renderings of reality” (p.2). Prescriptive assumptions are beliefs about what ought to happen in particular situations, e.g., how teachers should act. They are extensions of paradigmatic assumptions. Causal assumptions, easiest to uncover, describe how things work by predicting that if we do a particular action, certain results are bound to occur.

According to Brookfield, discovering and examining causal assumptions is only the beginning of the reflective process. Once we discover causal assumptions, we must then “work back to the more deeply embedded prescriptive and paradigmatic assumptions we hold” (p.3). How can we uncover our assumptions? Those which have most influence over us are “too close to us to be seen clearly by an act of will” according to Brookfield (1995, p. 29). And we tend to seek out others who share our views; rarely do we deliberately look for evidence that might tend to disconfirm what we believe.

Brookfield suggested that we examine our own autobiographies as teachers and learners, feedback from our students, the experiences of colleagues, and theoretical literature as means of gaining different perspectives on our teaching.

One reason that critical reflection is needed is because “we never have full awareness of our motives and intentions, and since we frequently misread how others perceive our actions,” according to Brookfield (p.1). This leads to the frustrating perception that things do not work out as they should in our practice and we judge ourselves as incompetent. “A critically reflective stance” (p.2) toward our practice can help us avoid being trapped in frustration. Another important insight mentioned by Brookfield is that experience is not always the best teacher, so to speak. Experience that is not analyzed critically is not necessarily reliable; it may not represent wisdom but only repeated experience due to our distorted, self-fulfilling interpretive frameworks that have never been examined in light of any alternative viewpoints.

Brookfield cited six reasons why it is important to learn critical reflection: 1) it has utilitarian benefit, helping us take informed action; 2) it helps us “know why we believe what we believe” (p.23); 3) it helps us avoid blaming ourselves for things we do not actually control, such as some student resistance; 4) it grounds us emotionally, helping us to realize that the educational process is not merely chaotic but actually shaped by our deeds; 5) it enlivens our classrooms, creating an emotional climate where risking failure and change is acceptable and “providing a model of passionate skepticism” (p.25); and 6) it increases democratic trust, creating a certain moral tone and political culture in the classroom.

Brookfield's concern is to "create the conditions under which people can learn to love one another" (p.26). According to him, critical reflection is "anchored in values of justice, fairness and compassion" and "urges us to create conditions under which each person is respected, valued, and heard" (p.27).

According to Brockbank and McGill (1998), Dewey advocated linking knowledge to the lived experience of learners, and not just to abstract ideas. Dewey argued that to learn from experience involves taking action, experiencing the results, and making a connection between the action taken and the results thereof. Activity alone, without making this connection, does not amount to learning from experience, according to Dewey (1916).

According to Mezirow (1990b), dialogue plays a central role in fostering reflection in adulthood. He speaks of adult education as "centrally involved in creating and facilitating dialogic communities to enable learners to engage in rational discourse and action" (p.354). Through engaging more fully and freely in rational discourse learners are able to validate ideas and take consequent action.

This being so, Mezirow asserts that transformative learning through reflection is an interactive and intersubjective process, not a private one. It is through being exposed to differing perspectives and participating in critical discourse with others that the learner verifies a new reality.

Caffarella and Barnett defined reflective practice as "the process of bringing past events to a conscious level and of determining appropriate ways to think, feel, and behave in the future" (1994, p.38). Villar (1995) quoted Dewey (1933, p. 9) for a definition of

reflection: the “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and further conclusions to which it tends.”

Van Manen (1977) suggested three stages of reflection, corresponding to three different forms of knowledge: 1) *technical rationality*, concerned with the application of scientific knowledge to problems as defined by the traditions of the profession; 2) *practical action*, focused on understanding the interaction of individuals, clarifying values underlying differing educational aims and evaluating the educational consequences of teaching actions; and 3) *critical reflection*, in which moral and ethical criteria are incorporated into the consideration of practical actions, with reflection on underlying assumptions informing practice.

Like Van Manen, King and Kitchener (1994) also claimed that reflective practice occurs at different stages or levels. Their seven-stage Reflective Judgment Model describes levels of development of reflection. In this model, truly reflective thinking occurs at the higher stages of development. At these stages, knowledge is constructed from a variety of sources and is the “outcome of reasonable inquiry” (p.71) involving the construction of solutions to ill-structured problems. Beliefs are “justified probabilistically on the basis of a variety of interpretive considerations” (p.72).

A study by Marienau (1999) focused on the benefits of self-assessment for promoting learning and personal and professional development. According to Marienau, the capability for self-assessment is a “critical dimension underlying reflective practice” (p.135).

Practical thinking, according to Marsick (1990), is what Scribner (1984, p.9) defined as “all thinking embedded in larger activities and that functions to carry out the goals of those activities.” Marsick also cited Usher (1988) as contrasting practical thinking with formally constructed theory. Practical thinking might be thought of as “unexamined, habitual, routine responses and thinking” (p. 42), according to Marsick.

In the sense just described, practical thinking is standard operating procedure for teacher interns. It is synonymous with “knowing-in-action” (Schon, 1983, 1987) or tacit knowledge.

However, in a slightly different sense, practical thinking can be construed to mean thinking based on practice, or thinking about practice from a practitioner’s point of view, as opposed to thinking based on “formal” research or formal theory. This conception of practical thinking is in harmony with Usher’s (1988) view of practical thinking as being in contrast to formal theory. .

Practical thinking, conceived of as thinking about practice on the basis of the experiences of practice instead of on the basis of formal theory, is in line with ideas about experiential learning. In fact, I would say that practical thinking so conceived is synonymous with experiential learning. Therefore, I use the terms “experiential learning” or “learning from experience” to include the notion of practical thinking.

Dewey (1916) identified four essentials for learning: experience, reflection, ideas, and fixing what has been learned. Experience involves a situation from the learner’s experience to stimulate interest and action, real problems or projects that are personally significant. Reflection includes information and observations about the

situation. Ideas are suggested solutions for the problem. Fixing refers to testing ideas by application, which makes the meaning clear and validates ideas to the learner.

Dewey's approach values the interests, rights and needs of the learner. Practice, learning by doing and the significance of emotion is emphasized, exams and tests are less important. The teacher's role is less that of an expert and more that of a facilitator of the learning process.

According to Brockbank and McGill (1998), Dewey advocated linking knowledge to the lived experience of learners, and not just to abstract ideas. Dewey argued that to learn from experience involves taking action, experiencing the results, and making a connection between the action taken and the results thereof. Activity alone, without making this connection, does not amount to learning from experience, according to Dewey (1916).

Like Dewey, a number of others have linked experiential learning to reflection. Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning includes observation and reflection as a principal feature. Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) asserted that reflection consists of the processes by which learners "work with their experience to turn it into learning" (p. 9) and that through reflection "we can turn experiential knowledge...into propositional knowledge which can be shared and interrogated" p. 10).

According to Hutchings and Wutzdorff (1988), "the authority of lived experience" and "the power of concreteness" (p. 11) make learning based on concrete experience more successful. Such learning, they argued, engages the whole person, rather than merely the cognitive domain.

Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) argued that our experience affects what we avoid or find attractive, how we go about the task of learning, and how we interpret current experience. Experience is thus the foundation of, and stimulus for, learning. As they put it, "Even in the context of externally defined knowledge, we must take account of, and build on, the unique perceptions and experiences of those involved, for without this we are dealing with only the most superficial aspects of learning" (p. 7).

Hutchings and Wutzdorff (1988) cited Argyris and Schon (1974) regarding the interaction between espoused theory and theory-in-use. It is this interaction, over time and through experience, which leads to the development of a theory of action by which practitioners direct their behavior, according to Argyris and Schon. Experiential learning is thus part of developing one's theory of action.

Ryan (1988), considering the results of a study of an internship program, stated that "... powerful and appropriate learning results when internships give students an experience of intense involvement coupled with sustained, systematic reflection." (Ryan, 1988, p. 40) Ryan called such experiences "a more personal kind of learning" (p. 41) than students experience in the classroom and concluded that "an effective internship includes intense involvement, ongoing reflection, support, evaluation and frequent feedback" (Ryan, 1988, p. 46).

Evidently such arguments have had an impact on the education profession, including such bodies as the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards and the Council of Chief State School Officers. The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1991) issued five general propositions about excellent teaching, including one

to the effect that excellent teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.

In 1992 the Council of Chief State School Officers issued a Draft of Model Standards for Teacher Licensing. This document included ten principles describing the knowledge and dispositions that teachers should possess. The ninth principle referred to the teacher as a reflective practitioner “who continually evaluates the effects of his/her choices and actions on others” (p. 27) and who actively seeks out opportunities for professional growth. The reflective practitioner, according to this document, values critical thinking and is committed to continual learning and improvement of practices.

Referring not only to teacher education but also to education in general, Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) stated that “this aspect of learning [learning from experience] is greatly neglected in comparison with that which takes place in the formal classroom” (p.1). However, teacher education programs traditionally have included some form of practicum or field-based experience. In a sense, therefore, experiential learning is always included in teacher education programs.

As pointed out previously, however, merely engaging in activity without reflecting upon the experience could hardly be called learning. To assess the actual role of experiential learning in teacher education programs therefore, one must consider the degree to which preservice teachers engage in reflection on their experience, or reflective practice.

According to Villar (1995), reflective practice in education is “insufficiently widespread” (p.181) despite efforts to promote it. Villar asserted that “teacher educators

need to develop strategies which will actively encourage student teachers' reflection upon practice" (p. 181).

Imel (1992) provides an overview of important concepts and principles of reflective practice in adult education. Imel points out that reflective practice in adult education can be a tool for uncovering discrepancies between espoused theories and theories-in-use. Reflective practice can serve a similar purpose for elementary and secondary school teachers and those involved in their professional preparation and continuing professional development.

Reflective practice has been used as a theme in many teacher education programs. However, a range of interpretations has existed for the meaning of the term reflective practice. Feiman-Nemser (1990) found that many teacher education programs "explicitly endorse the goal of reflection, even though they embody different conceptual orientations" (p. 221). Brookfield (1995) pointed out that, as a concept gains in popularity, its meaning tends to increase in malleability. He contended that this has happened to the concept of reflective practice within the field of education. According to Zeichner (1994), the discourse on reflective practice has come to include beliefs representing the whole range of the ideological spectrum, each differing viewpoint with its own version of reflective practice. Zeichner (1993) categorized a variety of traditions of reflective teaching: the academic tradition, the social efficiency tradition, the developmentalist tradition, and the social reconstructionist tradition.

With no generally accepted definition of reflective practice, it is hard to say what the actual role of reflective practice is in the education of teacher interns. For purposes of

this study, however, I will use Mezirow's and Brookfield's conceptions, as discussed above, to define reflective practice. In short, I would define reflective practice as the process of systematically, deliberately uncovering and thinking critically about the premises or assumptions underlying one's way of perceiving, thinking, feeling and acting. I would include interaction with the views of others in the form of dialogue (Isaacs, 1999, 1993; Senge, 1990; Schein, 1993) as a necessary part of this process. Defined in this way, reflective practice may be an unusual activity in education.

If experiential learning, and especially reflective practice, is widely espoused as being of value in the preparation of teachers, why is it not so widely practiced? What forces militate against its use?

There are indications in the literature that a number of factors could inhibit or prevent preservice teachers from learning to practice reflexively. These factors could be categorized as autobiographical, that is, unique to each individual, and as social, or common to all the learners within a particular school or setting.

There are a number of autobiographical factors that could inhibit or prevent a preservice teacher from acquiring the skills of reflective practice. Personality factors such as extraversion and introversion, for example, make one more or less likely to be aware of one's own thoughts and feelings or inclined to engage in conversation with others about such matters. Such preferences may be innate and not amenable to change (Lawrence, 1993; Keirse, 1998).

Other autobiographical factors are more likely to be learned. Examples of these factors would be such things as degree of self-confidence, interest in a particular topic or area of learning, or willingness to critically examine one's own beliefs. Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) stated that learning is not merely an intellectual exercise, that "...ideas are not separate from experience, learning is not unrelated to relationships and personal interests, and emotions and feelings have a vital role to play..." (p. 2).

Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) included in their propositions about learning from experience the statement that "learning is influenced by the socioemotional context in which it occurs" (p. 15). They cite "two key sources of influence, past experience and the role of others in the present as supportive or otherwise"(p. 15), which create the socioemotional context. They contended that emotions and feelings are "key pointers to both possibilities for, and barriers to, learning" (p. 15), yet emotions and feelings are often neglected as they relate to learning" in our society.

Boud and Walker (1998) described the context as a powerful influence on the use of reflection. Besides the socioemotional context mentioned above, other contextual factors may inhibit reflective practice.

One contextual factor inhibiting the learning of reflective practice could be the lack of capable facilitators of such practice. Mezirow (1990b) contended that, in order to facilitate reflection, one needs to be an "empathic provocateur" who "sets democratic norms to govern critical discourse and fosters participation in dialogue" (p. 366). Such a facilitator gives "careful attention to fostering a supportive and democratic social climate" (p. 368). It is unlikely that many teacher educators have ever experienced a

genuinely supportive and democratic social climate in the context of educational institutions. It is also unlikely that they have had preparation for or experience in actually creating such a climate.

Marsick (1990) noted that facilitators of action learning and reflection need to set ground rules and model behaviors of confidentiality, respect, active listening and equality of participation in order to overcome resistance to exploring difficult issues. "Becoming more competent at tasks often touches on deep personal questions and requires an examination of the 'way things are done around here'" (p. 38), according to Marsick. As Brookfield (1990) pointed out, to admit that one's assumptions might be distorted or even just contextually relative can be very threatening. However, many times these problems are left to be worked out by the learner.

Brookfield (1990) asserted that the best way for facilitators to help others become critically reflective is to model this activity themselves. In order to practice and model critical reflection, however, one needs the opportunity to learn to do so. Such opportunities have not been widely available; many teacher educators and teachers currently in the field completed their formal education programs before reflective practice became a popular concept.

Villar (1995) cited Dewey (1933) to the effect that in order to develop as a reflective teacher one needs certain dispositions such as open-mindedness and responsibility. Elliott (1991) noted that reflective teaching implies personal knowledge, self-awareness, and awareness of the classroom context. All of these are personal qualities or attitudes, and as such typically are not addressed in traditional programs,

which focus almost exclusively on the cognitive domain and acquisition of propositional knowledge.

According to Villar (1995), Sykes (1986) gave several reasons for the relative absence of reflective practice in education. The socialization and training of teachers has traditionally involved a curriculum based on the technocratic tradition rather than experiential learning. The organizational context of teaching also does not favor inquiry, according to Sykes.

One final and very significant contextual factor that tends to inhibit reflective practice by preservice teachers (as well as by inservice teachers) is lack of time. Watkins and Marsick (1993) identified finding the time to engage in reflective discourse as one of the more demanding aspects of reflective practice. Zederayko and Ward (1999) stated that school leaders need to “change the reality of teachers’ work days to accommodate reflective practice” (p. 38). They found that teachers who were taking time to learn and develop professionally did so by using personal time rather than work time. They cited Sparks (1996) to the effect that the daily schedule of schools rarely provides time for sustained intellectual activity and that the culture of schools tends to devalue intellectual discipline.

According to the 1994 National Education Commission on Time and Learning (NECTL) report, *Prisoners of Time*, what teachers are expected to know and do has increased in amount and complexity. Teachers, researchers, and policymakers consistently indicate that lack of time is the greatest impediment to effective professional development.

Other researchers have reported similar results. Perry and Savage-Davis (1998) stated that the most frequently cited concern of student teacher respondents to a survey was having time to 'get it all done.' MacDonald (1992) found that lack of time to talk with the cooperating teacher was a major concern of student teachers.

A number of researchers have identified lack of time as a problem for teachers in general. What teachers are expected to know and be able to do has increased in amount and complexity, yet inflexible and counterproductive school schedules work against teacher professional development according to the National Education Commission on Time and Learning (1994). According to Abdal-Haqq (1996), lack of time is cited by educators, policymakers and researchers as the main impediment to professional development of teachers. Teacher isolation, lack of time, and the complexity of teaching present significant barriers to sustained organizational learning in educational institutions (Lashway, 1997). Zederayko and Ward (1999) identified lack of time for collaborative professional development as a significant impediment to the creation of communities of learners within schools. Routman (2002) argued that ongoing professional conversation among colleagues is one of the most powerful approaches to building the competence and confidence of teachers, but cited the lack of time as a major hindrance.

Darling-Hammond (1997) stated another reason for the lack of time for teachers to collaboratively consider their practice. School systems in the U.S., unlike European and Asian systems that operate with a model of teachers as professionals, tend to micro-manage teachers' work. This necessitates the creation of "an elaborate bureaucracy to design and manage education prescriptions" (p. 20). According to Darling-Hammond, school systems in the U.S. hire more administrative and non-teaching staff than in any

other industrialized country. Therefore, U.S. schools hire relatively fewer teachers and teachers have less time for planning and learning together.

One reason that school schedules do not usually include time for teacher learning, according to Abdal-Haqq (1996), is that professional development has not been widely seen as an integral part of enhancing teachers' skill and productivity. Any activity that takes teachers away from direct interaction with students has been seen negatively. Abdal-Haqq pointed out that in a number of foreign countries, particularly China, Japan, and Germany, time for collegial interaction and collaboration is considered part of the normal school day.

Abdal-Haqq described a number of approaches to finding time for teachers to work together on professional development, including variations of scheduling, use of substitutes, team teaching, and technological innovations. Obstacles to such changes could include opposition from parents or legislators, as well as the prevailing school culture, with its norms of isolation of teachers, lack of emphasis on teacher learning, and decisions about professional development being made by administrators rather than by teachers themselves.

Schools and teacher education institutions may refer to themselves as "learning communities" (Senge, 1990), but, as Zederayko and Ward (1999) assert, changes associated with such assertions are "mostly cosmetic" (p. 38). Senge's description of a learning organization or learning community includes the elements of open communication, dialogue, personal growth (including emotional development), nonauthoritarian thinking, systems thinking, and other concepts that are foreign to the traditional culture of schools.

Other Adult Education Themes Applicable to Teacher Education

Hiemstra (1991) brought out another important concept from adult education that should be taken into consideration by those who educate teachers. Hiemstra defined a *learning environment* as “all of the physical surroundings, psychological or emotional conditions, and social or cultural influences affecting the growth and development of an adult engaged in an educational enterprise” (p. 8). The findings of this study confirm the notion that all these influences do indeed affect adults, i.e., the interns, as they undertake the internship.

Spear and Mocker (1984) also emphasized the environmental context as it affects self-directed learning. Daloz (1986) argued that the environments people live in can challenge or support development, and that the aim of education should be understood as the development of the whole person. Palmer (1998) contended that the kind of person that a teacher is (“The self who teaches?”) is a crucial issue that has not been addressed as it should be. Along with an emphasis on the adult’s reservoir of experience, as mentioned previously, adult education literature thus reminds us to take into account the whole person and his or her surroundings and background when designing and implementing educational activities.

One important but frequently overlooked aspect of the total context is the emotional climate of the organization or workplace. Baskett and Marsick (1992), for example, asserted that the culture of the social unit has a strong influence on learning. The kinds of relationships among people in an organization are a major part of the climate, and have a great influence on learning and growth. Daloz (1986) wrote that

“teaching is most of all a special kind of relationship, a caring stance in the moving context of our students’ lives” (p.14).

Imel (1998) stated that multiple sources identified the following principles concerned with effective adult education: involve learners in planning and implementing learning activities; draw upon learners' experience as a resource; cultivate self-direction in learners; create a climate that encourages and supports learning; foster a spirit of collaboration in the learning setting; and use small groups.

Merriam (1984) proposed that adult educators consider the following as among the most effective instructional techniques for use with adult learners: contract learning, experiential learning, portfolios, and self-pacing. Merriam also suggested that teachers strive to make learning experiences as meaningful as possible for individual learners and that they attempt to refrain from the stereotypical role of authority figure and transmitter of knowledge, functioning instead as a role model or resource person.

Main (1997) examined application of adult education principles in the workplace, identifying more than 30 different concepts or principles, including project- or problem-centered learning; phenomenology; reflection-analysis-action; participation training; process as product; and humanist orientation. All of these principles could be and should be used in teacher education.

According to Cohen (1995), “the critical importance of lifelong learning is a general tenet of adult and continuing education” (p.15). As Tough’s (1979) studies indicate, adults *are* lifelong learners, generally speaking. Perhaps the foregoing discussion helps to explain the finding, mentioned in Baskett and Marsick (1992), that studies of learning patterns of professionals have shown that formally arranged

continuing professional education programs are used much less than self-directed and self-planned learning. Tough's (1978) summarization of studies of learning projects concluded that teachers' major learning projects are largely self-planned. Accessibility and convenience may be additional factors affecting this situation. Baskett and Marsick (1992) contend that studies suggest that "formal educational programs are only one small part of the learning and change process of professionals" and that "conventional approaches to professional training need to be rethought" (p.12).

A number of other significant themes within the literature of adult education also deserve mention here. Action research, action learning, situated learning, and the learning organization appear frequently in this literature.

Action research has been and is being widely used in the field of education, both in the preparation of teachers and as a tool for professional growth. Calhoun (2002) described action research as a way to create professional learning communities in schools, transforming professional development. According to Calhoun, action research "can change the social system in schools and other education organizations so that continual formal learning is both expected and supported" (p. 18). One potential barrier to such change is lack of time for teachers to work together, Calhoun stated.

Critical Friends Groups help teachers work collaboratively in democratic, reflective communities, according to Bambino (2002). Bambino described such groups as *critical* in that they "create opportunities for colleagues to challenge their own practice as well as that of their peers" (p. 27), but also as *friends* in that they use a process that is neither negative nor threatening.

Revans (1980, 1982) is credited with originating the concept of action learning. Mumford (1994) reviews the literature of action learning since 1985, providing information about published sources that would help those involved in teacher education and professional development who might wish to implement the principles of action learning. Mumford points out that action learning stresses the importance of a questioning approach to solving problems. Action learning is a holistic approach according to Mumford, and an effective means for learning how to learn. Mumford asserts that action learning is a good development process both for individuals and groups, and that action learning has been implemented successfully in a wide variety of organizations, including educational institutions.

According to Baskett and Marsick (1992), books by Cyril Houle (1980) and Donald Schon (1983) helped to shift the impetus in the study of learning from a focus on educational interventions to an effort to understand learning from the learner's perspective. In the same vein, Cervero, Azzaretto and Tallman (1990) point out that it would be more beneficial to examine how practitioners actually learn and change than to assume that educational interventions have a direct effect on the behavior of practitioners and try to test this assumption.

Asserting that the terms *education* and *learning* seem to have been too often seen as synonymous, Baskett and Marsick (1992) make a clear distinction between them, using Marsick's (1987, p.4) definition of learning as "the ways in which individuals or groups acquire, interpret, reorganize, change, assimilate or apply related clusters of information, skills and feelings...the way in which people construct meaning in their personal and shared organizational lives." Education is then defined as any planned,

deliberate effort to shape and influence learning. Zemke (1985) alludes to this same distinction when contending that most professional learning occurs through interaction with everyday problems in the workplace, and that formal courses or professional literature are only a part of the resources professionals use in their learning.

Stein (1998) describes the concept of situated learning and the four major elements involved. The *content* in situated learning emphasizes higher-order thinking processes; the *context* in which learning is situated is “an instructional environment sensitive to the tasks learners must complete to be successful in practice” (p.2); the *community of practice* is the setting for “the social interaction needed to engage in dialogue with others to see various and diverse perspectives” (p.2); and *participation* refers to “the interchange of ideas, attempts at problem solving, and active engagement of learners with each other and with the materials of instruction” (p.3). These elements constitute a natural learning environment in which learners engage in solving authentic, nonroutine problems that are likely to be encountered on the job.

Argyris’s (1976) concept of “double-loop” learning aims to change underlying values and assumptions through a “learning environment that helps people discover their present theories of action and unfreeze them and that helps them learn a new theory” (p.x) so they can eventually change the way they handle problems.

Teacher interns are adults, and teacher educators could be considered adult educators. Merriam (1984) asserted that adult educators need to have a thorough understanding of the stages and transitions of adult life, the stages of career development, the interrelationship of adult development and career development, and counseling

techniques for use with individuals in transition. The same is certainly true of educators of teachers.

Mentoring as Adult Education

Mentoring is another concept found in adult education literature that has great relevance to teacher education and professional development, and, indeed, is also found in the literature of these fields. Cohen (1995) stated that mentoring is an important means of promoting the continuing development of adults in a variety of settings. However, as Cohen also pointed out, the majority of professionals in postsecondary education have had very little preparation for the mentor role. Cohen asserts that a “sufficient knowledge of adult psychology as well as reasonable individual expertise in interpersonal communication skills” (1995, p. 16) are required in order to perform effectively as a mentor. University and public school faculty are not necessarily well-prepared in these areas.

Cohen and Galbraith (1995) and Schulz (1995) cited benefits to both mentees and mentors from participating in a mentoring relationship. Mentors can “actively improve their interpersonal skills by realistically practicing the art of understanding others” (Cohen and Galbraith, 1995, pp. 10-11) in the context of mentor-mentee interaction. Additionally, the development of trust that can take place in such relationships increases the likelihood that mentees will provide important feedback concerning the program (Cohen and Galbraith, 1995). According to Schulz (1995), “A mentoring relationship provides collaborative and experiential learning and may possibly be one of the most developmentally important relationships a person can experience in adulthood.” Daloz

(1986) stated that the gist of prior research on mentoring is that “mentors are especially important at the beginning of people’s careers or at crucial turning points...”(p. 20).

Cohen and Galbraith also pointed out that “staff development programs based on a narrow perception of employees as only...commodities to be trained (or acted upon) actually distort the essential needs of adults as interactive learners” (p. 11). Effective mentoring meets the needs of adults as interactive learners, instead of distorting them.

Kerr, Schulze and Woodward (1995) provided suggestions for designing, implementing and evaluating mentoring programs in organizations such as higher education institutions, including detailed guidance on selecting and orienting participants. Their suggestions furnish an interesting contrast to mentoring programs in teacher education in which mentoring teachers are given such assignments at the last minute, with little or no preparation, few guidelines, and minimal support. Kerr, Schulze and Woodward made another suggestion that deserves serious consideration. They suggest using retired teachers, volunteers, or even part-time employees as mentors.

The literature of adult education contains many concepts that can and should be considered by those who plan and conduct internships for preservice teachers. This literature offers a potentially beneficial means of reflecting on the practice of teacher education.

Threat As a Barrier To Learning

Learning in the internship is not always easy. The intern must deal with a number of situational factors, both in the classroom and elsewhere, as he or she attempts to develop the skills needed to be a successful teacher.

As Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) pointed out, learning is influenced by the socioemotional context in which it occurs. Emotions and feelings are often neglected as they relate to learning in our society, yet they “are key pointers to both possibilities for, and barriers to, learning”(p.15). Boud, Cohen and Walker encouraged researchers and educators to consider and acknowledge emotions in the hopes that doing so might lead to discovery of important matters that have been neglected heretofore.

Research on the human brain has been yielding many new insights in recent years. Information about how people are affected by stress and, in particular, how stress affects learning, is relevant and important in education. Caine and Caine (1994), based on their extensive review of research, described the optimal psychophysiological state for learning as “relaxed alertness” (p. 143), consisting of a moderate to high degree of challenge based on intrinsic motivation, a low sense of threat and an overall sense of well-being. According to Caine and Caine, an ongoing state of relaxed alertness is the key factor affecting individuals’ ability “to access what they already know, think creatively, tolerate ambiguity, and delay gratification, all of which are essential for genuine expansion of knowledge” (p. 143).

According to Caine and Caine, some types of learning are inhibited by perceived threat. A threat is “anything that triggers fear” (p. 80). When an individual perceives a situation as threatening, and also experiences a sense of helplessness, “downshifting” occurs, a psychophysiological response resulting in narrowing of the perceptual field. Downshifting affects higher-order cognitive functions such as learning or generating solutions for problems. Responses are more automatic and limited and the ability to take

subtle environmental and internal cues into account is reduced, as are creativity, flexibility and the ability to engage in complex intellectual tasks. People experiencing anxiety become more preoccupied with themselves instead of with what is to be learned.

The state of relaxed alertness is characterized by “a relaxed nervous system and a sense of safety and security that operates at mental, emotional and physical levels” (p.140). According to Caine and Caine, this sense of well-being is the product of healthy relationships, and of such other aspects of wellness as good nutrition, exercise and rest—all of which can tend to be neglected when one is involved in an experience like the internship, which by all accounts is intense and time-consuming.

Maslow's (1954) theory of a hierarchy of needs explained why people in very stressful situations would not function as fully as they might otherwise. According to Maslow, needs for safety, belongingness or acceptance, and esteem take precedence over needs for self-actualization unless and until the safety, social and esteem needs are satisfied. As indicated above, research on brain function related to stress and learning supports Maslow's theory.

The ultimate aims of the teacher internship are related mainly to such self-actualizing behaviors as competence, the ability to manipulate the environment and make things happen, to meet realistic challenges; and achievement. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1993), achievement-oriented people seek situations where they can get concrete feedback on how well they are doing. Achievement orientation is marked by constantly trying to think of better ways of doing things. However, as Maslow's theory

explains, one is not motivated toward competence and achievement when feeling unsafe (physically or psychologically), when one does not feel acceptance or belonging, nor when one feels mistreated, unrecognized or unable to influence others.

Goleman (1995) summarized extensive research in pointing out that emotions “define the limits of our capacity to use our innate mental abilities, and so determine how we do in life” (p.80). Emotions can hinder or enhance the ability to think and plan, to pursue training for a distant goal, and to solve problems, according to Goleman.

Goleman’s description of the workings of various parts of the brain in stressful situations may help explain why many teachers report that the student teaching experience was the most important part of their teacher education program. As Goleman pointed out, “emotional memories register with special potency” (p. 20) because the neurochemical systems that prepare people to fight or flee in life-threatening situations also create very vivid impressions in the memory. In effect, Goleman said, “the brain has two memory systems, one for ordinary facts and another for emotionally charged ones” (p. 21). Experiences connected with strong emotions tend to stand out in memory, to be memorable. These vivid memories influence reactions to future situations, also, a fact that is significant for teachers’ growth and development

Fuller (1969) proposed a model of teacher development that described three stages of concerns: survival concerns, task concerns and impact concerns. Fuller found that novice teachers tended at first to be most concerned with themselves, with their ability to succeed and thus survive as teachers. As the teachers progressed, concerns about mastering the tasks of teaching began to predominate. They became occupied with

learning how to teach, how to manage a classroom, and so forth. In the final stage, teachers began to be concerned about how they were affecting students, the impact they were having.

According to Boekaerts (1993), perceived social support affects learning.

Boekaerts' model of the affective-learning process proposes that students who perceive their environment as supportive are more likely to see learning tasks in a positive light and to operate in a mastery mode, i.e., with an intention to learn. Students whose appraisals of their resources (including social support) fall short of what is seen as necessary for meeting the challenge of a learning task operate in a coping mode. Their primary concern is with their own well-being, not with learning. Operating in a mastery mode was linked with higher performance on academic tasks. Boekaerts' ideas seem to mesh well with Fuller's description of the concerns of teacher interns and perhaps offer illumination as to why one intern is more concerned about his own survival while another is focused on mastering the tasks of teaching.

Schunk (2001) discussed how goal setting enhances self-regulation. According to Schunk, goals motivate people to exert the effort that is needed to meet task demands and to persist over time. Comparing their performance to the goal as they work, people make self-evaluations of progress. Seeing a discrepancy between the goal and their performance can produce dissatisfaction, and dissatisfaction can lead to greater effort or to quitting. If people believe they can succeed, seeing a discrepancy between the goal and their performance will not lead to quitting. Schunk stated that doing things like changing their strategy or seeking assistance helps people believe they can succeed and

therefore helps them persist in their efforts toward the goal. In other words, if the barriers to success seem to outweigh the resources available to them, people give up on achieving a favorable outcome and cease trying to attain the goal.

In the case of teacher interns, the goal of learning new instructional strategies, or learning to adapt what one knows to a new situation, might be seen as impossible to attain unless one has enough support from mentoring teachers, supervisors, or others. The easy way out might be just to copy a mentoring teacher's approach or implement a lesson plan without modification and without regard to the results.

According to Pajares (2001), a number of psychologists have been calling for an emphasis on the study of human strengths and optimal functioning, hoping to foster research on traits and dispositions thought to contribute to subjective well-being and psychological health. This *positive* psychology contrasts with the traditional preoccupations of American psychology, such as distress, pathology and maladaptive functioning, according to Pajares. Pajares identified such constructs as optimism, authenticity and invitational theory as important elements of positive psychology. Pajares conducted a study relating constructs from traditional research on academic motivation and constructs from positive psychology. The results of this investigation indicated that higher levels of optimism and a greater tendency to be inviting of oneself and of others (synonymous with positive regard for self and others) are associated with a task goal orientation, and with higher levels of academic motivation and achievement. Results of the study also support the contention that performance-avoid goals have a negative influence. Performance-avoid goals involve the desire to avoid appearing

incompetent, being embarrassed, or looking stupid. Performance-approach goals are based on the desire to appear competent or to be compared favorably with peers. Both performance-approach and performance-avoid goals emphasize evaluation by others. By contrast, a task-goal orientation involves a desire to learn, or to master a skill, out of a love of the work itself. A task-goal orientation is associated with positive academic outcomes.

Interns face evaluation by others as an ongoing part of the internship experience. The desire to appear competent, or to avoid appearing incompetent, is certainly a factor affecting interns. As Pajares indicates, these desires may negatively affect interns and impair their ability to focus on the goal of mastering the skills of teaching.

The internship is a stressful experience. As the studies reviewed here indicate, the challenges interns encounter can lead them to wonder whether they will succeed in the internship and survive as a teacher. Feelings of threat to self-esteem or to a future career may cause the intern to focus on getting through the experience rather than on getting the most from the experience. In such cases, the real purpose of the internship is defeated, and the intern may be defeated as well.

Differing Perspectives/Competing Demands

In this study, both the interns and those who worked with them were aware of differences in what university faculty and supervisors expected and valued and what mentoring teachers expected and valued. In this section of the review of literature, I focus on what other researchers have found concerning these differences and how they might be dealt with in a positive way.

Richards and Killen (1994) reported that student teachers perceived differences between university supervisors' and cooperating teachers' expectations for student teachers. Similarly, Singleton and Masztal (1995) reported as a conclusion of their study that university supervisors and cooperating teachers need to improve their efforts through closer collaboration. Ducharme (1986) reported that public school teachers often may see college faculty as academic and aloof.

Featherstone (1995) described how two student teachers who entered the practicum with a commitment to a constructivist approach to teaching were influenced by the school staff to believe that their ideas were impractical. The conclusion reached by the study indicates that university faculty and teachers in schools hold differing views on valid approaches to teaching. A study by Gomez (1997) in Spain examined the socialization process of student teachers and how they developed their pedagogical approach. Gomez characterized the student teachers' socialization to teaching as rapid and premature, attributing the results to five factors: the pressures of school and classroom culture, feelings of dependence and security arising from the provisional nature of their position, lack of theoretical or practical alternatives to the methods being used in their practicum situation, the evaluation process, and the relationship between the supervisor and the student teacher. A significant discrepancy between the views of teachers and those of university personnel was evident, with students considering the period of practical work the most important part of their training. Gomez concluded that the practicum experience led to ill-conceived notions of teaching.

Bain (1991) found significant differences in understandings of what should be considered important in the student teaching experience and who should be most responsible for different important areas of the experience. In a 1995 study, Bennett examined the perspectives of, and the dialogues between, student teachers, mentors, and supervisors. Mentoring teachers focused largely on craft knowledge, and supervisors related more to children's learning and theories and research on teaching processes.

Differences in perspective among those who prepare future teachers need not be viewed as detrimental, however. Abdal-Haqq (1998) considered implications of constructivist theory for teacher education and concluded that, among other things, preservice teachers should be exposed to different perspectives and encouraged to develop their own views concerning various approaches to teaching.

Collaboration

Conflicting views can be seen as complementary, when people learn to work together. Dilworth and Imig (1995) noted a paradigm shift toward collaborative approaches to learning in teacher education, as well as the emergence of professional development schools, educational partnerships and mentoring programs, efforts to improve how universities and schools work together to prepare teachers. Lange and Burroughs-Lange (1994) proposed a system of collaborative supervision including a university supervisor who provides support for the student teacher in developing skills of reflectivity and who assists in the professional development of cooperating teachers.

Gray (1999) reported on a collaborative approach to the supervision of student teachers involving student teacher cohorts and teams of supervisors working together in a collegial, supportive environment. Davis-Wiley (1993) concluded that successful

internship programs require that all parties concerned have clear, well-communicated, and mutually decided upon expectations for the program and its participants. Or, as the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future reported in 1996, "A coherent program of mentoring and instruction by school and university faculty is essential" (p. 77) for successful teacher education programs, and that includes focusing as much on helping cooperating teachers and mentors become "excellent teachers of teachers and partners in the teacher education process" (p. 77) as on instructing preservice teachers. Wisniewski (1992) advocated school and college faculty being jointly responsible for new teacher induction, so that issues of control and status can be more easily resolved.

Calhoun (2002) described collaborative action research as a way to create professional learning communities in schools. According to Calhoun, action research "can change the social system in schools and other education organizations" (p. 18). Keating, Diaz-Greenberg, Baldwin and Thousand (1998) proposed that a collaborative action research model be incorporated into teacher preparation programs. Doing so would help preservice teachers come to see themselves as professionals able to reflect on and apply problem-solving skills to real situations. Keating et al stated that "the goal is for preservice teachers to become active learners with a disposition to continuously research, assess, apply, and refine knowledge" (p. 384). They asserted that reflection and action research skills increase the likelihood that teachers will take more informed actions. (As defined by Brookfield (1995), informed actions are actions that can be explained and justified, both to oneself and others.) Also, as Fueyo and Koorland (1997) pointed out, teachers who are prepared as researchers are more likely to describe instead

of evaluating student behavior, and thus are better able to avoid labeling and stigmatizing children while also designing appropriate interventions.

Darden, Scott, Darden and Westfall (2001) pointed out that, because the quality of the student teaching experience depends on the collective efforts of the university supervisor, the cooperating teacher and the student teacher, it is important that they learn to work as a team. They suggested that the triad work together to establish open communication early in the experience, so student teachers feel comfortable asking questions. They also contended that cooperating teachers, as very influential models of professional conduct and communication skills, should solicit and listen to student teachers' opinions and try to understand their perspective. Cooperating teachers and university supervisors should consider themselves to be learners, also.

Talvitie, Peltokallio and Mannisto (2000) studied student teachers' views about the influence of contributions from university professors, cooperating teachers, and other student teachers on their professional development. They concluded that the quality of the dialogue among the parties during the practicum seemed to be the most important factor affecting student teachers' development. Isaacs (1999) described dialogue, a form of conversation in which participants learn to listen well to one another, respect their differences and examine their rigidly-held positions, as a method for sustaining collaboration. According to Isaacs, dialogue can "enable people to work together in a highly coordinated and creative fashion" (p. 10).

Abdal-Haqq (1992) described professional development schools as collaborations between school districts and colleges, and as places where practitioners, researchers, and

clinical faculty work together to expand the knowledge base of the profession and prepare future practitioners. Levine (2002) furnished a more complete definition of professional development schools as

“partnerships formed by teacher education programs and prek-12 schools intent on sharing responsibility for the preparation of new teachers, the development of experienced faculty members, and the improvement of practice—all with the goal of enhancing student achievement.” (p. 65)

According to Levine, such schools socialize teacher candidates into a culture of inquiry and collegiality. Levine also observed, in reviewing research, that teacher candidates learn better in professional development schools than in traditional teacher preparation programs. Levine cited Teitel (2001), Shroyer, Wright, Kerr, and Weamer (1996), and Houston et al (1999) to this effect. McBee and Moss (2002) stated that professional development schools are places where university faculty, preservice teachers and school staff commit themselves to a shared mission. According to McBee and Moss, any school that “maintains a pervasive climate of openness to new ideas, inquiry, and reflection, coupled with a culture of collaboration” can become a place that promotes professional and educational excellence.

Ross (2000) found that graduates of a nationally-recognized PDS teacher preparation program saw the program as having had a strong beneficial influence on their beliefs and practices, and they considered the internship to be the part of the program that had the most influence on their subsequent teaching practices. According to Ross, the PDS advocacy literature promotes collaboration, reflective practice, ongoing inquiry into teaching and learning, and learner-centered teaching practices. The graduates of the

program reported that the PDS teacher preparation program did indeed incorporate these concepts and, except for ongoing inquiry, these ideas were still influencing their teaching.

Wyatt, Meditz, Reeves and Carr (1999) reported on an approach to supervision of student teachers in which mentoring teachers work in teams with university supervisors serving as facilitators for the teams and liaisons between mentors and student teachers. Fenimore-Smith (2000) sought to implement a democratic, emancipatory approach in supervision of student teaching, focusing on the power situations and relationships within the context of schools and how they influenced student teachers. This study is illustrative of a movement toward democratic teacher education (Novak, 1994).

The literature reviewed in this section has illuminated what I consider to be a heartening trend toward increased collaboration and cooperation between higher education institutions and K-12 schools. Instead of allowing differing perspectives to create an obstacle in the path of improving the education system generally, and teacher education in particular, researchers and practitioners are working together to create a system that is better than either group could create on its own.

Using Technology to Improve Communication

Computer technology offers another means to enhance communication and collaboration among all the parties involved in preparing teachers. Using e-mail and other avenues made possible by technological advances might make it easier for interns, college and university personnel and K-12 school personnel to share ideas, coordinate schedules, build relationships and learn from each other.

Stahlhut and Hawkes (1994) reported that online communication between campus faculty and field practitioners had a positive effect on one teacher education program, allowing classroom teachers to become available as resources for faculty and researchers on the college campus and creating greater rapport between university faculty and classroom teachers. Student teachers benefited because of more frequent communication with university supervisors. Garrett and Dudd (1998) reported that video conferencing appears to hold promise as a tool for supervision of student teachers. Gary and Remolino (2000) explained some of the benefits of online support groups, as well as possible disadvantages.

Kirk (2000) identified a trend toward increased focus by supervisors on promoting reflective practice by student teachers, noting that a number of teacher education institutions have identified the development of reflective thinking as a major goal of their teacher education programs. Kirk cited Strange (1992) and Wenzlaff (1994) to the effect that collegial conversations afford the opportunity to develop higher levels of thinking, but that time pressures and the difficulty of coordinating varying schedules make it hard to have many such conversations. Kirk suggested that chat rooms may offer a way to solve this problem. Kirk's study attempted to determine whether a link might be found between the reflective thinking of preservice teachers and their chat room experiences.

Kirk did not find any increase in reflective thinking accompanying the use of chat rooms in this study, but did find that a strong group identity developed. Kirk also suggested avenues for further study along these lines, noting that students' responded favorably to the experience.

Loiselle, St-Louis, and Dupuy-Walker (1998) described an experiment by two Canadian universities in which preservice teachers used computer-mediated communication to describe and discuss critical incidents occurring during their practicum. Participants in the practicum shared their teaching experiences with peers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors.

Advancing technology, as the literature indicates, may help improve the conditions of the internship. By making it easier for schools and universities to keep in touch, technology could lessen the adverse impact on interns of differences between the perspectives in K-12 and postsecondary institutions.

Stress

The participants in this study, both interns and those who worked with them, described a number of aspects of the internship as being stressful, in some cases, extremely stressful. This concept was examined to an extent in the earlier section of this review of literature entitled “Threat as a Barrier to Learning.” However, that section dealt mainly with the effects of threatening or stressful situations on one’s ability to learn. In this section of the review of literature, I explore what other researchers have written about sources of stress in the internship, managing stress in the internship, and the notion of challenge and support.

Sources of Stress in the Internship

A number of researchers have identified the internship (or student teaching or practicum) in teacher education as a stressful experience (Bernshausen and Cunningham, 2001; MacDonald, 1992; Murray-Harvey et al, 2000; Schilling, 1998; Wadlington, Slaton and Partridge, 1998). Interns, like other new teachers, are often concerned about their

own “survival” as prospective teachers, their ability to gain the respect of students, manage a classroom and master instructional strategies, and whether their students will learn or not (Fuller, 1969; Smith, 2000).

Stahlhut and Hawkes (1997) sought to discover what issues and experiences student teachers would express concern about and how the use of different media would affect the expression of those concerns. They found that the student teachers tended to reflect primarily on discipline/management issues, effective teaching practices, the success of lesson plans, relationships with faculty and students, and feelings of self-worth and confidence. They also found that the student teachers tended to use different media for different purposes: journals for sharing everyday teaching events with cooperating teachers; personal conferences with professors to address administrative issues, overall performance assessment or schoolwide issues; and telecommunications when they had a sense of urgency about a specific issue and needed to solve problems immediately.

In a study by Schiller (1994), journaling was used as a format for student teachers to discuss classroom issues and events that were troublesome or puzzling for them. Journaling was considered a less threatening means for student teachers to bring up troubling or puzzling issues than direct conversation. The most frequently mentioned theme concerned behavior and class management issues.

In another study, student teachers at the Hong Kong Institute of Education were followed from the beginning of their second year in the program through the end of their first year of full-time teaching. Both student teachers and first-year teachers thought of themselves as having higher competence in the classroom than in the school, community and professional domains. They were more challenged by school situations and relations

with administrators, peers, and parents. The researcher stated that these results confirm the importance of school experience as part of teacher education and the value of mentoring arrangements and other new teacher induction programs, which had not been widely used in Hong Kong (Cheng, 1997).

Klas and Hawkins (1997) analyzed the findings of five studies that examined the causes of stress for classroom teachers, special education teachers, nurses, and social workers. The studies showed that time and its effective management was the most significant category of stressors for all the groups.

Other researchers have reported similar results. Perry and Savage-Davis (1998) stated that the most frequently cited concern of student teacher respondents to a survey was having time to 'get it all done.' MacDonald (1992) found that lack of time to talk with the cooperating teacher was a major concern of student teachers.

A number of researchers have identified lack of time as a problem for teachers in general. What teachers are expected to know and be able to do has increased in amount and complexity, yet inflexible and counterproductive school schedules work against teacher professional development according to the National Education Commission on Time and Learning (1994). According to Abdal-Haqq (1996), lack of time is cited by educators, policymakers and researchers as the main impediment to professional development of teachers. Teacher isolation, lack of time, and the complexity of teaching present significant barriers to sustained organizational learning in educational institutions (Lashway, 1997). Zederayko and Ward (1999) identified lack of time for collaborative

professional development as a significant impediment to the creation of communities of learners within schools.

According to Hall and Hall (1988), poor communication is a major factor in teachers' stress, and improved human relations skills can help lessen stress. Bolton (1997) concluded that attempting to understand and work within the complex context of the classroom while struggling with the nature of teaching results in frustration, stress, and attributions of luck rather than effort.

Wadlington, Slaton and Partridge (1998) pointed out a number of studies indicating that teachers experience a high degree of work-related stress, and that preservice teachers often experience extreme stress during field experiences. This stress can decrease their effectiveness and hamper their development as teachers.

Areas that have been found to be associated with stress in preservice teachers include maintaining discipline, gaining the respect of students, and developing appropriate relationships with students, parents and other teachers, as well as concerns related to instruction per se, according to Wadlington et al. These are the same areas reflected in the themes of the intern interviews in this study.

Managing Stress in the Internship

Research on social support has shown that the psychological impact of stressful events is reduced when one perceives one's environment as supportive (Boekaerts, (1993). Social support, defined as based either on the number of people in one's social support network or on the perceived quality and intensity of social relationships, has shown beneficial effects on health and on learning, according to Boekaerts.

Glasser's (1994) Control Theory addresses emotion and human relationships in learning situations, both in schools and workplaces. Explaining his ideas about motivation in the workplace and in education, Glasser stated that people are motivated to do quality work because quality always feels good. His conception of leadership that motivates involves the leader developing relationships with workers (or students) in which the leader acts as a friend, teacher, and counselor as well as a manager. The leader works at knowing and being known by workers. This kind of leader, which Glasser calls a lead-manager, espouses the belief that quality comes when workers solve the problems themselves and is only achieved through harmony and respect, and therefore no one should put another person down.

Glasser stated that managers must learn not to criticize or coerce, so that fear will be totally driven out of the workplace. They must also learn to ask workers for their help and advice, to listen, and to try to use advice that is given. As a teacher, the manager must listen to the pupils. Leading in the way Glasser describes helps to create an emotional climate in which people's innate motivation to do quality work is released. One reason this happens is that fear, and therefore stress, is reduced.

Bernshausen and Cunningham (2001) argued that teacher education programs should make resiliency development a major goal. They cited high attrition rates, stress levels and burnout rates as indications that educational organizations are not providing enough support for teacher resiliency. According to Bernshausen and Cunningham, preservice and inservice experiences should be designed to provide supportive, collegial environments that promote a cooperative spirit and build a sense of belonging and

competence, in order to decrease stress and burnout and promote retention of new teachers in the profession. New strategies appear to be best learned in small groups that provide motivation, support, sympathetic sounding boards, and technical assistance (Joyce and Calhoun, 1996).

Newman, Moss, Lenarz and Newman (1998) studied the views of preservice teachers in terms of their stages of concern about teaching and other topics. They found that when students had guided internship experiences with trained mentors, focused on-site classes, and an emphasis on reflection, they felt better prepared and actually were better prepared to begin teaching. Prservice teachers who had this kind of preparation were more effective, according to Newman et al, having developed a level of comfort and self-efficacy that allowed them to focus on concerns beyond their own personal survival.

Gold (1996) identified psychological support in dealing with stress as the critical factor in assisting new teachers, stating that the inability to handle the pressures of the profession is a major factor in both unsuccessful teaching and decisions to leave the profession. Mentor teachers and others can provide needed support. Theis-Sprinthall and Gerler (1990) described support groups as beneficial for new teachers.

Developmental stages of teachers have been investigated by a number of researchers, including Burden (1990), Fuller (1969), Fuller and Bown (1975), Katz (1972), Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin and Hall (1987). Stroot et al (1999) pointed out that knowledge of what beginning teachers need at different times during their entry year can help mentors know how and when to offer assistance. Odell (1986, 1987) found

that first-year teachers moved from management-related concerns to instructional concerns more quickly when they received assistance from others.

Wadlington, Slaton and Partridge (1998) also reported on recommendations made by other researchers for reducing preservice teachers' stress. These recommendations include helping cooperating teachers develop non-threatening supervisory and evaluation skills, teaching stress reduction techniques, encouraging university supervisors to emphasize support more than evaluation, helping preservice teachers develop realistic expectations, using veteran teachers as mentors, and helping preservice teachers develop human relations skills.

Wadlington et al also described a variety of other techniques they developed that have been helpful for lessening preservice teachers' stress in field experience settings. In order to help preservice teachers see themselves as developing professionals, they sought to promote reflective thinking through the use of journals or diaries. They also had university professors teach demonstration lessons with preservice teachers in the role of evaluators, so the preservice teachers could see that the veterans sometimes made mistakes. Another helpful idea was to have graduates of the program come in to talk to the preservice teachers early in the semester in order to dispel rumors, share how they dealt with various situations, and give reassurance to the preservice teachers that they, too, can overcome the difficulties they will face. They advocate pairing preservice teachers with partners so that they can assist and support each other. Finally, they developed a number of ways to make evaluation by university supervisors less threatening, including having the supervisors seek to build rapport with the preservice

teachers and promoting the idea that supervisors, cooperating teachers and preservice teachers are all members of the same team.

Alderton (1999) examined the learning of 120 professionals in 12 different business, engineering, and health care organizations in an attempt to identify factors that facilitate workplace learning. Where individuals perceived a challenge that had to be met, learning was enhanced if they were supported in the microculture of their immediate work environment, especially by their immediate manager. Managers contributed to learning when they gave direct support and facilitated a climate in which people help each other to learn, seek advice, and find resources to assist them. The elements of confidence, challenge, and support interacted to affect learning, according to Alderton.

Mungo (1981) proposed a program for preservice teachers to be used as a preventive approach to the stress, burnout, and culture shock that beginning teachers often experience. One proposed program component is an orientation week for students to become familiar with neighborhood programs and agencies. The second component is a nine-week field experience in assigned settings, such as alternative schools, alcohol or drug prevention programs, and mental health facilities. The third and fourth components consist the students forming a network of support systems, a strategy they can later use as teachers, and the program director conducting weekly seminars with the preservice teachers to provide support and feedback.

Wallinger (1997) focused on the use of humor in the classroom to lower stress levels, improve communication and resolve conflicts. She discussed different types of humor and how school leaders can add the use of humor to their repertoire of

management skills. Anopchand (2000) found that expressive writing did not seem to reduce stress and burnout among prospective teachers. However, as Anopchand reported, other research indicates that expressive writing about stressful events improves physical and psychological well-being.

Ainslie (1996), in a study that examined four variables (sense of control, perceived social support, degree of achievement motivation, and experienced satisfaction) that were considered to mediate or buffer adolescents from the negative impact of stress in a learning situation, found that students perceiving high levels of support and self-control had the lowest levels of stress. Huffstutter and Smith (1989) cite the benefits of supportive relationships, collegial sharing networks, and employee wellness programs in managing stress among educators. Iverson, Olekalns, and Erwin (1998) conducted a study of 487 healthcare workers, finding that low levels of social support were associated with negative affectivity, decreased job satisfaction, and high emotional exhaustion. The findings of Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Banfield and Russell (2000) lend support to the overall notion that student teachers' stresses can be alleviated at least in part through supportive relationships.

Challenge and Support in the Internship

Every experience can be rated as to the degree to which it asks something of us, taxing our resources (challenge) or offers us something, bolstering our resources (support). We judge our experiences and expected experiences constantly along these lines, often forming rapid conclusions about them. These conclusions are felt in our emotions as negative (e.g., frustration, stress) or positive (e.g., enjoyment, satisfaction).

Boekaerts (1993) pointed out that negative emotions may lead to a concern for well-being rather than for learning, while more positive feelings may lead to intentions to learn.

A number of researchers have pointed to a relationship between challenge, support and learning or growth. Ainscow and Southworth (1994) described a project designed to bring about school improvement in England, conducted by a team of tutors at the University of Cambridge Institute of Education. The researchers described the process of successful change at four schools as having produced a blend of collegial challenge and support that was beneficial.

Cameron-Jones and O'Hara (1997) suggested that the relationship between support and challenge in teacher training programs deserves study. Mentors of student teachers tend to offer more support than challenge, according to their study.

The same researchers (O'Hara and Cameron-Jones, 1997), in another study, found individual differences in ideology among trainers within the eight occupational groups they studied as to the degree of challenge or support that was offered to learners. They found that mentors in higher education settings tended more toward support than challenge.

Daloz (1999) indicated that mentors in education provide support, challenge and vision for their protégées. Darling (1987) found that adolescents who described their parents as supportive performed better on cognitive tests, although adolescents who described their same-gender parents as challengers performed better than adolescents who described their same-gender parents as supportive

According to Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993), "There are two key sources of influence [on learners]: past experience and the role of others in the present as supportive or otherwise." (p. 15). Confidence in one's own ability affects the likelihood that one will engage in learning tasks, as does the degree of support perceived from others, according to these authors.

Kreke and Towns (1997) concluded that cooperative learning activities in an undergraduate class helped to create a learning community characterized by intellectual challenge, support, and encouragement, resulting in a warmer emotional climate in the classroom. According to the researchers, interaction between students led to more meaningful learning as students developed interpersonal and communication skills.

McCombs and Whisler (1997) pointed out that learners, including student teachers, are more motivated if they perceive that learning tasks relate to their personal needs, interests and goals and are appropriately challenging. According to McCombs and Whisler, research indicates that

"Learners' natural motivation to learn is elicited in safe, trusting and supportive environments characterized by (1) quality relationships with caring persons who see the learners' unique potential; (2) instructional supports tailored to learners' unique learning needs; and (3) opportunities for learners to take risks without fear of failure." (pp. 181-182)

Oja (1990), describing research on four developmental theories and how they relate to the professional development of teachers, noted that collaborative action research as a developmental education intervention can encourage developmental growth.

According to Oja, collaborative action research is an effective intervention in that it provides the support and challenge that promotes development.

Roark (1989) described a model for design of programs and activities that include specific challenge and support considerations to promote student development. Zachary (2000) described a model for mentoring consistent with adult learning principles. Zachary's model includes support, challenge and vision as core conditions for the mentor's task. Jarvis (1995) asserted that mentors' primary role is to offer support, challenge and vision.

Oswald and Berger (1994) pointed out that a society's dominant cultural values form the foundation on which social institutions are built. They stated that dominant American values have been described in the literature as having high regard for individual achievement, self-sufficiency, science and technology, control over nature, and the superiority of rationality over emotion. American society places little value on collectivity, history and spirituality.

The apparent dichotomy described by Oswald and Berger, between individuality and collectivity, is reminiscent of the controversy in adult education over whether adult education should emphasize the individual learner or the larger society; the question is whether to aim for growth and development of the individual or for social change. Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) assert, I believe rightfully, that this controversy may be based on a false dichotomy. According to Brockett and Hiemstra, while a focus on the individual is appropriately the starting point for adult education practice, individual growth can lead ultimately to change in the wider society.

Oswald and Berger argued that the values of the culture affect the ways in which human services are conceptualized and implemented, thus influencing the sources of support available to individuals who are experiencing psychosocial stress. In their assessment, the human services system focuses almost exclusively on corrective therapies as support, thus manifesting the individual-oriented set of values previously described. The human services system gives little attention to such approaches as community and organizational development, political action, education and socialization, skills training, and crisis intervention. The implicit message sent by this approach is that the problem lies in the individual.

Thus, Oswald and Berger pointed out, “people find themselves in situations where they are struggling alone for survival and are defining the need for mutual support and connectedness to others as a weakness and a threat to their individual freedom” (p. 6). The same description might well be applied to interns in the internship experience, unless teacher education programs explicitly promote the forming of supportive relationships between interns and those who work with them.

Like Brockett and Hiemstra, cited above, I believe that it is not necessary to see the individual’s interests as distinct from or in opposition to the interests of the larger system, which in this case is the education system. As the internship experience is made more supportive (though not necessarily less challenging) for interns, the entire education system will benefit, including children in the schools.

Reviewing the literature related to stress in the internship has revealed a multiplicity of factors contributing to making this experience a challenging one for

interns. Even if one's personal life were uneventful, even if students in school were always well-behaved, even if one's mentoring teacher and supervisor were always understanding and supportive, the internship would still prove difficult. As the research also indicates, however, university and school personnel can do things to provide as much support to interns as possible so that even when circumstances are less than ideal, as they so often are, the intern has the assurance that he or she has the resources available, through both self-reliance and the help of others, to meet the challenge.

Summary

In this chapter, I reviewed literature from several fields that addressed the themes found in the participants' descriptions of interns' experiences. This review showed that the themes described in this study have been investigated, to varying degrees, by other researchers, though not always explicitly in relation to teacher internships and interns.

The literature I reviewed provides valuable insights as to why interns and those who work with them perceive the internship experiences as they do. The literature also furnishes numerous ideas for making the internship a more beneficial experience for all concerned.

CHAPTER FOUR

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, I present a summary of the purpose, methodology and findings of the study. Following the summary is a discussion of conclusions and implications of the study.

Summary

Continued calls for improvement and reform in education in the U.S. have prompted suggestions that teacher education should be changed (e.g., Goodlad, 1994; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Wideen, Mayer-Smith and Moon, 1998). A number of authors and researchers have asserted that, within overall programs for preparation of teachers, field-based experiences such as student teaching and teacher internships bear further investigation, including research aimed at enhancing understanding of participants' perceptions of their experiences (e.g., Doyle, 1990; Wideen, et al, 1998). Accordingly, I designed this study to explore the views of interns and those who work with them concerning their internship experiences.

I addressed three questions: 1) How do interns view their internship experiences? 2) How do university faculty and supervisors, and mentoring teachers [FSMs], view interns' internship experiences? 3) How do the views of these two groups compare to each other? I collected data from interviews with twelve interns and nine FSMs, in which I asked participants to describe intern experiences. I analyzed the interview data and derived themes from each group's interviews.

My analysis identified three themes in the interns' descriptions of their experiences. These were: *Interacting with Others*, *Learning Instructional Strategies*, and *Juggling Competing Demands*. Themes I derived from the FSMs' interviews were: *Interacting with Others*, *Learning Instructional Strategies*, *Differing Perspectives* and *Stress*.

The theme *Interacting with Others* describes how interns perceived and responded to different people—mentoring teachers, supervisors, other interns, students and others—in the internship situation. The theme *Learning Instructional Strategies* describes the interns' efforts to create or find approaches to the tasks of teaching that fit themselves and the situation. *Juggling Competing Demands* describes the interns' experiences of trying to prioritize and choose among various demands on their time and attention, and their feelings of not having enough time to accomplish everything that needed to be done.

Differing Perspectives describes perceptions of FSMs concerning conflicting views among faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers about significant aspects of the internship experience, and how those conflicting views affected interns. *Stress* refers to FSMs' perceptions of the degree to which interns' experiences were difficult or problematic and how that affected the interns.

After deriving these themes from participants' interviews, I examined related literature from several fields, in an effort to understand the meaning of the themes from the perspective of related research findings and related theories and concepts in the fields of study from which the literature sources were drawn. I found that the work of other researchers largely supports the themes identified in this study, and that a humanistic perspective, motivation theory and various other theoretical perspectives and research

orientations lend a perspective on these themes. In the next section of this chapter, I discuss the conclusions I reached based on my analysis.

Conclusions and Implications

Intern Viewpoints

The first question I sought to explore in this study asked how interns view their internship experiences. The themes that I derived from the descriptions provided by interns dealt with interns' interactions with others who were involved in their internship experience, with their learning how to effectively use instructional strategies to foster students' learning, and with how they attempted to prioritize or choose among the various and sometimes conflicting demands placed upon them by the school, the university and their own needs. The interns saw the internship as an opportunity to learn, a challenge made more difficult by the amount of work to be done in the time available and by problematic interactions with others. The challenge seemed less daunting when interns experienced supportive interactions with others.

The theme of *Interacting with Others* occupies a prominent place in interns' descriptions of their experiences. Interns interacted frequently with mentoring teachers, supervisors, students, other teachers and other interns during the course of the year. They looked to these people and other interns for information, guidance, encouragement and feedback on their performance. However, not all interactions with others were positive. For example, differences in teaching styles between interns and their mentoring teachers sometimes led to misunderstanding or lack of communication. Interns frequently did not

feel free to openly express all their questions, disagreements or troubling thoughts to mentoring teachers or supervisors.

Interactions with students brought both stress and delight for interns. When they were able to create positive relationships with their own students, and to feel a sense of connectedness and mutual caring, interns saw themselves as having been successful in an important aspect of promoting students' learning and growth.

Interns also found that other interns were sources of support and encouragement. They uniformly expressed having a sense of "we're all in this together" in regard to their interactions with other interns. These findings suggest that interns are aware of the significance of relationships in determining the emotional context of the internship experience, and that interns perceive human interactions in the internship as sources of both challenge and support.

As Caine and Caine (1991) and a number of others cited previously in this study have pointed out, the emotional climate of an educational institution has an impact on learning. Since human interactions play such a significant role in creating the overall emotional tone of the internship, teacher educators and all those interested in improving the quality of teacher education should focus on improving the quality of human interactions among interns, university faculty and supervisors, and mentoring teachers.

To accomplish such improvement, those in charge of teacher education programs could do several things. First, they could take great care in selecting and preparing supervisors and mentoring teachers to work with interns. Studies I cited in the review of related literature (e.g., Denmark and Podsen, 2000; Moore, 2000; Phillips and Baggett-McMinn, 2000) indicate that selection and training of mentoring teachers could be

improved. Mentoring teachers should be chosen on the basis, not only of their years of experience in teaching, but also of their willingness and ability to work supportively with interns. The same holds true for university-based supervisors. Both groups should participate in training for working with interns, preferably, as Turk (1999) and others have suggested, in a group or team format in which the mentors and supervisors themselves could find support for their own learning and growth.

One of the areas of skill for which teachers are evaluated under the Framework for Evaluation and Professional Growth of the State of Tennessee Department of Education is called "Communication". The description of the performance standard for this skill area includes the following: "Uses appropriate verbal and non-verbal techniques to communicate effectively with students, parents, and appropriate others." It is further described as including modeling "effective communication strategies in asking questions, listening, giving directions, probing for understanding, and helping others to express their ideas" (Tennessee Department of Education, 1997, p.69). The fact that interns and teachers are evaluated in terms of these skills is reason enough to explicitly address the skills in teacher education programs.

A critical aspect of listening, probing for understanding, and helping others to express their ideas, listed in the preceding paragraph as communication strategies, is a sense of empathy. Communication skills such as empathy are treated in educational psychology textbooks used in teacher education programs, usually in the context of classroom management (see, for example, Banks and Thompson, 1995). The findings of

this study, along with other related research, support the notion that teacher education programs should place more emphasis on communication skills.

If teacher educators, supervisors of interns, and mentoring teachers were skilled at creating open and supportive relationships, teacher interns would be more likely to understand and respond appropriately to feedback instead of being defensive. Interns who saw mentoring teachers and supervisors modeling such skills as empathy would more readily learn to practice these skills themselves.

Perspective taking, a form of empathy, is an important thinking and learning skill as well as an important relationship-building skill. Interns need to learn to learn this skill, and to help others learn to learn it. Based on the research reviewed in Chapter Three, interns who learn to respond empathically to others will be better teachers. Research indicates that they will be able to help their students relate well with others as well as help them improve their academic performance (Damon, 1995; Schmuck, 1966; Wagner, 1999; Wittmer, 1992).

The kind of self-exploration promoted in a relationship characterized by empathy can facilitate interns' reflective practice. Much as a mirroring surface is needed in order to examine one's own face, an empathic other makes it possible to examine one's own actions, feelings, thoughts and beliefs in a way that might not be possible without such a relationship. Whether as part of a conscious, explicit effort to develop reflective practitioners or not, there is a need to promote self-exploration and openness in relationships between interns and those who seek to train them.

Human relations groups, focused on developing empathy and other facilitative skills, are one means for implementing this approach in the field of education. Everyone

involved in education, from college professors to school bus drivers, could participate in groups devoted to learning these skills. In-service training, required for teachers, could be used to promote learning these skills, in the format of weekly small group meetings with a relationship-skills focus. School counselors and school psychologists could also be trained as facilitators of such groups. Appendix B provides a rationale for human relations groups and a description of how they could function.

Learning Instructional Strategies

The descriptions provided by interns revealed that they were willing and able to try a variety of approaches in order to get students interested and involved in the subject matter of their classes and to promote students' learning. Interns sought, and usually received, feedback and support from their mentoring teachers in this process. The interns viewed some mentoring teachers as being willing to experiment or to allow the interns to experiment with various approaches. Overall, the interns perceived the internship as an opportunity to learn by trying a variety of instructional strategies, and they saw themselves as having gained valuable insights through experimentation with various approaches to instruction that yielded feedback from students, mentoring teachers and supervisors.

While the interns in this study evidently saw themselves as learning from their internship experience, it is also evident that their learning process could have been enhanced. For example, interns did not always receive helpful feedback from those who worked with them; sometimes they were discouraged from trying different approaches or even told that encouragement they received was not sincere. Other authors and

researchers have offered a variety of recommendations that could improve interns' learning process in the internship.

An example of ways that interns' learning might be enhanced in the context can be found in Darling-Hammond's (1998) study. She pointed out that not only interns but all teachers should be considered continuous learners rather than finished products of teacher education programs. If cooperating teachers and university supervisors saw themselves as learners, it might be easier for them to provide acceptance and support to interns, and to help shift the interns' focus from concerns for survival (performance approach or avoidance) to concerns for task mastery and impact on students. Research on motivation (e.g., Pajares, 2001; Schunk, 2001) indicates that mentors and supervisors of interns need to develop the ability to offer support to interns by helping them develop optimism, regard for self and others, and a love of learning. In so doing, they will help the interns be more motivated to persist until they attain the goals of the internship. Interns and those who work with them would all benefit from greater awareness and cultivation of emotional intelligence, both interpersonal and personal (Goleman, 1995), in order to promote their own and others' learning.

Routman (2002) argued that ongoing professional conversation among colleagues is one of the most powerful approaches to building the competence and confidence of teachers, but cited the lack of time as a major hindrance. Routman suggested having voluntary weekly meetings for the purpose of conducting such conversations, and pointed out some ways that schools could help teachers have time to participate. Routman's suggestions and those of others regarding finding time for teacher learning deserve serious consideration.

One way that institutions can encourage professional development such as I advocate here is to place more emphasis on reflective practice. According to Villar (1995), reflective practice in education is not a common phenomenon in the schools and in teacher education institutions. Brookfield (1990) suggested that the best way for facilitators to help others become critically reflective is to model this activity themselves. However, teacher educators typically have not been prepared to do so, as professional education for teacher educators has not, in the past, included training in reflective practice. Such training should become a part of all programs of preparation for teacher educators and teachers. I would include interaction with the views of others in the form of dialogue (Isaacs, 1999, 1993; Schein, 1993; Senge, 1990) as a necessary part of this process.

Dewey (1933) claimed that in order to develop as a reflective teacher one needs certain dispositions such as open-mindedness and responsibility. Elliott (1991) noted that reflective teaching implies personal knowledge, self-awareness, and awareness of the classroom context. All of these are personal qualities or attitudes, and as such typically are not addressed in traditional programs, which focus almost exclusively on the cognitive domain and acquisition of propositional knowledge.

Van Halen-Faber (1997) attempted to design education experiences that increased the involvement of intern teachers as researchers into their own learning. Klevans, Smutz, Shuman and Bershad (1992) described a self-assessment approach to professional development, and suggested other ways to help professionals examine and reflect on their practice in order to understand their own learning needs better, such as using critical

incident techniques, chart audits and peer learning projects. Teacher education programs could be improved if attention were given to these and other ideas that might be characterized as helping teachers learn how to learn.

New strategies appear to be best learned in small groups that provide motivation, support, sympathetic sounding boards, and technical assistance, according to Joyce and Calhoun (1996). Earlier in this chapter, I recommended support groups as a means of learning human relations skills. Coupled with Joyce and Calhoun's conclusion regarding small groups for learning new strategies and with notions of self-direction from adult education literature (e.g., Brockett and Hiemstra, 1991), this recommendation leads to the idea that professional development might best occur in the context of small, supportive groups who collaboratively plan, manage and evaluate their own professional development. Interns should be included in such groups, all members of which would be considered learners as well as teachers, supporting each other in their growth.

Juggling Competing Demands

The interns saw themselves as being responsible for a considerable variety of tasks. They felt accountable for their students' learning as well as for their own performance as graduate students in the courses they were taking while engaging in the internship. They were often aware of being expected to complete a large number of tasks related to their graduate courses; they also were aware of wanting to complete all these tasks on time and with a high quality of workmanship. Additionally, the interns saw themselves as needing to focus on their work for both school and university while also needing to take care of themselves financially, physically and emotionally.

The interns indicated that they often saw these demands as being in competition with each other, i.e., that it was not possible to accomplish everything that was expected of them or that they themselves wanted to do. It seemed that time management and prioritizing and choosing among these competing demands was a continuing challenge for the interns and a source of stress for them.

There are a number of things that could be done to improve the internship experience in terms of using well the time available. Of course, interns could learn to prioritize and use various other time management techniques. Other, more systemic approaches, should not be overlooked, however. There are limits to how much even a well-organized person can accomplish.

Studies by Klas and Hawkins (1997), MacDonald (1992), and Perry and Savage-Davis (1998) also found that time management and finding time to accomplish certain tasks were concerns and sources of stress for teacher interns. A number of researchers have identified lack of time as a problem for teachers as well. What teachers are expected to know and be able to do has increased in amount and complexity, yet school schedules work against teacher professional development, according to the National Education Commission on Time and Learning (1994). According to Abdal-Haqq (1996), lack of time is cited by educators, policymakers and researchers as the main impediment to professional development of teachers. Zederayko and Ward (1999) identified lack of time for collaborative professional development as a significant impediment to the creation of communities of learners within schools.

Davis-Wiley (1993) recommended clear, well-communicated, and mutually decided upon expectations as necessary for a successful internship program. Others (e.g., Darden, Scott, Darden and Westfall, 2001; Wisniewski, 1992) advocated teamwork, collaboration, open communication, and listening to interns' concerns as means of improving coordination among all participants. Talvitie, Peltokallio and Mannisto (2000) concluded that the quality of the dialogue among the parties during the internship seemed to be the most important factor affecting interns' development. McBee and Moss (2002) advocated the concept of professional development schools as places where all the participants in the teacher education enterprise develop a shared mission. The kinds of relationships and interactions described by these researchers would help decrease the competition between different demands on interns' time by improving the coordination and alignment of tasks and activities expected by the school and the university.

In brief, interns view their internship experiences as learning opportunities, in which their efforts to develop their teaching skills are bolstered by supportive interactions with others. Competing demands on their time and problematic interactions with others hamper their efforts to learn.

FSM Viewpoints

The second question that I sought to answer in this study concerned the perceptions of university faculty and supervisors and mentoring teachers (FSMs) of interns' experiences. Findings showed that FSMs perceptions could be characterized by

the themes of *Interacting with Others*, *Learning Instructional Strategies*, *Differing Perspectives* and *Stress*.

Interacting With Others

With regard to the first theme, *Interacting with Others*, the data showed that FSMs were aware of the interns' interactions with others during the internship and how those interactions affected interns. For example, FSMs perceived that interns were affected by interactions with mentoring teachers whose teaching styles did not always match the interns' preferred approaches. FSMs noted that interns sometimes imitated their mentoring teachers, even when the mentor did not intend for the intern to do so. They saw the interns as wanting to gain their mentors approval and to show their professors how they had developed during the internship. FSMs frequently described their own relationships with interns in terms of friendship and they were aware of their considerable influence on the interns.

Since FSMs are aware of the significance of interactions with others (including themselves) in shaping the interns' experiences, it should not be difficult to convince them of the need for careful selection and training of supervisors and mentoring teachers, as proposed in the preceding section. After all, many if not most of the researchers making these recommendations are also teacher educators themselves (as noted, for example, by Wideen, Mayer-Smith and Moon, 1998). Having been interns (or student teachers), they should find it relatively easy to put themselves in the interns' place and see why such careful selection and preparation would be desirable.

Learning Instructional Strategies

Concerning the theme of *Learning Instructional Strategies*, findings revealed that FSMs sought to promote reflection by interns on their practice teaching but did not always view their efforts as successful. FSMs were impressed when interns displayed enthusiasm for learning and asked for feedback on their performance. FSMs also realized that their own practices were influential in the interns' learning process. They commented favorably on interns' willingness to learn or try new approaches. Thus, FSMs did indeed perceive internship experiences as opportunities for interns to learn, though not all interns were seen as being willing to reflect on their experiences in the way or to the extent that some supervisors wished.

Teacher education programs are now beginning to be evaluated by how well their graduates perform as teachers (i.e., outcomes of the program), and not just by whether the program provides certain kinds of experiences or opportunities (i.e., inputs of the program) to its participants (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2000). Perhaps more than ever before, then, FSMs should be concerned about whether interns actually learn to teach skillfully.

However, as is true with interns' views of being evaluated, FSMs may react to these new standards with a heightened concern, not for interns' learning, but for their own professional survival. Fuller's (1969) model of teacher concern might be applied to FSMs here: If FSMs' concerns for their own professional survival are heightened, they may not be as likely to focus on mastering the tasks associated with their roles, nor to focus on the impact they have on interns.

Merely implementing stricter measures of accountability for teacher education programs is not enough. Teacher educators (FSMs) should also be empowered, through such measures as providing time during the school day for professional development in the form of reflection and dialogue in small groups or teams, to become better facilitators of learning for interns.

Differing Perspectives

The FSMs noted that university-based and school-based personnel had different views about certain aspects of the internship, e.g., which tasks were most important or when certain things should be done. They perceived the interns as “being torn” between the views of school personnel and university personnel, and between the differing schedules of the two institutions. These *Differing Perspectives* were seen as a source of difficulty for the interns.

Although college-level teacher educators and school-based practitioners have not always seen eye-to-eye on matters related to the preparation of teachers, and although this has sometimes been seen as having a negative effect on student teachers, a number of solutions to the problem have been proposed. For example, Lange and Burroughs-Lange (1994) proposed a collaborative supervision system involving a university supervisor who not only works with the intern but also helps mentoring teachers to develop professionally. Gray (1999) described an approach to the supervision of student teachers involving student teacher cohorts and teams of supervisors working together in a collegial, supportive environment. Calhoun (2002) described collaborative action research as a way to create professional learning communities in schools. Keating, Diaz-Greenberg, Baldwin and Thousand (1998) proposed that a collaborative action research

model be incorporated into teacher preparation programs. Darden, Scott, Darden and Westfall (2001) pointed out that the university supervisor, the mentoring teacher and the student teacher should learn to work as a team. Talvitie, Peltokallio and Mannisto (2000) focused on the quality of the dialogue among the parties during the practicum as the most important factor affecting interns' development.

The concept of professional development schools, as places where practitioners, researchers, and clinical faculty work together to expand the knowledge base of the profession and prepare future practitioners, has value in this regard. According to Levine (2002), such schools socialize teacher candidates into a culture of inquiry and collegiality, and candidates learn better as a result. McBee and Moss (2002) and Ross (2000) support Levine's contentions.

The essence of these approaches might be described as collaboration, an approach in which all the parties involved endeavor to work together as equal partners in the process. Dialogue, as described by Isaacs (1999), can help sustain such collaboration. Those who work with interns, and the interns themselves, should learn the skills of dialogue and collaboration in order to better align and coordinate their efforts.

Stress

The last theme I derived from Interviews of the FSMs was the theme of *Stress*. FSMs were aware of a number of challenging situations faced by interns, including being constantly evaluated and having numerous difficulties in their lives outside of school.

The internship is a challenging experience for interns, as they face many tests of their skills, knowledge and stamina. The workload for interns is usually heavy and many tasks they face for the first time in a "real-life" classroom situation. They are constantly

aware of being evaluated by students, peers, other teachers, principals, supervisors and teacher education faculty. In fact, the internship has been described by some as a "year-long interview." All of this goes to say that, even on the best days, there are understandable reasons that interns to experience stress in their lives.

Wadlington, Slaton and Partridge (1998) pointed out a number of studies indicating that teachers experience a high degree of work-related stress, and that preservice teachers often experience extreme stress during field experiences. They concluded that stress can decrease interns' effectiveness and hamper their development as teachers. Bernshausen and Cunningham (2001) argued that teacher education programs should make resiliency development a major goal. They cited high attrition rates, stress levels and burnout rates as indications that educational organizations are not providing enough support for teacher resiliency. According to Bernshausen and Cunningham, preservice and inservice experiences should be designed to provide supportive, collegial environments that promote a cooperative spirit and build a sense of belonging and competence, in order to decrease stress and burnout and promote retention of new teachers in the profession.

Wadlington et al also reported on recommendations made by other researchers for reducing preservice teachers' stress. These recommendations include helping cooperating or mentoring teachers develop non-threatening supervisory and evaluation skills, teaching stress reduction techniques, encouraging university supervisors to

emphasize support more than evaluation, helping preservice teachers develop realistic expectations, using veteran teachers as mentors, and helping preservice teachers develop human relations skills.

Beisel (1997) studied interns' perceptions of the internship and concluded that interns saw the internship as a positive, if challenging, experience, one which they felt prepared them to take over their own classrooms. The problem of greatest import mentioned by interns in Beisel's study was lack of income during the internship because the time required to complete internship duties precluded their being able to work elsewhere. Beisel recommended trying to find ways to help interns financially. Financial challenges were mentioned by several interns and FSMs in this study as a problem.

While Wadlington, Slaton and Partridge (1998) pointed out the negative effects of stress on intern's professional development, other research has indicated that stress is deleterious to physical health, and to one's ability to learn (Caine & Caine, 1991). If we want interns to get the most out of their internship, we should look carefully at ways to lessen the stress they experience. Bernshausen and Cunningham's (2001) recommendations, as well as those of Wadlington, Slaton and Partridge (1998), make a lot of sense in this regard. The idea I have mentioned previously, integrating interns into teams that explicitly seek to foster supportive, collegial relations and a sense of belonging, aligns well with the suggestions of these researchers.

Results of this study show that when an intern perceived his or her supervisor, mentor, professors and principal as being empathically accepting and understanding, an environment was created that would lower the level of threat perceived by the intern.

The intern was supported and cared about. Some unnecessary stress (wondering how she or he was being perceived by mentors, for example) would be lessened, and other stress (concerns about performance) would at least be buffered by the supportive aspects of the situation.

Comparing Interns and FSMs Viewpoints

The third research question asked how interns and FSM's compared in terms of their view of the interns' experiences. The views of interns and FSMs concerning the internship experiences of interns appeared to be nearly identical with regard to two themes; both groups gave prominence to *Interacting with Others* and *Learning Instructional Strategies, interacting with others*. Their similar emphasis on learning instructional strategies is not surprising, since the principal aim of the internship is to provide a structured, supervised opportunity for interns to apply the ideas they have been learning during their preparation program. I believe it is reasonable to conclude, based on the interviews of participants in this study, that interns and those who work with them are indeed preoccupied with the goal of learning, and that both groups viewed the internship as an opportunity for interns to learn, an opportunity at which interns are generally successful.

Both interns and FSMs saw *Interacting with Others* as a significant aspect of the internship experience. However, there were some differences between interns' views and FSMs' views concerning interactions with others. Interns' descriptions of their

experiences showed concern about interactions with their students, with other teachers and with other interns, as well as with FSMs, while FSMs descriptions of interactions with others were mostly, though not exclusively, about interactions between the interns and themselves or between the interns and other FSMs.

Another difference between interns and FSMs having to do with interactions with others relates to the interns' descriptions of feeling the need to keep their thoughts to themselves at times, rather than divulging the truth about their thinking to mentoring teachers or supervisors. FSMs did not mention this issue in their descriptions of interns' experiences, which is hardly surprising, since it was something occurring only in the minds of interns, something the FSMs could not hear or see directly.

It is also significant that interns did not reveal some of their thoughts about their experiences to their mentoring teachers or their supervisors. This is an indication that interns did not fully trust their mentors or supervisors, or did not believe that mentoring teachers and supervisors had the interns' best interests at heart. Some interns apparently believed that if they said the wrong things it might be used against them later. The fact that interns did not feel safe to disclose some of their thoughts and feelings further highlights what has already been discussed in previous sections about the need for training in human relations skills for interns and those who work with them.

Interns' and FSMs' perceptions were also generally in harmony concerning the themes of *Juggling Competing Demands* from interns' descriptions, and *Differing Perspectives* and *Stress* from the FSMs descriptions. Both groups saw the interns as having to deal with problems and difficulties that made it harder for them to accomplish

the aims of the internship. The interns' experienced competing demands in part because there were differences between what school personnel and what university personnel expected of them, and because they had so much to do to meet the expectations of the school and the university. Both interns and FSMs described the internship as an intense, challenging, time-consuming experience.

Bolton (1997) concluded that attempting to understand and work within the complex context of the classroom while struggling with the nature of teaching results in frustration, stress, and attributions of luck rather than effort for interns. *Learning Instructional Strategies*, while it is the main challenge of the internship, is made even more challenging when undertaken under the conditions of *Competing Demands*, *Differing Perspectives* and *Stress*. If, with all this, interns do not experience supportive *Interactions with Others*, the internship experience as a learning opportunity becomes very challenging indeed.

Implications for Further Research

While I believe that this study has yielded information that could be used to improve the internship experience, there are several possibilities for further research that could add to or refine what this study has accomplished. One suggestion would be for a researcher or researchers to work with a group of interns and FSMs in a collaborative action research format for the purpose of better understanding and improved practice. Another suggestion for further research would be to replicate this study with other interns

and FSMs in other settings, since this study only involved participants from one university. Doing so would improve the potential for generalizing from the results.

A third proposal would be to interview an intern or interns about their internship experiences and then ask the supervisors and mentoring teachers who worked with them to describe those *same* experiences from their perspective. In this study, I asked each group to talk about any internship experience that came to their minds, not attempting to have the interns and the FSMs talk about the same experiences. I did not attempt to do this, in part because I thought such an approach might not protect the confidentiality of interns' information. Another way to explore views of interns and FSMs concerning the internship experience would be to conduct focus group-style interviews with a group of interns and with a group of FSMs.

Postscript

Like a tapestry in which one may be able to discern individual threads yet be unable to truly separate the individual strands from each other without destroying the overall picture, the picture of the internship experience created by this study is made up of themes that are interwoven and essentially inseparable. The themes from interviews of interns are integrally interwoven with the themes from interviews of faculty, supervisors and mentoring teachers.

Teaching is a complex profession characterized by the need to make numerous, frequent decisions during the course of a day. This is true for interns just as much as for teachers. The nature of interns' interactions with others affects how easily and how well interns learn to accomplish the tasks of teaching. So does the amount of mental/emotional pressure interns experience, which is based in part on the number of tasks, the variety of tasks and the time required to complete the tasks that the interns are expected to accomplish.

The internship would be a challenging experience even if everything went as planned and expected, and even if the students, the supervisors, the other teachers and everyone involved was kind and caring and understanding. If prospective teachers are to succeed and thrive in the internship and in their future careers, everyone who works with them must do all they can to support them.

Max de Pree (1989) described relationships as sacred. Teachers and teacher educators should recognize that relationships among people in educational settings are

extremely significant. University faculty and supervisors, mentoring teachers and interns should participate in ongoing professional development in the form of collaborative inquiry into and reflection on the practice of teacher education, in order to continually seek to improve that practice. Development of human relations skills should be one of the primary goals of every teacher education program and every program of preparation for teacher educators.

Training university and school personnel in human relations, and emphasizing human relations skills in teacher education programs, would ultimately benefit the children of our nation and our world. Social-emotional factors affect learning. Schools where people were treated with empathy and respect would be places where more and better learning took place. They would also be places where a better society could take shape.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Interview Reminder Checklist

Intentional Stance: The interviewee is the world's leading expert on their own experience. I want to understand *their* lived world.

Knowledge: Know *what* to ask for, *why* to ask for it, and *how*.

Structure: Explain purpose/procedure of the interview; debrief; ask if they have questions.

Clarity: Keep questions, short, simple, easy and clear.

Gentleness: Let them go at their own pace; tolerate pauses, the emotional, the unconventional.

Sensitivity: Listen actively, seek full description of nuances of meaning. Listen for emotional messages; notice *how* things are said and *what is not said*.

Openness: Hear what is important to *them*; follow up on new information/angles.

Focus: Keep interview on important, relevant topics.

Criticality: Explore puzzling statements; don't accept everything at face value.

Remembering: Recall earlier statements for elaboration, comparison to later ones.

Interpreting: State interpretations for interviewee's confirmation/disconfirmation; clarify and extend meanings throughout interview.

Types of Questions

Introducing: "Can you tell me about...?" "Please describe in as much detail as possible..."

Follow-up: "Red lights"; repeat significant words.

Probing: "Can you say more about...?"

Specifying: "What did you think/feel/do then?"

Indirect: "How do you think (x) perceived that?"

Direct: (Later in interview, after they've given their spontaneous descriptions and thereby indicated what is significant to them-) "Have you ever had a problem with your mentoring teacher?"

Structuring: "I would like to ask about a different experience now..."

Interpreting: "Is it correct that you feel that...?" "Is it correct that your main concern about the supervisor was...?" or (more speculative) "Do you see any connection between ___ and ___?"

(Adapted from Kvale, 1996)

APPENDIX B

Human Relations Groups

K. R. Newton

Undoubtedly one of the greatest needs today in our modern, technological world is an improved more equitable relationship between all forms of life. Between people: males and females, persons of different color, young and old, parents and children, wives and husbands, rich and poor, employers and employees, labor and management. Between nations; nations of differing political beliefs; between rich nations and poor nations, industrialized nations and developing nations. Between people and the environment, between people and animal life. The common denominator in all these relationships is the human being. It stands to reason that if we develop better relationships with one another then we would be better able to improve all these other world relationships. Only when we learn to trust, accept and care for one another can we hope to trust, accept and care for our world.

It is through interpersonal relationships, through connection with others, that we learn to trust, accept, and care for one another. More fundamentally, our interpersonal relationships deeply and significantly affect how we care for ourselves. Indeed, it is not likely that I can humanly exist separate from others. I may prefer at times to believe that I never needed anyone, that I developed free of encumbrances with others, and that I "grew up" in spite of those whom I depended upon for my security and safety. I sometimes feel I need to be "my own person." In reality though, it is other people and my relationships with them that have defined and continue to define who I am.

Most, if not all, of our interpersonal relations have a strong verbal, symbolizing component. It is primarily through the use of language that we

present ourselves to others. This presenting of ourselves to others is referred to by Maurice Friedman in "The Healing Dialogue in Psychotherapy," and the "dialogue" is the central, most typical, essential, and telling activity of human beings (Sam Keen). Friedman speaks of healing through meeting; I will put it even more strongly--being through meeting.

If all of this sounds rather Maslovian, you need look no farther for some other more classic, "significant" theoretical viewpoint on human personality development. Maslow's hierarchy of needs (physical, safety, belongingness, etc.) may not be much of a theory and it is an extremely descriptive definition of what a person must go through as she/he approaches the ultimate in humanness. According to Maslow's theory, a person must have their basic physical and safety needs gratified before they can proceed up to next level of personal growth. Once these basic needs have been met, however, a person cannot ever again have the same reaction to threats to their physical and safety needs as before those needs were met. There are few of us in our culture (in the United States) who do not have our basic physical and safety needs rather completely met. Granted they may be somewhat meagerly fulfilled. Our caretakers may be cruel, we may not have our physical needs met ideally, and we may have at times lacked severely in nutritional needs. Whatever limitations we may have experienced through, our physical and safety needs have still been met to the degree that they will never be experienced as basic needs again --intense "wants" perhaps, and not as basic "needs."

A very different circumstance is encountered as we go further up Maslow's hierarchy. Our "belongingness" needs seem seldom to have been adequately met. Those relationships which we so long for, which are enticingly held out to us, are often withheld or must be bargained for, making

it impossible for us to feel that we truly belong. We are denied the complete caring and full belonging which would enable us to feel valued by others and thus believe that we are worth being around and being with.

One of the goals of the Human Relation Group is to complete the Maslovian pyramid, i.e. the peak of the hierarchy: belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization. Ways of being in the Human Relations Group, as identified by the "Statement," facilitate group relationships so as to enable participants to continue their personal growth up Maslow's pyramid. Self-disclosure, risk-taking, acceptance, expression of feelings and thinking out loud, confrontation and response to confrontation, all in the "here and now" context are powerful tools which can be used to affect the group (and the people in it) in such a way that trust and caring are facilitated and developed between the members. This trust and caring can be of such intensity that belongingness is the powerful "real" feeling between members as well as within the group as a whole. With such overwhelming belongingness reinforced by the continuing group it is not unusual for self-esteem to grow and as the group members are accepted by the others they also come to accept themselves. Self-actualization is a relatively rare occurrence and this too seems to be possible in such an atmosphere of caring, love and acceptance.

Claims such as these may seem extravagant and even grandiose for such a temporary, short lived experience. A key to the potential for personal growth offered by the Human Relations Group is the emphasis placed upon interpersonal verbalizing of feelings and thoughts within the group. In an article entitled "Pointing Toward a Poetic of Personal Growth," Anderson and McCleary state that it is only through an "active transaction with others" that the individual becomes a person. According to Anderson and McCleary, "One becomes

a person by (1) listening alertly to himself or herself talk; and (2) translating others' reactions into a self address." The Human Relations Group offers a unique opportunity to have such an "active transaction with others."

In their discussion of personal growth, Anderson and McCleary state that "...much of thought is interior speech, but it rarely resembles that of the speech of the exterior. Exterior speech, adapted often to an audience of strangers or presumed judges, conforms to socialized linguistic forms. It is rule-based, grammatical, linear, causally motivated, and highly particularized. It is aimed at reducing ambiguity." The abbreviated inner voice (or "Self-audience") adapted only to the self audience of familiarity, needs no such form. It adapts to its own hearing, is less linear, less rational, less discursive, less causally oriented, less grammatical. It tends to be epigrammatic, fragmented, playful, evocative, experimental, ambiguous, metaphoric, mythic and holistic" (Anderson & McCleary).

As the Human Relations Group develops, the "self-audience" and the "group audience" approach this same level of familiarity, and the need to conform disappears. The playful, the ambiguous and the experimental all become overt external speech. Creativity and poetry in our speech are uncommon, and with the full-functioning Human Relations Group, creative, metaphoric, poetic speech can be expected.

The significance of being attended to and being accepted by others in the group is evidenced by a growing, developing self. As the person is attended to by others he/she develops the skill of attending to herself or himself, and becomes more aware of what she/he is experiencing, thinking, and feeling. Their inner speech becomes a natural way of being. A person in the Human Relations Group becomes an effective listener to his or her own

messages, and an effective listener to how exteriorized messages evoke responses from others. I discover who I am by attending to my own talk and its milieu. I sense the interdependence of inner and outer, self and other. There is a meeting, and I am there.

Many of the behaviors and traits of what Maslow defined as the self-actualized person bear a strong resemblance to what Anderson and McCleary say are possible of the self that is developed through "interpersonal symbolic interactions." The "self" of the self-actualized person is characterized by a greater awareness of others and of themselves, a freedom to express their potential, an intense honesty with the caring for themselves and others, a trust and faith in themselves and others, and a perception that they are valuable and significant persons. They feel their lives have a meaning and purpose. The self-actualized person believes everyone has significance, value, and a right to life in their environment.

Valuing what is human brings with it a valuing of the environment. It brings a peace with one another and a sense of trust and acceptance of one another. Acceptance also involves the support and protection of our world and all that is part of it. Other persons are not our enemies; the world is not our enemy. Sam Keen states in the "Passionate Life" that we must be friendly to our world and to all in it if we are going to survive. We must be compassionate toward and patient with one another and with our world.

The Human Relations Group can provide a facilitative environment for such growth. At best, it is a place where compassionate passion, trust and acceptance of others, and consequently of ourselves, can begin.

Sources:

Maurice Friedman, "The Healing Dialogue in Psychotherapy."

Sam Keen, Contemporary Psychology, Vol. 30, No. 12.

Anderson and McCleary, "Pointing Toward a Poetic of Personal Growth."

Abraham Maslow, "Motivation and Emotion."

STATEMENTS ON THE WAY I PREFER A HUMANS RELATIONS GROUP TO BE

These statements are suggestions which we put in the form of an agreement to try a common way of being during our time together. These are not inviolate rules which can be "obeyed" or believed simply by memorizing them; they are strong suggestions which all of us may utilize with ourselves and one another during our time together. These statements show us how we can be with one another during these designated times, THE HUMAN RELATIONS GROUP. THE HUMAN RELATIONS GROUP is a unique experience; one which is "artificial" and more real than most other life situations when it (the group) is functioning well. The well functioning human relations group creates a feeling of acceptance, an openness and a respect for the other which seldom finds expression in relationships outside the HUMAN RELATIONS GROUP.

If each of us commits her or himself to these values, the chance of establishing a cooperative community in which group goals of acceptance, openness and respect can be effectively pursued is heightened considerably. If this commitment is reached, if we all work with ourselves and with one another we can become a community structured with these goals in mind. We can create a situation in which each of us can develop interpersonally far more than we might in, perhaps, any other situation. The group and individual goal is "dialogue" as defined by Friedman (see note at end of statement). As a result of this dialogue we can create a situation for individual and interpersonal change and growth as identified by Carl Rogers.

Significant relationships which enable us to grow and to change personally and interpersonally can be developed. The variables utilized in this situation can generalize to other places and to other relationships and

enrich our lives and relationships as we learn to "be" as we are in this Human Relations Group.

The expression of feeling; attempting to personalize what is happening; and to initiate verbal responses are of primary importance to the vitality of the group. These can be identified as the basic postulates of our group. To "listen" to others as if you were part of that dialogue, to respond as a part of that dialogue is essential to the life of the group. Frequently polite listening to an entire statement, or soliloquy, (or even to a dialogue between two or more people) is deadly, to your own participation and to your contribution to the group. This is also an easy way to remain out of a difficult situation. Active Listening. This is the most important variable or behavior, for members to engage in during the group. By "active listening" is meant attempting to let the other know what I have heard them saying. This could include the words as well as the body language, tone of voice, facial expressions, etc. Our "listening" includes the entire message, not merely the words that are used and may include my own reactions which are stirred up by that person's message.

This is not the time to get into a discussion or argument about what was actually meant. "Active Listening: includes "hearing" what others are responding with and not offering opposing responses at that time. If you have another version of what was said, your "active listening" should be presented after the first effort at "active Listening" has been stated and interacted around.

Self-disclosure. Self-disclosure in the group is important and not an end in itself. If you are to get to know me, enter into a relationship with me, I must reveal myself to you and this is not letting you know about what I

have been. I need to let you know what I am experiencing now, in this situation. This includes those feelings present for me as I make my statement (or tell my "story") about what I have been (or am) experiencing. If there is an old "there and then" situation which continues to be with me I want to tell what I am experiencing/feeling now as I continue to remember (or encounter anew) this previously experienced situation. My on-going feelings are what I wish to explore and have "actively listened" to by the group. This is not "spilling my guts." It is attempting to be honest with myself and others in this group. If the participants are "active listening" with me and are open to what is happening within themselves as they go about the business of "listening" I may be exposed to other ways of thinking and feeling about my situation as I hear what others have heard me say and feel.

The participant is important, not his/her secrets or outside experiences. If a participant reveals his/her life outside the group, s/he should do so because it is relevant to what is happening here and now and because it helps her/him establish and develop relationships more effectively in the group. It is up to each participant to choose what s/he wants to disclose in order to establish contact with others. Ongoing feelings about what is happening (active listening) is of far more value for group cohesiveness than is the recall of similar events, particularly if this recall does not involve ongoing, continuing feelings.

Expressing of Feeling. The STATEMENT calls for expression of feelings. This does not mean that the participant is asked to manufacture feelings and emotions. Rather s/he is asked not to suppress the feelings that arise in the natural give and take of the group, and to deal with them as openly and honestly as possible. Suppressed emotions tend to explode eventually, or to

dribble out in unproductive ways, and deprive that person and the group of vitality.

Support. The STATEMENT also calls for support, whatever name it may be given--respect, nonpossessive warmth, acceptance, love, care, concern, "being for" the other, or a combination of all of these. Without a climate of support as defined here these groups can degenerate into a destructive or meaningless experience. On the other hand, if a person receives adequate support in the group, then s/he can usually tolerate a good deal of strong interaction. Without a climate of support there can be no climate of trust. Without trust there can be no intimate community. Support and acceptance can be expressed in many different ways, both verbally and non-verbally, and it must be expressed if it is to have an impact on the other. Support that stays locked up inside a participant is not support at all. Support is not sympathy; support is acceptance. Support is not the asking of questions; support is not agreement, support is acceptance. Support is not solving someone's problems, it is acceptance of the other's feelings. Support is not reassurance that things will be all right, support is acceptance of that person's feelings at this time. Support is hearing the person's statement and feelings and letting the person know what you heard and enabling the person to proceed farther into these thoughts and feelings. Support is not seeking understanding and justification of these feelings from the one presenting them. Support does not involve asking for justification or validity for the feelings I have expressed. And, most of all, support is not agreement.

Confrontation. If there is an adequate climate of support, of "being for" one another, then the participants can benefit greatly by learning how to

challenge one another effectively. Confrontation does not mean "telling the other off." (This is merely punishment and punishment is rarely, if ever, growthful). Confrontation is not attack. Confrontation is a challenge of another's presentation of him/her self. It is recognition of the other's (or my own) inconsistencies and discrepancies. The participant should confront only if s/he follows at least one of these two simple rules: (1) Challenge only if you care about the other and that confrontation is a sign of your caring and/or (2) Confront in order to get involved with the other as a way of establishing a relationship. Do not confront merely to demonstrate your superior knowledge or way of being. Confront when you want to know the other more thoroughly and/or you want to enable that other to grow and to be more honest, open and clear. And be aware that to challenge is to invite relationship. When you respond to how you feel about the other's inconsistencies and discrepancies you are also making your self vulnerable, you are taking a risk, and with this risk comes your own change and growth.

Remember it is possible to confront others with their unused strengths as well as demonstrated weaknesses. There is evidence that the former is a more growthful process.

Remember that your challenge of the other will be better received if you first build up a base of support with that other.

Response to Confrontation. Most of us, when challenged, frequently react either by defending ourselves or by attacking our confronter--or both. Our agreement, however, calls for something more growthful than defense or attack, i.e., self-exploration in the context of the group. Such as; "That is something I haven't experienced. I would like to explore it with you and the others here" is not an easy response, and it can be very growthful. This

does not imply that you are going to change your mind (or feelings). However to go further with someone else's response to me can be growthful and expanding to my way of being.

"Getting someone in the hot seat" is not the goal of the group, rather the goal is a sharing of our concern and caring. While others in the group may add to or subtract from the original confrontation don't pick this time to get in your "two cents worth" toward the one being confronted; one confrontation at a time is usually sufficient for any of us. It is also worth remembering that no one else in the group may agree with that particular confrontation, and yet the one confronting still has something to say to you which may be significant for you and your relationship. It may also be that everyone else may agree with the confrontation and you may choose to acknowledge the confrontation while not agreeing with it. Individual or group consensus is NOT essential; agreement is NOT sought for; AWARENESS is sought after. Acceptance of the other's confrontation and not necessarily agreement is something we should strive for. Whether the confrontation is "right or wrong," whether you agree or disagree is not as important as you (the one confronted) accepting that confrontation as significant to the one doing the confronting. Attempting to respond to him or her regarding the concerns verbalized in or concealed by the confrontation is important, remembering not to talk the other out of his/her concern or confrontation.

PROCEDURAL EFFORTS

(1) The here-and-now. Deal with the here and now; what is being felt and thought at this time and say this in the present tense. When you talk about things that are happening (or have happened) outside the group do so in the

present tense. The "there-and-then" can prove quite boring or distracting or deceiving (especially while endeavoring to establish and develop relationships in the group) if one does not relate the subject to present, ongoing feelings. Usually if I want to relate something it is because I am continuing to have feelings about it and it is these feelings I wish to express. If I only desire verification of facts and want my reactions, thinking and feelings approved of and agreed with, I have told the group to be careful how they listen and to agree with what I have done and with what I am feeling.

If I am helped (or if the other is helped) to speak of my feelings I generally get to something that I could not get to by myself and that I would continue to deny or avoid if I were permitted to stay with my original thoughts and feelings without these responded to within the "active listening" mode. "Tears" and other "hysterics" do not, as such, bring our subject into the "here and now." An effort to use the present tense ("is" or "are") does tend to bring the feelings and concerns into the here and now. And this placing the effort in the present tense creates an entirely different impact on the speaker than does a past (or future) tense.

(2) Initiative. Do not wait to be contacted by others. The importance of personal initiative cannot be over stressed. The group can quickly become deadly, or useless, if there is a paucity of interaction. Respond to another with your own thoughts and feelings regardless of how insignificant you may find them.

(3) Speak to individuals. As a general rule, speak to individual members rather than to the entire group. Speeches to the entire group tend to become too long, abstract, boring, and further, they do not contribute to the development of relationships with individual members. (The "does he mean me"

phenomenon frequently occurs and can be confusing and arouses suspicion). Such as, a participant saying, "People here are acting strange toward me; I feel like an outcast." This may be directed at a specific person while it is phrased in such a way that any number of persons in the group may feel that he or she is the target and may become defensive or angry without a clear definition as to why. And a "personalizing" response could be, "I feel you are saying that to me" and perhaps adding how you feel about that.

(4) "Owning" the interactions of others. Part of taking initiative is "owning" the interactions of others. In this Human Relations Group when two people speak to each other, it is not just a private interaction; we would not need the group if private dialogues were preferred. Other participants may and even should "own" the interaction, by listening and by contributing their own thoughts and feelings. These contributions add to--not take away from-- what is going on. Each member should try to own as many of the interactions as possible. Your verbalized "active listening" response may be very clarifying to those enmeshed in the discussion. And particularly your "personalized" version of what you are hearing may be especially insightful for others. One way of owning or personalizing what is going on between two or more group members is to try to feel what it would be like to have those things said to you. Then share with those doing the interacting what you are thinking and feeling. These "as if" sharings are indirect in nature and, generally, are not as sharp as more direct confrontations and may, therefore, be easier to hear. An example of such "owning of interactions between others" is, "Umph, I feel that," or "I'd really think you don't like me if you respond to me like that," etc. This sharing enables you to be a part of the interaction and not merely an observer.

(5) Speak for yourself in the group. Avoid using the word "we". When you use "we" you are speaking for the group. Rather, speak for yourself and own for yourself your opinion or comment that was about to be generalized to the group. And, of course, others in your group are encouraged to help you be more personal by reminding you of the fact that you are speaking for everyone there and that he or she would prefer your making that an "I" statement.

Strangely enough, the pronouns you use can make a difference in the group and for you. You are more responsible and vulnerable (thus taking more of a risk) making "I statements" than you are when engaging in more general, nonpersonal opinions. Self awareness and personal learning is much more likely with "I statements."

(6) Say it in the group. When we can be as open in the group as we are (or seem to be) with intimate friends, then what we say to one another outside the group will not take away from our feelings of trust or "safeness" in the group. That is, if you do confide in (or discuss something) with someone you (and the one confided in) should know that what you have said to one another is also something that either of you can bring to the group.

Group members almost always find an ally in the group with whom they can talk most easily about those threatening aspects of the group which that person finds impossible to share with the group. One purpose for formalizing dyadic situations in the group is for each member of this dyad to assist, help and to support her/his partner during the group and not to form a protective team which they can hide behind. Whether this dyad is formal or informal, each member is also responsible to the group and should help one another talk about in the group what it is that was shared between them.

As much as possible say what you mean in the group. Discussions about individual members (or the group in general) outside the group tend to siphon off the "power" of the group; to weaken it; particularly if such discussions enable the person to get rid of anxiety or pressures that otherwise would enable that person to seek relief or release in the group. If these outside discussions add to the person's ability to speak in the group, to increase trust and risk-taking then these "outside" discussions obviously reinforce the group rather than weaken it. And there is always the understanding that what is said outside may be said in the group by either participant.

(7) Responsibility for your own feelings. If you are angry, bored, upset, etc. with the group and what is going on, relate these feelings to the group--do not expect someone else to do so. If you don't like what's happening, it's your responsibility for changing it, or at least saying you do not like it. You do not need to have a solution or a remedy if you say that you want a change to take place in the group. If you are feeling left out or unnecessary in the group, you are responsible for stating that to the group.

(8) Be willing to change a question into a statement. We often hide our own feelings in questions. While some questions are genuine, especially at the beginning of the group when the leader is explaining group structure, usually the person asking the question has his/her answer, to compare with the one given in response to the question. I prefer to hear the answer along with the question, or ideally to have the question framed as a statement, explaining what it is that the person knows and wants further clarification on.

(9) Use "AND" rather than "BUT"; when someone uses "but" in their response to me, I usually feel they are disagreeing; even (or perhaps

especially) when they say "yes, but..." The use of AND seems to enable me to feel that my statement has been accepted; NOT necessarily agreed with and still accepted.

(10) Stay in touch with yourself, your feelings and your body. be genuine; Recognize your bodily states and share these with the group.

(11) It is legitimate to not respond to a verbal or non-verbal message if you feel that this message (or question) is a demand which you do not want to meet at that time.

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VITA

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