THE FIRST YEAR OF TEACHING:
A GROUNDED THEORY STUDY

A Thesis

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ABSTRACT

The objectives of this study were two-fold: to present an indepth and systematic view of the day-to-day experiences of a group of beginning primary school teachers (N=38) during their first year of teaching, and, to derive from this, a theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for these teachers. Throughout the 1979 school year, data was collected from this sample of teachers, and from their Principals, Senior Teachers, colleagues and Inspectors, using a selection of case study research techniques (e.g., interviews, diary accounts, questionnaires) in conjunction with a strategy for theory construction known as "grounded theory". The outcome of using these two approaches in tandem was the development of a low level theory about the socialisation of these beginning teachers grounded in data relating to their day-to-day experiences during the first year of teaching. This grounded theory was comprised of seven major categories: Pupil-Teacher Influences, Parent-Teacher Interaction, The Role of the Principal, Guidance from the Senior Teacher, Associating with Colleagues, Inspectorial Visits, and Management and Organisation Patterns. These seven categories represented the over-riding factors, which were able to be identified, in the process of socialisation for this sample of Year One teachers. Within each of these categories, a set of suggestive, generalisable propositions about the socialising situations and influences which may be experienced by first year primary school teachers was formulated.

The uses and implications of this grounded theory are wide ranging, and in the concluding sections of this report these are discussed. It is suggested, for instance, that the theory may be of use to at least four groups of people: school personnel, such as those who have a direct interest in the welfare of beginning teachers (e.g., Principals, Senior Teachers and Inspectors); beginning teachers and students in training; teacher educators; and, researchers interested in studying first year teachers and the teacher socialisation process. As well, the grounded theory has implications for the professional development of Year One teachers. For example, it is recommended, on the basis of this study, that teacher training institutions should endeavour to increase the level of awareness student teachers have about the first year of teaching, and that provisions should be made for a formalised preservice orientation programme and on-the-job training for first year teachers. Another implication arising from the grounded theory is that little support can be given to the lock-step, input/output models and theories of teacher socialisation which are prevalent in the literature. Finally, in the area of methodology, especially in relation to doing fieldwork in schools and in using the grounded theory strategy, this study has had several pay-offs. In particular, some of the dilemmas and pitfalls associated with data collection, the fieldworker being a participant, the influence of researcher bias in developing theory, and the mechanics of data analysis, have been highlighted.

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Finally, to my wife, Kennece, and to our two children, this thesis represents a testimony of their tolerance, understanding and faith in me.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

I shall be telling this with a sigh
Somewhere ages and ages hence:
Two roads diverged in a wood, and I -
I took the one less travelled by,
And that has made all the difference.

Robert Frost

There seems to be little doubt that the first year of teaching may well be one of the most crucial stages in a teacher's career. And yet, our understanding of what happens to beginning teachers during this period is far from comprehensive.

To date, studies of first year teachers usually have been of two types: those which have sought to present an account of some of the day-to-day experiences (e.g., problems, stresses, etc.) of beginning teachers; and, those which have attempted to analyse, from a theoretical perspective, the first year of teaching as a process of socialisation for teachers. In both these areas, much of the research which has been carried out is found to be deficient on a number of counts. For instance, there has been a tendency to rely solely on the use of one-shot questionnaires and surveys to collect data on first year teachers, with the outcome that a fragmented and often incomplete picture is obtained of their experiences. Moreover, researchers studying the socialisation of first year teachers have tended to base their investigations on established theoretical perspectives (e.g., structural functionalism), at the expense of exploring the possibility of developing new theories about teacher socialisation. The nett effect of these and other deficiencies in past studies has been the failure, on the one hand, to provide a comprehensive view of beginning teachers' experiences during their first year in the profession, and on the other, to arrive at theory about the socialisation of first year teachers which is grounded in data and closely tied to the everyday world of these teachers.

It was against this background that the present study evolved and took its objectives, which were, to provide an indepth and systematic view of a group of beginning primary school teachers' (N=38) experiences during their first year of teaching, and to derive from this, a theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for these teachers. In setting out to achieve these objectives, this study aimed

to make a contribution in several other areas. First, in providing some insight into the transition of first year teachers from college students to primary school teachers. Second, in developing a "grounded theory" which could prove to be a profitable starting point for further empirical research on beginning teachers and teacher socialisation. And finally, in the area of methodology, this study aimed to make a contribution through using a research design, which in educational research, could be regarded as being both novel and innovative.

This report of the research undertaken to fulfil the objectives just outlined, is comprised of six chapters. The first, which follows, briefly reviews, and outlines deficiencies in, the research and literature on beginning teachers, and then discusses the objectives of the present study. The second chapter, in focussing on the design and methodology of the current investigation, presents a rationale for using a case study approach to data collection in conjunction with a strategy for theory construction known as "grounded theory". Details are also given in this chapter of the sample of teachers and schools chosen for the study. The third chapter is an account of how the collection and analysis of data was carried out in tandem with the development of a grounded theory about the socialisation of the beginning teachers from whom data was gathered. This grounded theory is then presented and discussed in Chapter Four. This chapter also outlines the supporting data for the theory, and in so doing gives an indepth insight into the day-to-day experiences of the sample of first year teachers in the present study. In Chapter Five, some of the uses and applications of the grounded theory are discussed, and the implications the theory has for policy relating to the professional development of beginning teachers, and for teacher socialisation theory, are speculated upon. In the final chapter, the methodological outcomes of the research are examined with reference to the problems and issues which arose in carrying out the fieldwork for this study, and in using the grounded theory strategy. The report concludes with a bibliography of the research and literature consulted during the study. A second volume, which contains the appendices to this report, is also provided.

CHAPTER ONE

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The first section of this chapter briefly reviews, and highlights deficiencies in, (a) research and literature on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers, and (b) theory-based studies on teacher socialisation. The objectives of the present research are then outlined, and those studies which directly relate to it are described.

The Sociology of Teaching (Waller, 1932), was one of the earliest publications to focus attention on the beginning teacher. In the latter part of this work, Waller briefly described the personality changes, such as expansion of the ego and ego frustration, which he found to occur in first year teachers. He also detailed his observations of the marked contrasts between experienced and inexperienced teachers, mentioning for instance that, "Discipline is more a problem ... to the beginning teacher", and that, "A new teacher is more likely to have an idealistic conception of the student-teacher relationship than is the older teacher" (Waller, 1932, p.435). Although these perceptive comments still seem to have much relevance today, Waller never developed them further, and in the overall context of his treatise they hold little prominence.

During the 1940's and early 1950's, a small number of studies of beginning teachers, comprising mainly doctoral dissertations (e.g., Wallace, 1948; Homoeier, 1953; Elliot, 1954) was completed. However, in the late 1950's, particularly in Britain and the United States, the joint problem of teacher shortages and the high drop-out rate of young teachers gave rise to a new wave of studies on beginning teachers. Probably the best known of these researches was that undertaken by Mason (1961) on the status and career orientations of a sample of beginning teachers in the United States. Using postal questionnaire data, Mason was able to highlight some of the apparent reasons for the high drop-out rate of newly qualified teachers at that time (e.g., inadequate salary; desire to move into a higher ranked occupation). While the methodology of Mason's research, and his conclusions relating to teacher commitment, appear suspect (Ramsay, 1978), the publication of his report in 1961 clearly identified the beginning teacher as the subject of much

needed research.

In the last two decades, the recognition of this need has resulted in reports of over 250 studies and a plethora of literature about the beginning teacher. In categorising this material, a broad distinction has emerged between the theory-based research and literature, and that which is orientated toward the professional development and practices of beginning teachers.

RESEARCH AND LITERATURE ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Figure 1, on the page following, shows a cross-section of studies and writings which are of this type, and many of these have been reviewed extensively elsewhere (Ennis, 1972; Taylor and Dale, 1973; Ussher, 1977; Battersby, 1976a, 1976b, 1980d; Evans, 1976; Tisher *et al*, 1978).

It is noteworthy that much of the research and literature detailed in Figure 1 either focusses on, or originates from, problems and difficulties that are reportedly encountered by beginning teachers. Prominent overseas' investigations, such as those of Dropkin and Taylor (1963) and Cruickshank and his colleagues (1974, 1976), as well as the New Zealand studies, which include Ennis' (1972) and Doyle's (1975) investigations in Otago, Murdoch's (1978) study in Christchurch and Davenport's (1971) survey in Auckland, as well as various projects undertaken by some of the New Zealand teachers colleges (see, Adams, 1971; Whalley, 1975), seem to show that new teachers experience similar problems. Among the more frequent problems mentioned are the following:

(a) Handling discipline problems
(b) Learning administrative routines and procedures
(c) Acquiring and understanding the school philosophy
(d) Establishing relationships with colleagues
(e) Adjusting to the physical and emotional demands of teaching
(f) Planning and evaluation
(g) Difficulties with parents
(h) Teaching some curriculum subjects

One outcome of this emphasis on the problems of beginning teachers has been government sponsorship of investigatory and review

FIGURE 1

Some Research and Literature on the Professional Development and Practices of Beginning Teachers

UNITED STATES*

Berglas (1973)
Berliner & Tinkunoff (1976)
Bond & Smith (1967)
Broadbent (1967)
Bush (1966)
Cooper & Seidman (1969)
Cortis & Dean (1970)
Crawford (1971)
Cruickshank, Kennedy & Meyers (1974)
Dropkin & Taylor (1963)
Evans (1976)
Fuhr (1977)
Godfried (1971)
Goodrich (1969)
Henson (1977)
Hermanowitz (1966)
Hull (1975)
Jackson (1974)
Jersild (1965)
Kennedy, Cruickshank & Meyers (1976)
Mangione (1969)
Marashio (1971)
Marks (1971)
Mizer (1968)
Newberry (1978)
Olson (1968)
Palmer (1963)
Petersen (1960)
Richstone (1970, 1971)
Rhodes & Peckham (1975)
Ryan (1970
Schasre (1971)
Shadick & Lilley (1972)
Shavelson & Trinchero (1974)
Smiley (1976)
Southwell (1970)
Turner (1967)
Van Dyke (1976)
Vittetoe (1977)
Wey (1951)
Williams (1976)
Wood (1976)
Wright (1959)
Wright (1975)
Zeicher (1979)

BRITAIN

Abbot (1967)
Aitken (1976)
Beardshaw (1967)
Bolam (1975)
Bradley & Eggleston (1975, 1976, 1978)
Chambers (1968)
Chapman (1967)
Chazan (1963)
Collins (1968, 1969)
Currie (1967)
Eldridge *et al* (1964)
Farley (1967)
Haigh (1972
Hammond (1975)
Hannam, Smyth & Stephenson (1976)
Hanson & Herrington (1976)
Hughes (1967)
Hulme (1975)
Jenkins (1968)
Macbeth & Morrison (1974)
McCabe (1978a 1978b)
Otty (1972)
Reeves (1968)
Rosenberg (1968)
Rudd & Wiseman (1962)
Sealey (1966)
Sharples (1975)
Siddle (1975)
Stamper (1968)
Taylor (1961)

AUSTRALIA

Auzins (1979)
Battersby (1977a, 1978a)
Fyfield, Taylor & Tisher (1978)
Gasson, Otto & Jordan (1977)
Hewitson (1976, 1977)
Lett (1971)
Mackie (1973)
Mitchell (1979)
Otto, Gasson & Jordan (1979)
Pettit (1975)
Scriven & Shaw (1977)
Shaw (1977)
Woloch *et al* (1977)

NEW ZEALAND

Adams (1971)
Battersby (1977b 1978b)
Davenport (1971)
Doyle (1975, 1977)
Ennis (1972)
Freyberg (1977)
MacLachlan (1973)
Murdoch (1978, 1979)
Tilley (1973)
Ussher (1975)
Watson (1971)
Wellington Teachers College (1977)
Ussher (1977)
Whalley (1975)

*Country of publication

committees, and policy-orientated research, in the area of teacher induction. This is particularly the case in England (see, Bolam, 1975; Bradley and Eggleston, 1975, 1976, 1978; Department of Education and Science, 1971, 1976, 1977), and of late in Australia (see, Fyfield *et al*, 1978; Mitchell, 1979) and New Zealand (see, Department of Education, 1979). Once again, a common core of findings seems to have emerged, namely that:

(a) Teacher induction programmes be mandatory;
(b) An experienced teacher should oversee the induction of beginning teachers;
(c) Provision in timetabling and staff arrangements be made for induction programmes;
(d) Teacher training institutions provide support services for induction programmes; and,
(e) Beginning teachers should have their teaching loads reduced during the induction period.

Another outcome from this emphasis in the research and literature on the problems of beginning teachers has been the publication of hints and tips, and various formulae for success as a beginner. Richstone (1971), in an article entitled, *First Week Survival Kit for a Brand New Teacher,* provides some typical examples of these hints and tips:

> *Hang on to your sense of proportion; try for understanding; never say fail; criticize the act, not the child; preparation and pace preclude many problems; stroll to the trouble spot in advance; and, vary the activities.*
>
> *(Richstone, 1971, p.80)*

As well, there has been a wealth of literature, often written in an emotive tone, on the trials and tribulations of first year teachers. Jackson (1974, p.102), for instance, refers to neophyte teachers as "... strangers in an unfamiliar environment ... never equipped with a sense of belonging"; Currie (1967, p.403) speaks of the new teacher as one who is "... alone - alone in a strange school"; Ryan (1970), Haigh (1972), Otty (1972) and Hannam *et al* (1976) refer to the "formidable", "painful", "confusing" and "frightening" experiences which they claim "panic" and "terrify" all new teachers and often cause an "identity crisis"; while, Crawford (1971, p.46) even refers to the "undesirable gastric distress" which besets young, uninitiated teachers. Folklore about the novice teacher also has been well documented in the form of plays and novels, some of which have had the added distinction of

becoming award winning motion pictures (e.g., *To Sir with Love; Up the Down Staircase; Conrack).*

To date, this research and literature seems to have had little impact on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers. In New Zealand, for instance, teacher induction is still undertaken on a piecemeal basis; the high drop-out rate of young, beginning teachers from the profession does not seem to have changed substantially; and, educational policy relating to first year teachers also appears to have been largely unaltered. Indeed, the emphasis on the problems of beginning teachers, in the media (e.g., *Waikato Times,* 23 June, 1979; *New Zealand Herald,* 10 November, 1979), in empirical research and in the popular, novel-like works of Ryan (1970) and Hannam *et al* (1976) has cast a stereotyped image of the novice teacher as a person who is often ill-equipped to teach and struggles to survive in fitting in to the school system. This image tends to be reinforced through the publication of hints and tips for new teachers and various induction programme suggestions, such as those listed in the Tisher Report (1978, pp.113-114) on the induction of beginning teachers in Australia.

Much of the research in the field is also deficient. There has been a tendency to rely on one-shot paper-and-pencil survey and questionnaire techniques to collect information on the experiences of beginning teachers. Indeed, most of the New Zealand studies have adopted this approach, and, like their overseas counterparts, have done so at the expense of longitudinal, observational and case study researches (see, Battersby, 1979g, 1980b). One outcome of this has been the failure to tap the complexities and dynamics of the everyday experiences of beginning teachers. Even those studies which have used or relied on interview and anecdotal data (e.g., Hannam *et al,* 1976; Shaw, 1977) generally have presented little more than a superficial and disjointed view of beginners' experiences.

The most pressing need, then, for research on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers is that which provides an indepth and systematic analysis of the everyday situations faced by these teachers. This type of research may prove beneficial for two reasons. First, it would provide a holistic rather than a compartmentalised view of the experiences of beginning teachers. Hence, the problems these teachers face, how they adjust and cope, their successes and

failures, as well as the relationships they develop with colleagues and pupils, will be seen in this wider context of their everyday experiences. And second, from this research it may be possible to derive policy suggestions, such as those which relate to teacher education and to the provisions for on-the-job training and supervision of beginning teachers.

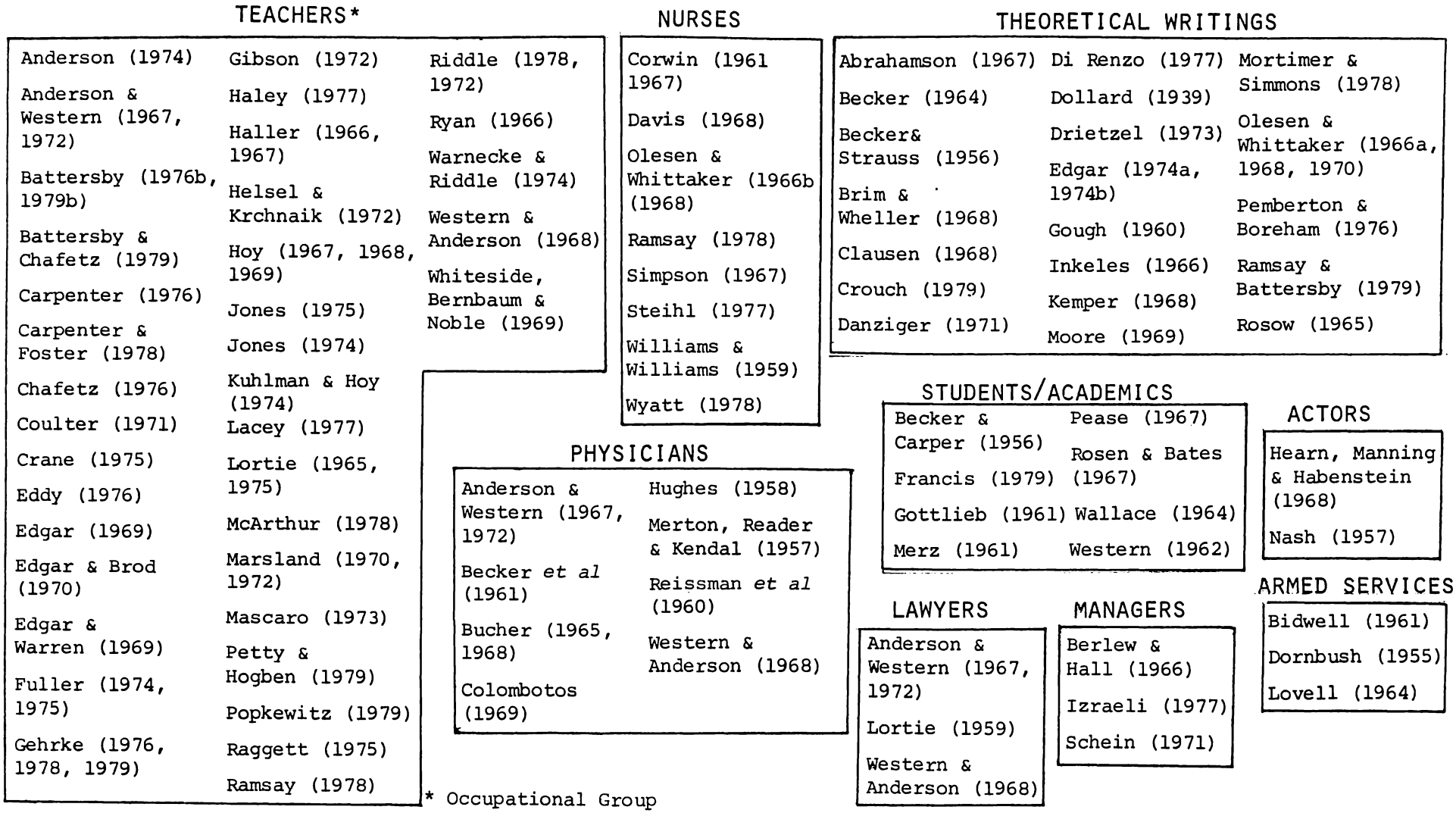
THEORY-BASED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

Much of the theory-based literature and research on the beginning teacher has its origins in the Sociology of Work, and in particular, in the substantive area of professional socialisation. The history of theory and research in this field is a relatively brief one. The notion that socialisation occurs in adult life only became evident in the literature during the 1950's (e.g., Becker and Strauss, 1956; Becker and Carper, 1956), and a coherent body of theory and research on professional socialisation did not emerge until the mid-1960's. Just prior to this, the outcomes of two investigations of medical students had been published. The most influential of these was *The Student Physician* (1957), based on research conducted at the Bureau of Applied Research of Columbia University under the direction of Robert K. Merton. The other publication, *Boys in White* (1961), resulted from research undertaken at the University of Kansas Medical School by Howard S. Becker and his colleagues. These two works have been regarded as prime exemplars of research into the making of professionals (Pemberton and Boreham, 1976). Figure 2, on the following page, cites and categorises some of this research, and many of these studies have been the subject for review in two comprehensive critiques.

The first of these critiques was undertaken by Olesen and Whittaker (1970). They focussed on professional socialisation studies across a number of occupational groups and were able to highlight a number of methodological and conceptual inadequacies. They claimed, for instance, that the "static, snap-shot analysis" of professional socialisation was prevalent, and yet the very term "socialisation" implied movement and change. In this context, they suggested that too little attention had been given to understanding the subjective issues in the behaviours and lives of those being studied. Further, they cautioned that "attitude", "value" and "norm" were conceptually inadequate terms and their use had clouded understanding of the process of professional socialisation. To overcome some of the deficiencies of past theory and

FIGURE 2

Some Research and Literature on Professional Socialisation



* Occupational Group

research in this area, Olesen and Whittaker (1970) called for socialisation theories which were more closely linked to the everyday experiences of people in their occupational and professional groups.

This call for more relevant theory was reaffirmed a decade later by the authors of the recond review (Ramsay and Battersby, 1979), who focussed more specifically on teacher socialisation studies and concluded that much of the research in this area was "... often poorly conceived, based on shoddy methodology and reported in an alarmingly vague and confusing fashion" (Ramsay and Battersby, 1979, p.1). This conclusion was based on a detailed examination of the terminology, methodology and theoretical perspectives that were commonly employed in these studies.

On the issue of terminology, it was shown by Ramsay and Battersby that the term "socialisation" had assumed an ever-expanding range of sociological and psychological connotations, and that it was sometimes used as a synonym for acculturation and enculturation processes. Faced with these definitional dilemmas, Ramsay and Battersby concluded:

> *It is our contention that, while researchers should be aware that a variety of processes is taking place when a person enters a profession such as teaching, they should not allow themselves to get "bogged down" with conceptual problems. As long as a set of definitions is reached which is sufficiently clear, and which do not place blinkers on the researchers, then we believe that further debate in this area may be safely left to the philosophers.*
>
> *(Ramsay and Battersby, 1979, p.8)*

Methodological weaknesses in research on the socialisation of teachers were also discovered by Ramsay and Battersby. A number of studies (e.g., Coulter, 1971; Anderson and Western, 1967, 1972; Kuhlman and Hoy, 1974; Warnecke and Riddle, 1974) were found to rely heavily on the use of one-shot attitude questionnaires and surveys, and after examining these researches Ramsay and Battersby made several observations which can be summarised as follows: seldom had the questionnaires been tested for reliability or validity; scores derived from the questionnaires were frequently found to refer to factors which seemed unrelated to the dimensions being tested; and, high attrition and low response rates often characterised those longitudinal studies which relied on questionnaire data. In the light of these observations,

the following caution was delivered:

> *... those researchers who focus on expressions of attitudes or opinions, or beliefs about certain behavioural changes, in questionnaires or scales, and believe these represent teacher socialisation, run considerable risk.*
>
> *(Ramsay and Battersby, 1979, p.10)*

Ramsay and Battersby (1979) also reported on a small number of cross-sectional studies of teacher socialisation (e.g., Helsel and Krchnaik, 1972; Gibson, 1972; McNamara, 1972) which claimed to discover behavioural and attitudinal changes in teachers. In some instances, doubt was expressed about the validity of these studies' conclusions. The research of McNamara (1972), which relied on a cross-sectional, small sample of women teachers, was cited as a case in point, and it was suggested that her conclusions about the commitment of women teachers could only be validly drawn from longitudinal research.

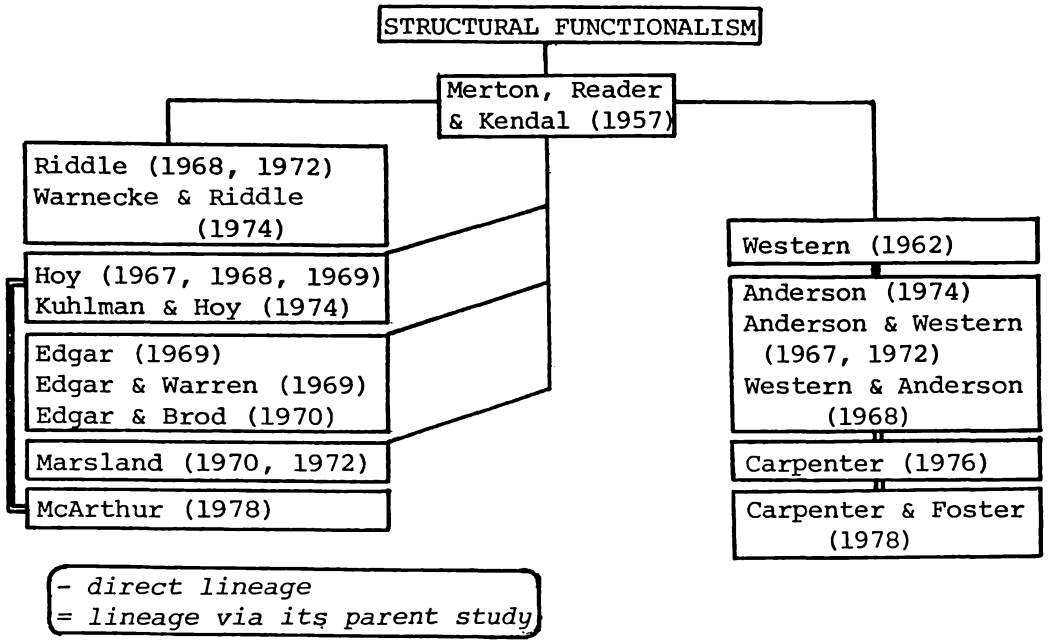
Perhaps the most obvious shortcoming in studies on the socialisation of teachers is the theoretical perspective which seems to be adopted by most researchers in the field, and this was recognised by Ramsay and Battersby when they commented that "... researchers seem to have become shackled by the chains of their parent theories" (Ramsay and Battersby, 1979, p.3). A close scrutiny of the more prominent and frequently quoted studies reveals that their parentage can be traced to research undertaken by Merton and his colleagues (1957) on medical students, and, in turn, to a sociological perspective known as structural functionalism. This lineage is illustrated in Figure 3 on the next page.

Infused in each of the researches cited in Figure 3 is a theoretical model based on the notion that a teacher is socialised through acquiring the habits, beliefs, knowledge and dispositions which characterise the professional community of teachers. Carpenter and Foster (1978), for instance, state this quite explicitly:

> [*Teacher*] *socialisation can be regarded as an interactional process through which a person learns values, attitudes and knowledge which in turn modify his behaviour to conform to expectations held by members of the social group to which he aspires.*
>
> *(Carpenter and Foster, 1978, p.1)*

Figure 3

The Parentage of Some Prominent Studies of Teacher Socialisation



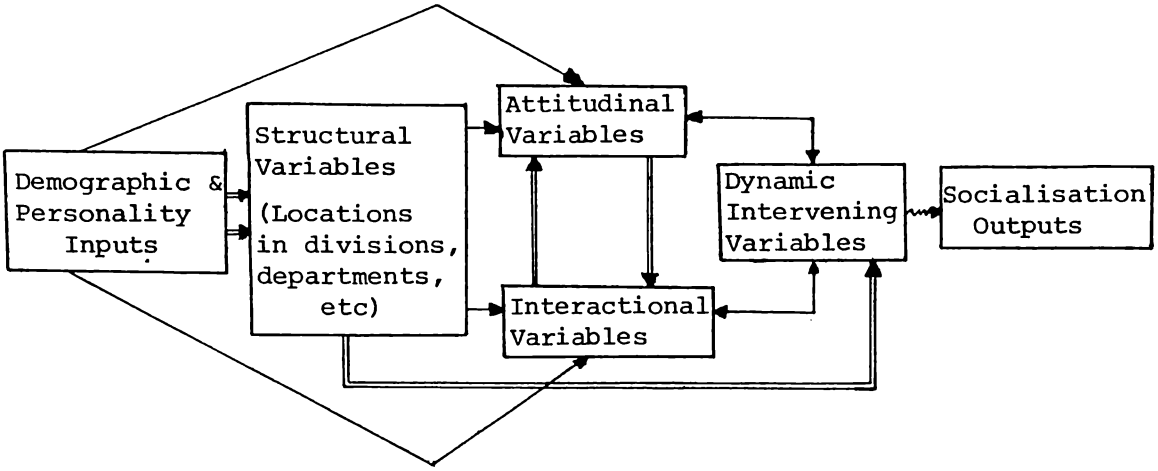
Similarly, Edgar and Warren (1969) say:

> *[Teacher] socialisation involves pressures to change, to influence neophytes in socially desirable directions, to drop previous patterns of behaviour and accept new norms held by the socialising agent or 'significant other'.*
>
> *(Edgar and Warren, 1969, p.387)*

One feature of this theoretical position is that teacher socialisation is seen as an input-output process which produces "man the conformer", with little recognition that the practices to which individuals may be socialised could be inadequate, undesirable or deleterious. The research of Marsland (1972) provides an illustration. Marsland argued that, although there is some variability in the process of teacher socialisation, people are "appropriately transformed" in terms of the conceptions they hold for their future role as teachers. He uses the diagram, on the page following, to help explain this input-output process, where the dynamic intervening variables are professional identity (the extent to which trainees think of themselves as teachers), identity crystallisation (referring to the time when professional identity develops) and role model transformation (the extent to which trainees adopt appropriate role models).

Figure 4

Marsland's (1972) Model of Professional Socialisation*



*From: *Marsland, 1972, p.10*

Supposed explanatory (differentiating) power, strong = & weak -

Carpenter and Foster (1978) claim that models such as Marsland's, which are based on the structural functionalist perspective, can prove to be useful tools in conceptualising the process whereby teachers voluntarily "submit to socialisation" in order to gain something of value, such as certain skills or qualifications. This contention itself raises another criticism of the structural functionalist position, namely that people are often seen as passive and submissive subjects, and that the teacher socialisation process is the active and domineering agent responsible for the transformation of people into teachers.

Associated with the theoretical stance of structural functionalism is an assumption that a primary goal of theory-building research on teacher socialisation is to express the orderable and causal nature of the process. Evidence can be seen graphically of this in the Marsland-like models of teacher socialisation used by Carpenter and Foster, Edgar and Warren (1969) and Anderson and Western (1967), and also in the frequent and continued use of one-shot questionnaire and survey techniques which are supposedly designed to gather precise and quantifiable data which is needed to verify these notions of orderability and causality.

Although structural functionalism has been the most pervasive influence on theory-building research on teacher socialisation, it has not been the only influence. Becker and his colleagues' (1961) participant observation study of medical students, which was based on a sociological perspective known as symbolic interactionism, has been the model for

a small number of studies (e.g., Raggett, 1975; Lacey, 1977). However, as Ramsay and Battersby (1979) point out, symbolic interactionists offer a perspective of teacher socialisation which differs little from that of structural functionalism in that socialisation is seen as an over-arching process whereby an individual engages in role learning which eventually "... results in the situational adjustment of the individual to the culture of the profession" (Ramsay and Battersby, 1979, p.2). Battersby and Koh (1980) extend this criticism further by suggesting that implicit in the symbolic interactionist notion of situational adjustment is a contentious assumption that individuals "... turn into the kind of people a situation demands" (Battersby and Koh, 1980, p.5).

Another, albeit negligible, influence on teacher socialisation theory has been the psychologically-based research. Here, the work of Fuller and her colleagues (1974, 1975) is probably the most noted example. Fuller's work, however, is fraught with shortcomings. Her notion of "teacher concern", for instance, is merely defined as "perceived problems or worries", and Fuller acknowledges that her empirical data on teacher concerns can be classified under other terms like "stress" and "self-concept".

Theory and research on teacher socialisation, then, can be seen to be deficient on a number of counts. Generally, past studies have been methodologically and/or conceptually inadequate. Moreover, theory-building research has been largely unproductive, and in some respects divorced from the very reality it seeks to explain. Indeed, the continued reliance on structural functionalism as a basis to teacher socialisation theory must be seriously challenged.

In an attempt to redress these shortcomings, perhaps the most obvious need is for the development of theories of teacher socialisation along the lines suggested by Olesen and Whittaker (1970) and Ramsay and Battersby (1979): that is, theories which are systematically derived from first hand knowledge about the everyday world of teachers. Such theories may then prove to be profitable starting points for empirical research on teacher socialisation.

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The objectives of the present research developed over a

considerable period of time, and were not solely the outcome of a review of the literature and research on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers and teacher socialisation. Three years prior to undertaking this investigation, the writer was himself a beginning school teacher, and, in the following year, completed a study - based on the structural functionalist perspective - of the socialisation of a sample of teachers in Australia (Battersby, 1976b, 1977a). In a later publication (Battersby, 1981), the influence of this study on the writer was noted:

> *Initially, my research endeavours in teacher socialisation were grounded in the traditional structural functionalist perspective. Sceptical of solely qualitative research approaches, I utilised attitude questionnaires and role perception inventories in my original studies. These "hard data" instruments, however, proved unsatisfactory in tapping the dynamics and complexities of the processes involved in becoming a teacher. Increasingly, I became aware of the shortcomings in functionalist perspectives and in positivistic research. Co-incidentially, and perhaps not surprisingly, I also realised that my strivings for value-free research were somewhat fruitless, and that all investigations, whether qualitatively or quantitatively data-based, are contaminated by the biases and perceptions of their researchers.*
>
> *(Battersby, 1981, p.245)*

This research and teaching experience, allied with an extensive review of the literature, predisposed the researcher in two general directions. First, towards an appreciation that the interpretive, rather than the normative, paradigm may provide a more valid set of sociological explanations of human behaviour. Under the umbrella of the normative paradigm, human behaviour is seen as rule governed, and the individual is looked upon as one who plays a passive role and who is enmeshed in the rules and norms of his society and culture. Within the interpretive paradigm, this model is rejected in favour of a view which places emphasis on the individual and idiosyncratic nature of man and human behaviour. Second, and related to the foregoing, the researcher was predisposed toward the view that teacher socialisation was an individualistic, interactive and ongoing process occurring within the everyday world of teachers; that the process could result in personal, and sometimes situational change; that the process did not necessarily proceed at an even pace; that critical events, such as conflict with colleagues or praise from a superior, could occur in any given pattern;

and, that sources of influence on a teacher could be many and varied and could differ for different people.

In the light of these predispositions, and in view of the two priority areas for research outlined in the review of literature on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers, and teacher socialisation, the present study focussed on a group of first year primary school teachers, and sought to achieve two, broad objectives:

1. To provide an indepth and systematic view of these teachers' day-to-day experiences during their first year of teaching; and,
2. To derive from this, a theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for these beginning teachers.

Bearing in mind these two aims, it is now appropriate to outline briefly those studies which relate directly to the present research.

RELATED STUDIES

Of all the research and literature on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers, the one study to have the most impact on this investigation was that written by a young, first year teacher, and published in the journal of the New Zealand primary teachers' union. The sense of this article can be taken from the opening remarks:

> *I represent those Year 1 teachers who are average. I completed teachers' college work in 1971, but 1972 was really my "leap" year. I have talked only to one teacher who was never really depressed and thus thoroughly enjoyed his first year out. I have not spoken to anyone who did not survive that year. These thoughts were put together after listening to the opinions of about 15 young teachers in my area and I would conclude that they are shared by many other teachers.*
>
> *(Tilley, 1973, p.106)*

The author then went on to describe some of the realities she and her companions encountered during their first year of teaching, such as the tasks of mastering how and what to teach children. These experiences were then used to justify several policy-suggestions concerning improvements to teacher training programmes and the induction of year one teachers.

This article influenced the present research in two ways: it conveyed the need to present beginning teachers' interpretations of their everyday situations as opposed to accepting the more common view of their experiences via paper-and-pencil questionnaire and survey data; and, the article also demonstrated how teachers' accounts of their own experiences can be utilised effectively as a basis to forming constructive policy recommendations.

Of the theory-based research and literature, the investigations of Chafetz (1976) and Gehrke (1976, 1978, 1979) are of particular importance for they not only provide examples of the style of research, and a method of theory development, which are needed to achieve the aims of the present study, but they also demonstrate how a holistic view of the realities faced by beginning teachers can be attained.

Chafetz's study relied mainly on interview data drawn from a sample of 15 beginning elementary teachers from several school districts of New York State. The outcome of his analysis of the data was a theory of teacher socialisation (see, Battersby and Chafetz, 1979a), which in summary form, stated that: the beginning teachers in his sample entered the profession identifying with, and intent on meeting each student's needs; these beginners, however, soon confronted a number of problems relating to their own skill deficiency (e.g., with planning), and to the organisational setting of their schools, and this culminated in anxiety and frustration for them; in an effort to solve their problems and to reduce their anxiety and frustration, Chafetz's sample of beginners made a number of behavioural and attitudinal adjustments, the outcome of which was a new view of their teaching role based on what appeared to be more realistic expectations of self, students and colleagues.

Although Chafetz's research can be criticised for its small sample size, the absence of any observations in the field, and for lack of data from the colleagues and Principals of his sample of teachers, his work is important to the present study for three reasons: (a) It places emphasis on the need for researchers to understand and to convey the day-to-day situations faced by beginning teachers; (b) It stresses the importance of incorporating this type of knowledge into theory about the socialisation of beginning teachers; and (c) It demonstrates how theory can be logically and systematically developed from data gathered through qualitative research.

The second study to have an influence on the present research was the longitudinal investigation of Gehrke (1976, 1978, 1979). Her starting point (see, Gehrke, 1976) was a comprehensive review of theory and research on teacher socialisation. From this she concluded that the preponderance of studies to date not only generated theory with limited scope, but that these studies had relied on research methods which used single-incident interviews, questionnaires and short-term observations, resulting in time-restricted, fragmented data which described only thin slices of teachers' experiences.

Having justified the necessity for alternative approaches to developing theory on the socialisation of teachers, Gerhke embarked on her doctoral research (Gehrke, 1976). The outcome of this was a list of tentative hypotheses about the socialisation of the beginning teachers in her study. Like Chafetz, Gehrke gathered data from a small number of teachers (N=10). However, in this instance the data not only came from interviews, but also from observations, and from statements written by the beginners about themselves and their teaching.

While her doctoral thesis was limited to data about her experiences of her sample during their first year of teaching, Gehrke did engage in follow-up studies of these teachers during their next four years in the profession (see, Gehrke, 1978, 1979). Thus, she was able to develop further propositions about the teacher socialisation process, as well as to modify and to refine some of her earlier hypotheses. For example, her initial findings centred on the very broad categories of "needs", "perceptions" and "behaviours" of her sample of teachers. She found that needs appeared to be most salient during the teachers' transition from the student to teacher role, and that these basic needs, in turn, seemed to influence the teachers' perceptions of themselves and their problems. Subsequently, these perceptions influenced the teachers' presentation of self and the handling of problems. Her follow-up research, on the other hand, identified three types of role conflict - each related to the above three categories - as influential factors in the teacher socialisation process.

Gehrke's research does differ from the present study in that her sample of beginners was secondary school teachers, and, in her more recent work, she has relied heavily on role theory analysis of structural functionalism. Indeed, her failure to note the criticisms of role theory

(see, Coulson, 1972) is an obvious shortcoming in her later publications. Despite this, Gehrke's research does provide strong support for a holistic approach to the study of teacher socialisation, and for the adoption of a method of theory construction which is consonant with this objective.

SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a critical, but brief, overview of research and literature on the professional development and practices of beginning teachers, and on teacher socialisation. Several major deficiencies in the research and literature were highlighted, including the reliance of past studies on one-shot questionnaire and survey techniques; the failure of researchers to tap the complexities and dynamics of the day-to-day experiences of beginning teachers; and, the tendency to rely on the perspectives of structural functionalism when developing theory about teacher socialisation.

From this review, two priorities for research were established: the need to provide an indepth and systematic analysis of the everyday situations faced by beginning teachers, and, to use this first hand knowledge as a basis for developing theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for these teachers. The statement of aims reflected a commitment to meet both these priorities, and in the chapter which follows, these aims are used as a guide in determining an appropriate research design and methodology.

In the final section of this chapter, Gehrke's research, along with that of Chafetz, and the writing of Tilley, was used to highlight further the general direction and emphasis of the present study.

CHAPTER TWO

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter focusses on the design and methodology of the present study. A rationale is established for using a case study approach to data collection in conjunction with a strategy for theory construction known as "grounded theory". After outlining each of these methodologies, details are given of the teachers and schools chosen for this study, and the researcher's entry into the field. Finally, after a summary statement on the overall shape of the research, the particular case study data collection techniques that were used are described.

In developing a design and methodology for this research, Trow's (1957) well-known injunction was adhered to, namely, that "... the research problem under investigation properly dictates the method of investigation" (Trow, 1957, p.3). In following this dictum, it was obvious that the objectives of the present study necessitated a longitudinal-type investigation. Furthermore, in order to provide an indepth and systematic view of a sample of teachers' experiences during their first year of teaching, it would be necessary to use a case study approach to data collection. And lastly, in order to develop a theory to elaborate and to clarify the process of socialisation for the beginning teachers in the present study, a strategy for theory construction which was compatible with the data collection techniques of case study needed to be adopted. For this reason, Glaser and Strauss (1967) guidelines for the generation of "grounded theory" were followed.

THE CASE STUDY APPROACH TO DATA COLLECTION

Nisbet and Watt (1978) point out that "case study" is an umbrella term for an indepth and systematic investigation of a specific instance (e.g., an event, group or institution) using a variety of research methods to gather data. This collection of data usually involves the frequent and sometimes simultaneous use of a number of interview, observational, questionnaire and document gathering techniques. In the present study, the rationale for using this type of approach to data collection was based on the assumption that the data yielded would possibly provide a broad base from which to develop the theory of socialisation which was specified in the second of the research objectives.

Furthermore, as was discussed in the previous chapter, past studies had generally relied only on paper-and-pencil questionnaires, and, by itself, this technique appeared inadequate as a tool to explore the day-to-day situations faced by beginning teachers. In this respect, a longitudinal investigation using the data collection methods of case study seemed more attuned to presenting a holistic view of beginning teachers' experiences during their first year of teaching. It was acknowledged, however, that there were disadvantages with this approach. A longitudinal study is idiosyncratic to the time of investigation, and its findings may relate only to the group under investigation (see, Ramsay, 1978). Moreover, in using the data collection techniques of case study, the researcher has, what Nisbet and Watt (1978) call, the "luxury and dilemma" of being the "chief instrument". They explain the implication of this as follows:

> *Ultimately the success and failure of your efforts will depend on your ability to develop good personal relationships. Inevitably you will be part of the "living experience" you study, and your personal skills within that social environment will be crucial, both in allowing you access to the data you want and subsequently in giving validity to your findings.*
>
> *(Nisbet and Watt, 1978, p.20)*

Collecting data, then, by way of case study research techniques commits the researcher to personal, face-to-face interactions with those whom he is studying. The luxury of this is that the researcher is often in a position to gather a rich array of indepth data. However, the pitfalls and problems which can occur in collecting such data have been well documented (see, Wax, 1957; Becker and Geer, 1957; Roth, 1962). Indeed, the literature does alert the researcher to some of the difficulties involved in interviewing and observation, and in developing relationships with subjects, and a later chapter in this thesis will focus on the particular problems which arose during the course of this study.

Before proceeding to describe the various data collection techniques used in the present research, and how and when they were employed, the method of theory construction adopted, and details of the first year teachers chosen and the researcher's entry into the field will be outlined.

THE GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH TO THEORY CONSTRUCTION

The second objective of this research was to derive a theory about the socialisation of a group of beginning teachers from data collected on their experiences during the first year of teaching. The strategy chosen to achieve this objective is referred to as the "grounded theory" approach. Prior to describing this strategy and why it was used in this study, the issue of "what is theory" needs to be addressed briefly.

What is Theory?

One basic goal of all sciences, both pure and applied, is the linking together of generalisations, suppositions and hunches into more systematic networks of propositions that will better explain and predict phenomena within a given social domain, or for a particular situation. Such networks of propositions can be referred to as theories or theoretical models.

In understanding the various types or forms of theory, the classificatory scheme used most commonly is that which categorises theory according to its degree of universality. Nagel's (1969) four tier system of theory classification provides a useful example and a framework in which to categorise the theory derived from the present study. An illustration of a theory on the top level of Nagel's scheme is the Marginal Theory of Utility in Economics, a type which Nagel acknowledges as being relatively rare because of its high degree of universality. Boyle's Law in Physics is categorised by Nagel as belonging to the second level, and on the third level Parsons' Theory of Social Action is given as an example. While there may be some debate over the characteristics of theory at each of these three levels and the degree of universality of each, Nagel's fourth level of theory, which is exemplified in the present study, is quite distinctive. At this lowest level, theory is described as "... any more or less systematic analysis of a set of related concepts" (Nagel, 1969, p.10). The main task of this type of theory, according to Nagel, is to elaborate and to clarify concepts with a goal towards explicating some of the major components of the problem or question being investigated. In the case of the present study, one of the aims was to develop a theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for a group of beginning teachers during their first year of teaching.

The Grounded Theory Strategy

The strategy utilised in this study for developing the type of theory just described was popularised by Glaser and Strauss (1965) in their work on death and dying carried out in the 1960's, and has subsequently been adopted for use in educational research (see, Richer, 1975; Conrad, 1978; Florio, 1978; Harvey, 1978; Battersby, 1979a, 1979e, 1981; Battersby and Chafetz, 1979b).

Glaser and Strauss' (1967) approach to theory construction was used in the present research because their strategy is based on developing theory from data, and, in particular, qualitative data. In this regard, the process of generating grounded theory seemed compatible with the data collection techniques of case study. Furthermore, the grounded theory strategy, through the use of two, inter-related procedures known as "theoretical sampling" and "constant comparative analysis", provided a vehicle not only for systematising and co-ordinating data collection, but also for the analysis of data. Both these procedures are described below.

Theoretical Sampling and Constant Comparative Analysis

Theoretical sampling refers to the process of data collection, and particularly to the notion that the gathering of data is guided by an analysis of that data which was collected previously, rather than by a pre-planned itinerary as is more common with statistical sampling of data. In order to implement theoretical sampling, the researcher first needs to collect initial data, which may include biographical and demographic information relating to the people and situations being studied. Conrad (1978), for instance, in developing a grounded theory of academic change in colleges and universities, collected a considerable quantity of initial data in the form of:

> *... (1) memberships lists and minutes from the appropriate committees, ad hoc groups, and faculty senates; (2) personal files of committee members; (3) campus newspaper articles; (4) published and unpublished reports; (5) personal letters; (6) speeches; (7) published articles; and (8) tapes of faculty meetings.*
>
> *(Conrad, 1978, p.104)*

This initial data provides a foothold from which the researcher can then proceed to gather further data - by means of questionnaire,

interview, observation and document collection techniques - on the problem or issue being investigated.

The next step in the process of developing grounded theory is to combine theoretical sampling with data analysis, thereby providing the researcher with "leads" for further data collection. The procedure used for the analysis of data is known as "constant comparative analysis". This strategy involves an ongoing, systematic organisation and classification of the data into various categories. Then, as a category of data begins to emerge, and other data fit that category, properties, or sub-themes within that category, may be discerned. In turn, hunches or propositions based on the data can also be formulated. Glaser and Strauss (1967) provide an example, from their research on death and dying, of a category, its properties and a set of related propositions:

Category	*Social loss of dying patients*
Properties of Category	*Calculating Social loss on basis of learned and apparent characteristics of patient*
Hypotheses [Propositions]	*The higher the social loss of a dying patient, (1) The better his care, (2) The more nurses develop loss rationales to explain away his death*

(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.42)

In conjunction with this process of data organisation and classification, a constant comparison of data within and between categories is also undertaken. In using this procedure, categories are not only able to be verified, but they are also subject to a delimitation process whereby some may be modified or refined, while others are perhaps merged with more powerful categories. To illustrate this in action, Conrad's (1978) study becomes the focus once again.

From the analysis of his early data, Conrad found that "Faculty Leadership" emerged as a category. His supporting evidence for this category came from an

> *... analysis of events [in one institution, which] suggested that the chairman and another faculty member exercised an important role in the change process. Five interviewees had indicated that*

> *the chairman was the single most instrumental person in realising a recommendation for change.*
>
> *(Conrad, 1978, pp. 107-108)*

In his subsequent field visits to other institutions, and with the constant comparison of data, Conrad was able to refine his grounded theory by merging the category, "Faculty Leadership", with what he considered to be a more powerful category which he labelled "Collegiality". The combination of these two categories of data gave rise to the proposition that faculty leaders, through a network of colleague relationships, are able to mould apparent consensus for academic change by persuading dissatisfied interest groups not to exert power to realise their own preferred goals.

In using the grounded theory strategy, the interplay between theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis has several pay-offs, the most important of these being that the researcher remains constantly *au fait* with his data. There are, however, some fundamental questions concerning the use of the grounded theory approach, and Glaser and Strauss (1967) respond to these issues briefly. The first is: What criteria does one use in selecting a group or situation as a source of data? Glaser and Strauss maintain that the ideal is to be able to choose different groups, individuals or situations as the data dictates. More often, however, this choice is constrained by the structural conditions of the research, such as, "... who is available to be observed, talked with ... interviewed or surveyed, and at what particular times" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, pp.66-67).

Another question is: When does one stop collecting information on a particular category? The criterion employed by users of the grounded theory approach is referred to as "theoretical saturation". Saturation is said to occur when the researcher makes an intuitive, but informed judgement to stop collecting data on a category when he can find no additional data to enrich that category further. Glaser and Strauss explain this notion of theoretical saturation in the following way:

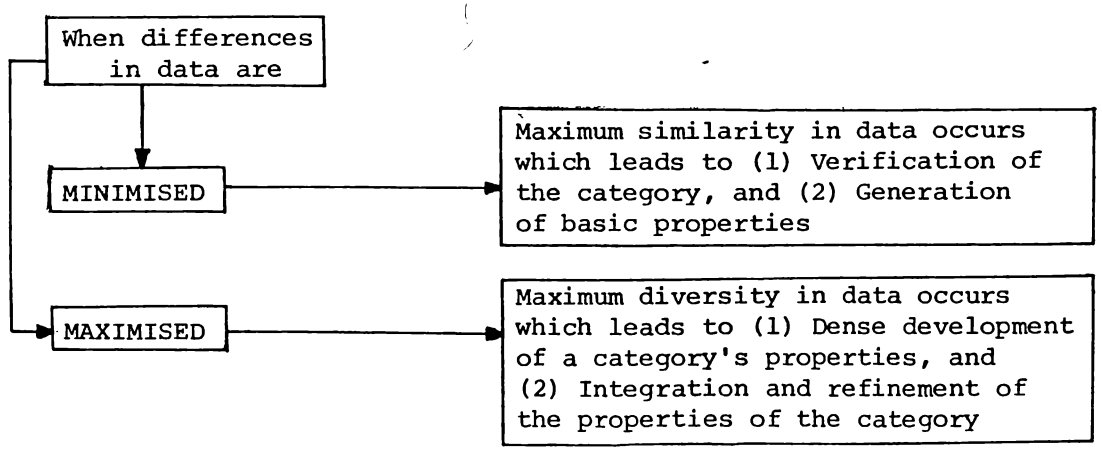
> *Saturation means that no additional data are being found whereby the [researcher] can develop properties of a category. As he sees similar instances over and over again, the researcher becomes empirically confident that a category is saturated. He goes out of his way to look for groups that stretch diversity of data as far as possible, just to make certain that saturation is based on the widest*

> *possible range of data on a category ... When one category is saturated, nothing remains but to go on to new groups for data on other categories, and attempt to saturate these new caregories also.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.62)*

One way to expedite theoretical saturation is to adopt what Glaser and Strauss refer to as "maximising and minimising differences" in data on a category. That is, when a category of data seems to be emerging, if possible, further data on that category should be collected from similar sources in order to verify the existence of a definite category, and also to isolate basic properties of the category. In turn, as other data begin to fit the category an attempt should be made to gather a wide range of data from a number of diverse sources thereby promoting the development and integration of the category's properties. For instance, Conrad's (1978) category, "Faculty Leadership", arose from data collected during a visit to a university which utilised an *ad hoc* faculty group as a vehicle for academic change. He was able to verify this category with data gathered from another institution which similarly used an *ad hoc* group. To develop and to refine this category further, Conrad visited universities which used different means to bring about academic change, such as formal curriculum committees. This procedure of maximising and minimising differences in data can be shown diagrammatically as follows:

Figure 5

Maximising and Minimising Differences in Data



A final query concerning the grounded theory approach is: How does a researcher bring to a close and then present a grounded theory. In

bringing a theory to a close, Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that:

> *When the researcher is convinced that his conceptual framework forms a systematic theory, that it is a reasonably accurate statement of the matters studied, that it is couched in a form possible for others to use in studying a similar area, and that he can publish his results with confidence, then he is near the end of his research. He believes in his own knowledgeability and sees no reasons to change that belief. He believes not because of an arbitrary judgement but because he has taken special pains to discover what he thinks he may know, every step of the way from the beginning of his investigation until its publishable conclusion. The researcher can always try to mine his data further, but little value is learned when core categories are already saturated.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, pp.224-225)*

In the writing of the theory, Glaser and Strauss maintain that an immediate task facing the researcher is that of conveying to colleagues and laymen the credibility of the discovered theory. An important maxim to remember here is that:

> *The form in which a theory is presented does not make it a theory; it is a theory because it explains or predicts something.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.31)*

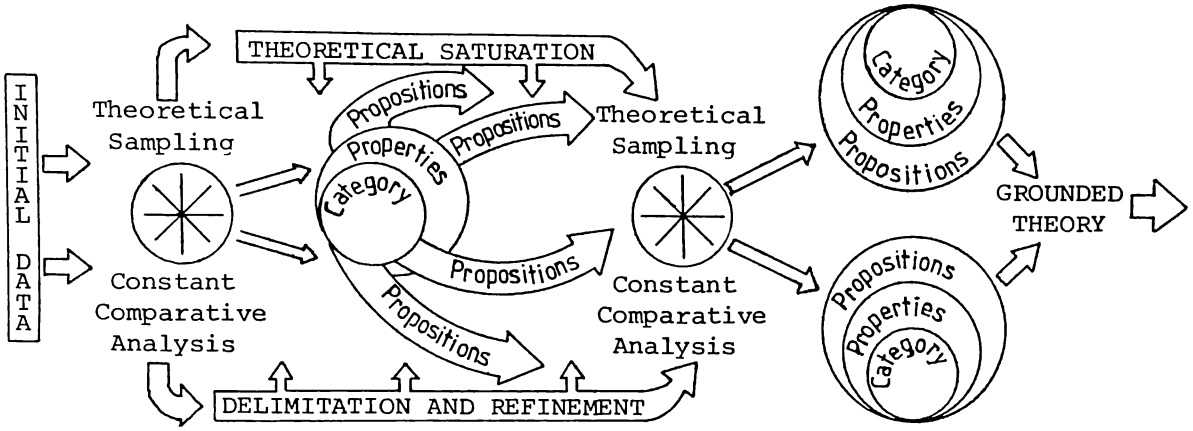
However, Glaser and Strauss recommend that in writing a grounded theory, data should be provided as evidence for conclusions, thus illustrating how the researcher obtained the theory from data. There is a multiplicity of devices for achieving this. The researcher can

> *... quote directly from interviews or conversations... He can include dramatic segments of his on-the-spot field notes. He can quote telling phrases dropped by informants. He can summarise events or persons by constructing readable case studies. He can try his hand at describing events; and often he will give at least background descriptions of places and spaces. Sometimes he will even offer accounts of personal experiences to show how events impinged upon himself. Sometimes he will unroll a narrative.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.229)*

In summary, the grounded theory approach, which is represented diagrammatically in Figure 6, was adopted in the present study because

Figure 6

The Grounded Theory Process



it seemed to offer a viable strategy for developing theory from qualitative data, and in so doing dovetailed with the data collection techniques of case study. Moreover, the grounded theory procedure, through the application of theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis, provided an effective vehicle for systematising and co-ordinating the gathering and analysis of data. It was realised, however, that grounded theory was still a novel teachnique in educational research and that there were drawbacks in using it. Perhaps the most serious of these was that there had been only a small number of studies which had utilised the technique, and none of these was a replication of a previous investigation, nor was any devoted to analysing, in detail, problems and pitfalls in the grounded theory strategy. Indeed, this latter omission prompted this researcher to keep a close record of the various difficulties encountered in using the technique, and a discussion of these is included in a later chapter.

As a first step in making operational the grounded theory strategy, a sample of first year school teachers had to be selected, and details about this procedure are given below.

SAMPLE SELECTION

It was realised some months prior to entering the field to collect data that the research would be constrained by what Glaser and Strauss (1967) have termed "structural conditions". Selecting a sample

of teachers was a case in point. The first decision to be taken was whether to focus on primary and/or secondary school teachers. The former group were chosen primarily because the researcher had access to a relatively large sample of prospective first year primary teachers and to primary schools in the region where the study was being undertaken.

Having made this decision, the local Education Board, who was the employer of primary teachers in the region, was approached and asked to grant approval for the research. Before this approval was given, a formal proposal had to be submitted which outlined the number of Year One teachers and primary schools required for the study. In due course, a list of prospective Year One teachers who could be included in the study was compiled according to two criteria: (a) The teacher had to be appointed to a school which was within reasonable travelling distance for the researcher (approximately 20 kilometres); and (b) It had to seem likely that the teacher would take up appointment in 1979. Those who had applied for a studentship to continue full-time university studies were excluded under this latter criterion.

Resulting from this initial selection was a list of 51 prospective Year One teachers who were appointed to a total of 28 primary schools either in, or within the vicinty of, a large provincial city in a North Island Education Board. A revision to this list was made several weeks later as some of those initially selected had subsequently applied for studentships, or had been posted to other schools which did not meet the first criterion as set down above. Each of the 39 teachers on this revised list was then approached - first by letter giving an outline of the research (see Appendix B), and then in person - and his/her participation in the study was sought. All but two of the teachers agreed to participate. One of the non-participants indicated that she was disinterested and did not want to become involved; the other, a young, male Maori student teacher, initially agreed to participate, but then withdrew, and it was later learned that he had failed his college course and had left teaching. Permission for the involvement of the remaining 37 teachers in the research was sought and subsequently given by the Principals from the 23 schools the beginners were posted to. At the commencement of the school year, one further teacher was included in the study.[1]

---

[1] This teacher (code number: 38-M) had been posted to the region early in 1979, and, upon hearing of the research from the other year one teacher at his school (1-M), asked to become involved.

Summary Details of the Sample of Year One Teachers

A profile of the 38 teachers who became participants in the research is shown in Table 1, on the following page, and more comprehensive information about each of these teachers, and the schools they were posted to, is given in Appendix A.

In all, the composition of the sample, according to factors such as age, sex and ethnicity, was relatively representative of the cohort of student teachers from which this selection of Year One teachers was made. The sample comprised nine men and 29 women, whose ages ranged from 19 years to 40 years, with the majority of the teachers being 25 years of age, or younger. At the commencement of the school year, just over half of the sample was single, although by the completion of the research the number of married teachers had increased by seven. Thirty-one of the beginners were Pakeha (white New Zealanders) and three were from the Maori ethnic group.

All the teachers - except 38-M (Teacher number 38, a male) - had trained at the same teachers college in a New Zealand provincial city. One of the beginners, 14-F (Teacher number 14, a female), had completed a programme of training in the mid-1960's, although she had not taught, and so was required to undertake only a two year course. Nine of the teachers (1-M to 9-F) were university graduates, eight of whom had studied for the Bachelor of Education degree at the university located in the same city as the teachers college.[2] The other teacher, 9-F, had previously been awarded a degree from another university and subsequently completed the one year, end-on course of training at the teachers college. Teacher 8-M had pursued a full-time Masters course in Education for one year prior to commencing teaching in 1979.

Summary Details of the Schools

The geographic distribution of the schools which the beginners were posted to is shown in Figure 7 on page 32, along with the teachers in each locality and the type of primary schools. Because 3-F had been re-assigned to a school 150 kilometres from the provincial city, it was decided to exclude her from the sample at the end of the first term.[3]

---

[2] The teachers college and university shared the same campus. The teacher education programme was the joint responsibility of both institutions.

[3] Initially, 3-F had applied for this school, and when a vacancy did arise early in the school year, she was offered the position. The researcher managed to visit her in the first term.

TABLE 1

A Summary Profile of the Sample of Year One Teachers

First Year Teacher (Code No.)*	Age	Marital Status	Length of Training (Years)	Practice Teaching Mark**	Diploma Award***
1-M	40	Married	4	Very Good	Distinction
2-F	22	Married	4	Average	Commendation
3-F	20	Single	4	Very Good	Commendation
4-F	24	Married	4	Very Good	Commendation
5-F	25	Single/ Married	4	Very Good	Commendation
6-F	22	Single	4	Average	Pass
7-F	33	Married	4	Very Good	Commendation
8-M	23	Married	5	Very Good	Pass
9-F	29	Separated	4	Average	Pass
10-F	35	Divorced	3	Average	Pass
11-F	21	Single	3	Very Good	Pass
12-F	21	Single	3	Very Good	Commendation
13-M	20	Single/ Married	3	Average	Pass
14-F	37	Married	2	Excellent	Distinction
15-F	20	Single/ Married	3	Average	Pass
16-F	21	Single	3	Average	Pass
17-M	25	Married	3	Average	Pass
18-F	20	Single	3	Average	Pass
19-F	21	Single	3	Average	Pass
20-F	23	Single	3	Excellent	Distinction
21-M	23	Married	3	Very Good	Commendation
22-M	20	Single	3	Average	Pass
23-F	22	Married	3	Average	Pass
24-M	21	Married	3	Average	Commendation
25-F	21	Single	3	Average	Pass
26-F	22	Married	3	Average	Pass
27-M	22	Married	3	Very Good	Commendation
28-F	28	Divorced	3	Very Good	Pass
29-F	23	Married	3	Very Good	Pass
30-F	20	Single	3	Excellent	Distinction
31-M	24	Married	3	Very Fair	Pass
32-F	21	Single	3	Average	Pass
33-F	22	Married/ Separated	3	Very Fair	Pass
34-F	19	Single/ Married	3	Very Good	Pass
35-F	20	Single/ Married	3	Very Fair	Pass
36-F	20	Single/ Married	3	Very Good	Commendation
37-F	21	Single/ Married	3	Very Good	Commendation
38-M	27	Married	3	Very Good	Commendation

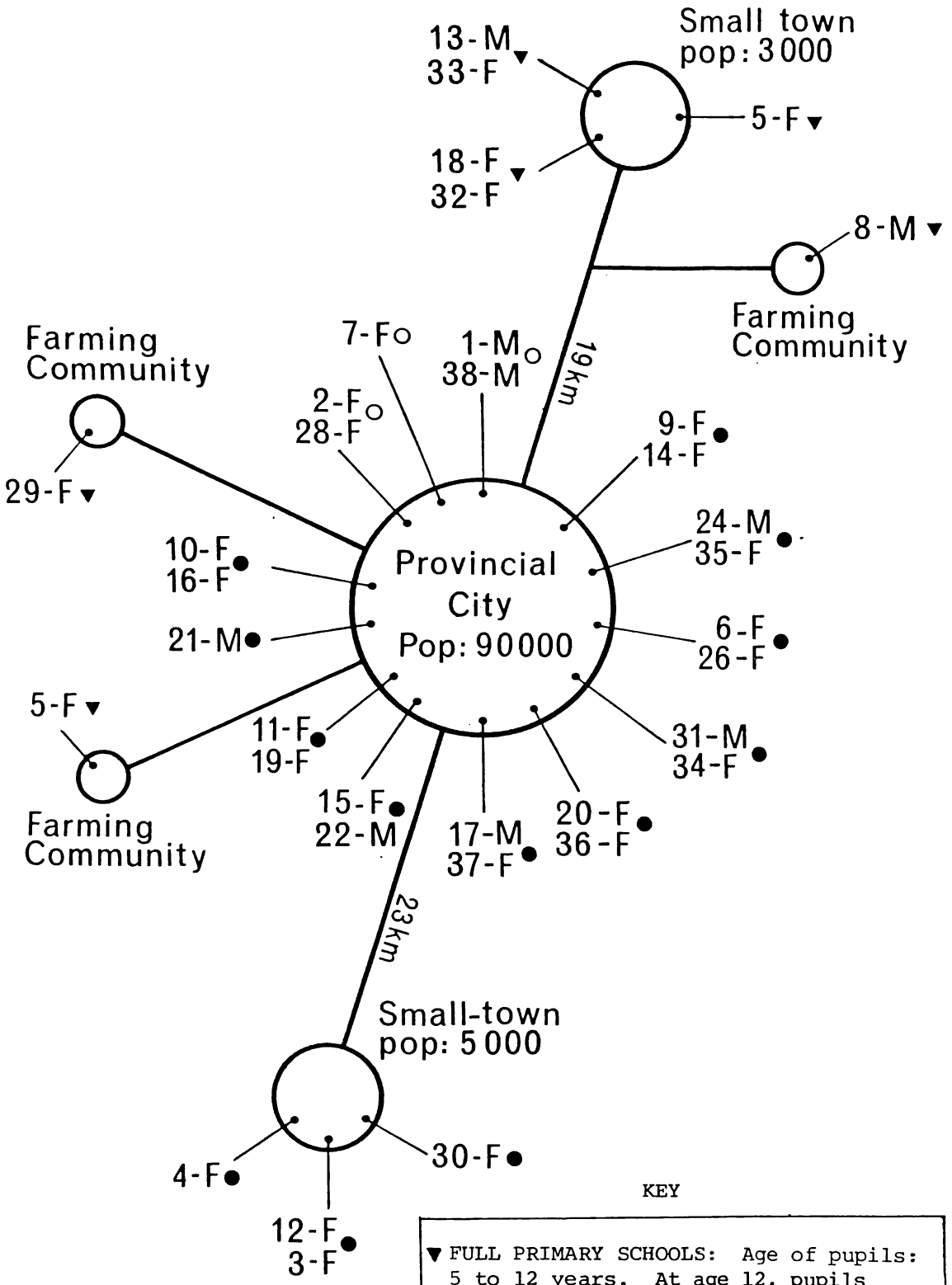
* The Code Number indicates the teacher's number and sex.

** The Practice Teaching Mark is the grade awarded to a student for his/her practice teaching sessions during training. The scale used is: Excellent; Very Good; Average; Fair; and, Very Fair.

*** The Teachers College Diploma is awarded with one of three grades: Distinction; Commendation; or, Pass. This grade provides an overall assessment of the student teacher.

FIGURE 7

The Geographic Distribution of the Schools to Which the Year One Teachers had been Posted



KEY

▼ FULL PRIMARY SCHOOLS: Age of pupils: 5 to 12 years. At age 12, pupils proceed to Secondary School

● CONTRIBUTING PRIMARY SCHOOLS: Age of pupils: 5 to 10 years. At age 10^{+}, pupils proceed to Intermediate School

○ INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS: Age of pupils: 11 to 12 years. At age 12, pupils proceed to Secondary School

Of the 23 schools, six were classified as full primary (age of pupils, five to 12 years), two as intermediates (age of pupils, 11 and 12 years), and 15 were contributing schools (age of pupils, five to 10 years). Except for the two intermediate schools, which each had a roll of about 600 pupils, the number of students at the two other types of primary schools varied from 87 to 450 at the full primary schools and from 234 to 650 at the contributing schools.

The localities of the schools and the socio-economic status of each school community were quite diverse (see detailed description of the schools in Appendix A). For instance, the small town north of the provincial city provided a major proportion of the workforce at the nearby export freezing works. The dominant ethnic group in this town was Maori. The town to the south, however, serviced an affluent dairy farming and horse breeding region, and the population there was predominantly Pakeha. In the provincial city there was also marked contrasts between the socio-economic status of the various school communities, as well as between the mix of Pakeha, Maori, and in this instance, Polynesian, students in the schools.

In summary, then, by September 1978, a sample of Year One teachers had been chosen as participants in this research, and the schools they had been posted to in the following year also had been approached, and had subsequently agreed, to become involved in the study.

ENTRY INTO THE FIELD AND GATHERING INITIAL DATA

Over a period of six months (August 1978 to January 1979) prior to the commencement of the 1979 school year, the researcher engaged in a programme of developing rapport with the sample of teachers on the same assumption as Dean (1954) described almost three decades ago:

> *Field contacts want to be reassured that the research worker is a "good guy", and can be trusted.*
>
> *(Dean, 1954, p.233)*

In the first meeting with each of the prospective teachers (during August and September 1978) to secure their participation in the project, the researcher made it known that his status in the university was that of "full-time student", and it was made clear that he held no

affiliation with the teachers college or the Education Board. It was also pointed out to the subjects that the researcher had recently been a beginning teacher himself. Accordingly, justifying to the sample the investigation and the style of research to be used did not prove too difficult. Indeed, several of the participants were relieved to know that it "was not just another questionnaire study".

During October and November of 1978, the researcher spent considerable time on the teachers college and university campus. At this stage, eight of the sample (1-M to 8-M) were involved in final examinations for their degrees. Where possible, the researcher attempted to meet up with each of them informally and enquire after their progress. Usually, these were only brief exchanges in the corridors, library and cafeteria.

The majority of the sample, however, had just completed their major practice teaching session and were now back at teachers college for the final five weeks of their training course. This time had been set aside by the college authorities as an informal induction period for the students for the coming year of teaching. As such, it provided the researcher with an ideal opportunity to develop further a rapport with each of the prospective teachers.

Being of a similar age, and adopting the same mode of dress as the student teachers, the researcher was able to mix freely with them over the five week period and participated in many of the induction activities (e.g., discussion sessions; short courses in various curriculum areas, etc.). At no time, however, did the researcher meet with the sample as a group. It was assumed instead that it would be more advantageous to establish, where possible, a place in the peer group networks of each teacher rather than to isolate the sample from the larger cohort of student teachers.

Also in October and November, each of the prospective first year teachers was interviewed (see Interview Schedule, Appendix C) for the two-fold purpose of gathering background information on them and of gaining an insight into the expectations they held for the coming year. Although some structure was placed on this interview situation, the discussions were informal and consequently contained material which covered a wide range of issues.

The time spent on the campus of the university and teachers

college also provided the researcher with an opportunity to try out strategies for the systematic recording and storing of observational and interview data collected in the field. It was soon realised that the traditional method of writing up fieldnotes at the end of each day would not suffice. Besides being time consuming, this practice proved inadequate in conveying the researcher's experiences and interactions with people. In view of this, the researcher decided to carry with him, at all times, a tape recorder to collect, first hand, the field data. Thus, an accurate record could be gained of conversations and observations, as well as a running narrative of each day's events. Where necessary, it was intended to write up fieldnotes to supplement this data. For the duration of the research both these techniques were continually employed as data recording methods.

Over the holiday period from December 1978 through to mid-January 1979, contact was maintained with most of the sample of teachers through the occasional telephone conversation. Further information was also collected about the teachers during this time, from their academic and personal files held by the teachers college and university. This included details on age, marital status, ethnic group, selection committee rating, practice teaching grades, past full-time work experience, and high school and tertiary education academic record. This background data, including that which was gathered later from questionnaires administered to the beginners, their Principals and Senior Teachers, enable a detailed profile of each Year One teacher, and his/her school, to be compiled. These profiles are included in Appendix A in order to provide a reference point about the people and places which form the basis of the present study.

In mid-January, two weeks prior to the start of the school year, the researcher contacted all the sample with the aim of explaining once again the format of the investigation. In particular, it was emphasised that the researcher would keep in contact by telephone and through meetings before or after school, or during a lunch break, and that both these types of contact would probably be on an irregular basis. The teachers were also encouraged to contact the researcher should they wish to discuss any matter relating to their job or personal life.

By the beginning of the 1979 school year, a considerable amount of background information on the Year One teachers had been gathered. As well, rapport with them was firmly established, and a method of recording

data by way of tape recordings and fieldnotes had been trialled.

THE OVERALL SHAPE OF THE RESEARCH

At the completion of this study in December 1979, it was possible to retrace the various stages of the research. These are set out in diagrammatic form in Figure 8 on the next page.

Of the 204 school days in the 1979 year, 127 of these were spent in schools collecting data. During this field work, the researcher's interactions (e.g., formal and informal interviews; conversations; etc.) with the beginning teachers totalled 1476, and on 201 separate occasions the researcher conversed with or informally interviewed Senior teachers, Principals and Inspectors. The duration of each of these interactions in the field ranged from several minutes to two and three quarter hours.

As well as data gathered from interacting with the beginners and other people in the field, a wide range of information was collected by using a variety of case study techniques.

CASE STUDY TECHNIQUES USED IN THE RESEARCH

Structured Interviews

The beginning teachers were interviewed formally by the researcher at the end of each school term; that is, in May, August and December. A schedule of questions (see Appendix C), based on data collected during the term, and scrutinised by the researcher's supervisors, was compiled for each of these interviews.

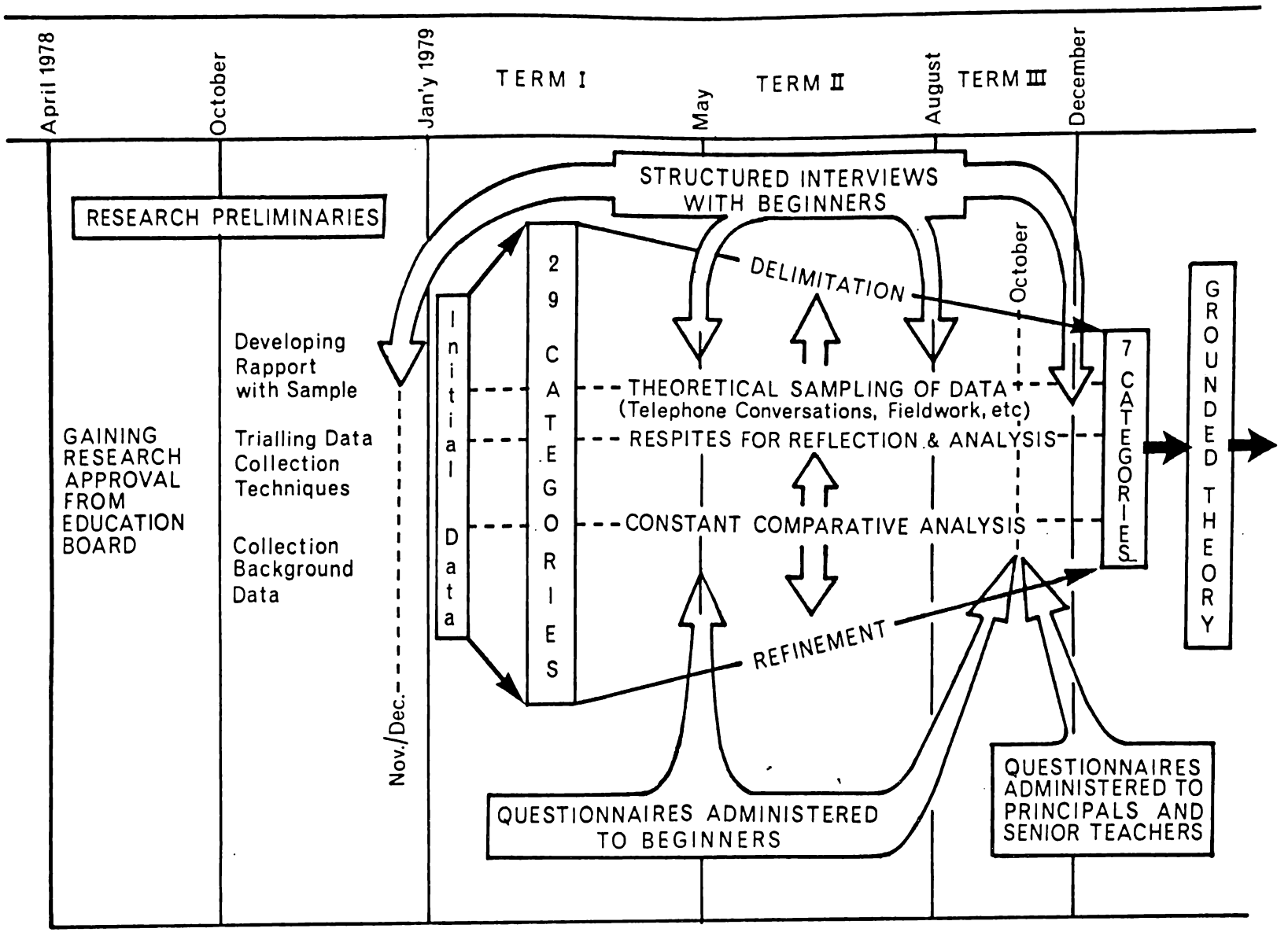
The interviews were tape-recorded and were usually held in the evenings either at the residence of the researcher or of the Year One teacher. On average, one to three hours was spent interviewing and talking with each teacher during these end-of-term meetings.

Diary Accounts

Following the success claimed by Moore (1967) and Hannam *et al* (1976) with the use of diaries as a means of data collection, it was decided to issue each of the Year One teachers in this study with a personal diary. Throughout the research the beginners were encouraged to make daily recordings in the diary, and, in particular, to note

FIGURE 8

The Overall Shape of the Research



events or incidents that had occurred which they felt the researcher should know about. Whenever the researcher interviewed or conversed with a beginner, s/he was asked to use diary accounts as a reference to place various events or happenings in a specific time context.

At about monthly intervals, the diaries were collected and entries for the preceding period were photocopied. The diaries were returned within a period of two to three days.

Observations and Conversations at Schools

These were informal and usually took place in staffrooms and playgrounds. Initially, the researcher did engage in observations in a total of 11 Year One teachers' classrooms, but this practice was largely discontinued because of the influence of the Hawthorne Effect (Mayo, 1949). This occurrence provides an interesting parallel with an earlier, related study undertaken by Ramsay (1978) in this particular Education Board. Ramsay reported that his observations also had to be curtailed because of the noticeable change in behaviour of his subjects when he was in their classrooms.

During the year, however, the researcher did visit and observe in some classrooms at the invitation of several of the beginning teachers (e.g., 29-F; 34-M; 36-F).

Telephone Conversations

Usually, during the evening prior to visiting a school, the researcher would confirm with the Year One teacher(s) at that school an appropriate meeting time. Frequently, however, the teachers would use this telephone conversation to brief the researcher on up-to-date happenings in their school, classroom, and quite often, in their personal life. Occasionally, a first year teacher's spouse or close friend would answer the telephone and sometimes engage in conversation about their reactions to the beginner's first year of teaching.

On four occasions, unsolicited telephone calls, relating to the research, were received from people other than the Year One teachers. One was from a close friend of a beginner; another from a mother of one of the teachers; and, two calls were received from beginners' spouses. In each instance, information was conveyed to the researcher about recent, major occurrences involving the first year teacher concerned. Besides

these calls, 34 unsolicited telephone conversations were held with the beginning teachers themselves.

The telephone medium was also used to ensure that constant contact with the beginners was maintained. During the first weeks of the school year, the researcher talked with each teacher on the telephone at least twice a week, and during the remainder of the research, including vacation periods, this type of contact was carried out on fortnightly basis.

Documents

Besides the previously mentioned documented information that was collected from the teachers college and university (e.g., academic records; biographical data on the teachers; etc.), other documentary items were gathered during the research. These included: copies of Inspector's reports on each of the beginners; various pamphlets on each school's philosophy and school programme; and, correspondence sent to the first year teachers from the Education Board (e.g., job application schedules).

Questionnaires

During the year, three series of paper-and-pencil questionnaires were used. The first of these was a biographical-type questionnaire (see Appendix D), and was administered to the 38 beginning teachers[4] in the final three weeks of the first school term. All the teachers completed and returned this questionnaire by the end of the term.

There were two reasons for using this biographical questionnaire. First, in gathering background data on the sample of teachers, it was found that, not only were the teachers college files on some of the beginners incomplete, but that information such as type of secondary school attended, religion, father's and mother's occupation, and practice teaching placements had not been recorded with any regularity. The first section of this questionnaire, then was designed to gather this type of information. The second reason for using this instrument was to verify some of the data collected in the field, and, in particular, that which concerned the beginners' visits to their schools prior to the commencement of the teaching year, and also details about the number of

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[4] Teacher 27-M had left teaching by this time. However, he was sent a questionnaire and instructed to complete as many items as he could.

children in their class, and the number of children and teachers in the school.

A second series of questionnaires (see Appendix E) was administered to the beginners[5] at a two-day inservice course they attended in mid-October. The Inspectorate, who had arranged this course around the theme, "The First Year of Teaching", also offered an invitation to the researcher to attend.

At this particular time, the major categories of the grounded theory had been well established and were quickly becoming saturated, and the objective of this second questionnaire series was to facilitate further the saturation process and also to provide information which would supplement and verify some of the field data. Accordingly, a questionnaire was designed which not only met this objective, but also blended in with the theme of the inservice course. The questionnaire, which contained the following sections, was completed by all the teachers and was returned at the end of the course:

(a) Teacher Stress Questionnaire: This was a modified form of the questionnaire developed by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978, 1979).

(b) Guidance from Senior Teacher Questionnaire: This was adapted from that used by Battersby and Battersby (1979). It contained 19 items - both forced-choice and open-ended - which probed issues such as regularity and type of meeting with the Senior Teacher, and the level of satisfaction with, and the role of, the Senior Teacher.

(c) Teaching Problems Questionnaire: This was based on the research instrument trialled by Telfer (1979). However, a combined "seriousness" and "frequency" Likert rating scale, which had been employed with some success by Otto, Gasson and Jordan (1979), was used in place of Telfer's Likert scale.

(d) Future in Teaching Questionnaire: Items from Ramsay's (1978) Expressed Vocational Commitment Scale formed the basis to this section.

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[5] At this time, the sample had been reduced to 34. Teacher 27-M had left teaching early in the first term; 3-F had been posted to a school outside the region; 26-F had left teaching because of her pregnancy; and, 32-F had transferred to another Education Board.

(e) Inspections Questionnaire: Information about the frequency and helpfulness of visits from Inspectors was asked for in the first part of this questionnaire. Then, using the list of criteria for rating year one teachers supplied by the Wellington Education Board (1975), the beginners were requested to make three judgements relating to each criterion: (a) Their opinion of how the Inspector would rate them on each item; (b) Whether or not they thought the Inspector could make such a judgement on the basis of contact during the year; and (c) A personal rating of themselves on each factor.

(f) Teacher Training Questionnaire: This questionnaire was based on that developed by Murdoch (1978), and it probed such factors as the adequacy of teachers training in preparing teachers in various curriculum areas, the level of confidence the beginners had in teaching these curriculum subjects, recommended changes and improvements to teachers college courses, and the usefulness of practice teaching.

Each of the above questionnaires contained open-ended sections where respondents were encouraged to express freely their feelings about issues which had been raised.

Immediately following the inservice course, a third series of questionnaires was developed (see Appendix F) and this time administered to the Principals (N=23; 100% response rate) and Senior Teachers (N=34; 97% response rate) of the beginners. This questionnaire series was designed to complement the data gathered from the Year One teachers, and to provide more comprehensive information about the Principals, Senior Teachers and their schools. Included in the questionnaire were the following sections:

(a) Background Information: In the case of the Principals, details were sought about the number of pupils enrolled at his/her school, the number of teachers on the staff and the school's policy on assisting and guiding Year One teachers. From each of the Senior Teachers, information was requested on their teaching experience, their opinion on the role a Senior Teacher fulfils in overseeing a beginner, and the type of professional relationship that had developed between the beginner and the Senior Teacher.

(b) Teacher Stress Questionnaire: This consisted of the first part of the Stress Questionnaire administered to the first year teachers. In

this instance, the Senior Teachers and Principals were asked to indicate their opinion of the stress on beginning teachers in relation to each item.

(c) Teaching Problems Questionnaire: This contained the same items as the beginners' Teaching Problems Questionnaire. The Principals and Senior Teachers were asked to comment on how serious a problem each item was to the Year One teacher(s) for whom they were responsible.

(d) Performance Rating Questionnaire: Using the Wellington Education Board's Inspector's (1975) list of criteria for rating Year One teachers, the Principals and Senior Teachers were directed to rate the first year teacher(s) on each criterion.

(e) Teaching Training Questionnaire: The Principals and Senior Teachers were asked to indicate the adequacy of teachers college in preparing Year One teachers in the various curriculum areas, as well as for parent meetings, planning, classroom control, and so on. The beginners responded to a similar questionnaire.

As with the first year teachers, the Principals and Senior Teachers were encouraged to complete the open-ended sections of the questionnaires and to provide additional comments, views or criticisms. Suggestions were also sought on ways of easing the transition of Year One teachers from the teachers college into the classroom, and on the type of guidance needed by young teachers during their first year in the profession.

SUMMARY

The objective of this chapter has been to outline the design and methodology which was adopted to meet the two, broad aims of the present research. The design chosen was that of a longitudinal investigation using a case study approach to data collection and a method for theory construction known as "grounded theory". The various case study data gathering techniques that were utilised (e.g., interviews, diary accounts, conversations, documents, questionnaires), as well as the major components of the grounded theory strategy, were subsequently described.

Also in this chapter, the processes of selecting a sample of

Year One teachers, of collecting background information on them, and of developing a rapport with these teachers, was discussed. In this context, mention was made of Appendix A as an important reference point, for it contains a comprehensive profile of the people and places which form the base to the present study.

In the chapter which follows a detailed description is given of how the researcher explored the day-to-day experiences of this sample of beginning teachers, and then used the data that was gathered to develop a framework of a grounded theory of these teachers' socialisation during their first year in the profession.

CHAPTER THREE

DEVELOPING THE FRAMEWORK OF THE GROUNDED THEORY

Using case study research techniques in combination with the grounded theory strategy, the researcher gathered data on the experiences of the sample of beginning primary school teachers during their first year of teaching. This chapter provides an account of how the collection and analysis of this data was carried out in tandem with the development of a theoretical framework to elaborate and to clarify the process of socialisation for these beginning teachers.

By the beginning of the 1979 school year, the data that had been gathered up until this time consisted of: (a) Information from each beginner's teachers college and university academic and personal files; (b) Transcripts of the end-of-college interviews with the beginners; (c) Fieldnotes gathered during the time spent on the teachers college and university campus; and (d) Details of the schools the Year One teachers had been posted to. This background information not only enabled the researcher to obtain a close knowledge of the sample of beginning teachers, but it also provided a vantage point from which began the development of the grounded theory. The following discussion gives an account of how the framework of this grounded theory evolved from data collected on the day-to-day experiences of these first year teachers.

THE FIRST SCHOOL TERM

Collecting the Data

In initiating the process of data collection - referred to as *theoretical sampling* - during the first few days of the school year, the advice of Glaser and Strauss (1967) was adhered to:

> *Theoretical sampling ... does not require the fullest possible coverage of the whole group except at the very beginning of the research, when the main categories are emerging - and these tend to emerge very fast.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.69)*

Accordingly, the researcher spent two days observing in one school and collected indepth information on the experiences of the two beginning teachers (31-M and 34-F) who had been appointed there (see Battersby, 1979h, 1980e). The researcher was able to participate with these two beginners in all the school activities on these two days, which included staff meetings, separate meetings with the Principal and Senior Teachers and social gatherings at the local tavern on both afternoons.

During these first days of the school year, the researcher also telephoned other teachers in the sample each evening and questioned them about their initial experiences on-the-job. Three questions were asked during each telephone conversation: (a) What has happened at school so far? (b) What are your initial impressions about the staff and the children? and, (c) What happened on teachers' day?[6] As a follow-up to these conversations, the researcher met briefly with each beginning teacher, usually during a morning tea or lunch break, and obtained a face-to-face reaction to his or her first days of teaching.

By the end of the first two weeks of the school year, all the Year One teachers had taken part in at least one telephone interview with the researcher, and all had met with him at their school. However, the data collection during this time had been so constant and intense that it seemed essential that the following suggestion by Glaser and Strauss (1967) be acted on:

> *If he [the researcher] does not take respites for reflection and analysis, he cannot avoid collecting a large mass of data of dubious theoretical relevance.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.72)*

Analysing the Data

The first of these reflection periods lasted four days and was taken after the first two weeks in the field.[7] During this and the subsequent respites, the researcher continued to keep in touch, by means of telephone conversations, with the sample of Year One teachers.

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[6] Teachers' day was the day prior to the official commencement of the school year, when teachers met to arrange classes, planning, activities, etc..

[7] By the completion of the research, 77 of the 204 school days, as well as all of the weekends, statutory holidays and the teachers' term vacation periods, making a total of 130 days, had been utilised for the purpose of reflection and analysis of data.

Using the *constant comparative method*, which was described in the previous chapter, an initial analysis of the data was carried out during this first recess period. This involved the researcher transcribing the tape recorded conversations and fieldnotes. Supplementary notes and after-thoughts that had been gathered were attached to each transcript which was then typed. Two copies were taken of this typed transcript. One of these was filed in a chronological catalogue of the research data, which, at this point, contained interview data and fieldnotes gathered prior to the start of the school year, as well as a copy of the beginners' diary accounts for each day of the preceding two week period. The other copy of the transcript was filed in the personal folio of the teacher to whom the script related. Also held in this folio was a copy of the beginner's diary accounts and all the background information on the teacher and his/her school.

The next stage in the analysis procedure entailed a close study of the information in the chronological catalogue of research data. At this juncture, the catalogue comprised 320 pages of typed transcript and approximately 10 diary entries from each of the beginners. A further indication of the type and quantity of this data can be ascertained from the information contained in the catalogue for the first two days of the school year. This is shown in the Table below.

Table 2

Information Contained in the Chronological Catalogue of Research Data for the First Two Days of the School Year

School Day #1 30 January 1979	School Day #2 31 January 1979
Fieldwork notes and interview transcripts obtained from observing in the school of 31-M and 34-F	Fieldwork notes and interview transcripts obtained from observing in the school of 31-M and 34-F
Transcripts of telephone conversations with 1-M, 4-F, 7-F, 8-M, 12-F, 14-F, 21-M, 29-F and 32-F	Transcripts of telephone conversations with 5-F, 6-F, 9-F, 13-M, 16-F, 25-F and 30-F
	Interview with 27-M at his residence
Beginners' diary accounts for the first day of the school year	Beginners' diary accounts for the second day of the school year
Supplementary notes gathered during a visit to the tavern with 31-M and 34-F	Supplementary notes gathered during a visit to the tavern with 31-M and 34-F

During the first perusal of the catalogue, possible titles for categories of data were written in the margins adjacent to the supporting information. This initial inspection resulted in 16 different categories of data being identified. On a second and closer analysis of the catalogue, it was found that some of these 16 categories could be subdivided,[8] and, as well, several new categories were able to be discerned, giving a total of 29 categories. On a third inspection of the data, no new categories were able to be found. Thus, as an outcome of this three phase process of studying the data, the identification of 29 categories resulted, and these are listed in the following Table.

Table 3

The Initial Set of the Grounded Theory Categories

CATEGORIES OF DATA ON ...	
Expectations for the Year	Giving Up
The First Two Weeks	Rewards from Teaching
Teachers' Day	Administrative Duties
N.Z.E.I. (The Primary Teachers' Union)	The Teaching Day (i.e., hours worked)
The School	Planning
Pupils	Teaching in Class
The Education Board	Teacher Training
Colleagues	Further Study
The Principal	Career in Teaching
The Inspector	Anxiety
The Senior Teacher	Successes in Teaching
Induction	Contact with other Year One Teachers
Attributes of a Successful Year One Teacher	Image as a Teacher
Meetings	Private Life
Parents	

With this list of 29 categories, the next objective was to compile the supporting data for each category on file cards. In carrying out this procedure, the following ground rule was adopted: When the supporting data related to two or more categories, the data was to be

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[8] *Classroom Activities*, for example, was one of these 16 categories which was subdivided into three, discrete categories: *Administrative Duties; Planning;* and, *Teaching in Class.*

filed under each category. For instance, the information below was collected from teacher 2-F:

> *I think I'm looking forward to being able to have my own class and my own set of kids, and just being able to teach them the things and get back satisfaction from that.*

This data was subsequently filed under the categories, *Expectations for the Year, Pupils, and Rewards from Teaching.*

Also, in filing the supporting data, a frequency count was made of the number of Year One teachers from which similar data was obtained. The aim of this exercise was to be able to provide a quantification of supporting data within each category, and also to indicate a measure of the generalisability of the propositions that emerged.

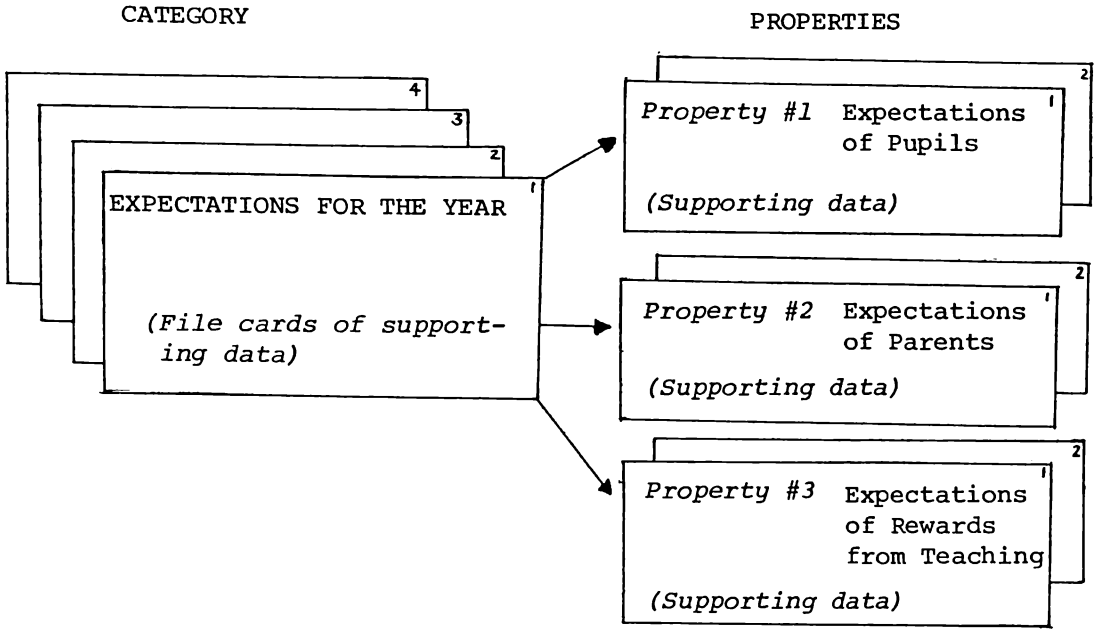
Having completed the transference of the supporting data on each category onto file cards, the next task was to determine whether the actual categories themselves could be verified. On this issue, Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that when a category is identified, it may be necessary to collect further data, from sources similar to where the data on that category originated (i.e., *minimising* differences in data), so as to verify the existence of a definite category. However, even at this early point in the research, it was found that all the categories could be verified, not only because there was a similarity of data within each category, but the data itself had already been gathered from similar sources (i.e., the beginning teachers).

The final step in the analysis procedure was to ascertain the existence of properties, or sub-themes, within the categories of data. Accordingly, the category file cards were examined, and for each of the 120 properties that were discerned, a separate file card was used to reference the supporting data for that property. Using the category, *Expectations for the Year,* a diagrammatic representation of this procedure is shown on the page following.

By the completion of this four day recess period, an organisation, classification and analysis of the first data had been undertaken, and the subsequent pattern for the handling of future data had been set in motion. Moreover, a base-line framework of the grounded theory, consisting of 29 categories and 120 properties, had been arrived at.

Figure 9

Developing Properties from a Category of Data



The Further Collection and Analysis of Data

After the first respite, the researcher resumed visiting schools to talk with the beginning teachers. Rather than attempt to direct conversation with them, it was decided to let the beginners converse freely about events or happenings which they had experienced. This type of approach to data collection was followed on the assumption that it could maximise some of the differences in the data being collected (see, Figure 5 on page 26), and hence promote the development of the categories and their properties. This process of maximising differences in the data was extended further when the researcher gathered information by initiating conversations with Senior Teachers, Principals, Inspectors, and sometimes other staff (e.g., caretakers and cleaners) about the beginners, and through observations of the Year One teachers in staffrooms, on playground duty, and occasionally in their classroom.

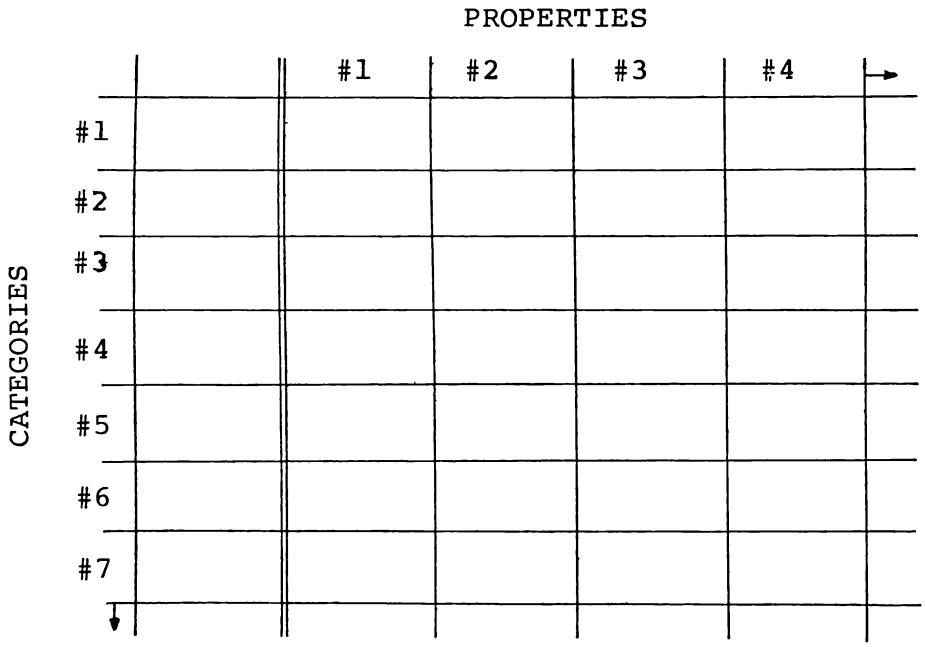
Having spent three more weeks in the field, another recess period was taken, and during this time a further analysis of the data was carried out. As before, tape recorded conversations and fieldnotes were transcribed, typed, copied and filed, along with the diary accounts for the previous three weeks. On this occasion, transcripts of conversations with the beginners' colleagues (e.g., Principals, Senior Teachers, etc.) were similarly filed in the chronological catalogue of research data, and in the personal folios of the respective Year One teachers.

All this new data was then studied to ascertain the existence of any further categories. None was found. Using the framework of the existing 29 categories, the next step involved compiling the new data onto the respective category file cards. This data was then inspected, and as an outcome, 14 new properties were identified giving a total of 134 properties.

At this stage, with the framework of the grounded theory consisting of 29 categories and 134 properties, the first attempt to refine and to delimit some of these categories and properties was undertaken. To achieve this, the following procedure was instigated and repeated during each recess period of the research. On these occasions, a master plan of the categories and their properties was drawn up, using an enlarged version of the grid format below.

Figure 10

A Grid Format for Refining and Delimiting Categories and Properties

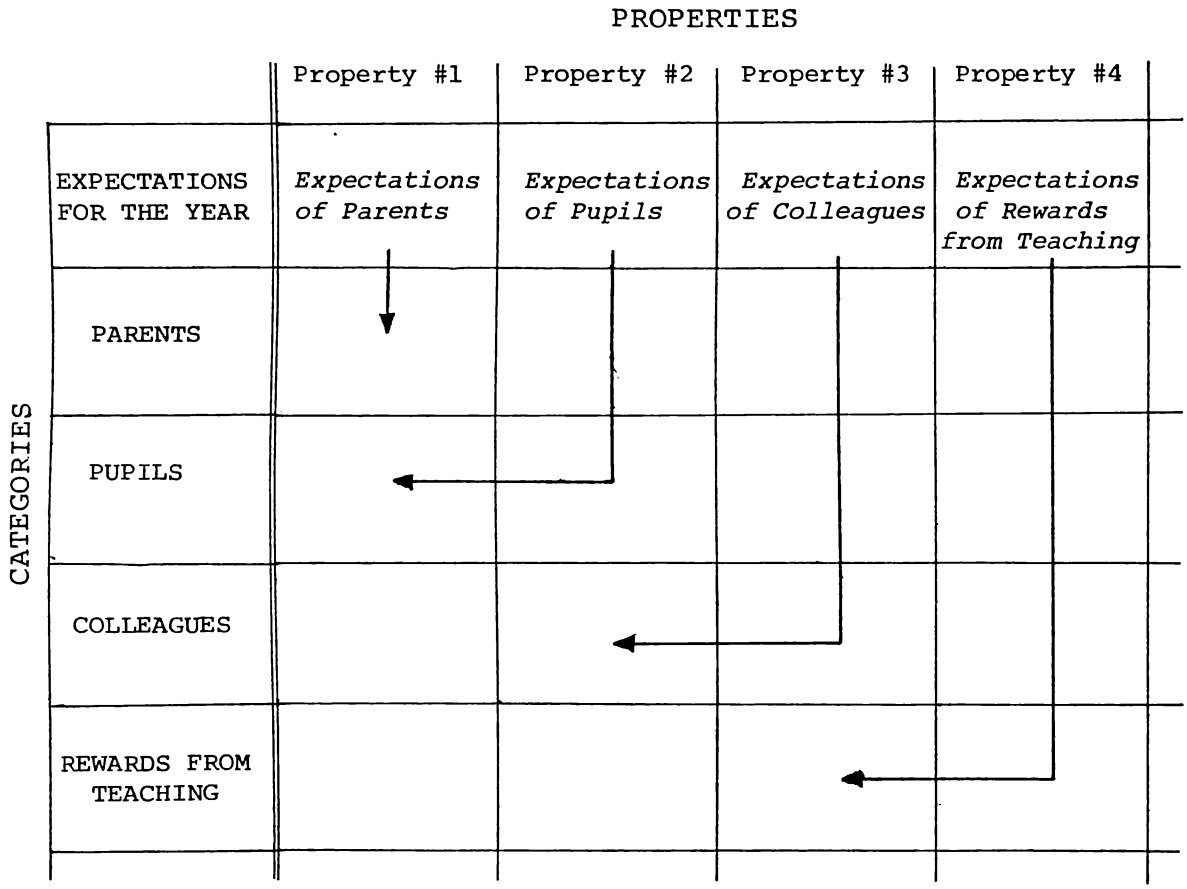


Once the names of the categories and their properties were placed on this grid, it was then studied to see if it was possible to combine any of the properties within or between the categories. If a possibility arose, then the properties' data were consulted to confirm whether or not such a combination or modification could proceed. As

an outcome of this procedure, the number of properties was able to be reduced to approximately 90. The categories were also delimited and now totalled 25. The categories, *Expectations for the Year, The First Two Weeks, Teachers' day,* and *Induction* had been subsumed by other categories. Using a cross-section of a grid format, Figure 11 illustrates, in more detail, how this process of delimitation occurred. In this particular instance, the category, *Expectations for the Year,* is given as the example. The possibility of combining the properties of this

Figure 11

A Cross-Section of a Category/Property Grid Format



category with other categories, as shown above, was confirmed through an inspection of the data. Subsequently, all this category's data was able to subsumed by several of the more dominant categories (e.g., *Parents, Pupils,* etc.).

In conjunction with this refinement of the grounded theory framework, a number of propositions within some of the categories was able to be formulated. These propositions, of which there were 16, were

derived from properties which had in common the characteristic that there were similarities in various data within the property, and that this data had been collected from more than one source (e.g., from conversations with a number of beginners). A property of the category, *Pupils*, from which four of these early propositions emerged, provides a case in point. This property, which was titled, *Teacher Expectations*, contained four, distinct groups of data, which, in this instance, had been collected from conversations and interviews with the beginners prior to the commencement of the school year. From this data, the propositions in Table 4 were derived. The level of generalisability each is ascribed is an approximate guide as to the number of Year One teachers in the sample from which similar, supporting data, relating to that proposition, had been obtained.[9]

Table 4

Early Propositions to Emerge From a Category of Data entitled *Pupils*

CATEGORY: *PUPILS*		
PROPERTY	PROPOSITIONS	GENERALIS-ABILITY
Teacher Expectations	*By the commencement of the school year, first year teachers ...*	
	1. Are eager to experience a classroom and a group of children of their own.	Medium
	2. Have obtained details about the pupils whom they will come in contact with during their first year of teaching.	High
	3. Are aware that they may have control problems and be unable to handle the difficult pupil during their first year of teaching.	Medium
	4. Expect to have well-behaved pupils during their first year of teaching.	Low

At the end of this second, four day respite, the framework of the grounded theory comprised 25 categories containing 90 properties from

[9] If similar data was obtained from more than two-thirds of the sample, then the proposition was designated as having a "High" level of generalisability; between one-third and two-thirds of the sample, a "Medium" level of generalisability; and, between one-sixth and one-third of the sample, a "Low" level of generalisability.

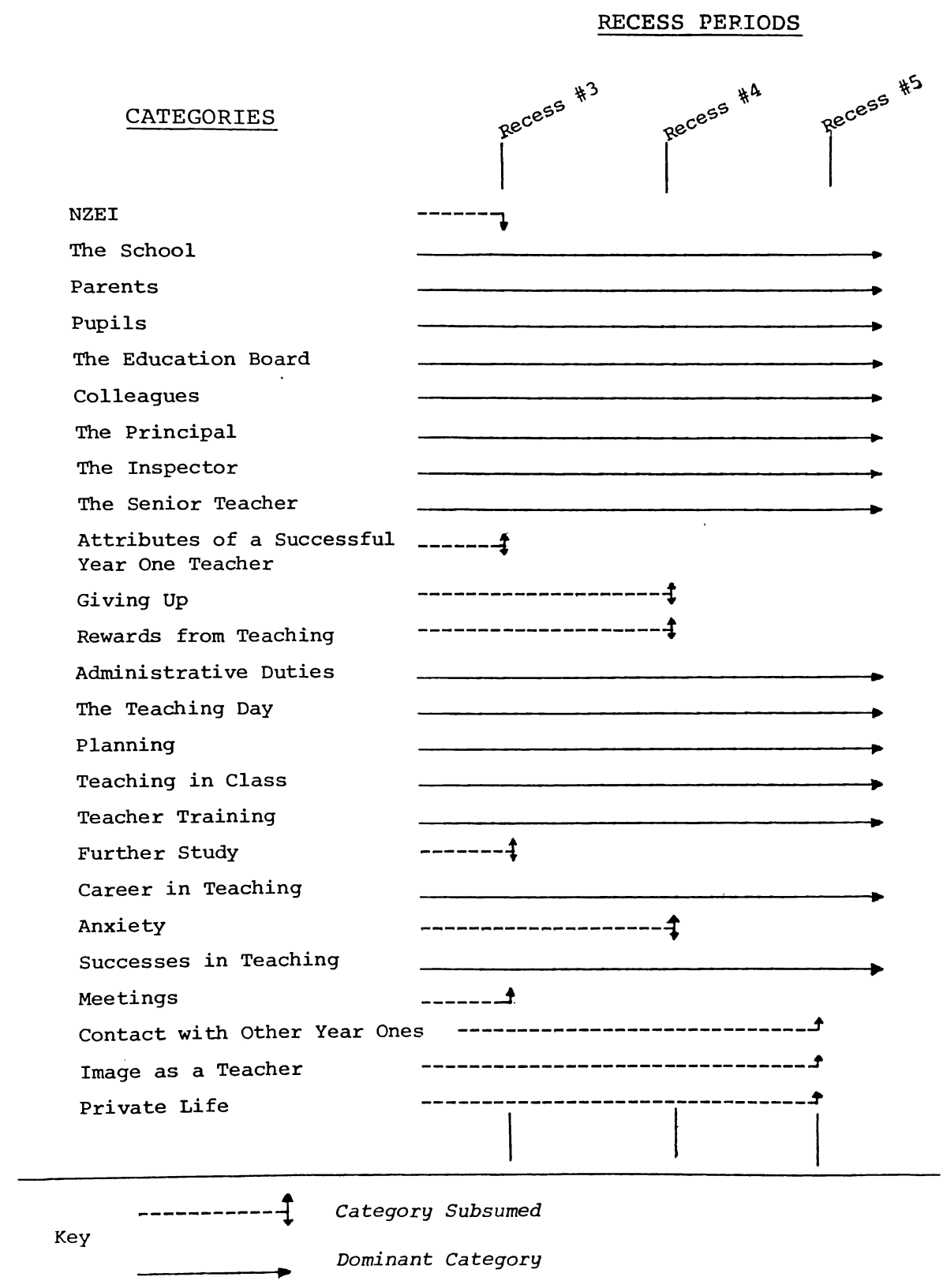
which 16 propositions had been derived. On returning to the field, the collection of further data began to be guided by this framework, and, in particular, by the dominant categories. For instance, *Senior Teacher* and *Pupils* emerged as relatively strong categories early in the research. This dominance was seen in both the beginners' frequency of mention about Senior Teachers and pupils, and the number of interactions they reported having with them. One lead followed up by the researcher related to the problems beginners were encountering with pupils (e.g., control and discipline; difficulties with problem children). Another lead explored was the supervision given the beginners by their respective Senior Teachers. Thus, in talking with the Year One teachers, and with their Principals and Senior Teachers, the conversation probes became more directed towards collecting specific information on these types of leads given by the data. Also, while in the field, much data was gathered on other emergent categories. At this time, for example, which was mid-way through the first school term, the categories, *Parents* and *Inspector* came into prominence as the first year teachers began preparations for parent interviews and for visits from their Inspector.

Before the end of the first term of teaching, the researcher had three further recess periods, and on each occasion similar procedures, to those described above, were followed in the analysis of the data, in the refinement and delimitation of the categories and their properties, and in developing propositions and leads for further data collection. During these respites, the 25 categories were able to be delimited to a total of 15, as is illustrated in Figure 12 on the next page. This process of delimitation also resulted in the properties being reduced from 90 to 65. On the other hand, 12 new propositions were formulated from the data, giving a total of 28 propositions.

The last three weeks of the first term was spent in schools following up leads from the previous data analysis. During this time, the beginners also completed a biographical questionnaire (see Appendix D), and were interviewed individually (see Interview Schedule, Appendix C). As was outlined in the previous chapter, this biographical questionnaire was used to collect background information on the first year teachers which was not contained in their teachers college or university files. It also provided information (e.g., the number of children in each beginner's class) which verified and added detail to some of the early field data. The interview situation, on the other hand, was used as a forum in which to gather further data from the beginners about their

Figure 12

The Delimitation of Categories During the Last Three Recess Periods of the First School Term



experiences during the term, and to tap their expectations for the coming term of teaching. As with each of the end-of-term interviews, the Year One teachers were encouraged to offer general comments and to broach issues not covered in the schedule of questions.

Throughout the ensuing two week vacation period, the beginners' responses to the biographical questionnaire were collated with the other background information on them that had been gathered so far in the research. As well, transcripts of the tape recorded interviews and of the field data collected in the last three weeks of the term were typed and copied, and, along with the diary accounts, were filed in the chronological catalogue and in the beginners' personal files. This new data was then placed on the category file cards. Using the grid format procedure, previously described and illustrated, the data on three of the categories (*The School, The Education Board,* and *Successes in Teaching*) were able to be incorporated into other, more powerful categories, leaving a total of 12 categories and reducing the number of properties from 65 to approximately 40. Ten more propositions were able to be generated from the data, which brought the number of propositions to 38.

During the first school term, then, the collection and analysis of data on the day-to-day experiences of the Year One teachers gave rise to a theoretical framework comprised of categories, properties and propostions relating to the socialisation of these teachers. As the research progressed, this grounded theory framework was subject to a process of refinement, and by the beginning of the second school term, its structure had been consolidated around the following 12 major categories:

Pupils	Administrative Duties
Parents	The Teaching Day
The Principal	Planning
The Senior Teacher	Teaching in Class
Colleagues	Teacher Training
The Inspector	Career in Teaching

THE SECOND SCHOOL TERM

In the first two weeks of this term, the researcher met with each beginner, usually at a morning tea break, or in a lunch period, to

obtain a face-to-face reaction to his or her first days back on-the-job. At the end of this fortnight, a three day recess was taken in which the field data was typed and copied, and, with the beginners' diary accounts, was filed in the catalogue of research data and in the folios of the Year One teachers. Having transferred this new data onto category file cards, the grid format procedure was once again carried out, but no modifications to the existing framework of the grounded theory resulted.

On returning to schools after this respite, data collection was again guided by leads from the previous data analysis. In this instance, it was learned from the beginners that inspectorial visits were scheduled to take place, and so where it was possible, the researcher visited and talked with each beginner prior to, and following, his or her inspection. Much valuable data was able to be collected in this way, which subsequently led to the development of the category, *The Inspector*, and its properties. This same procedure was followed during the latter part of the term when the beginners were engaged in parent-teacher interviews. In the course of gathering information on these types of events, data on other categories were also collected.

Although a regular routine involving the theoretical sampling of data, interspersed with recess periods for data analysis, continued throughout the second term, it was noticeable that the framework of the grounded theory changed far less rapidly than had occurred in the previous term. This was due, in part, to the fact that as the framework of the grounded theory consolidated, there were fewer avenues for delimiting the number of categories. Moreover, it was found that as the categories and properties developed, there was a greater likelihood that the new data being added to the category file cards was similar to that already on file, and therefore did not extend the category.

From the beginning of July, which was a month into the second school term, until the end of term, three further respites for data analysis were taken. The last of these occurred in mid-August which was just prior to the end-of-term interviews with the beginners. By this time, the 12 categories which constituted the grounded theory framework at the beginning of the term had been reduced to the following nine categories:

Pupils	The Inspector
Parents	Management and Organisation
The Principal	Teacher Training
The Senior Teacher	Career in Teaching
Colleagues	

This refinement resulted from four of the 12 categories (*Administrative Duties, The Teaching Day, Planning,* and *Teaching in Class*) being combined to form a new category entitled, *Management and Organisation*. Over this period, the properties also had been delimited and now totalled 28 compared with 41 at the start of the term. The number of propositions had risen by 15 to a total of 53.

During the last weeks of the second school term, each beginner was interviewed, either at the residence of the researcher or of the Year One teacher. The schedule of questions used (see Appendix C) was aimed to gather further information on the beginners' experiences during the previous three months, and to tap the expectations they held for the coming school term. Again, the teachers were encouraged to discuss issues not covered in the interview schedule.

In the two week August vacation which followed, the researcher kept in contact with the Year One teachers - as had been done in the preceding vacation - by means of telephone conversations. During this time, the interview and field data was transcribed and typed, and, along with the diary accounts, was filed and then analysed. As an outcome of this analysis, three more propositions were formulated.

Toward the end of the vacation, the supporting data on each of the nine categories was re-examined to determine the degree to which each category had become *theoretically saturated*; that is, whether any further data would extend and develop the category (see pp.25-26). Using this criterion, none of the categories was found to be theoretically saturated. However, the data on nine of the 28 properties was judged to be complete in that no other propositions were able to be derived from those properties. Thus, it appeared that in the process of a category becoming theoretically saturated, its properties also became saturated.

This re-examination of the data also revealed an interesting finding in that two of the categories, *Teacher Training* and *Career in*

Teaching, differed markedly from the other categories in that the content of the data they contained seemed to have little direct relationship with the day-to-day experiences of the Year One teachers. For instance, the category, *Teacher Training*, contained a property (*Worthwhile Aspects of Teacher Training*) which was comprised mainly of interview data about the benefits the Year One teachers felt they gained during their teacher training (e.g., companionship with lecturers and peers while at college).

At the commencement of the third school term, the framework of the grounded theory took the form shown in Table 5.

Table 5

The Framework of the Grounded Theory at the Beginning of the Third School Term

CATEGORIES	PROPERTIES (X=Saturated)		NO. PROPOSITIONS
PUPILS	° Teacher Expectations	X	4
	° First Reactions to Pupils	X	2
	° Problems		3
	° Rewards/Satisfactions		2
	° The Influence of Pupils		1
PARENTS	° First Impressions	X	1
	° Finding out about Parents	X	2
	° Parent-Teacher Interviews		3
	° Lasting Impressions		
THE PRINCIPAL	° Expectations and Initial Contact	X	3
	° Interaction with the Principal		2
THE SENIOR TEACHER	° Becoming Acquainted with the Senior Teacher	X	2
	° Supervision		5
COLLEAGUES	° Meeting Colleagues	X	3
	° Conflict Amongst Staff		
	° The Significant Colleague		1
	° Impressions from Associating with Colleagues		1
THE INSPECTOR	° Visits from Inspectors		3
	° The Introductory and First Visit	X	2
	° The Second Visit		3
MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATION	° Initial Expectations	X	1
	° Self-imposed Routines	X	5
	° School-imposed Routines		5
TEACHER TRAINING	° Reflections on College/University		1
	° Worthwhile Aspects of Teacher Training		
	° Non-Worthwhile Aspects of Teacher Training		
CAREER IN TEACHING	° Commitment to Teaching		1
	° Aspirations		

THE THIRD SCHOOL TERM

The first two weeks of this term were used to gather data on the beginners' reactions to being back on-the-job, and to seek information on events that would be occurring in the coming months (e.g., sporting carnivals; camping trips). Having visited all the beginners at least once, the researcher remained in the field to collect data on those properties which had not yet been saturated. For instance, *The Significant Colleague* (a property of the category, *Colleagues*) was further developed as a property as the researcher spent time in those schools in which Year One teachers had indicated that they were strongly influenced by one of their colleagues, other than the Principal or Senior Teacher. Similarly, data was obtained from talking with Principals about their interactions with the first year teachers with the aim of saturating the second of the two properties of the category, *The Principal*.

In early October, the first recess period of this school term was taken after having been in the field for four weeks. Similar procedures to those described previously were followed in the transcription of field tapes and in the filing and analysis of the new data. Although none of the nine categories and 28 properties was able to be delimited, three more properties were judged to be saturated, bringing the total of theoretically saturated properties to 13. As well, six more propositions were developed, giving a total of 62 propositions.

During this respite, the researcher was told that an inservice course, on the theme of, *The First Year of Teaching*, had been arranged by the Inspectorate for mid-October, and that all the beginning teachers would be attending. The timing of this course proved opportune because the researcher was planning to go back into the field to collect data on those properties not yet saturated. Hence, having the Year One teachers gather at one venue, for two days, meant that collecting data on some of these properties could be carried out relatively quickly. Because a programme of activities had been arranged for the two day course, it was felt that little time would be available for the researcher to converse individually with the Year One teachers. In view of this, it was decided to gather data by administering a questionnaire to the beginners. Accordingly, in the short time available to the researcher, a questionnaire booklet (see Appendix E) was designed to collect data on the properties of the two, least developed categories (*Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching*), and to seek specific details relating to

Visits from Inspectors (a property of the category, *The Inspector*), and the *Supervision* of the beginners by their Senior Teachers (a property of the category, *The Senior Teacher*). Also included in the questionnaire were two, general sections - under the headings of "Teacher Stress" and "Teaching Problems" - which contained items covering each of the nine categories.[10] During the inservice course, the sample of Year One teachers completed the questionnaire and returned it to the researcher.

Immediately following the inservice course, a similar questionnaire (see Appendix F) was administered to the Principals (N=23) and Senior Teachers (N=34) of the beginners, with the two-fold aim of providing complementary data to that gathered from the Year One teachers, and also of collecting further background information on the Senior Teachers and Principals. Within two weeks of administering these questionnaires, all the Principals, and all but one of the Senior Teachers[11] had returned them.

The analysis of the beginners' questionnaires, as well as those of the Senior Teachers and Principals, was undertaken during the second respite for this term, which occurred during the last days of October and the first week of November. From the results of this analysis, which appear in tabulated form in Appendix G, some theoretically relevant data were obtained, particularly relating to the categories, *The Inspector, The Senior Teacher, The Principal,* and *Management and Organisation*. In each case, the categories were now judged to be theoretically saturated.

During this respite, the framework of the grounded theory was also able to be refined with the decision to exclude two of the categories, *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching*, because of their lack of theoretically relevant data. This decision to drop these categories was taken partly in the light of an earlier observation that, in comparison to the other categories, *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching* contained little data that seemed directly related to the day-to-day experiences of the beginning teachers. The decision was also based on the outcome of a further re-examination of the data on these two categories which revealed that, in each case, the data was almost entirely derived from

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[10] A detailed description of the composition of this questionnaire booklet, and that administered to the Principals and Senior Teachers, has been given in Chapter Two, pp.41-42.

[11] One Senior Teacher refused to complete the questionnaire, and her reason for doing so is discussed in Chapter Six, pp.184-185.

structured interview responses, researcher-initiated questioning and from questionnaire data. Moreover, in sharp contrast to the other seven categories, little data on *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching* was collected by way of diary accounts or from unsolicited comments from the Year One teachers. With the exclusion of these two categories, which is discussed further in Chapter Six, the framework of the grounded theory now comprised seven categories, 23 properties and 79 propositions. Four of the categories and 20 properties were theoretically saturated.

At the completion of this recess period, there was less than a month of the school year remaining, and so it was decided to commence bringing the research to a close. By this stage, only one property in each of the categories, *Pupils, Parents* and *Colleagues*,[12] remained to be theoretically saturated, and rather than return to the schools to collect data for this purpose, it was felt that the data could be gathered by way of diary accounts and in the forthcoming end-of-term interview with the beginners. An interview schedule was therefore formulated (see Appendix C) which focussed specifically on the three properties which needed to be saturated, and on several, more general questions (e.g., How have you found the year? What are your plans for the coming year?). In the last three weeks of the school term, interviews were held with each of the Year One teachers, either at the residence of the researcher or of the beginning teacher.

The final task in the process of gathering data was carried out during the last few days of the term and involved collecting from the beginners their diary accounts for the preceding three week period.

At the conclusion of the fieldwork, the interview tapes were transcribed and typed, and, with the diary accounts, were filed in the chronological catalogue of research data. The data obtained from both the interviews and diaries resulted in the categories, *Pupils, Parents* and *Colleagues*, being judged theoretically saturated, and led to the development of four more propositions. The framework of the grounded theory was now comprised of seven categories and 23 properties from which 83 propositions had been derived. In examining this framework to determine whether any further modifications or refinements could be made, one substantive change resulted: the categories were retitled, as is shown below, to reflect more closely the data they contained:

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[12] These properties were: *Rewards/Satisfaction (Pupils); Lasting Impressions (Parents);* and, *Impressions from Associating with Colleagues (Colleagues).*

Old Category Titles	New Category Titles
Pupils	Pupil-Teacher Influence
Parents	Parent-Teacher Interaction
The Principal	The Role of the Principal
The Senior Teacher	Guidance from the Senior Teacher
Colleagues	Associating with Colleagues
The Inspector	Inspectorial Visits
Management and Organisation	Management and Organisation Patterns

SUMMARY

The gathering of data on the day-to-day experiences of the sample of beginning teachers during their first year of teaching, and the subsequent development of a grounded theory framework derived from this data, have been discussed in this chapter.

The process of developing this theoretical framework was set in motion at the commencement of the school year with the systematic collection and analysis of data. Within a month, the base-line structure of the grounded theory, comprised of 29 categories and 120 properties, had been established. As the research progressed, this framework was continually refined as the number of categories and properties was delimited, and as propositions were formulated. As an outcome of the constant interplay between the processes of collecting and analysing data, and of refining and delimiting the theoretical framework, a grounded theory emerged which could be used to elaborate and to clarify the on-the-job socialisation of the Year One teachers in the present study.

In the chapters which follow, attention is focussed on the content of this grounded theory, its uses, and its implications for the professional development and practices of beginning teachers and for teacher socialisation theory. Finally, some of the methodological issues which arose during the research are discussed.

The next chapter provides an overview of the supporting data which gave rise to the properties and propositions of each of the seven major categories of the grounded theory. As well, this data gives an indepth insight into the Year One teachers' experiences during their first year in the profession.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE GROUNDED THEORY

At the completion of the fieldwork phase of the present study, a theoretical framework had been developed which was based on data relating to the socialisation of a sample of beginning teachers during their first year in the profession. This framework comprised seven categories, 23 properties and 83 propositions. In this chapter, a summary of the supporting data on each of the seven categories of the grounded theory is presented and then discussed in the light of some of the research and literature cited in Chapter One. The presentation of this supporting data also provides for an indepth and systematic view of the day-to-day situations experienced by the sample of Year One teachers studied.

In the two preceding chapters, attention was focussed on the planning and implementation of a research design and methodology to meet the objectives of the present study. These objectives were:

1. To provide an indepth and systematic view of a sample of Year One teachers' everyday experiences during their first year of teaching; and,
2. To derive from this data a theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for these beginning teachers.

In the context of this second objective, the researcher took the view that teacher socialisation was an ongoing process, taking place in the everyday world of teachers, which involved the interaction of the teacher with people (e.g., colleagues, parents, pupils, etc.), and which could result in personal, and sometimes situational, change. Within this broad conceptualisation, a grounded theory was developed that not only elaborated and clarified more accurately the process of socialisation for the beginning teachers in this study, but also gave rise to a set of suggestive propositions about the socialisation of first year primary school teachers.

The selection of a format for the presentation of this grounded theory was guided by a suggestion made by Glaser and Strauss (1967):

> *Grounded theory can be presented either as a well-codified set of propositions or in a running*

> *theoretical discussion, using conceptual categories and their properties.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.31)*

Both these procedures have been adopted, and, in conjunction with Appendix A[13], are aimed at presenting a comprehensive and informed coverage of the grounded theory. The discussional approach recommended by Glaser and Strauss is used in this chapter primarily as a vehicle to provide fairly extensive samples of the data about the beginning teachers' day-to-day experiences from which the grounded theory was developed. Additional to this, a codified set of propositions relating to each category of the theory is also provided.

In more detail, the format for presenting and discussing the grounded theory is as follows: there are seven sections to this chapter, and each relates to one of the major categories of the theory; within each section, the various properties of the category are sub-headed, and under each there is a summary of the supporting data, and where appropriate, case studies about individual teachers and/or situations have been added; this is followed by a Table showing the category, its properties and propositions; and, to conclude each section, there is a discussion of the category and its links with some of the research and literature cited in Chapter One.

PART ONE

PUPIL-TEACHER INFLUENCES

1.1 Teacher Expectations

An eagerness to experience a classroom and a group of children of their own, was noticeable in conversations with the sample of prospective Year One teachers (N=37)[14] during their final weeks at teachers college and university. In the end-of-training interview, 18 of them expressed similar sentiments to the following:

> *I think I'm looking forward to being able to have my own class and my own set of kids and just being*

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[13] Appendix A is a necessary reference for this chapter as it contains a profile of the people and places from which the grounded theory was derived.

[14] At this stage the sample comprised 37 teachers. Teacher 38-M became involved in the study at the beginning of the school year.

> *able to teach them the things and get back satisfaction from that.*
>
> [2-F: Nov 1978][15]

Several of these teachers said that one of the major factors responsible for this type of feeling was practice teaching, where there was "... always somebody standing watching over you." Two of the teachers expanded on this by saying that teaching practice and school observations for them were merely a game which intensified their desire to have a class of children they could call their own. One of these was 30-F who explained the situation in her own terms:

> *Going down and doing a week in the Normal Schools,*[16] *or a couple of days or a couple of hours, is just a game. If you don't succeed at it, who cares. You're never going to see the kids or the teacher again. You know, there's no follow-up, so the lesson seems kind of pointless. Even on section [practice teaching] the kids are already fairly well put into certain little strait-jackets by their own teachers, and you know as soon as you've gone they'll turn back into their old selves again. So, whatever you do will make maybe a little bit of difference to two or three kids, but, on the majority, there will be no effect at all. It's a different thing having your own class for a whole year. You've really got to work at it because no one else is going to pick up the pieces in a couple of weeks' time.*
>
> [30-F: Nov 1978]

Besides this group of 18 beginners, there was a smaller number of teachers who said they were looking forward to other events during their first year of teaching, such as, "finding out about pupils" (11-F), "seeing children progress" (14-F), and "being with country children" (29-F).

From the end-of-training interviews, and from conversations with the prospective teachers over the holiday period, it was also found that, without exception, all of them had acquired some details about the pupils (e.g., socio-economic status; behaviour) whom they would come in contact with during their first year of teaching. Five of the beginners said they had gained this knowledge first hand from practice

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15 This excerpt came from a conversation or interview with Teacher number 2, a female, and it took place in November 1978. If the year is not mentioned (e.g., 2-F: Nov), then the reference data was collected in 1979. An asterisk before the month (e.g., *Nov) denotes a diary account.

16 Normal Schools provide support services for teachers college courses, and in particular, provide opportunities for classroom observation and teaching for first year students.

teaching at the school to which they had now been posted. The remainder of the teachers reported having obtained information about the pupils at their school from talking with friends and colleagues, and/or from visits they had made to the school during their final weeks at teachers college or university. Like 3-F, most of the teachers in the sample were encouraged from what they observed or were told about the pupils:

> *I've got a friend who taught at the school for two years, and she really liked it and thought it was the best school she'd ever taught in. She really enjoyed the kids, and I suppose I've got that in the back of my mind.*
>
> [3-F: Oct 1978]

Furthermore, six of the beginners expressly stated that, because they were first year teachers, they expected to have well-behaved pupils in their class. This is in contrast to 1-M and 32-F, who reported being a little worried about the pupils they would come in contact with:

> *Well, everybody says they're tough kids.*
>
> *Int:* *What do you mean by "tough"?*
>
> *Well, they say that the kids are difficult to [pause] they are more difficult kids to teach than you are accustomed to.*
>
> [1-M: Oct 1978]

> *They're not your normal, average yes-sir-no-sir kids. They're little horrors really, from what I've heard.*
>
> [32-F: Nov 1978]

The prospect of having control problems and of being unable to handle the difficult pupil was yet another issue to emerge from talking with the beginners during their last weeks of training. A third of them said they were apprehensive about classroom control, with three teachers citing specific incidents, such as the following, that occurred during practice teaching:

> *I had a scary section in my last year, and, in fact, I don't quite know how I got through. My associate got sick and I ended up having about six weeks of full control rather than two. It was fine for the first four or five weeks, but after that, things started to go wrong. I don't know whether I lost confidence or what. I wasn't sure whether I was doing the right things, and I really didn't have much help with control. That experience nearly put me off, and in some ways I'm scared that I'm going to strike another class like that.*
>
> [4-F: Oct 1978]

The summary of data on this property, then, has highlighted the prominent expectations about pupils held by the Year One teachers which emerged from conversations and interviews with the teachers prior to the commencement of the school year.

1.2 First Reactions to Pupils

Conversations with some of the beginners on the first day of school, and a perusal of the entries made in their diaries for that day, revealed some of the more general reactions of the teachers to their pupils:

> *Today was good. I've got a nice class.*
> [14-F: Jan]
>
> *If anything, they're better than expected.*
> [30-F: Jan]
>
> *30 kids. All dreams. No problems, but early days yet. Enjoyed myself.*
> [17-M: *Jan]

In all, 26 of the teachers made similar remarks. Of the others, nine indicated that their pupils were different to what was expected. Teacher 5-F, for instance, said she found her pupils to be "not very bright"; while, 31-M commented that he had not expected his pipils to be "small and thick". The remainder of the teachers used terms such as, "boisterous", "timid" and "restless" to describe their pupils.

After their first few days on-the-job, some of the beginners began to experience problems with children, and as the year progressed these problems were manifest in four main areas: control and discipline, problem children, critical incidents (e.g., pupils swearing, cheating, etc.), and children's health.

1.3 Problems

Control and Discipline

By the end of the first month of teaching, all the beginners had made some reference, either in conversations or in their diaries, to classroom control and discipline problems. Abridged diary entries from the following three teachers present a picture of some common experiences:

Jan 31: *Children likeable and co-operative.*
Feb 2: *Giving orders; realise I have children's respect.*
Feb 21: *Novelty wearing off; children growing cheeky.*
Feb 22: *Children restless; spent a great deal of time telling children off.*
Feb 23: *Sent child who made animal noises to the Senior Teacher.*
Feb 28: *Wet: kids very stroppy.*

[2-F]

Feb 2: *One butterfly in class. He minds everybody else's business.*
Feb 5: *Children starting to get stroppy from being inside all day.*
Feb 8: *Mark - the butterfly - decided to be "it" for today.*
Feb 13: *Trouble in getting attention driving me up the wall.*
Feb 19: *What a day!!! They got a shock. Boy, did I jump on them.*
Feb 23: *What a week!!!*

[10-F]

Feb 1: *Kids seem happy.*
Feb 9: *This afternoon for the first hour was rough. It's true: kids do get restless on Friday afternoons.*
Feb 14: *Brett becoming a discipline problem. How and where do I head him off?*
Feb 19: *Children restless today. Brett upsetting the class and causing concern.*
Feb 26: *Just about blew it today - I thought Brett was going to have me on.*

[17-M]

These diary entries typified some of the control and discipline patterns that began to emerge. Most of the teachers, for example, cited having a "bad day" or a "bad patch", and gave instances of where they lost their temper or shouted at the children. Evidence was also gathered from more than three quarters of the sample which suggested that if the beginners were feeling ill or depressed then this had a corresponding effect on control and discipline in the classroom. Illustrative of this are the experiences of 4-F and 17-M:

> *I felt awful after lunch. I just felt so depressed and I was feeling really shitty. Oh, I was terrible. I took the kids over to the stage where we were going to practise [for a play] ... The damn caretaker came with his motor mower and he's going up and down, and I was feeling depressed and trying to get the kids in order, and yelling at the kids ... The caretaker's wife came up to me after school and said to me, "Haven't you had a very good day today?" [laughs] . I thought, "Jesus, if she noticed it, the poor kids!"*
>
> [4-F: April]

> *Feeling sick and I'm afraid I took it out on the kids somewhat. Stay home if sick and don't be a martyr.*
>
> [17-M: *March]

Teacher 12-F was one beginner who frequently reported feeling ill early in the year, and from her own account this was due to a continuing bout of influenza. To reduce the repercussions of this illness on her pupils, 12-F explained the measures she took;

> *I just tell the kids now, you know, "I've got a sore throat today, so you'll have to speak quietly." One day here I was sneezing from about eleven till two non-stop ... Everybody was saying, "Gesundheit. Gesundheit" [laughs]. I just tell them how I feel now, and it's really surprising how much it makes me feel better in the classroom.*
>
> [12-F: May]

Although the beginners' references to classroom control and handling discipline problems were usually couched in pejorative terms, some of the first year teachers spoke about the pay-offs from having established control. Teacher 19-F, for example, referred to the personal satisfaction she gained from knowing that she could control children and that they would respond to her demands; 7-F instanced how her class was "turning into a class" because of her control and discipline measures; while 23-F felt gratification in fulfilling a type of mother-surrogate role:

> *I think little children have to have a boss. Sometimes I feel as though I'm a mother to them, I think the funniest part of teaching is the emotional yo-yo playing that you do. Some kids need a firm type of discipline, while others need a quiet, subtle type, and you're jumping from one to another.*
>
> [23-F: Aug]

This feeling of being in an emotional yo-yo situation was expressed at various times by some of the other teachers, and in particular by 11-F who was the only beginner to have constant control and discipline problems throughout her first year of teaching. Through conversation and interview transcripts, it is possible to retrace some of her experiences.

At the commencement of the year, the vision 11-F had of her pupils was described by her in the following terms:

> *I think I had a vision in my mind of when I was at school and what my favourite teacher used to be like. Mind you, she'd been teaching for years and knew everything there was to know about handling kids. I think at the back of my mind I expected to come in here and they'd all love me and we'd have a great relationship going.*
>
> [11-F: May]

Her experiences during the first term, however, led 11-F to proffer the following advice:

> *Be firm. Be really tough. If a kid steps out of line, squash him straight away. Don't ask questions.*
>
> [11-F: May]

She went on to suggest that her failure to act in this way meant that:

> *If [teaching] goes like it has been going, I won't be teaching for very long.*
>
> [11-F: May]

Classroom control and discipline still remained the major problem for 11-F through the second school term:

> *I haven't enjoyed the second term at all. It's been a very hard term in that I let bad habits start, and I didn't realise until it was virtually at the point of no return. Things were really getting on top of me. I used to really hate coming to school. It got to the stage where I virtually burst into tears in front of the Principal one day and said that I just couldn't handle it anymore. It got to the point where I realised I wasn't in control of the situation and that the kids were running me where I should have been organising them.*
>
> [11-F: Aug]

Not only did this situation appear to effect her morale, but her health also suffered:

> *My health has suffered this year. Usually, I am as strong as an ox, but I've had days off for losing my voice, for having headaches, and I never used to suffer from headaches. This weekend I ended up with gastro-enteritis which the doctor said was brought on by a general down-grade in my health. No job is worth that.*
>
> [11-F: July]

Although 11-F began the third school term with renewed vigour, after about a month she commented:

> *You might be interested to know that I'm giving up*

at the end of the year.

Int: *Has another job come up?*

No, not yet. It's just that I've had so many hassles this year. I just don't feel that it's worth it. I don't want to go through another year like this.

[11-F: Oct]

A week later, in a telephone conversation with the researcher, 11-F remarked that the the situation at her school had become unbearable:

11-F's first comment was, "Boy, have I got a story for you!" She went on to say that during the previous week she walked out of her room and threatened to resign because of the children. She talked with her Principal and then with the Inspector who suggested that she take several days off school, and that when she returned all the trouble-makers would be removed from her class. They would then be gradually introduced back into the class.

[Fieldnotes: Oct]

From the viewpoint of the Principal, this episode involving 11-F's threatened resignation was explained as follows:

I think I would like to let you know that 11-F has in fact, during the last few days, run into a particular difficulty and it resulted in her having a few days off. Her Area Inspector has been to see her, and we've all interviewed her to try and help her to sort out how she's feeling about the job, which isn't very good right now. What's been resolved is that she will be returning to her class on Monday and when she feels that once again she's got it working well, and she feels confident, she will get in touch with the Inspector again. 11-F is somebody who is feeling a bit of stress at the moment.

[11-M-P: Oct][17]

When she returned to school on the Monday, 11-F found that some children had been taken from her class, but that:

Two of the kids I wanted removed the most weren't taken out, and they have really been trying me.

[11-F: Nov]

However, as it was getting near to the end of the school term, 11-F expressed some optimism about the coming year:

If I could start next year with a new programme, and be more consistent, I'd be all right. It's just the fact that I can't handle <u>these</u> children.

[11-F: Nov]

---

[17] "P" refers to the Principal. Another abbreviation used will be "STJC" which refers to the Senior Teacher of the Junior Classes.

In an interview at the end of the third term, she clarified this view:

> *I've got a position for the first term of next year. It's more or less a relieving job. I've thought about it, and yes, I do want to be a teacher. If I can rectify the mistakes that I made this year I think I'd really enjoy teaching. If things go well and I can sort myself out with control and discipline, I think I will stay in teaching. Really deep down I know I could be a good teacher if I could get over all the mistakes I've made.*
>
> [11-F: Nov]

This case study of 11-F highlights the influence that classroom control and discipline problems can exert on a beginning teacher. From having a vision of developing amicable relationships with pupils, 11-F came to the realisation that she could not handle her pupils, and indeed was of the opinion that they exercised control over her. This situation appeared to effect both her morale and her health.

Although 11-F was the only beginner in the sample to encounter constant difficulties with pupils in her class during the entire year, her experiences do provide some insight into what is perhaps the most commonly reported problem of beginning school teachers: classroom control and discipline.

Problem Children:

A recurring topic in interviews, conversations and diary accounts for about two-thirds of the beginning teachers was that of "problem children". Although the other teachers all reported incidents involving disruptive classroom behaviour, no one child nor small group of children was constantly isolated by them as the protagonists. Table 6, on the page following, details the various pupils the beginners classified as "problem children".

Those beginners who had these problem children in their class often referred to the stressful, and at times rewarding, experiences provided by them. Teacher 32-F is a case in point. In a conversation in early February, 32-F outlined some of her early difficulties with problem children:

> *I don't feel as though I'm getting anywhere. I had one kid [Tane] run away from me last week, and he didn't come back. He came back yesterday at half past two.*

Table 6

A List of the Pupils the Beginning Teachers Described as "Problem Children"

TEACHER	PUPIL	REASON FOR PROBLEM*
1-M	Leone	Personality clash
2-F	Carol Dean	Disruptive
4-F	Andrew	Senior Teacher's Son
6-F	Lisa	Disruptive twin
7-F	Toni	Disinterested
8-M	Bill	Trying
9-F	Caroline	Effects the tone of the classroom
10-F	Mark Warwick Mitch James	Disruptive
11-F	Simon Doreen Garth	Disruptive
12-F	Owen	Talker
13-M	Louis Andrew	Disruptive
15-F	Warren Bryan Steven	Disruptive
17-M	Matthew Barry	Disruptive
19-F	Kevin Glen	Naughty Talker
20-F	Jeremy	Disruptive
22-M	Barbara Michael	Senior Teacher's daughter Disruptive
23-F	John	Disruptive
28-F	Donald Garry	Disinterested
30-F	Colin Peter Robert	Disruptive
31-M	Jon	Disruptive
32-F	Tane Wiki	Disruptive
35-F	Luke Sara	Urinates in class Truant
37-F	Wayne	Disruptive

* As described by the beginning teacher

Int: *How did this arise?*

I've been told to be careful with them and not to make too much attention of them. I asked him to stand up, so he took off.

Int: *Was he a Maori lad?*

Yes. I've only got four white kids out of a total of 29. There's a vast difference between the Maori kids and the white ones. The white ones sit up the back and they're good as gold. But, the Maori boys - oh my God! There's one Maori girl [Wiki] who's also a bit tough.

[32-F: Feb]

During the week following this conversation, 32-F witnessed another incident involving Tane, one of her problem children:

They can be so horrible. Take yesterday for example. There's this little white kid in the class who's really thick and he'll never learn anything. Well, he stood on Tane's toe, and Tane grabbed him by the penis really hard. Well, it just about killed the poor little bugger. I pulled Tane away and said, "Get over there. Get!", and he just shrugged his shoulders and walked away. I thought, "Oh now what do I do?" It's so hopeless.

[32-F: Feb]

Teacher 32-F went on to say that several other children in her class were constantly defiant and that this situation made her question whether she had "what was needed for teaching." She prefaced this comment with the statement: "I'm not thinking about teaching as much as about psychology." However, according to her, the use of psychology also appeared to offer her little assistance:

I can't postively reinforce someone who's being good while I've got six here who are being noisy and silly. I'm trying desperately to be positive to kids who are usually bad, but as soon as I do that, they go off the deep-end and get even sillier. So, what do I do?

[32-F: Feb]

As the first term progressed, 32-F continued to experience difficulties with problem children, particularly Tane:

I had a bit of trouble yesterday. My friend Tane, that little boy who ran away, threatened me with a chair. We were doing a maths test, and he didn't want to do it. Ah, on Monday at the staff meeting, we were told not to ask for kids to do something, but to tell them. So, I decided I was sick to death of it, so I said to Tane, "You will do the maths test!" And, he said, "Na." Then I said it again. He stood there and sulked a while and then I was just walking around and all of a sudden the whole class says,

"Don't be a fool Tane." He's standing there ready to bring a chair down on me. Just as well I managed to catch it in time, otherwise I could have had my head smashed in. I stood there thinking, "Oh my God!" Then I went and got the DP and he gave Tane one hell of a thrashing in front of the class. Tane's not here today [laughs], so I'm wondering whether violence is the best answer.

[32-F: March]

After this incident, 32-F said that her relationship with Tane improved, and in the end-of-term interview in May, she presented a different picture of him, and explained the possible reason for his disruptive behaviour:

Tane comes and talks with me all the time now, and works when I ask him to work without me having to push him. I think that has been a most satisfying thing - gaining his respect. He's as good as gold now. For a while he was really bad. His mother was in hospital. She had a stroke and a tumour on the brain and all kinds of things at once. She's in hospital as a vegetable now. They were hoping that she was going to die. Ever since she's been in hospital he's been good. I guess it's because the strain is out of the family. Everyone has realised that she is not going to be human any more and the strain is away from home. He's settled down a lot.

[32-F: May]

A number of the teachers with problem children went through some of the stages experienced by 32-F. Teachers 10-F and 11-F, for example, began to question whether teaching was for them, as 10-F remarked:

I just about had it last week. I really thought I was ready to pack it in, actually.

Int: Why was that?

It was mostly due to the problem kids. I've got a small core group in my home group.

[10-F: March]

Six of the teachers also spoke of occasions where they attempted to apply some of the psychological principles they had learnt at teachers' college and university. Invariably, they reported limited success:

You sometimes can't put all the theories of operant conditioning into practice. You've just got to straight out hit them or send them out of the classroom.

[2-F: July]

Five beginners sought direct help from their Senior Teacher in the disciplining of problem children. For two of these teachers, 8-M and 22-M, this proved to be a successful measure. However, the other three said they found that the problem children, after being punished, would return to the classroom and within a short period of time exhibit the same disruptive behaviour. Initially, one of these teachers resented the type of help given by her Senior Teacher:

> *What a rotten day - John again [her problem child]. I felt so guilty when Clive [Senior Teacher] gave him a smack with a ruler today. I wanted help, but not quite that sort of help.*
>
> [23-F: March]

In a later conversation, however, 23-F remarked that she became so depressed at her own inability to handle this problem child that "... he goes straight to the Senior Teacher now."

A number of the beginners also reported some success with the use of various strategies, such as the following, to counter the behaviour of their problem children:

(a) Changing seating arrangements (e.g., 13-M, 22-M).
(b) Using tokens (e.g., 6-F, 11-F, 15-F and 19-F).
(c) Implementing "time out" procedures (e.g., 10-F).
(d) Withholding privileges (e.g., 1-M, 2-F, and 11-F).
(e) Corporal punishment (e.g., 2-F and 35-F).

As in the case of 32-F, there were also instances of beginners deriving satisfaction and rewards from helping and interacting with problem children. For example:

> *I remember Jon and his behaviour. Unbelievable behaviour. He's much better now. Much more controlled. It's great how I can now joke with him and do things with him.*
>
> [31-M: Sept]

> *Mark praised at beginning of class. He got 100% words correct. He was really pleased with himself. Can't get over the change in him. Lovely.*
>
> [10-F: *June]

Five of the 24 teachers with problem children said that the difficulties they experienced with these children persisted throughout the year. The other 19 teachers reported that the first term, and to a much lesser extent the second term, proved to be, what some of them labelled, "the trying period."

Critical Incidents:

During their first year of teaching, all the beginners met with critical incidents involving children. The more common of these occurrences were pupils fighting, using obscenities, being defiant, cheating and stealing. Of these, specific instances of pupils cheating and stealing were given by about a third of the teachers. A diary entry made by 20-F in June, and an excerpt from a conversation with 35-F, are two examples of beginners' experiences in each of these areas:

> *Discovered one of my kids has been cheating in SRA. I feel very disappointed with him. Has been doing it for three months. Feel bad that I didn't pick it up.*
>
> [20-F: *June]

> *Oh, I want to quit today [laughs]. Somebody stole twenty dollars out of my handbag yesterday. If I catch the kid who took the money, I'll wring his neck. Apparently, there's a lot of stealing going on at the moment.*
>
> [35-F: Sept]

There were also the more uncommon incidents. Teacher 2-F, for example, said she faced a commotion in her classroom when a new boy, whose name was Robert Muldoon, was introduced to the children. And, as 7-F outlined, she unexpectedly had to be on constant duty on a school camping trip:

> *I do resent being on duty twenty four hours a day to stop attempts at copulation. I don't really think it's part of my job.*
>
> [7-F: Oct]

Apart from these types of events, several teachers also noted incidents which caused them some frustration in the classroom. For most of these beginners, it was the problem of trying to motivate pupils who, in their opinion, were "unmotivateable":

> *I haven't got much patience with the slab-shaped behind kids, like Betty, who really can't be bothered doing a damn thing. I think, "In five years time, you'll be pregnant and I'll be bloody supporting you as tax payer." I think, "Why should I waste my bloody time on you, when you don't want to learn."*
>
> [7-F: Nov]

A further problem to cause concern for some of the beginners was the vagaries of children's health and hygiene.

Children's Health:

During the year, most of the Year One teachers encountered amongst their pupils the various types of common childhood illnesses and injuries (e.g., colds, measles, grazed knees, etc.). However, for a small group of six teachers, the health of some children in their class was constantly alluded to both in conversations and diary accounts, especially early in the year. Teacher 33-F, for instance, spoke about one of her pupils in the following terms:

> *A revolting creature of a child - covered in sores and infection. He had all this white ointment up and down his legs. The Headmaster brought him in and showed him to me. I told him to sit on the mat. After ten minutes, I was sitting on the mat doing something, and I asked where the ointment had gone. The kids said, "It's on the mat. It's on the mat. It's on the green mat [laughs]." That's exactly what I hate about them - scabby little things.*
>
> [33-F: Feb]

And, in the same conversation, when referring to this child, she explained her unenviable position:

> *They went into their groups and I was standing up the back when the public health nurse came. She was fed up with it because it was such a bad area for ear, nose and throat infections. Anyway, she said the whole family's under surveillance. She had his younger brother there with him, and she was going to get the rest of them. They check them regularly as they're always infected.*
>
> [33-F: Feb]

A similar situation existed in the school of 31-M and 34-F, where these teachers were in regular contact with children like those described by their Senior Teacher of the Junior Classes (STJC):

> *And the little girl in the green dress just pongs all day. While she was in the assessment class we could deal with her because they've got washing facilities down there. In the special class, there's nothing. What we need is a hose [laughs] - a fire hose that we can hose the kids down with.*
>
> [31-M-34-F-STJC: Jan]

For the other three teachers who made various references to their pupils' health, headlice was the main cause of worry. Teacher 32-F expressed a common reaction:

> *I nearly died of shock the other day. The school nurse came round and said, "I believe one of your*

> *children has got nits?" Of course, I've never come across nits before, and I thought, "Aagh!" [laughs]. I found out three of them had them.*
>
> [32-F: Feb]

The problem of headlice was more personal for 36-F:

> *We had an outbreak and six teachers in the unit got them. It's a jolly nuisance.*
>
> [36-F: Feb]

This "nuisance" was to become a financial burden, much to the displeasure of 36-F:

> *When I got the nits I was given free stuff but you couldn't wash your hair for ten days, so I had to go to the Chemist to buy stuff that you could wash your hair with. Then I had to buy a nit comb and then you had to buy scarves to tie your hair up with. Apparently, we're not getting any compensation for the nit comb or shampoo. I think that's pretty tough and so far I'm out of pocket about forty dollars.*
>
> [36-F: May]

Children's health, then, along with control and discipline, problem children and incidents such as children swearing and stealing, were the major problem areas involving pupils that were encountered the sample of beginners during their first year of teaching. For most of the Year One teachers, however, many of these problems seemed to be overshadowed by the rewards and satisfactions they experienced in the classroom and from interacting with pupils.

1.4 Rewards and Satisfactions

Throughout the year, the beginners made numerous references to instances, involving pupils, which proved to be rewarding or satisfying. The cases they cited fell into two main categories: pupils' academic and personal achievements, and, the development of relationships with children.

The area of pupils' academic and personal achievements appeared to provide the greatest source of satisfaction for the beginners, and 26 of the teachers gave specific examples of the rewarding experience they obtained from seeing pupils achieve. The case below was mentioned by 4-F:

> *One boy, who's actually a psych case, wrote a real neat poem. Normally his writing is so messy, and he writes screeds and screeds and can't read it*

back. He wrote this poem which I think was the best in the class, and I told him that I thought it was terrific.

[4-F: March]

Teacher 29-F gave another example of a rewarding experience:

There was one little boy who was really bad news. He's now got to the stage where he's writing decent sentences for spelling, and I think, "Well, maybe what I've said has sunk in."

[29-F: July]

The second area of rewards and satisfactions - the development of relationships with children - showed through in comments, such as those following, which were made by about a quarter of the teachers:

The satisfying aspects have nothing to do with teaching really. It's getting a smile from someone who never smiles, you know, a very solemn child who gives you a smile that nobody else has ever got before.

[9-F: June]

I've got a little boy, Chris, and to start with he was just in himself. Now that he's getting to know me he's talking to me and I'm really finding out how much he can do. These sorts of things are rewarding.

[19-F: April]

Some beginners closely linked the development of relationships with pupils to an ability of being able to joke with them. Indeed, by the end of the year, 14 of the teachers had talked about this joking relationship, and half of these saw this as a symbol of their own confidence in the classroom. For instance:

I think I've finally got my feet. I can now joke with the kids without being scared that I'm going to lose control. It's taken about nine weeks.

[5-F: April]

At the start of the year, I just wouldn't dare crack a funny with a kid. I wouldn't dare do that at the start of the year, or even last term, but this term I can do it because I've felt more sure.

[24-M: Nov]

For the others, such as 38-M, humour and jokes were seen as an important element in a good classroom relationship with pupils:

I don't mind being the object of a joke. I give as good as I take. The kids have me on now and again. I don't mind. I'll get one good joke out of somebody at least once a week. Often

> *somebody will play a prank on me, but I give it back in my own way. The kids and I enjoy this sort of thing.*
>
> [38-M: Sept]

As well as the joking relationship that burgeoned between some teachers and their pupils, several of the beginners also discovered that the sports field was a valuable arena for establishing relationships with children. In all, nine teachers alluded to this. One of these was 8-M, a representative football player:

> *They all followed the football. They're really keen on sport. I think because I was involved in sport they enjoyed it, and we had something in common.*
>
> [8-M: Nov]

Another was 24-M who said that he found his involvement with Saturday morning cricket not only fostered the development of rapport with his pupils, but also with some of the parents. Teacher 2-F, on the other hand, who was Sports Mistress for her school, recorded in her diary the influence of her involvement with sporting activities:

> *Lately I've been spending most afternoons in the sun playing games with the children. I think this has helped me get on really well with them. I now feel that I can be friendly without being worried about them getting out of hand.*
>
> [2-F: *Aug]

Besides the rewards and satisfactions obtained from seeing pupils' achievements and from developing relationships with them, a number of the beginners also spoke of having to adapt to, and of being influenced by children.

1.5 The Influence of Pupils

Of the twenty teachers who referred to the influence pupils had on them personally, five mentioned that the children had made them become more authoritarian or forthright. Teacher 28-F went on to explain a possible reason for this:

> *They [pupils] have really strong expectations of me and if I don't measure up to their expectations of me, they freak out.*
>
> [28-F: Aug]

The classroom situation and pupil behaviour effected other beginners in different ways. Teachers 19-F and 32-F recalled how they had been influenced:

> *We're doing "Please" and "Thank you", and how, when you go into a shop, the shopkeeper takes your money and says, "Thank you." Yesterday, I was in a shop and without thinking I held on to the money so the shopkeeper couldn't take it until she said, "Thank you" [laughs]. It's hard to adjust outside of school when you're making the kids say, "Please" and "Thank you", all day.*
>
> [19-F: March]

> *The kids have really influenced me a lot. I've tended to revert to their ways. I went in there thinking, you know, "Please be quiet", whereas, now I turn around and say, "Shut up!". The kids just didn't understand what, "Please be quiet", meant.*
>
> [32-F: March]

Seven of the teachers also noted that they had to adapt to the effect weather had on children's behaviour. Teacher 10-F talked about a typical situation:

> *The kids were so noisy yesterday. I think I could have stood on my head and I don't think they would have taken any notice. It wasn't just my class. It just seems to be a universal thing with kids if it's windy.*
>
> [10-F: March]

Finally, there was also a small group of six beginners who made interesting, albeit brief, references to the influence pupils had on them by causing dreams and nightmares. Teachers 16-F and 24-M, for example, both said they had had nightmares about control problems they thought they could encounter on their first day. The message of 16-F's dream was:

> *Nobody was going to listen to me; nobody was going to take any notice of me.*
>
> [16-F: Jan]

The four other teachers who talked about nightmares and dreams did so only during the first term. Two of these said their nightmares were brought on when they were worried about the children or had dealt with them in quite a harsh manner. Teacher 9-F, on the other hand, dreamt about the difficulties she had teaching sentences starting with "L". While, 12-F commented that her dreams and nightmares were a regular occurrence at one stage:

> *The other night I woke up and Jim said, "Are you all right?" "Why?" "Because you just told me to get my books out and shut up" [laughs]. You know, I think to myself, "That's bad. It just has to*

stop [laughs].

Int: Did you do that regularly, or just on that night?

On and off for about three weeks.

[12-F: March]

Summary

Pupil-Teacher Influences, the first category of the grounded theory, contained five properties. The first of these focussed on the beginners' expectations of pupils derived from data gathered prior to the commencement of school. In the second property of this category, it can be seen that some of the Year One teachers initially reacted to their pupils in positive terms (e.g., "They're better than expected"), while others remarked that their pupils were different to what was expected. Problems the beginners experienced with pupils was covered by the third property, and included data on control and discipline, problem children, critical incidents and children's health. Case studies involving the difficulties 11-F had with control and discipline and 32-F had with a problem child were also detailed. The fourth property cited instances of the rewards and satisfactions the teachers received from seeing their pupils achieve, and from developing relationships with them, while the last property made reference to the influences of pupils on the beginners.

From the data on each of these five properties of this category, a number of generalisable propositions were formulated and these are outlined in Table 7.

Discussion

1.1 Teacher Expectations and 1.2 First Reactions to Pupils

Two themes to emerge from the research and literature on beginning teachers are that, they not only seem to have high, and sometimes unrealistic, expectations about their pupils (Ryan, 1966), but that teachers training tends to foster in student teachers the development of ideal images of pupils (Whiteside *et al*, 1969; Mackie, 1973; Katz, 1974). In seeking an explanation for this phenomenon, Sorenson and Halport (1968) claim that student teachers constantly engage in pre-service fantasising about pupils and that this promotes idealism and subsequently causes failure to understand pupils.

Table 7

Propositions on *Pupil-teacher Influences*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS	LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY*
1.1 Teacher Expectations	*By the commencement of the school year first year teachers ...*	
	1.1.1 Are eager to experience a classroom and a group of children of their own.	Medium
	1.1.2 Have obtained details about the pupils whom they will come in contact with during their first year of teaching.	High
	1.1.3 Are aware that they may have control problems and be unable to handle the difficult pupil during their first year of teaching.	Medium
	1.1.4 Expect to have well-behaved pupils during their first year of teaching.	Low
1.2 First Reactions to Pupils	1.2.1 First year teachers initially react to their pupils in positive terms, e.g., "They're good"; "They're better than expected".	High
	1.2.2 The initial reaction of first year teachers to their pupils is that the pupils are different to what was expected.	Low
1.3 Problems	*First year teachers ...*	
	1.3.1 Encounter control and discipline problems with their pupils by the end of the first month of teaching.	High
	1.3.2 Have periods of control and discipline problems corresponding to times of sickness and illness.	High
	1.3.3 Experience a problem child(ren) in their class, and seek to adopt strategies to cope, e.g., enlisting support from the Senior Teacher.	High
	1.3.4 Meet with critical incidents such as pupils stealing, cheating and using obscenities.	High
	1.3.5 Experience the common childhood illnesses amongst their pupils.	High
	1.3.6 Are worried by the health of some of their pupils.	Low
1.4 Rewards and Satisfactions	1.4.1 Pupils' academic and personal achievements provide a source of satisfaction to first year teachers.	High
	1.4.2 Developing relationships with pupils provides a source of satisfaction to first year teachers.	Low
	1.4.3 First year teachers see the ability to joke with children as a symbol of their confidence in the classroom.	Medium
	1.4.4 First year teachers' in-school sporting activities are beneficial in developing their relationships with pupils.	Low
1.5 The Influence of Pupils	1.5.1 The exigencies of weather influence pupil and teacher behaviour.	Low
	1.5.2 First year teachers have dreams and nightmares about their pupils.	Low

* If similar data was obtained from more than two-thirds of the sample of beginning teachers, then a proposition was designated as having a "High" level of generalisability; between one-third and two-thirds of the sample, a "Medium" level of generalisability; and, between one-sixth and one-third of the sample, a "Low" level of generalisability.

There was evidence, in the form of supporting data for proposition 1.1.4, that beginning teachers may develop certain ideal expectations about their pupils (e.g., expecting to have well-behaved children during the first year of teaching). However, the data from which propositions 1.1.2 and 1.1.3 were derived tend to suggest that the contrary view may also hold; that is, Year One teachers may have some realistic expectations about pupils from having obtained details about them prior to the start of the school year, and from realising that as beginners they could encounter control problems and difficulties in handling children during their first year in the profession. To some extent this view is strengthened by the findings of Doyle's (1977) research on beginning teachers here in New Zealand, and more particularly by the work undertaken in the United States by Rist (1974), who comments that:

> *When a new teacher enters her classroom for the first time, she is not totally unaware of what to expect, nor does she come to the room lacking a set of attitudes and beliefs as to what her functions within the classroom should be.*
>
> *(Rist, 1974, p.189)*

One implication of the propositions 1.1.2 and 1.1.3 is that the initial interaction between Year One teachers and their pupils may not always result in, what Ryan (1966), Mizer (1968) and Crawford (1971) claim is, disappointment and shock for beginners. While the data relating to proposition 1.2.1 can be cited in support of this view, the low generalisable propositions from both the first and second properties of this category can be taken as an indication that some beginning teachers probably do experience shock and disappointment when interacting with their pupils for the first time.

1.3 Problems

The widely held belief that beginning teachers do encounter problems with pupils, particularly during the first months of teaching, is supported by the data on this property. While control and discipline is usually singled out as the most pressing problem facing young teachers (see, Dropkin and Taylor, 1963; Marashio, 1971; Fuller, 1974), attention is not often given to exploring beginners' experiences with this problem. However, the case study involving 11-F, data relating to the proposition that if beginners are ill or depressed than this could effect classroom control and discipline, and the personal satisfactions which some of the teachers said they gained from knowing that they had developed control over children, have been referred to in this property and do provide an

insight into the issue of classroom control.

Besides control and discipline, the propositions of this property make reference to other problem areas involving pupils which may be equally worrying to beginners. In this regard, the data has highlighted several factors which have received little mention in the research and literature to date, namely, that first year teachers may experience, and be influenced by, a problem child in their class, critical incidents such as pupils stealing, cheating and using obscenities and the health of some children in their class.

1.4 Rewards and Satisfactions and 1.5 The Influence of Pupils

A number of researchers (e.g., Jackson and Belford, 1965; Haller, 1967; Jackson, 1968; Lortie, 1975; Battersby, 1979b) have indicated that pupils not only are a socialising influence on teachers, but that many of the rewards and satisfactions obtained from teaching accrue from interacting with pupils. In more specific terms, the propositions and data contained in these two properties indicate (a) that pupils' academic and personal achievements, and the development of personal relationships with pupils, provide rewards and satisfactions for beginning teachers; and (b) that first year teachers are influenced by pupils in a number of different ways as evidenced, for instance, in beginners' dreams and nightmares about pupils, and through the effect weather may have on pupil behaviour.

Excluding proposition 1.4.2, little indepth consideration has been given by researchers to any of the propositions in these two properties. Proposition 1.4.2, however, tends to concur with findings from the research of Mason (1961) and Sergiovanni (1967), and more recently with a remark made by Hannam and his colleagues (1976):

> *... satisfaction of teaching, particularly in the early stages, comes from relationships with individual children.*
>
> *(Hannam et al, 1976, p.111)*

Overview

Eighteen propositions, eight with a high level of generalisability, and five properties constitute this first category on *Pupil-Teacher Influences*. In the next section, the supporting data on the second category of the grounded data, *Parent-Teacher Interactions*, is presented and then discussed.

PART TWO

PARENT-TEACHER INTERACTION

2.1 First Impressions

During conversations with the beginners while they were still at teachers college and university, and during the holiday period prior the start of the school year, two-thirds of them mentioned impressions they had of the parents whom they would come in contact with during the first year of teaching. The information some of the Year One teachers had acquired related to details about the ethnic origins, socio-economic status and housing conditions of families in the school community. For instance:

> *I've got standard three and four, and they're mainly rich farmers' children. There are a few Polynesian children.*
>
> [8-M: Jan]

> *I know the school is in a difficult social area, so I won't be surprised if there are children in the class with pretty tough backgrounds.*
>
> [9-F: Nov 1978]

Other beginners had gained more specific details about parents. Teacher 5-F, for example, taught at her school for eight weeks on a previous teaching practice session; 15-F spoke with one of her teachers college lecturers and found that there were "a lot of ex-teachers' children" at the school she had been posted to, and that their parents are "always in and out of the classroom"; while, 29-F already knew most of the parents as she lived in the small farming community in which she was to teach.

Amongst those beginners who talked about impressions they had of parents, two expressed apprehension about their future dealings with them. One of these was 36-F who said she had heard that parents continually removed their children from the open plan school she had been appointed to because of a dissatisfaction with the type of education offered by the school. The other teacher was 12-F who explained her concern in the following way:

> *The thing that I'm frightened about is expressing the children's growth and achievement to parents. That's an area I really have to be very careful about because it's such a tactful, diplomatic area. You can't tell some parents what you think*

> *about their darling little angel. You've got to get a picture of what they think of their child before you start.*
>
> [12-F: Nov 1978]

In a conversation during the holidays, 12-F commented further:

> *They [parents] can sue me and I'm frightened about that. I'm also worried about getting chucked out of the job because I said the wrong thing the wrong way. That's all scary.*
>
> [12-F: Jan]

While a number of the Year One teachers had conveyed to the researcher the expectations and impressions they had of parents, it was only during the first weeks of the school year that most beginners had occasion to meet some parents and to obtain further information about them.

2.2 Finding Out About Parents

During the first week of the school year, eight of the teachers made reference to parents, either in conversation with the researcher or in diary accounts, and by the end of the following three week period all the beginners had mentioned that they had met some of the parents. Furthermore, over this period two-thirds of the teachers said they had obtained details about some of their pupils' parents from staff conversations, school records and the occasional talk with a colleague. One of the more common types of information gleaned related to the marital stability of parents:

> *He's living with this woman whom he calls his mother, but isn't his mother, and nobody knows what his real surname is, so he's taken on her surname. He has been up for adoption a couple of times, and he's been pushed around from up north, down to here, back north again and back down here. He's been to about ten schools.*
>
> [25-F: Feb]

Five of the teachers who met some of the parents during this time did so through parent-helper schemes that were operating in their school; for the other beginners, the interaction occurred when parents visited the school for various reasons:

> *There is a boy who sits over there, and his mother came in and saw me. She's a solo parent and she said he needed a man-figure in his life, and I guess I sort of just supply that.*
>
> [13-M: Feb]

> *One little boy gets headaches and she [the parent] came in and told me that the child might have epilepsy.*
>
> [26-F: Feb]

One of the beginners noted in her diary the occasion of her first interaction with a parent:

> *One of the children's mothers came to size me up at lunchtime. Apprently she didn't want her son to have a first year teacher, especially a young one!*
>
> [30-F: *Feb]

The first in a number of critical incidents involving some of the beginning teachers and parents also occurred during these initial weeks of the school term. Teacher 22-M, in particular, figured in a series of these occurrences throughout the year. The first was an unusual and complex incident, as 22-M's Principal explained:

> *22-M got himself involved in something deep that I was very annoyed about. 22-M has three brothers at this school and something happened to one of them and so his teacher went to 22-M. My argument was, "Heaven, leave 22-M alone. He's got to learn to teach, and that's a big enough problem, and not to worry about his younger brothers. If you want to find anything about one of his brothers, you go to the Senior Teacher or go directly to his parents." 22-M is pretty secret about the matter, and I don't think it did him any good, and it upset his parents extremely. They agreed with me, that 22-M has got enough problems in learning to adjust to teaching and a class of kids without having to worry about his brothers.*
>
> [22-M-P: March]

In a later conversation 22-M recalled another incident which had taken place at about this time:

> *At the beginning of the year, there was this girl who was leaning back on her chair and I kicked it and she fell on the floor. Her mother came down. Fortunately, I was in a meeting so I didn't see her. She went and saw the Principal... I knew as soon as I kicked this girl off the chair that it was the wrong thing. I'd told the kids not to sit on their chairs like that, and she did it right in front of me, and I just couldn't resist. I knew as soon as I'd done it, I shouldn't have. Her mother came down, and I got into trouble, and I suppose that was fair enough.*
>
> [22-M: March]

During the first weeks of the school year, then, most of the Year One teachers had obtained details about their pupils' parents, while

all the beginners had occasion to interact with some of them. Parent-teacher interviews, however, provided the first formal contact with parents for a number of the teachers.

2.3 Parent-Teacher Interviews

Beginning in March, and occurring again in July, all the Year One teachers participated in parent-teacher evenings or interviews with parents. Because of their school's policy, six of the beginners were required to hold parent-teacher evenings[18] in March and July, rather than the more traditional formal interviews with parents. The reactions varied of those beginners who held parent-teacher evenings. In March, for example, 29-F said she was pleased as she had met most of the parents at the evening meeting. In contrast, 14-F noted that only two parents had turned up, and from this she deduced that the parents were "either satisfied or not interested"; while, 9-F recorded her reactions as follows:

> *Nine parents came, plus two fathers. The fathers looked at things on the wall and I was left talking to the mums. Almost all came from problemless children - same as last time!*
>
> [9-F: *July]

One issue to emerge from talking with the Year One teachers who had parent-teacher evenings, and those who held interviews with parents, was that most of the beginners mentioned that parents provided a profitable source of information on children and children's attitudes to classroom activities. However, for one teacher, obtaining this information was only secondary to a more valuable personal experience gained from parent interviews, as he explained:

> *With parent interviews I saw myself as not being a first year teacher anymore as soon as they walked in.*
>
> [24-M: July]

While parent-teacher interviews and evenings were regarded by the beginners as being profitable, more than two-thirds of them said they were tiring occasions. The experience and sentiments expressed by 7-F were not uncommon amongst the beginners:

> *I had 21 parents in a day. Guess who came home feeling pretty shell-shocked. I couldn't believe it. I was just sort of punch drunk by the last one.*
>
> [7-F: July]

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[18] A parent-teacher evening involved the Year One teacher speaking to parents as a group, rather than individually.

Equally demanding, and a source of some frustration, was report writing, which for 28 of the teachers, went hand-in-hand with parent-teacher interviews and evenings. Some of the beginners said they were perplexed about report writing. Teacher 20-F elaborated further:

> *I'd never seen a report filled out properly, and no one actually helped me write a report or advised me to spend such and such time on each one.*
> [20-F: July]

Other beginners voiced difficulties in conforming to the dictates of their school's policy on reports. For example:

> *It was just a pack of lies. Our STJC said that we should only set down positive comments. If you wanted to write something bad, he suggested you put, "Johnny is progressing well in this subject, however ..."*
> [37-F: March]

Another problem which seven of the teachers reported was disagreements they had with some parents during parent-teacher meetings. Five of the beginners attributed these disagreements to misunderstandings parents had about matters related to the classroom or the school (e.g., school policy on homework). In another instance, one of the first year teachers said he was confronted by a mother at a parent-teacher interview who did not want her child taught by a beginning teacher, but who agreed to leave the child in his class because of the progress the child had made.

Of these seven teachers who had disagreements with parents, 10-F experienced the most serious conflict during a parent-teacher meeting. She described the lead-up to this conflict:

> *I've got this little tot in my class, and I haven't growled at her too much. She said she wasn't allowed to take pictures home she had drawn because of all the wallpaper at home. I said to her, "Take them home, show them to mum, and then put them in the bin." Parents are weird. I got this fantastic letter back from her mum. You would've had to have seen it. I was sitting down listening to the children's news and I opened this letter, and I shut it in a hurry. "God, I'm seeing things!" I opened it again and read it. I wouldn't have showed it to my Senior Teacher normally, but it fascinated me, so I showed it to him. The next thing I know, it was out of my hands and over to the Principal. Boy, he was up-in-arms about it.*

Int: What did the parent's letter say?

> *Oh, that I don't answer her [the child's] questions constructively, and that Patricia's grandfather was*

> *a Headmaster and that he did so and so. It was just weird. It was a strange letter. My immediate reaction was, "You poor little kid."*
>
> [10-F: March]

Several days later, the parent who had written this letter arrived at school for a parent-teacher interview with 10-F. Following this meeting, 10-F gave an account of what happened:

> *Unfortunately, she arrived early and brought her child with her. This poor little girl sat there on the chair beside her mother. The first thing the parent threw at me was that I couldn't cope with the letter. Gee, was I on the defensive. She didn't want Patricia to do any crayon work whatsoever. Actually, I think I might have come out winning. I'm quite sure I did. She was getting upset because I wasn't getting upset with what she was saying [laughs]. She's the freakiest parent I think I've ever met in my life. Gee, she takes the prize.*
>
> [10-F: March]

Parent-teacher interviews and evenings, then, were times when the beginning teachers met formally with parents, and, indeed, later in the year, the importance of these occasions was to be remembered by some of the beginners.

2.4 Lasting Impressions

Through diary accounts and conversations, particularly during the third school term, a number of the teachers conveyed their impressions of, and reactions to, parents whom they had come in contact with. Eight of the beginners, for instance, focussed on the benefits parents were able to offer, such as providing information about their children, or sending along a simple thank-you note in appreciation to the teacher.

Four of the beginning teachers recalled the difficulties they experienced in writing their first reports to parents with little or no direction from colleagues. One of these beginners mentioned the distress she remembered being caused by having to grade children to a normal curve, and then trying to explain to a parent how much effort her child had lavished on his work still to be awarded a D grade.

Some of the teachers reminisced from diary accounts about their interactions with some parents during the year:

> *Some mothers [laughs]. I suppose at this level, many of the children are the first to hit school and the*

> *the first one for mum to worry about, and I've felt that this year has taught me to put up with mothers. When they come to see you, they don't really want to see you - they want to tell you how good their child is. They worry about their child not doing as well as the others. One mum has a child who is one of my top students, and she went next door and heard Johnny read and then came back and heard her own son, and said, "Oh! He's not as good as Johnny. Why not?" I've had her in here trying to explain that her child is his own person and that it would be better to let him develop at his own pace, but she still wanted to compare him with others [laughs].*
>
> [37-F: Dec]

Toward the end of the year, 4-F and 22-M, both of whom taught one of their Senior Teacher's own children, remembered incidents that had occurred which involved each of these children. Teacher 22-M explained the dilemma he faced:

> *I've had his [Senior Teacher's] daughter in my class. She became quite a little madam. I went and saw him about it. I said that I'd tried to sort it out and that I didn't like the way things were going. He said he'd talk to her.*
>
> [22-M: Sept]

This matter was quickly resovled and 22-M said it did not effect his relationship with the Senior Teacher. However, his Senior Teacher felt otherwise, as he commented in the October questionnaire:

> *It has been somewhat difficult for 22-M in equating with me in the first and second term mainly because he teaches my older child.*
>
> [22-M-ST: Questionnaire]

The other teacher to have difficulty with a Senior Teacher's child was 4-F, who recalled vividly the feeling she had at the beginning of the year:

> *I could see I was going to have trouble. I sort of felt that he [the Senior Teacher] had me where he wanted me, and that his son was going to get whatever his son needed, you know.*
>
> [4-F: Nov]

Teacher 4-F then instanced how the Senior Teacher would come into the classroom and take his son, saying that he wanted him for a job, when, in fact, he was taking him for remedial reading tuition. According to 4-F, this routine came to an end after about four weeks, although no explanation was given as to why the Senior Teacher took his son from her class, nor did 4-F make an approach to the Senior Teacher:

> *It was difficult because I didn't know whether I should have approached him. I sort of felt that being a first year teacher, and him being in control of me, that he could do what he liked with his son without telling me.*
>
> [4-F: Nov]

The experiences of 22-M and 4-F, who were the only beginners in the sample to have a colleague's child in their class, serve to highlight some of the dilemmas which are probably faced by Year One teachers in similar situations.

Summary

Parent-teacher Interaction, the second category of the grounded theory, was comprised of four properties: *First Impressions, Finding Out About Parents, Parent-teacher Interviews, and Lasting Impressions.* The first of these properties focussed on the expectations and impressions the beginners had of parents prior to the start of the school year. In the second property, reference was made to the Year One teachers obtaining details about parents (e.g., marital stability), and also to the occasions when most of the beginners had their first face-to-face interaction with some of their pupils' parents. Teacher 22-M's experiences with parents at the beginning of the year were cited as the first in a number of incidents involving several of the teachers and parents. *Parent-teacher Interviews*, the third property, provided data on some of the outcomes of the formal meetings the beginners held with parents in March and July. And, the last property gave a brief insight into the Year One teacher's impressions about the interactions they had had with parents, as well as details about incidents 4-F and 22-M encountered with Senior Teacher's children. The propositions which were developed from these properties are shown in Table 8.

Discussion

2.1 First Impressions and 2.2 Finding Out About Parents

One deficiency in the research and literature on beginning teachers is that, not only have few attempts been made to focus attention on the interaction between first year teachers and parents, but that little recognition is given to parents as agents in the process of teacher socialisation. The small number of studies (e.g., Haigh, 1972; Lortie, 1975) which make brief reference to parents seem to support Becker's (1953) statement that, to the teacher,

Table 8

Propositions on *Parent-teacher Interaction*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS	LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY
2.1 First Impressions	2.1.1 By the commencement of the school year, first year teachers have gained general impressions about the parents whom they will come in contact with during the first year of teaching.	High
2.2 Finding Out About Parents	*By the end of the first month of teaching, first year teachers have ...*	
	2.2.1 Gained some details about their pupils' parents (e.g., marital stability).	High
	2.2.2 Interacted with some of the parents.	High
2.3 Parent-teacher (P/t) Interviews	*First year teachers ...*	
	2.3.1 Engage in P/t interviews in conjunction with writing school reports on children.	High
	2.3.2 Find contacts with parents during P/t interviews as profitable in providing information on children and children's attitudes to classroom activities.	Medium
	2.3.3 Have disagreements with parents during P/t interviews.	Low
	2.3.4 Find P/t interviews tiring occasions.	High
	2.3.5 Find report writing frustrating and demanding.	High
2.4 Lasting Impressions	2.4.1 Parent feedback is beneficial to first year teachers.	Low

> *... the parent appears as an unpredictable and uncontrollable element, as a force which endangers and may even destroy the existing authority system over which she has some measure of control.*
>
> *(Becker, 1953, p.140)*

The threat of parents over a teacher's authority system was evident in the data to some extent. For instance, in the first property of this category mention was made of 15-F being told by her college lecturer to expect to have children of ex-teachers in her class, and that these children's parents would be in and out of the classroom. Also, in the third property, *Parent-teacher Interviews*, it could be inferred from the data that 10-F possibly felt threatened, in the way Becker suggests, firstly by the note from the parent of one of her pupils, and secondly, in meeting with this parent several days later at a parent-teacher interview.

However, this image of parents as "always potentially dangerous" (Becker, 1953, p.132) and a threat to the authority system of the classroom was not dominant in the data. Indeed, the general impressions

beginners have of parents, referred to in proposition 2.1.1, relate more to knowledge about ethnic origins, socio-economic status and housing conditions of parents. Moreover, the supporting data for the two propositions of the second property indicate that, in gaining details about parents, and in interacting with some of them for the first time, beginners mention little about the dangers or threats of parents.

2.3 Parent-teacher Interviews and 2.4 Lasting Impressions

Parent-teacher interviews and report writing were two events that all the Year One teachers in the present study engaged in, and as proposition 2.3.1 suggests, these may be common events for other first year teachers. Yet, there is a dearth of evidence in the literature, particularly in reports of New Zealand studies on beginning teachers (e.g., Ennis, 1972; Ussher, 1977; Doyle, 1977; Murdoch, 1978), which gives account of beginners' experiences with, or reactions to, interviews with parents or writing reports on children (see, propositions 2.3.2 to 2.3.5). Haigh (1972), a school teacher in Britain who has written about first year teachers, does lend support to proposition 2.3.2, when he comments:

> *... teachers have found that some inexplicable trait in a child has been instantly explained by a short chat with parents. All this is in addition to the obvious things which they can tell you about a child.*
>
> *(Haigh, 1972, p.54)*

Of the other propositions and data on these two properties, it is interesting to note that little support is given to Becker's (1953) suggestion that parents are an unpredictable and uncontrollable element who present a danger and a threat to the teacher. In fact, proposition 2.4.1, although only accredited with low generalisability, hypothesizes that the feedback provided by parents, such as a thank you note, may be beneficial to beginning teachers.

Overview

From this category of data on *Parent-teacher Interaction*, four properties and nine propositions emerged. Six of these propositions had a high level of generalisability. The lack of research and literature relating to this category was noted in the discussion along with the observation that little recognition has been given to parents as socialising agents for teachers.

PART THREE

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

3.1 Expectations and Initial Contact

In conversing with the beginners while they were still at teachers college and university, about half of them mentioned expectations they had of the Principal at the school they had been posted to. For instance, from talking with other college students, 28-F said she gained the impression that her Principal was "quite young and innovative". Similarly, 25-F said she was gratified to learn from her friends at college that her Headmaster rarely looked at lesson plans. Several other teachers had heard it rumoured that their Principals were quite supportive and open to ideas. One of these teachers was 26-F, who remarked:

> *I haven't met him yet, but from different reports I've had he seems to be the sort of Principal whom you could go to and say that you had an idea and he would say, "Right, get on with it." That's the sort of thing I'm hoping for.*
>
> [26-F: Nov 1978]

In contrast to 26-F, some of the beginners expected the Principal to be a difficult person to get on with:

> *My initial impressions have been coloured very badly by reports that I've heard. I've been told he is an extemely difficult man who has alienated most of the lecturers at college.*
>
> [9-F: Nov 1978]

> *I've already heard things about the Principal, and I've approached the NZEI over alternatives for me next year if I come across a sticky situation.*
>
> *Int: What was their advice?*
>
> *Um, their interim advice was, "Don't do anything you'll regret", and, "The Principal thinks he's a god."*
>
> [21-M: Nov 1978]

Two of the beginning teachers, in particular, expressed a strong fear of the Principal "imposing his will" on them. One of these teachers was 28-F who explained that she would adversely react to such a situation. The other was 1-M who said he would find it difficult being in a position where a person had control of him because,

> *I have been working for a number of years in a*

> *position of authority myself, both in industry and in my own business, and I'm expecting this year to be particularly hard because I will be under authority. I think I will be able to fit into it all right, but I'm sure that privately it will rub me the wrong way at times.*[19]
>
> [1-M: Nov 1978]

By the commencement of the school year, all the Year One teachers had spoken with their Principal, either in person or on the telephone, and about two-thirds of the beginners commented that he seemed "friendly" or "helpful", while the remainder described the Principal using terms such as, "idealistic", "approachable", "organised" and "easy to get on with".

3.2 Interaction With the Principal

> *The only bit of advice I remember was not to park in the Headmaster's car park. He walks to school so that gem was of no use!*
>
> [30-F: *Jan]

The variety of the beginning teachers' remarks about the Principal, ranged from this light-hearted comment made by 30-F in her diary at the beginning of the year, to the more serious affirmation:

> *I think he thinks he's pretty good. He will probably end up becoming an inspector or something like that. He runs the school strictly to the rule book, but interprets it according to him, which is usual.*
>
> [20-F: Oct]

Besides these types of comments, the beginners also provided information on the regularity of visits to the classroom, and the support they were afforded, by the Principal. For instance, during the year, there was a group of about seven teachers who said that the Principal often "popped in" or "wandered through" the classroom. About half of these beginners explicitly stated that they appreciated or enjoyed this:

> *If he knows your room is open, then he can wander in whenever he wants to.*
>
> *Int: Does he wander into your room?*
>
> *Yeah, he does it a lot. He's sort of in and out and that's good. I don't mind.*
>
> [30-F: June]

Another group of about nine teachers claimed, as 22-M did, that the Principal

---

[19] Teacher 1-M was 40 years of age, and prior to entering teachers college had been in business. See further details about 1-M in Appendix A.

"rarely" or "never" came into the classroom:

> *I've never really had any help from him. He's never ever come into the classroom to give me advice on how to teach or anything like that.*
>
> [22-M: Oct]

The remainder of the sample, comprising about 20 beginning teachers, said that, although the Principal did visit the classroom, these occasions were not frequent. Several of these teachers, along with some of those who claimed they rarely saw their Principal, said they would have preferred to have had more contact with the Principal. Other beginners, like 7-F, indicated they were reasonably happy to see the Principal visit the classroom infrequently:

> *The Principal hasn't been near me for weeks. It pleases me that he hasn't because he really spooks me up when he comes in.*
>
> [7-F: June]

Interestingly, this lack of contact between some beginners and the Principal was sometimes a deliberate manoeuvre of the Principal. This became clear when each Principal was canvassed on two issues: the school's policy on assisting and guiding Year One teachers, and the role of the Principal in this process. The typical response to the first issue was that a Senior Teacher was entrusted with the responsibility for a Year One teacher. Because of this, some Principals saw their role, in relation to the Year One teacher, as supporting and consulting the Senior Teacher, rather than directly interacting with the beginner. For example:

> *If I want to do anything with them [Year One teachers] I go to their Senior Teacher and pass it on that way. The Senior Teacher generally knows them better than I do.*
>
> [15-F-22-M-P: March]

The justification for this policy of working through the Senior Teacher was commented on by several of the Principals when they said they felt it important for Year One teachers not to have "too many bosses". This sentiment brought to light a further difficulty, which, for at least three of the beginners was reported to have caused some concern. Each of these teachers expressed consternation that criticisms from the Principal were being conveyed via the Senior Teacher, and took umbrage at what they thought to be the Principal's off-handedness. A diary account from 9-F provides an illustration:

> *Senior Teacher said Principal not very happy with my objectives. I felt a bit defensive about this considering Principal's lack of direct comment to me. I'll play the game in the cause of harmony and good will, but I wish the Principal would tell me himself what he thinks.*
>
> [9-F: *August]

On the question of providing guidance and assistance to Year One teachers, about half of the 23 Principals said they considered this to be one of their major responsibilities. The claims of four of the Principals that they actually carried out this role were not supported by their Year One teachers. A case in point was the Principal of 1-M and 38-M who said that, as part of his supportive role, he made visits to the classroom of Year One teachers and gave occasional demonstration lessons. However, 1-M stated that:

> *It is interesting to note that the Principal has never been in my room to offer me help or advice, or even to watch me. He has only been in my room three times, and that was when he was locking up the room at about a quarter past five, and I was still here.*
>
> [1-M: Oct]

In a contrasting instance, 12-F received continued, informal support and guidance from her Principal. Indeed, her Principal's ability to avoid attracting attention when he was in her classroom impressed 12-F:

> *On Friday, he [the Principal] walked in here, and actually I was blasting the kids, and I never realised he'd come in [laughs]. He just merges in and I never see him. He gets down to the kids' level physically, and asks them what they're doing, and joins in. I just forget he's there which I find is really good and helpful. It's also helpful to the kids. I don't make a thing about him being in the room, so therefore they don't get worried.*
>
> [12-F: May]

Further to this, 12-F described a quality which she said she not only admired about her Principal, but which contributed to the development of a professional relationship between them:

> *He shows he's human to the kids. You know, you chop them down for being naughty, and he tells them what he did when he was a child, which was twice as bad [laughs]. They come back thinking that was pretty good [laughs]. He's done nothing short of rape and murder [laughs]. He's a great Principal.*
>
> [12-F: Oct]

Along with 12-F, almost two-thirds of the sample of Year One

teachers asserted during the year that they had an amicable relationship with the Principal. However, there were five beginners who continually expressed some reservations about their Principal. Teacher 15-F simply stated that her Principal was not an easy person to relate to, while 33-F and 38-M said:

> *I just ignore the Principal. I've never liked him, I've never got on with him. He ignores me and I ignore him.*
>
> [33-F: Aug]

> *I don't really go for his [the Principal's] way of going about things, and because of this, I've really sort of ignored him.*
>
> [38-M: May]

The other two teachers, 32-F and 37-F, both encountered clashes with the Principal. Details about these two beginners' experiences are given below to provide some insight into the nature of conflicts which can occur between a Principal and a Year One teacher.

Teacher 32-F's first term of teaching was not only marred, in her opinion, by the difficulties of handling problem children, but also by conflict with the Principal. From regular observations in the staffroom at her school, this conflict was evident to the researcher, to some extent, in the type of joking relationship that developed between 32-F and the Principal. For instance:

> *P:* [*Talking to the researcher*] *We've got a very good specimen here, I think* [*laughs, pointing to 32-F*].
>
> *32-F: Shut up!* [*staff laugh*].
>
> *P: Anytime you've got to do a specimen study, you may borrow 32-F* [*staff laugh*].
>
> *32-F: Well, thank you!*
>
> [32-F's Staffroom: Feb]

And, in the following month:

> *32-F: For graduation, I said I was going to do my usual trip up the stairs.*
>
> *P: Where was this?*
>
> *32-F: In town.*
>
> *P: What did you get?*
>
> *32-F: A teachers college certificate.*
>
> *P: Just a certificate!*
>
> *32-F: Yes! A teachers college certificate.*
>
> *P: Certified, not even certificated, let alone graduated* [*laughs*].
>
> [32-F's Staffroom: March]

When speaking about the Principal to the researcher, however, the tone of 32-F's remarks were decidedly critical, particularly after the following incident:

> *The Principal came in here for a day. He sat at my desk and wrote a report on me all day. It was the most atrocious report. In fact, there was a section of the report about things I might do to shut up Robert. I don't even have a Robert! It was Friday, and I just went home and cried my eyes out for the weekend. I decided I was resigning and the whole lot. It was the most sarcastic, rude, inconsiderate report.*
>
> [32-F: March]

In her diary she noted that on returning to school on the Monday, the Principal criticised her further:

> *Principal said my swimming lesson was terrible. I've been a bloody coach for five years! He's peculiar.*
>
> [32-F: *March]

And, several days later, 32-F had another encounter with the Principal:

> *He came in here and told me that if I don't shape up I'd have to ship out. So, that was Friday afternoon, and that disturbed me for the whole weekend.*
>
> [32-F: March]

For the next month, the Principal made daily visits to 32-F's classroom, and the type of help he offered was viewed positively by her:

> *He showed concern about the poor readers in the class because I wasn't able to spend time with them - I just wasn't. I didn't feel as though I was capable. I'd work with one group and let the other group do what they wanted to do. He gave me a few innovative ideas which helped. Like, he said that I've got to have something for the kids to work towards.*
>
> [32-F: April]

However, by the end of the term, the Principal's classroom visits began to annoy 32-F:

> *He now comes in and reckons I'm starving the kids. He said they were being educationally starved. He comes in and peers at you and sees that something is going wrong for that particular lesson and generalises over everything you are doing.*
>
> [32-F: April]

In the end-of-term interview, prior to her leaving the district to be with her boyfriend, the outcomes of the various conflicts she had had with her Principal were assessed by 32-F. She suggested that perhaps

there was a personality clash between her and the Principal, and from a later comment made by the Principal, this would seem to have been the case:

> *32-F was quite a dreadful little girl in my opinion. She was a spoilt brat who irritated me.*
> [32-F-P: Oct]

The conflict 37-F experienced with her Principal differed markedly from that of 32-F. During her last weeks at teachers college, 37-F spoke to the researcher about the apprehension she had about her Principal because she had known him as a family acquaintance. At the end of the first week of the school year, 37-F said that her uneasiness about the Principal had grown into a dislike for him. She commented further:

> *He's a big pain! I don't like him. He goes around and all of a sudden he stabs you in the back and says, "Why are you doing this, this and this?"*
> [37-F: Feb]

In the months that followed, a number of incidents occurred involving 37-F[20] and her Principal. The first of these was in early March, and the fieldnotes below describe 37-F's account of the event:

> *37-F said she had talked with a relieving teacher at the school who was engaged to a Malaysian-Chinese. This reliever had told 37-F that the Principal gave her a lengthy lecture on mixed marriages and their ramifications. He apparently ended by saying that he knew about these matters because his sister married a Maori. 37-F said she was quite upset after hearing about this.*
> [Fieldnotes: March]

The second incident was in April:

> *He [the Principal] came in the other day. We each get a week doing the foyer notice board putting up a display. Last week it was Room Eleven and Room Twelve, and the woman had written it eleven plus twelve and it looked like fourteen and twelve. He came in and blew me up for not having a foyer display. In front of my kids he just walked in and said, "37-F, did you realise that you have not done the foyer display? It has been vacant for a whole three days!" I said, "I beg your pardon." "Children, 37-F is slipping." I put up my finger and said, "I beg your pardon, but that's Room Eleven and Room Twelve!"*
> [37-F: April]

Several other incidents took place during the year, and these were summarised by 37-F in her diary:

---

[20] Teacher 37-F was a young Maori teacher. See further details about 37-F in Appendix A.

> *Principal came into classroom and commented on children's letters written to the milkman. We received a circular this afternoon showing us how to set out a letter PROPERLY.*
> [37-F: *May]

> *I was busy playing sport and didn't got to last night's PTA meeting and got a blasting from the Principal. He raved on about not being professional about attending the meeting.*
> [37-F: *June]

> *A parent asked for her child to be excused for ballet lessons on a Tuesday at 2 PM. Headmaster told me this is impossible and put me on the spot facing the parent to say, "No."*
> [37-F: *Sept]

Unlike 32-F's case, however, 37-F's Principal appeared to show no dislike for her. Indeed, the tenor of his comments seemed to suggest that he respected and admired her abilities:

> *37-F seems to be successful in everything that she does. She's a good staff member.*
> [37-F-P: May]

> *37-F is extremely strong as a teacher and would be an asset to any school.*
> [37-F-P: Questionnaire]

Moreover, even 37-F herself said she was unsure about the reasons for her antagonism towards the Principal:

> *The only thing that has really got me down during the year has been the Headmaster. It was only little things really. I used to just go through some weeks where I couldn't stand him walking into the classroom. It was just this feeling I had about him.*
> [37-F: Oct]

Most of the beginning teachers in the present study encountered little or no discord between themselves and the Principal. However, the experiences of 32-F and 37-F not only give recognition to the fact that conflict can result from the interaction between a Principal and a Year One teacher, but also provide evidence that the actual causes and effects of this conflict are often complex.

Summary

The first of the two properties on this category provided data on the differing expectations the beginners had of their Principal, and also the teachers' initial reactions from having talked with their Principal prior to the start of the school year. The second property

highlighted the regularity of visits made by the Principals to the classrooms of the Year One teachers, and the assistance and guidance given the beginners by their Principals. Three case studies were then outlined. One of these illustrated the type of amiable relationship that can develop between some Year One teachers and their Principals, as in the case of 12-F. The other two case studies focussed on the differing types of conflict and antagonism that can arise from the interaction between a beginner and the Principal, as was exemplified in the incidents involving 32-F and 37-F.

From the supporting data on these two properties of the category *The Role of the Principal*, a number of propositions were generated and these are stated in Table 9.

Table 9

Propositions on *The Role of the Principal*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS		LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY
3.1 Expectations and Initial Contact	3.1.1	First year teachers have differing expectations of their Principal.	Medium
	3.1.2	By the commencement of the school year, first year teachers have made contact with their Principal.	High
	3.1.3	First year teachers initially react to their Principal in positive terms, e.g., "S/he is friendly", "S/he is easy to get on with".	High
3.2 Interaction with the Principal	3.2.1	Principals frequently visit the classrooms of first year teachers.	Low
	3.2.2	Principals infrequently visit the classrooms of first year teachers.	High
	3.2.3	Principals consider that one of their responsibilities is to provide guidance and assistance to first year teachers.	Medium
	3.2.4	First year teachers have an amicable relationship with their Principal.	High

Discussion

3.1 Expectations and Initial Contact

There is a general consensus in both the overseas and New Zealand literature on beginning teachers, that the Principal not only fulfils an important role in providing support and guidance for first year

teachers (see, Bond and Smith, 1967; Eddy, 1969; Collins, 1969; Davenport, 1971; Ennis, 1972; Wood, 1976), but that he also acts as an agent in the process of a teacher's socialisation (see, Edgar and Warren, 1969; Lortie, 1975; Ussher, 1975; Battersby, 1978a). However, few details are given in the literature on the expectations beginners have of their Principal, and on the types of relationships that develop or the conflicts that arise, between the first year teacher and the Principal.

On the issue of beginners' expectations about the Principal, the supporting data for proposition 3.1.1 suggests that first year teachers have differing impressions of what to expect of their Headmaster. One possible explanation for this lies in the simple observation that Principals themselves differ, such as in their style of leadership, and that the rumours and information which often form the basis to beginners' expectations about their Principal are probably derived from various idiosyncrasies other people have noticed in this Principal. A number of beginners in the present study, for instance, had built up expectations about their Principal from what they had heard about him from talking to friends at teachers college. Despite these differences in expectations, the data relating to propositions 3.1.2 and 3.1.3 indicates that Year One teachers initially react to their Principal in positive terms (e.g., "He is easy to get on with"). And, contrary to the view of Hanson and Herrington (1976), there was no indication that the beginners were made to feel aware of their position in the hierarchical order of the school from speaking or meeting with their Principal for the first time.

3.2 Interaction with the Principal

The frequency of Principals' visits to the classrooms of first year teachers (see propositions 3.2.1 and 3.2.2) has been reported in the overseas research of Peck (1959), Haller (1967), Lortie (1975) and Hewitson (1976), and in Ennis' (1972) investigation here in New Zealand. While the authors of these overseas studies provide evidence which seems to confirm proposition 3.2.2, outcomes from Ennis' research tend to concur with the low generalisable proposition 3.2.1. In his investigation of beginning teachers in Otago, Ennis found that 70 per cent of his sample of Primary School Principals (N=65) made "frequent and informal visits to the first year teacher's classroom" (Ennis, 1972, p.69). Ennis also offers support for proposition 3.2.3 when he comments that the Principals in his sample said that one of their main tasks was to guide and to assist

first year teachers. A similar finding was reported by Davenport (1971) from his study of beginning teachers in Auckland, and more recently by Conner *et al* (1975) in Britain.

While findings from both Ennis'(1972) and Davenport's research seem to strengthen proposition 3.2.4, which hypothesizes that first year teachers have an amicable relationship with their Principal, neither of these studies, nor little of the overseas research, elaborates the day-to-day interactions beginners have with their Principal. The three case studies detailed in this second property focussed on this interaction, and in particular on that which has received the least attention, namely, interaction resulting in conflict between a beginner and the Principal. This conflict, while not prevalent between beginners and Principals in the present study, as evidenced by proposition 3.2.4, was, nevertheless, a dominant experience for two teachers, 32-F and 37-F.

Overview

The Role of the Principal, the third category of the grounded theory, contained two properties from which seven propositions emerged. In the discussion, support for these propositions was able to be drawn from a limited number of overseas and New Zealand studies.

The next section presents the supporting data on the fourth category, *Guidance from the Senior Teacher*.

PART FOUR

GUIDANCE FROM THE SENIOR TEACHER

4.1 Becoming Acquainted with the Senior Teacher

Even though most of the beginning teachers in the present study had visited their school prior to the start of the school year, it was confirmed, through the questionnaire the teachers completed in May (see Appendix D), that only four of them had met with their Senior Teacher. Indeed, from talking with the beginners while they were still at teachers college and university, it was found that the majority of them were not aware that a Senior Teacher would be given responsibility for them during the first year of teaching.

In the first week of the school year, each beginner was assigned

to a Senior Teacher. The Table below shows the position of responsibility held by these Senior Teachers, and the number of Year One teachers in the sample who were supervised by people in similar positions.

Table 10

The Number of Year One Teachers in the Sample Assigned to Teachers in Positions of Responsibility[21]

POSITION OF RESPONSIBILITY	NO. YEAR ONE TEACHERS
Principal	4
Deputy Principal	9
Senior Teacher of the Junior Classes	12
Other Senior Teacher	12

Throughout this first week of teaching, about three-quarters of the Year One teachers commented that their Senior Teacher was either "friendly", "helpful" or "understanding", while the remainder reported they had seen little of their Senior Teacher. By the end of the following week, all the Year One teachers had interacted with their Senior Teacher, and the only beginner to express surprise about this interaction was 17-M. On his first day at school, 17-M said that four of his colleagues had approached him saying that his Senior Teacher was "a bit of a battle axe" and a person who did not "mince her words". However, from interacting with his Senior Teacher during the first two weeks of the term, 17-M said that he was surprised to find that she was "quite likeable". Later that month, he confirmed this when he said:

> *A few of the staff told me that Mrs C [his Senior Teacher] was a bit of a dragon. She seems to be all right to me. She's certainly not the person they told me that she was. I can go and ask her for assistance in any area and she's only too willing to help me.*
>
> [17-M: Feb]

By the end of February, some of the beginning teachers, like 17-M, had sought help from their Senior Teacher, while other beginners said they had rarely seen the teacher who was responsible for them. This variability in contact between beginners and their Senior Teacher, made it possible for the researcher to discern the differing types of supervision

[21] Teacher 27-M had left teaching early in the year, and so the number of Year One teachers totalled 37.

the Year One teachers were receiving.

4.2 Supervision

The type of guidance and supervision given the beginners by their Senior Teacher was found to be one factor which played a part in determining the extent to which the Year One teachers enjoyed their first year in the profession. During the year, however, just over half the sample of first year teachers expressed some dissatisfaction with the Senior Teacher responsible for them. A common cause of vexation that was reported by these beginners was the lack of feedback, support and encouragement they were given. This level of dissatisfaction was evident in conversations the researcher had with the teachers, and in particular in questionnaire responses where 12 of the beginners indicated that they would have preferred a different Senior Teacher. Some elaborated their reasons for this:

> *Perhaps it's expecting too much, but it would have been nice to have had the occasional pat on the back and some inspiration from the Senior Teacher. And, to watch one's Senior Teacher having problems with her own class was not very encouraging.*
> [9-F: Questionnaire]

> *I feel my Senior Teacher is incapable of communicating adequately with me. I do not feel this is because of my character. I have asked for help but have not received it, and I feel he does not really attempt to understand me or my problems.*
> [23-F: Questionnaire]

> *She [the Senior Teacher] wasn't there. She was ill for over a term. I don't feel I should worry her now as she is still not very well. Also, earlier in the year, I realised we had totally different teaching styles.*
> [30-F: Questionnaire]

Notwithstanding this discontent, there was, amongst more than half of the beginners, a general feeling of satisfaction with their Senior Teacher. A summary of some of the questionnaire findings (see Apendix G for further details) is illustrative of this. For example, approximately two-thirds of the beginners indicated that the Senior Teacher

(a) Was an important person to them;

(b) Provided a useful contact;

(c) Was readily approachable;

(d) Was willing to listen and to discuss work; and,

(e) Gave constructive criticism.

Despite these expressions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction the beginners had for their Senior Teacher, the type of guidance and supervision the Year One teachers were given seemed to effect them in different ways. For some of the beginners, a close style of supervision, where the Senior Teacher regularly gave advice and guidance, was seen by some first year teachers as an indication of concern and genuine interest, whereas for others, this style was disliked and often regarded as a threat to autonomy. On the other hand, a remote style of supervision, where the Senior Teacher had little contact with, and made no real attempt to direct, the beginner, was similarly disliked by some of the Year One teachers and appreciated by others. These types of supervision, which were explored further in the questionnaire completed by the beginners during their October inservice course, gave rise to the following classification of the supervisory style of Senior Teachers:

Figure 13

A Classification of the Supervisory Style of Senior Teachers

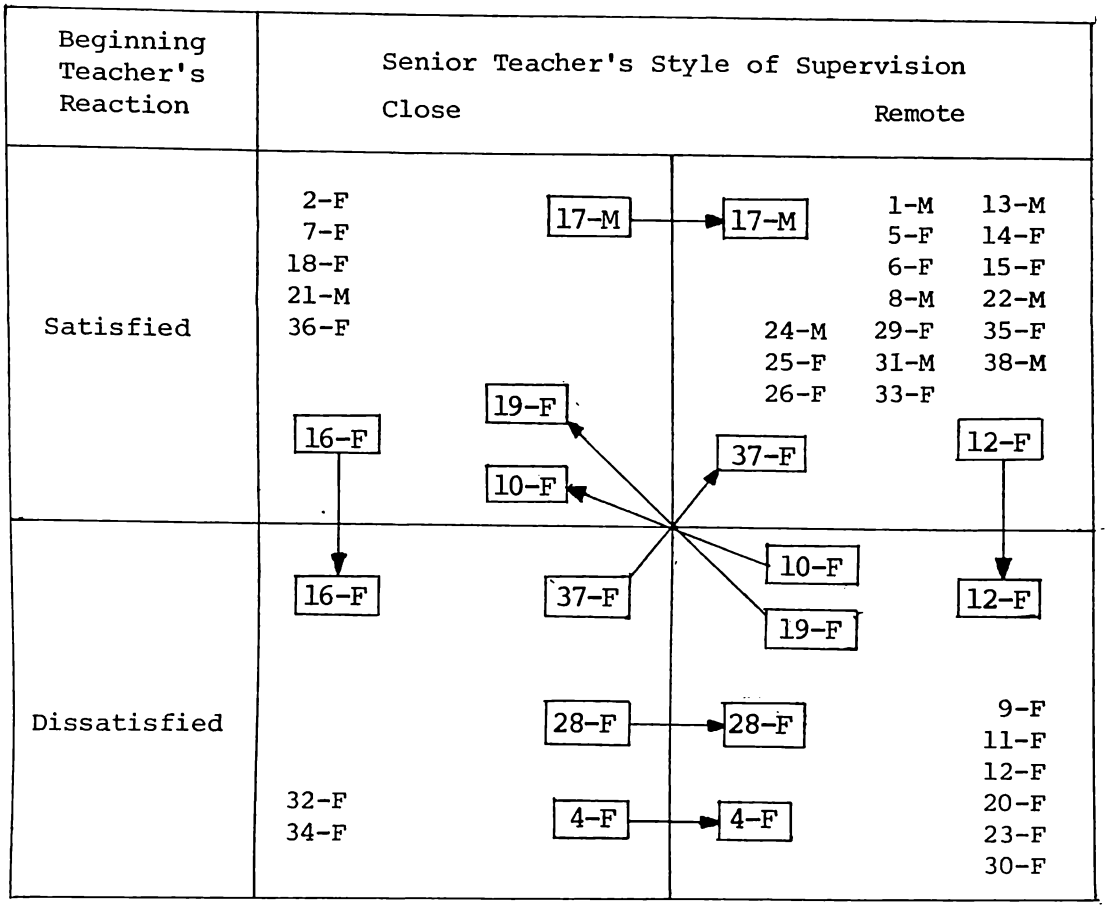
Beginning Teacher's Reaction	Senior Teacher's Style of Supervision	
	Close	Remote
Satisfied	REGULAR ADVICE, GUIDANCE AND SUPPORT	LITTLE CONTACT AND NO REAL ATTEMPT TO GUIDE
Dissatisfied		

Using this matrix, the style of supervision received by each of the beginning teachers was able to be categorised, and where it occurred, changes in supervision-type and level of satisfaction could be plotted. This is shown in Figure 14.

In all, approximately two-thirds of the teachers said they received a remote style of supervision, while the remainder reported that they were given close supervision by the Senior Teacher. As Figure 14 shows, for most of the beginning teachers there was little variation in the type of, and their reaction to, supervision they received throughout the year. However, movement between the categories occurred for eight of

Figure 14

The Type of Senior Teacher Supervision Received by the Sample of Year One Teachers During the Year, and the Changes that Occurred



of the beginning teachers. Early in the school year, 37-F, for example, moved from a dissatisfaction with close supervision to being satisfied with a more remote style. The first evidence of this appeared in one of her diary entries, and was later confirmed when talking with her:

> *STJC only comes in to take reading now. I seem to have been left alone to get a grip of things, and it's good. His roving around annoyed me.*
> [37-F: *March]

In the case of 10-F the transition from remote to close supervision, and the corresponding shift in reaction, was noticeable in the space of a week. The dairy account below was entered on July 11:

> *Senior Teacher had a talk to me about my work-plans. Boy was I feeling depressed by the time he finished. He never said one good or nice thing to me. Mostly about my attitude to children. He reckons it's 100% negative. I don't know where he's been, but it certainly isn't*

around me or the kids as I hardly ever see him!
[10-F: *July]

The next entry was made by 10-F on July 17:

Had a fantastic day. The relationship with Senior Teacher has altered now too - for the better. He comes and talks with me. In myself, I'm finding him more approachable.
[10-F: *July]

Confirmation by 10-F that a change in supervision had taken place was noted later in the year:

I seemed to have developed a good relationship with my Senior Teacher. Earlier in the year, he never used to come near me, and I'd get depressed and have no one to talk to.
[10-F: Sept]

A similar movement in style of supervision occurred with 19-F. However, in this instance the initiative for change came from the beginning teacher, as is evident in the following excerpt from a conversation with 19-F:

I came to the point where I had to pack it in or do something drastic, because it just started to get me down. I wasn't getting anywhere and I didn't know what I was doing. Mrs J [the Senior Teacher] would come in and say, "Can I help?", and I'd say, "No", and send her out because I didn't want her to see how terrible I was going. About four weeks ago, it came to a head. Since I realised just how much help I did need, and that people were there to help and not to look at what I couldn't do, things have improved.
[19-F: Aug]

During the year, a shift in reaction to the supervision received by two beginners was also noted. One of these teachers was 16-F who remarked that she became dissatisfied because her Senior Teacher was over-supervising her. According to 16-F, the close supervision she was given early in the year was appreciated, but its continuation began to annoy her. The other beginner, 12-F, explained that her level of satisfaction with the supervision she was receiving decreased when she realised the degree of disparity that existed between her philosophy of teaching of that of her Senior Teacher.

The other three beginners for whom movement between the categories was recorded were 4-F, 17-M and 28-F. Teacher 4-F commented that prior to her Senior Teacher's inspection for a grading, she had

supervised her closely. However, following his inspection, 4-F said her Senior Teacher no longer showed an interest either in her classroom or in her teaching. In both instances, 4-F expressed dissatisfaction with her Senior Teacher's method of supervision. For 17-M, the shift from close to remote supervision was symbolised for him by a change in the frequency of the Senior Teacher's inspection of his folder:

> *Up until now, she's been particular about coming in and seeing my folder. But now, she says she won't bother. It's good that she's got confidence in me.*
>
> [17-M: July]

Like 4-F, a change from close to remote supervision occurred for 28-F. However, in this case dissatisfaction and conflict resulted from the relationship between the beginner and the Senior Teacher. This is illustrated in the following account which traces the experiences of 28-F with her Senior Teacher and highlights the conflicts which arose over supervision, and which subsequently led to the intervention of the Principal, and a Counsellor from the NZEI.[22] The account below also provides an insight into the differing philosophies of teaching, and views about children, schooling and society, which were held by 28-F and her Senior Teacher.

Teacher 28-F was a woman in her late twenties, who was divorced with two children. She had a strong interest in astrology and was described by her teachers college adviser as one who "can allow her emotions to overcome her objectivity at times."

In conversations with 28-F while she was still at teachers' college, she expressed apprehension about her first year of teaching. Indeed, on close analysis, and in the light of her experiences during the year, the following words were almost prophetic:

> *I have my elements of gloom tucked away. There are prospects that are not very nice. There are things that could happen. Things might not go my way. I'm not looking forward to other people trying to impose their will on me, which I have always had difficulty with. The thing that worries me most of all about next year is the thought that somebody's going to come in and say, "You will do this!"*
>
> [28-F: Oct 1978]

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[22] An NZEI Counsellor is a member of the Primary School Teachers' Union (usually a practising teacher with several years experience) who is available on a part-time basis to offer confidential advice to teachers who have a personal or professional problem.

During her first week of teaching, 28-F said she was "totally disorganised" due to the fact that she had 36 children in her class. Moreover, she had arrived on the first day to find that:

> *There were seventy children between the two of us, and the lady that's in with me is the STJC [the Senior Teacher] and she just walked off and left me with the lot of them. I honestly, literally didn't know what to do.*
>
> [28-F: Feb]

This particular incident seemed to spark a feeling of discontent with 28-F, and by the end of the second week she commented that she was unhappy with the team teaching situation with her STJC:

> *As far as being a first year teacher, it's really difficult. I'm in with someone who's taught for thirty years, and she expected me to have all the kids in groups right from the start, when I really didn't want to do that. I feel like I'm being pushed into things.*
>
> [28-F: Feb]

Of particular concern to 28-F was the intervention of the STJC in matters of discipline and organisation:

> *I'll have the kids doing something and I'd be quite happy with what they're doing, and then all of a sudden she comes over and hammers into them. The poor kids turn around and look at me as if to say, "What the hell is going on?"*
>
> [28-F: Feb]

After three weeks, it became clear to 28-F that the team teaching arrangement between her and the Senior Teacher was not workable, and she was unsure as to whether she should approach the Principal about the matter:

> *I don't know whether I should see him or not. I don't quite know what to do, because my philosophy on education is quite different to hers - totally different. Whether he's going to say that she's been teaching for so many years, therefore her approach is more relevant, I don't know.*
>
> [28-F: Feb]

Equally concerned about the teaching situation was the STJC:

> *We're not satisfied. [Pause] Well, I'm not satisfied. I don't know whether 28-F is. I think she's finding it difficult to get everything done. If you're single, you can put your heart into it, but if you've got a family, like 28-F, frankly, I wouldn't like it. When you get the type that they know all [laughs], and you can't tell them anything, then I'm afraid it's very difficult to work with them.*
>
> [28-F-STJC: Feb]

At the end of February, 28-F remarked that the conflict between her and the STJC had reached an intolerable level, especially with the Senior Teacher constantly intervening in classroom activities:

> *This is my printing from yesterday. That's a compromise for me to do printing because I think it's a load of bull shit. She comes over and says, "Excuse me, we don't do W's like that!"*
>
> *Int: Did she say that to you in front of the children?*
>
> *Yep, in front of the children. And, she said, "This is how they [W's] go." How bloody ridiculous can you get [crying].*
>
> [28-F: Feb]

To the STJC it seemed quite obvious where the cause of the conflict rested:

> *This girl's not amenable to direction. She wants to do her own thing in her own way, which is very difficult. She's not willing to accept the fact that other people have more experience than she has. I don't feel that this team situation is working out because of her.*
>
> [28-F-STJC: Feb]

At about this time, 28-F sought help from Jillian, a teacher in the Junior section of the school, who suggested 28-F should see the Principal:

> *J: Are you going to see the boss?*
>
> *28-F: I haven't yet. I'm too scared actually. I've been howling this morning because I was so upset about the things she [the STJC] has been saying.*
>
> *J: Well, if you feel strongly about it, I'll back you up and <u>we'll</u> go to the boss.*
>
> [February]

During the following two weeks, the tension between 28-F and the Senior Teacher eased, with the STJC being away from school attending an inservice course. Because of her absence, 28-F said she felt more relaxed:

> *It's amazing how different I feel. I come in in the morning and I'm usually uptight from the very beginning. Yesterday, I didn't feel uptight at all. It's been really good with her away. You accomplish so much more when you're feeling relaxed in the situation.*
>
> [28-F: March]

While the STJC was at the inservice course, the Principal made it known to 28-F that he realised she was experiencing problems with the Senior Teacher, and that he would attempt to reconcile the differences. By early April, two weeks after the STJC had returned from her inservice course, the

Principal had apparently taken no action to resolve the problem, and this caused 28-F to remark:

> *I'm going to go and have a bitch to the Head and tell him that if he doesn't get his backside into gear and hurry up and do something, I'll start screaming.*
>
> [28-F: April]

Although 28-F did not follow through with this threat, she did learn at the staff meeting for that week that a wall was soon to be erected between her classroom and the STJC's. A number of days passed without the wall being built, and this prompted 28-F to write a note to the Principal:

> *I sent a note to Mr K [the Principal] the other day. "Dear Mr K, I hate to mention the unmentionable, but this wall!" I added more. I said, "It's a question of my sanity. Perhaps we could discuss the possibility of not my insanity but the wall." I drew a big picture of Room Three and Room Four and all these explosions coming out, and a picture of me going up in smoke. He sent back a nice little note saying, "Partition going up during holidays. Hold on!"*
>
> [28-F: April]

Upon arrival at school on the first day of the second term, 28-F found that a make-shift partition had been placed between the classrooms, and for several weeks this resulted in 28-F having little interaction with the Senior Teacher.

After being back at school for three weeks, 28-F was visited by her Inspector, and the Principal reported to the researcher on the outcomes of this visit:

> *He's not very happy with her efforts, either with the children or the Senior Teacher. He thinks that the philosophy 28-F would like to put into action won't work until she can improve her management of kids. She seems to think that she shouldn't enforce certain things and tell kids what they should be doing.*
>
> [28-F-P: June]

Commenting on the same inspectorial visit a fortnight later, 28-F said:

> *The day the Inspector came was about the worst day in my life. Things have picked up considerably since then. It wasn't until after he'd been that I discovered that everyone in the school has behaviour problems, and not just me.*
>
> [28-F: July]

In the same conversation, 28-F revealed that:

> *I'm going to be out of commission next year [laughs]. I'm pregnant. I'm actually quite pleased about the whole thing. I think I'll go back to varsity next year and get a few more units out of the way. It's boring here.*
>
> [28-F: July]

By the end of term, 28-F said she had overcome the behaviour problems with children in her class by learning to raise her voice and to yell. As a follow-up measure, she invited a friend, who was a teachers college lecturer, to sit in on her class. The result of his visit was a suggestion to 28-F that she should start a reward system of positive reinforcement for the children.

Looking back over the second school term, 28-F remarked that the partition between the classrooms had partially solved the problems between her and the Senior Teacher. However, it was apparent that some animosity still prevailed:

> *I haven't got a relationship with her [the Senior Teacher], and I'm not even interested in her. I fob her off with lesson plans that are false. I say, "Yes, Mrs N [the Senior Teacher], no, Mrs N, three bags full, Mrs N." It's certainly not the relationship one would like, but you have to survive [laughs].*
>
> [28-F: Aug]

To 28-F, the STJC was a symbol of a system which was not amenable to change:

> *The whole system's got to change; she's got to change; it cannot just remain the way it is. There are alternatives to the system that are infinitely superior. The system survives on people like her. The whole thing is folding up around our ears, and we can't even see it. Our priorities are wrong when we think it's the system and not the people that count.*
>
> [28-F: Aug]

Throughout the initial weeks of the third school term, 28-F began to suffer morning sickness and it was at this time that she decided to break off all contact with the STJC:

> *It's got to the stage now where I avoid her. She sends me all these notes via the kids, like, "Can I have your work plans?" I just screw them up and put them in the bin. I've thought, "Well, why?" Why go through all that?" I want to sort out what the legal situation is.*
>
> [28-F: Sept]

Four days after this conversation, it became clear why 28-F was interested in the legal situation involving her Senior Teacher. The fieldnotes below give an account of a telephone call 28-F made to the researcher:

> *28-F telephoned during school time from home of one her friends. She explained that she and the STJC had had an argument. I asked whether the Principal had intervened, and 28-F said, "No! He just sat in his office." 28-F went on to say that Mrs N had told her that she was going to contact the Inspector and suggest that he should not endorse her [28-F's] teaching certificate. 28-F said that this had infuriated her. She asked for advice and, with some hesitation, it was suggested [by the researcher] that she should get in touch with an NZEI Counsellor.*[23]
>
> [Fieldnotes: Sept]

Acting on the suggestion of the researcher, 28-F contacted an NZEI Counsellor:

> *I rang him up and he came down the next day. He had a talk with Mr K [the Principal] about it first, and then I talked with him. He said that our accounts were the same, but that Mr K's was a little understated. He said that no way could she [the STJC] stop me from being certificated.*
>
> [28-F: Oct]

With this reassurance from the Counsellor, 28-F said she felt confident that she would obtain her teaching certificate. She subsequently did, and for the remainder of the year, 28-F's attitude to teaching and to the STJC was expressed in the following terms:

> *I'm just not interested anymore. I'm bored and I can't be bothered. Quite frankly, I can't wait to get out of the classroom. I can't wait for it to be all over.*
>
> [28-F: Oct]

In contrast to most of the other Year One teachers in the present study, 28-F's experiences with her STJC draw attention to the adverse reactions of a beginner to a style of supervision and guidance offered by a Senior Teacher. While this account has focussed on the beginning teacher's perceptions of the problems and conflicts which arose, and the course of action taken to resolve them, it has also served to illustrate what seem to be basic, underlying differences in teaching style, in classroom management, and on a wider front, differences in philosophies about schooling between 28-F and her Senior Teacher. Finally,

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[23] The methodological implications of the researcher giving advice to 28-F are discussed in Chapter 6, pp.179-180 & 182.

and perhaps most dramatically, this case study of 28-F has shed light on the intricate nature of some of the socialising influences, and their impact, on a beginning teacher.

Summary

The supporting data on the two properties of this category centred on the interaction between the sample of beginners and their Senior Teacher, and in particular on the guidance and supervision the Year One teachers received.

In the first property, information was given on the allocation of responsibility for a Year One teacher to one of his/her colleagues. The initial reactions of the beginners to their Senior Teacher were also recorded. This was followed, in the second property, with details about the beginners' level of satisfaction with the type of supervision they received. Changes which had occurred either in supervision, or in the Year One teachers' satisfaction with it, were also noted. This second property concluded with an account of 28-F's experiences with her Senior Teacher.

On the basis of the data on this category, the propositions stated in Table 11 were able to be formulated.

Discussion

4.1 Becoming Acquainted with the Senior Teacher

The beginners in the present study seemed to adjust fairly quickly to the idea of having a senior colleague responsible for them, and indeed, initially reacted postively to this Senior Teacher (see proposition 4.1.2). However, a situation seems to exist, as proposition 4.1.1 hypothesizes, where, prior to the start of the school year, beginners may be unaware that one of their senior colleagues will be entrusted with responsibility for them during the first year of teaching. While this lack of awareness on the part of Year One teachers may not cause difficulties either for them or their Senior Teacher, it does suggest that beginners may be entering the profession with little detailed knowledge about the role of some people whom they will interact with, such as the Senior Teacher. The significance of this implication, particularly in relation to beginners being unaware about the role of their Senior Teacher, is considerably heightened when reference is made to the New

Table 11

Propositions on *Guidance from the Senior Teacher*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS		LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY
4.1 Becoming Acquainted with the Senior Teacher	4.1.1	Prior to the commencement of the school year, first year teachers are not aware that a Senior Teacher will be responsible for them during the first year of teaching.	High
	4.1.2	First year teachers initially react to their Senior Teacher in positive terms, e.g., "S/he is friendly", "S/he is understanding".	High
4.2 Supervision	*First year teachers ...*		
	4.2.1	Express some dissatisfactions about their Senior Teacher during the first year of teaching.	Medium
	4.2.2	Prefer a different Senior Teacher to the one appointed.	Low
	4.2.3	Have a general feeling of satisfaction with their Senior Teacher.	High
	4.2.4	Receive a remote style of supervision where the Senior Teacher has little contact with them, and makes no real attempt to direct them.	High
	4.2.5	Are satisfied with a remote style of supervision.	Medium
	4.2.6	Are dissatisfied with a remote style of supervision.	Low
	4.2.7	Receive a close style of supervision where the Senior Teacher regularly gives advice and guidance.	Low
	4.2.8	Are satisfied with close supervision.	Low
	4.2.9	Are dissatisfied with close supervision.	Low
	4.2.10	Experience little variation in the type of, or in their reaction to supervision from the Senior Teacher.	High
	4.2.11	Experience a change in the type of, and/or reaction to, supervision from the Senior Teacher.	Low

Zealand studies of Davenport (1971), Ennis (1972), Doyle (1977) and Murdoch (1977), and to the overseas investigations of Collins (1969), Taylor and Dale (1973), Fyfield, Taylor and Tisher (1978), Battersby (1978a) and Newberry (1978), which highlight the importance of a beginner's supervising teacher in providing guidance and support throughout the first year of teaching.

4.2 Supervision

The role of the Senior Teacher in the professional development of first year teachers is well recognised as evidenced in the early writings of Waller (1932), in the research on teacher socialisation carried out by Edgar and Warren (1969), Raggett (1975) and Chafetz (1976), and in various reports of inquiries into teacher induction (see, Bolam, 1975;

Education Department of Western Australia, 1977; Board of Teacher Education, Queensland, 1980). There is, however, a dearth of information in the research and literature which relates to the propositions of this second property on the supervision given beginners by their Senior Teacher.

The first two of these propositions hypothesize that during the first year of teaching, beginners may express dissatisfactions about their supervising teacher, and that some may even prefer to have a change of Senior Teacher. Hermanowitz (1966) supports the view that first year teachers share this type of discontent, although he argues, contrary to proposition 4.2.3, that lukewarm and negative attitudes about supervising teachers generally prevail amongst beginners. However, the findings from Davenport's (1971) survey of beginning teachers in Auckland, and the outcomes of similar research undertaken in Otago by Ennis (1972) and Doyle (1977), seem to strengthen the high generalisability of proposition 4.2.3.

On the issue of supervisory style (see propositions 4.2.4 to 4.2.11), there is some agreement in the literature that first year teachers do receive a remote style of supervision (see, Bond and Smith, 1967; Cooper and Seidman, 1969; Ryan, 1970; Lortie, 1975). From this observation, the inference is sometimes made that remote supervision, referred to by Cooper and Seidman (1969) as the "shotgun approach", is inappropriate for beginning teachers and often frustrates them. However, the evidence from the present study suggests that some beginners are, in fact, satisfied with remote supervision (see proposition 4.2.5), while a minority may be dissatisfied with it (see proposition 4.2.6).

The fact that a small number of beginners do receive a close style of supervision (see proposition 4.2.7), and either express satisfaction or dissatisfaction with it (see propositions 4.2.8 and 4.2.9), lends support to an outcome from Canadian research undertaken by Newberry (1978) She reported that the beginning teachers in her sample experienced supervision ranging from uncooperative and detached to that which was extremely helpful.

While there is this dichotomy between close and remote supervision and beginners' level of satisfaction with these two types, propositions 4.2.10 and 4.2.11 indicate that, although some Year One teachers may experience a change in the type of, and/or their reaction to, supervision from their Senior Teacher, the majority of beginners encounter little

variation. One beginner who did experience variability in supervision from her Senior Teacher was 28-F, whose case study provides an interesting parallel to the Hero Innovator account given in Hanson and Herrington's (1976, pp.44-52) paperback, *From College to Classroom: The Probationary Year*. The Hero Innovator was a first year teacher, who, in her own terms,

> *... had been prevented from carrying out a reasoned educational philosophy [because] it was simply not part of the taken for granted reality of [the] school.*
>
> *(Hanson and Herrington, 1976, p.52)*

And, like 28-F, the Hero Innovator also faced pressures to conform, as is evident from the words spoken by the latter's County Adviser:

> *You have to conform now ... If you don't compromise you'll never be a teacher ... you will not qualify. ... If you don't compromise it will go out of my hands. Don't expect any more sympathy from those higher up: you'll get less.*
>
> *(Hanson and Herrington, 1976, p.50)*

The similarities between the experiences of 28-F and the Hero Innovator are significant in that both seemed to be a threat to the status quo which existed in their school, and both appeared to resist, with differing degrees of success, the influences of people, such as the Senior Teacher, to bring about conformity.

Overview

Thirteen propositions, five with a high level of generalisability, were derived from the data on the two properties of this category on *Guidance from the Senior Teacher*. Each of these propositions was cited in the discussion along with the findings from the research and literature relating to this particular category of the grounded theory. In the next section, the supporting data is outlined on the fifth category of the grounded theory: *Associating with Colleagues*.

PART FIVE

ASSOCIATING WITH COLLEAGUES

5.1 Meeting Colleagues

In the end-of-training interview with the beginners, and in

conversations with them during their final weeks at teachers college and university, and over the holiday period, it was found that about half the sample of teachers made reference to the expectations they had of their colleagues and to the relationships that would develop. Five of the beginners said they expected to develop friendly relationships with the staff, while another four teachers, one of whom was 9-F, commented that their colleagues would probably provide a supportive environment in which to work:

> *I'm looking forward to the staff. I'm hopeful they'll make it [the school] a supportive place in which to work. That makes for a bit of apprehension because if it's not, it'll be a miserable year.*
>
> [9-F: Nov 1978]

Of the other beginners who talked about expectations they had of their future colleagues, two said they were looking forward to being able to engage in a "give-and-take-of-ideas" relationship with their fellow teachers. There was also another group of four beginners, three of whom were appointed to teach in open plan classrooms, who expressed some apprehension about working in a team with their colleagues. One of these was 16-F:

> *I'm really not looking forward to working with the other staff in the block. I'm sort of still wondering whether I'm going to get on with them. That's the main thing. The teaching's not really worrying me.*
>
> [16-F: Nov 1978]

Other than those Year One teachers in the sample who had practice teaching experience in the school they were posted to, few of the beginners had occasion to meet any of their colleagues prior to the commencement of the school year. However, during their first few days at school, most of the beginners were introduced to, and began to develop acquaintances with, some of their fellow teachers. Although the initial reaction of the majority of the Year One teachers to their colleagues was couched in positive terms (e.g., "They're friendly"), either in diary entries or in talking with the researcher, there were several of the beginners who expressed different impressions. Teachers 2-F, 23-F and 24-M, for example, at the end of the first week, commented that they felt isolated from their colleagues. Teacher 9-F, on the other hand, contrary to her earlier hopes, remarked:

> *They were rather an unfriendly lot to me when I came. I wasn't the only one who felt it. I commiserated with a couple of other newcomers.*
>
> [9-F: Feb]

In the same conversation, 9-F described her experience with the staff on the first day:

> *Teachers' day was a bit of a disappointment. I wasn't really very happy with what happened. We had a staff meeting which was a long waffly, useless sort of thing, which really didn't give me any information. After about an hour and a quarter, the Principal said, "Oh, there are some of you here who don't know many of ther others, so we'd better go round and say our names"* [*laughs*]*, which I thought was a bit late.*
>
> [9-F: Feb]

The other two beginning teachers who initially had different impressions about their colleagues from the majority of the sample were 21-M and 26-F. Both these beginners said they were surprised with their fellow teachers because of the conflicts and divisions which existed amongst them. Indeed, as the year progressed, a number of the Year One teachers reported on the discord amongst some of their colleagues.

5.2 Conflict Amongst Staff

In all, half of the beginning teachers referred to the disillusionment they suffered from coming in contact with intra-staff conflicts, which either involved them personally or as an observer. Five of these teachers expressed disappointment with what they saw as "back-stabbing" or "back-biting" being carried out by some of their colleagues. For example, 18-F said:

> *I get on really well with some of the staff, but the others are back-stabbers. They probably back-stab about me, but I just don't know.*
>
> [18-F: June]

In more detail, 4-F cited a similar instance of staff antagonism:

> *I've been upset over the back-biting that's been going on in the staffroom. Even at our area meetings there has been back-biting with Jane and Marg not hitting it off. Marg is a very formal teacher and Jane is a very creative teacher. One believes in competition in kids' work and the other doesn't. They've started at each other in area meetings. In the staffroom lately, when one hasn't been in there, there's sort of a growing gossip session, and I really hate that. It makes me sick because I think anything personal shouldn't come into it.*
>
> [4-F: April]

Other elements of conflict directly involving some of the Year One teachers and their colleagues were also recorded. Differences in

opinion on planning and teaching style, and in attitudes, seemed to be at the origin of several incidents. Illustrative of this is a diary account from 30-F in which her attitude in a particular situation was called into question by her colleagues:

> *The dress-up clothes are being used by many of the children at lunch time. One of the boys has always been obsessed with dressing up as a woman since he began school. He always plays with the girls. The other teachers are concerned that I am encouraging him to do this by permitting the clothes to be worn by all. I'm not sure whether it's a bad thing. Maybe he needs to live it out. So what anyway! We had a big discussion about how far teachers can and should interfere, and they thought I was doing the wrong thing.*
>
> [30-F: *Feb]

Another instance of conflict involved 35-F, who was the only member of the sample to report that she openly confronted her colleagues in a staff meeting. Her reason for doing so was over the fare served at morning tea:

> *All we have for morning tea at the moment is snax and cheese, and more snax and cheese [laughs]. It's bloody terrible!*
>
> [35-F: April]

At the staff meeting, 35-F raised the issue of cheese and biscuits, and whether there should be some variation. However, she was met with opposition:

> *One of the teachers who'd been there for years said, "If you don't like the cheese and crackers, why don't you bring something of your own?" I said, "Why should I bring my own if I'm paying for morning tea!" I felt quite good after that [laughs].*
>
> [35-F: April]

According to 35-F, the matter was not resolved until the following staff meeting, when, with the support of the Principal, her motion to change from cheese and crackers won by a majority of five votes.

In contrast to the staff conflicts and antagonisms that were reported, several of the beginners mentioned that they were helped and given guidance by a fellow teacher who subsequently had a significant influence on them.

5.3 The Significant Colleague

The Senior Teacher, and to a lesser extent the Principal, were two people to whom most of the beginners often referred, both in conversat-

ions and in diary accounts. For seven of the beginners, however, other colleagues also figured prominently. Table 12 presents some summary details about these particular colleagues:

Table 12

Summary Details of the Significant Colleagues

FIRST YEAR TEACHER	SIGNIFICANT COLLEAGUE	POSITION
14-F	Cheryll	An experienced teacher in the next classroom
17-M	Bruce	The STJC at his school
20-F	Julie	A fourth year teacher in the same block
26-F	Joanne	A third year teacher in the next classroom
28-F	Jillian	An experienced teacher in the same section of the school
34-F	Liz	An experienced teacher in the same block
37-F	Carol	The STJC at a nearby school

There were several features common to the relationships between these seven beginning teachers and the significant colleague:

(a) Admiration: the beginners commented on admiring an ability of the significant colleague (e.g., organisation, resourcefulness, teaching style, etc.);

(b) Understanding: the common element here was that the beginners said the significant colleague understood what it was like to be a Year One teacher;

(c) Accessibility: the teachers said they found the particular colleague was often close at hand and was always approachable; and,

(e) Confidant: the beginners said they were able to confide in the significant colleague.

Although these elements were present in each relationship, there were differences in the degree to which the factors were evident. Indeed, these differences seemed to dictate the uniqueness of the various relation-

ships and their outcomes. Teacher 34-F, for instance, said that, although she greatly admired her significant colleague, she felt uneasy teaching with her in an open plan unit:

> *I am a bit hesitant about open plan teaching. I like it and I'm enjoying what I'm doing. Sometimes, you just can't do what you want to do. Plus, being a first year teacher I feel a bit inexperienced. I really like Liz and I get on very well with her as a person, but sometimes I just wish this was my class and what I say would go.*
>
> [34-F: Feb]

Like 34-F, teacher 20-F also taught in an open plan unit. In this case, 20-F appreciated the depth of understanding shown by her significant colleague, Julie:

> *It really wasn't much fun early in the year. I can understand people wanting to pack it in. I think I was lucky in that Julie said she really felt for me. She talked to me and encouraged me. I suppose I was fortunate in that she was so understanding.*
>
> [20-F: Sept]

For 14-F, 17-M, 26-F and 28-F, the significant colleague was more influential in providing support and assistance with planning and organisation. Of these, 17-M's colleague, Bruce, perhaps provided the strongest role model:

> *I've found he's been a tremendous help to me, because he's spent literally hours in my classroom helping with my language programme. I've got to know him really well, and I respect him as a teacher.*
>
> [17-M: June]

Probably the most intriguing of the colleague relationships which developed was that between 37-F and Carol, an STJC at a nearby school. Interestingly, 37-F's own STJC and Senior Teacher was the significant colleague for the other year one teacher at her school, 17-M. Teacher 37-F's relationship with Carol initially grew from a mutual interest in the Maori programme operating in their respective schools. Later, the relationship developed because of 37-F's dissatisfaction with her own Senior Teacher and her significant colleague's professional dislike of him. This was clarified in a conversation between 37-F and the researcher in April:

> *Carol has influenced me a lot over this term. She's really given me a lot of inspiration. I really didn't like the help I was getting from Bruce [the Senior Teacher]. He used to come in and snoop around too much.*
>
> *Int: What sort of help has Carol given you?*

> *Well, she has helped me with the teaching of Maori in my class because she runs a Maori programme. When I told her about the type of help I was getting from Bruce, she said, "No, I don't like him. I've got no results from him." She doesn't like a lot of his philosophies because he's really into these new ways of teaching reading, maths and social studies.*
>
> [37-F: April]

Apart from the relationships each of these seven beginners developed with a significant colleague, most of the Year One teachers in the sample recounted experiences they had had through acquaintances with fellow teachers.

5.4 Impressions from Associating with Colleagues

Many of the beginners recorded in their dairy, or talked with the researcher about, memorable events or incidents involving themselves and their colleagues. Fourteen of the teachers, for instance, mentioned staff functions or trips to the tavern as being notable occasions. For 37-F this was of particular significance, because for her twenty-first birthday the staff arranged a social function for her at the local hotel. During this function, 37-F commented to the researcher that her colleagues "were different people in a relaxed atmosphere."

Dissatisfaction with the level of professionalism they encountered during their first year of teaching was remarked upon by eight of the beginners, one of whom was 33-F. She recounted an incident, which to her proved disturbing:

> *After yesterday, I don't want to have any affiliation with the teaching profession. We had an inservice course at school, which didn't really involve me. Anyway, I was wearing Charlie Browns [sneakers] and a faded pair of cords. I got these most amazing looks from the teachers who were attending this course. I felt like a leper [laughs]. Those are the kind of people you come up against in the teaching profession and I don't want to know them.*
>
> [33-F: May]

Occasions for meeting teachers from outside their school were also mentioned by some of the beginners. In particular, the seven teachers who were visited by Advisers from the local Education Board generally praised the contact they had with these people. Teacher 20-F, however, remarked that the visit she had from an Adviser added to her overall feeling of incompetence:

> *Reading Adviser came today. Depressed me. I seem to be doing everything you shouldn't - 10 comprehension questions, etc.*
>
> [20-F: *March]

Finally, five of the beginners also noted that their association with colleagues during the year produced incidents of humour which would be remembered. One of these beginners was 36-F, who recalled travelling to school with a colleague:

> *One particular morning I went to school with Penny [a colleague], and there was this little boy being silly on the side of the road, and Penny stopped the car, got out and told him off [laughs]. That's the limit. When I start doing that, I'll know it's time to give up [laughs]. She screamed at this little kid and he took off down the road with his mate. Penny said that he and his mate were trying to get this cat they had run over [laughs], so they could see what happened when it got squished [laughs].*

Summary

Meeting Colleagues, the first property of this category, provided data on the expectations held by a number of the beginners of their colleagues. Details were also given of the beginners' initial reactions to their fellow teachers.

Conflict Amongst Staff was the second property, and here supporting data was presented on the intra-staff conflicts which some of the first year teachers were involved in or observed. This was followed by the third property, which gave an insight into the relationships which developed between seven of the beginners and one of their fellow teachers who was regarded as being a significant colleague. *Impressions from Associating with Colleagues*, the final property, highlighted some of the incidents and occasions involving their colleagues which the beginners regarded as memorable.

The propositions listed in Table 13 were derived from these four properties of the category, *Associating with Colleagues.*

Discussion

5.1 Meeting Colleagues and 5.2 Conflict Amongst Staff

Although scant attention has been given in research to the interaction between beginning teachers and their colleagues, reference can

Table 13

Propositions on *Associating with Colleagues*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS		LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY
5.1 Meeting Colleagues	5.1.1	First year teachers have differing expectations of their colleagues.	Medium
	5.1.2	Prior to the commencement of the school year, first year teachers have not met the colleagues they will have during the first year of teaching.	High
	5.1.3	First year teachers initially react to their colleagues in positive terms, e.g., "They're friendly".	High
5.2 Conflict Amongst Staff	5.2.1	First year teachers are disillusioned by intra-staff conflicts.	Medium
5.3 The Significant Colleague	5.3.1	First year teachers are significantly influenced by a colleague, other than the Principal or Senior Teacher.	Low
5.4 Impressions from Associating with Colleagues	*First year teachers ...*		
	5.4.1	Remember staff functions as memorable occasions.	Medium
	5.4.2	Are dissatisfied with the level of professionalism they encounter during their first year of teaching.	Low
	5.4.3	Praise the contact they have with the Advisers from the Education Board.	Low

be made to the work of Hannam and his associates (1976), and that of Henson (1977), in the context of the property on *Meeting Colleagues*. The three propositions of this property hypothesize about the expectations first year teachers have of their colleagues, and about beginners' initial reactions to, and interactions with, their fellow teachers. While it is suggested that Year One teachers have differing expectations of their colleagues (see proposition 5.1.1), the claim of Hannam *et al* that beginners expect their colleagues to be "superhumanly competent" was not supported by the data. Moreover, there was little evidence to back up Henson's assertion that "immaturity, naivete and dependence" are the characteristics beginners expect their colleagues to see exhibited by first year teachers.

At a more pragmatic level, the lack of contact between first year teachers and their colleagues prior to the start of the school year (see proposition 5.1.2) may initially deter beginners from consulting with, and drawing upon the expertise of, their fellow teachers. While most of the Year One teachers in the present study reacted positively to their colleagues (see proposition 5.1.3), the situation did exist where some of the beginners initially felt isolated from their staff. This may have been overcome if these beginning teachers had met some of their colleagues

before the first day of teaching.

On the issue of first year teachers' experiences with intra-staff conflict (property 5.2), the works of Ryan (1970, p.109) and Hannam *et al* (1976, p.165) provide evidence which lends some support to the proposition that beginners are disillusioned by staff conflict, which involves them personally or as an observer. Here, too, the early research of Rudd and Wiseman (1962) can be cited. From their survey of 600 newly trained teachers in Britain, Rudd and Wiseman found that poor relationships and conflicts amongst staff was a cause of dissatisfaction to beginning teachers.

5.3 The Significant Colleague

The role of some colleagues, particularly the Senior Teacher and the Principal, in the process of a beginning teacher's socialisation has been well documented (see, Hoy, 1969; Edgar and Warren, 1969; Jackson, 1974; Lortie, 1975; Raggett, 1975). However, it is unclear from these studies as to the importance of other colleagues as socialising agents. Hoy (1969) and Jackson (1974), for instance, refer to the key role played by the "experienced teacher" without elaborating further. Waller (1932), too, is vague when he suggests that,

> *The significant people for a school teacher are other teachers [and that] a landmark in one's assimilation to the profession is that moment when he decides that only teachers are important.*
>
> *(Waller, 1932, p.389)*

The supporting data on this property indicates that some beginners may be significantly influenced by a colleague, other than the Senior Teacher or Principal (see proposition 5.3.1). Furthermore, as is evident in Table 12, most of the significant colleagues of the Year One teachers in the present study were "experienced teachers". However, it is clear from the data that the majority of beginning teachers made few references to the prominent influences of fellow teachers. In view of this, it does seem, contrary to Waller's view, that the "significant people" for beginning teachers may not necessarily be their colleagues.

5.4 Impressions from Associating with Colleagues

The first proposition of this property hypothesizes that first year teachers remember staff functions as memorable occasions (see proposition 5.4.1). The significance of this proposition, which is given

little recognition in the literature and research on beginning teachers, lies in the fact that interaction between first year teachers and their colleagues may not be confined to the daily contact they have at school. Indeed, as the supporting data on this proposition indicates, a number of the Year One teachers in the present study attended staff functions and outings with fellow teachers.

The second proposition suggests that some beginners are dissatisfied with the level of professionalism they encounter during their first year of teaching (see proposition 5.4.2). This, however, contradicts Davenport's (1971) study of beginning teachers in Auckland, which reported that a high level of satisfaction with professional relationships in schools existed amongst his sample of teachers. This particular finding of Davenport does appear suspect, in that it may have been contaminated by the nature of his survey, which attempted to "avoid matters that were political" and sought comments that were "positive" and not destructive or contentious.

The last proposition of this category, relating to the contact between beginners and Advisers from the Education Board (see proposition 5.4.3), finds agreement with the outcomes of Sealey's (1966) study in England, and more recently with the findings from Ennis' (1972) New Zealand research, where he remarks that more than half his sample of beginning teachers found the help Advisers gave to be of substantial benefit.

Overview

This fifth category of the grounded theory, comprising four properties, gave rise to eight propositions relating to the interactions and relationships between first year teachers and their colleagues. In the section which follows, the supporting data on *Inspectorial Visits* is presented and then discussed in the context of the relevant research and literature.

PART SIX

INSPECTORIAL VISITS

6.1 Visits from Inspectors

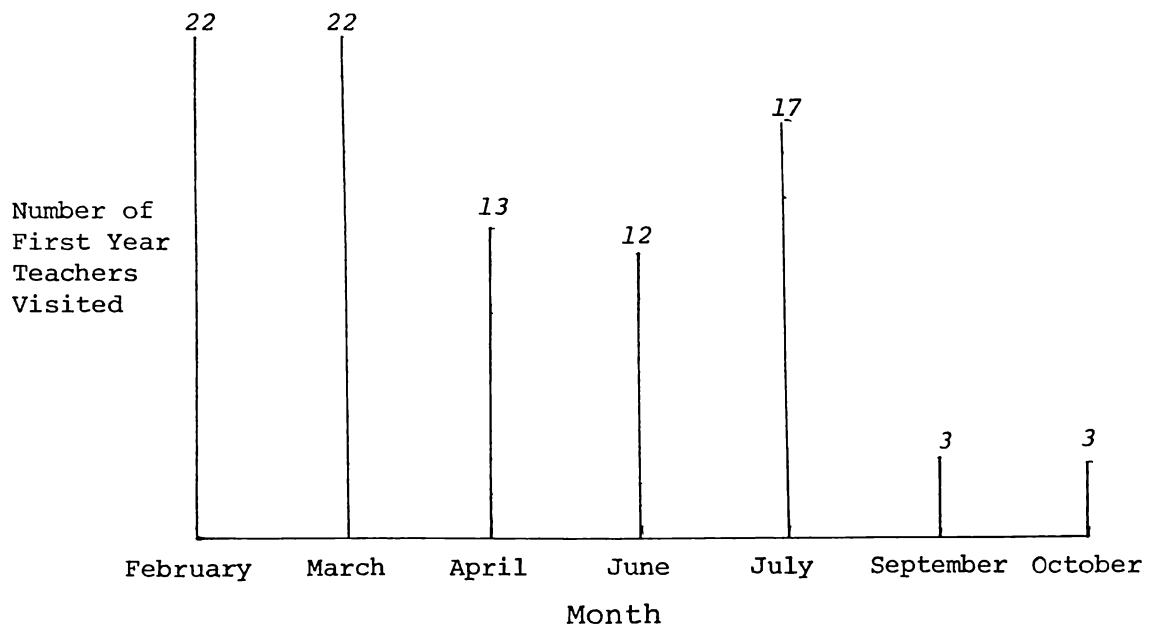
One topic which was not raised by any of the Year One teachers

in conversation with the researcher during their final weeks of teachers training, or over the holiday period, was that of inspectorial visits. Yet, during their first year of teaching, all the beginners were visited by an Inspector, most on more than one occasion. Throughout the year, details were recorded of these visits (e.g., length of visit; helpfulness of the Inspector), and this information was able to be cross-checked with the results of the questionnaire on Inspectors completed by the beginners as the inservice course they attended in October.[24]

Just over half the Year One teachers in the sample received an informal, introductory visit from their Inspector in February. This was followed by a formal inspection mid-way through the first term, and again in the second term, for most of the beginning teachers. Because of an unsatisfactory second inspection, three beginners were required to have a third inspection, and this took place in October. In more detail, Table 14 shows the number of beginners in the sample who were visited by an Inspector in the months February through to October 1979:

Table 14

The Occurrence of Inspectorial Visits



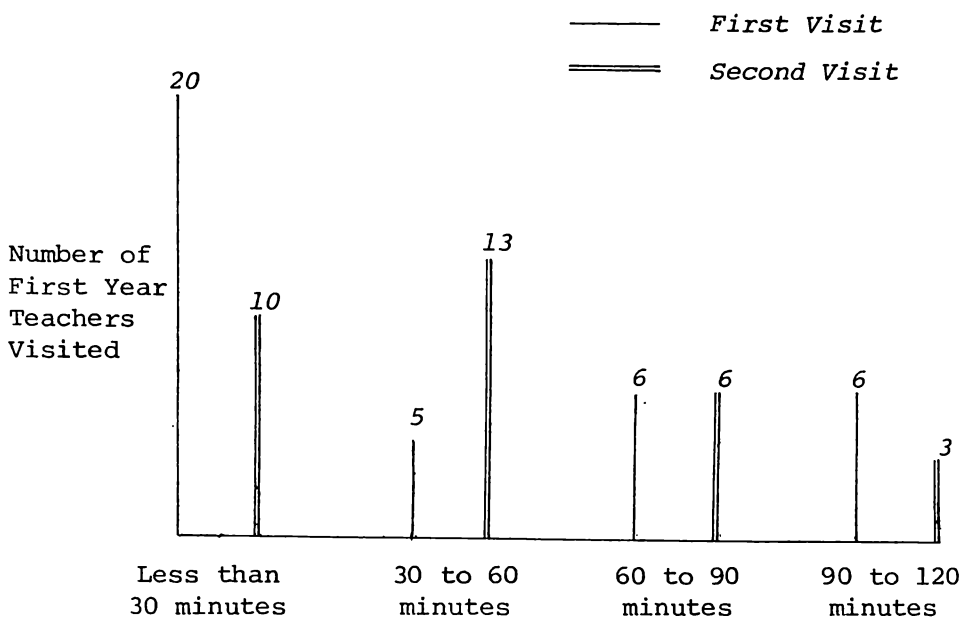
Acting on a request from the researcher, the beginners noted in their diary, after each formal visit, how long the Inspector had been

[24] The results of this questionnaire are given in Appendix G.

with them, and the degree of his helpfulness. From Table 15, which shows a comparison of time (in minutes) the Inspectors spent with the Year One teachers during the two, formal inspections, it can be seen that the majority of visits was less than an hour in duration.

Table 15

The Duration of Formal Inspectorial Visits



In commenting on the helpfulness of the Inspector, about half of the beginners indicated that, on each of the two major visits, the Inspector was of some help, while approximately the same number of teachers said that he was of little or no help on both occasions. This same degree of ambivalence was reflected in the questionnaire responses relating to the helpfulness of the Inspector (see Appendix G, Table 7c).

The above details give an over-view of the frequency and helpfulness to the beginners of inspectorial visits, and provide a backdrop to the supporting data on the second and third properties of this category.

6.2 The Introductory and First Visit

An introductory visit from the Inspector was received by about half the Year One teachers in the sample, and took place during the first three weeks of the school year. Teacher 22-M described what was a typical

routine followed by the Inspector on this occasion:

> *He [the Inspector] came in on Thursday. He just popped in, said, "Hello", introduced himself, and walked out again. That was it.*
>
> [22-M: Feb]

The brevity of this initial contact prompted 3-F to make the following entry in her diary:

> *Inspector's visit - 30 secs! Very impersonal - ring if anything you want.*
>
> [3-F:*Feb]

Most of the beginners who had an introductory visit remarked to the researcher, or recorded in their diary, that the Inspector appeared to be either "friendly" or "helpful".

The first formal inspection for all of the beginning teachers occurred during the period from late February to the end of April. Although a letter stating the date of this visit was usually sent to the Principal, the means by which the beginners were informed of an impending visit often varied. For some, the letter from the Inspector was placed on the staff notice board, while other beginners were told by the Principal or the Senior Teacher of a forthcoming visit. In the case of 9-F, this verbal reminder from her Principal was somewhat disquieting for her:

> *I was a little bit annoyed when the notice came to the school. The Headmaster actually put it over the loud speaker system and it went right around the whole school saying, "9-F, please note that a notice has arrived. Inspectors will be visiting you on the first of March." My kids all listened and said, "Oh, the Inspector's coming" [laughs]. I think I might have preferred it if he had quietly told me.*
>
> [9-F: Feb]

Teacher 35-F, on the other hand, learned of her inspection from another source:

> *They don't tell us much. You just expect them when when they arrive. It was quite funny, because the caretaker came in and said, "Aw, you're getting a visitor." It was the Inspector!*
>
> [35-F: March]

The procedure for this first inspection varied, as too did the time the Inspectors talked with, and observed, each of the beginning teachers. Teacher 8-M, who had his first formal inspection in late February, remarked on his experience:

> *He [the Inspector] was a hard case really. He's quite good mates with the Headmaster. He was here till twelve o'clock and he spent most of the time just talking to the Headmaster. He knew one of the other teacher's sisters, so he talked with her for about an hour. All it amounted to was that he walked through the classroom, and I was on my way out to swimming, you see, so he just came out and watched me take the swimming and that was it [laughs]. I spent all the night before doing my work plans and he didn't even open my folder [laughs].*
>
> [8-M: Feb]

Where there were two first year teachers at the one school, the Inspector sometimes wandered between their classrooms, as 10-F described:

> *He was sort of in and out of here like a yo yo. One minute I'd look up and he was here, and the next minute he'd be off over to 16-F's classroom.*
>
> [10-F: March]

Alternatively, as with 14-F, the Inspector would stay in the classroom and observe a whole lesson:

> *He came from interval to lunch time to see language, and then from one till two and saw maths. Everything went well, which was nice.*
>
> [14-F: March]

The reaction of 14-F to her first formal visit was not unlike that of the majority of first year teachers in the sample who commented on the success of this first inspection.

Although most of the beginners said they were pleased with the outcome of their inspection, two teachers expressed some disappointment. For 1-M, who entered a lengthy diary account on his Inspector's visit, this was due to the fact that the Inspector came into his classroom during the break for a lesson change-over, and at that particular time 1-M was experiencing a problem controlling some of his pupils. The other teacher, 4-F, found the outcome of her Inspector's visit to be unexpected. In an evening telephone conversation with the researcher on the day she had her inspection, 4-F talked about the series of events that led her to be disappointed about the visit.

Of all the beginning teachers in the present study, it was 4-F who devoted the most time, especially early in the year, to preparing the classroom for her children. In a conversation with the researcher a week before school started, 4-F described some of the activities she had carried out at her own expense:

> *I spent all Thursday just painting. I painted all the pinex and used some wallpaper to make a border around it. I cleaned all my cupboards out. I've revarnished doors and cupboards and I've named them all in big letters what they contain. I went around all the Government Departments and I got oodles of posters from the ones that were open. I went into Camera House and they gave me a big box of photos.*
>
> [4-F: Jan]

Then, when her Inspector visited three months later, his first comment to 4-F was a criticism of her classroom environment:

> *The first thing he said to me when he arrived was, "Your room is very interesting, but it looks like the kids haven't done a lot of it.*
>
> [4-F: April]

According to 4-F, the Inspector had gained the wrong impression from what he saw:

> *Now I did have quite a lot of charts that I had written either with the kids or they had filled in, but I had their individual work or their group work around it. But, it didn't look as impressive as a couple of weeks ago when they had cardboard models and things hanging up and that.*
>
> [4-F: April]

However, 4-F said what was more disturbing to her was the report the Inspector wrote, particularly the following section:

> *I would hope that they [the children] spend much more time developing the displays themselves. More of this type of activity for the boys especially would take care of their restlessness. Boys are sensitive to their own shortcomings. Make sure that the work they do is work they can do without many frustrations. Boys are totally ego-centric, sensitive about themselves, yet independent. They need to be active in their learning and to be able to readily see a result. You may need to be with them more, discuss their work with them, praise them and show a real interest in their small accomplishments. Try not to speak too loudly or to single them out. Keep your voice low and soft.*
>
> [4-F's Inspector's Report: April]

With regard to the boys in her class, 4-F said that, not only did she have a good relationship with them, but they worked diligently and caused her no problems. She did realise that her voice was loud:

> *Now, I know when anyone else is in the room, my voice level immediately goes up and I damn well know know when somebody has been in my room because my voice feels so strained. Normally, I'm fine, but I just get so uptight. I can imagine that my voice was probably loud.*
>
> [4-F: April]

When she came home from school after the inspection, 4-F said that her only reaction was to think:

> *"What the hell is the use of putting in so much work and, you know, it's not sort of being seen? What's the bloody use? What the hell is the point of working and doing a job and putting everything into it, and then sort of being told you're a failure?"*
>
> [4-F: April]

Two weeks later in the end-of-term interview, she summed up her overall feeling about the Inspector's visit:

> *I think had my Inspector's visit gone better, I would have been on a high for the whole term. Because of his visit, I found I suddenly really changed, you know. I sort of expected the Inspector's visit to take me even higher, to make me really sure that everything was fine, and it didn't, you know. It just shattered me, I think. I didn't expect anything like that to happen.*
>
> [4-F: May]

While almost all the beginners in the present study reported little difficulty with their first, formal inspection, 4-F's account of her experiences presents a contrast, and demonstrates how one beginner reacted to the feedback she received from her Inspector. During the second school term, 4-F, along with most of the Year One teachers in the sample, received a second visit from their Inspector.

6.3 The Second Visit

The second visit for most of the beginners took place in June and July of 1979, although three teachers (5-F, 31-M and 34-F) did not see their Inspector for the second time until September, and two others (11-F and 37-F) did not receive a second, formal inspection.

As with the first inspection, some beginners were observed for a whole lesson, while others were seen intermittently during some period of the day, and, as had occurred previously, all the teachers received written comments and verbal feedback from their Inspector. On this occasion, because of an unsatisfactory report, three beginners (1-M, 10-F and 28-F) were told by their Inspector that they would receive a third visit, while a further three teachers (20-F, 33-F and 36-F) said they were unsure as to whether their Inspector would visit again. The remainder of the teachers in the sample were told by the Inspector that they would not have a third visit, and most of these beginners took this to mean that they would receive their teachers certificate in due course.

Evident in the lead-up to the second visit, and noticeable to an extent in the first visit, was the use of strategies by the beginners to impress the Inspector. Although only 12 of the teachers specifically commented on the necessity, or otherwise, of using impression strategies, it became apparent from casual observations of the beginners' classroom environments, and from an analysis of the field data and diary accounts, that most were aware of, and indeed used, "window dressing" tactics for their second inspection. Teacher 4-F, for example, was one beginner who said she initially conformed to the view that window dressing was not necessary. However, she explained that as an outcome of her first inspection she had changed her stance:

> *I thought, "Right, this time I'm going to set out to impress him [the Inspector]. I prepared a drama lesson. I had recorded sound effects on this tape recorder, and I had transparencies on the overhead which I used as motivation. He praised it up as high as he could.*
>
> [4-F: June]

Teacher 4-F was also one of a group of seven beginners who made specific reference to the trepediation they experienced because of inspections. The majority of the teachers, however, claimed that inspectorial visits did not worry them, although most of them remarked that they indulged in some form of window dressing activity for the Inspector, such as tidying up the classroom and putting folders and workplans in order.

By far the most noticeable examples where strategies were used to impress the Inspector were those cited by the three teachers (1-M, 10-F and 28-F) who were required to have a third inspection, because of an unsatisfactory report from the previous visit. In each case the cause of concern to the Inspector was control and discipline, and this was recognised by the Year One teachers concerned:

> *I had an Inspector's visit - a shitty visit. The main thing was my control problems.*
>
> [1-M: *July]

> *My second visit was traumatic. Everything was against it, including the weather. Coming on top of my control problems, it was the last straw!*
>
> [10-F: *June]

> *Inspector's visit - couldn't contol a damn kid! It was just one of those days.*
>
> [28-F: *June]

Various tactics to overcome their difficulties were adopted by

each of these beginners in preparation for their third, and indeed vital inspection.[25] For instance, 10-F commented that she came to the realisation that "everybody window dresses for the Inspector", and that, "they'd be down right liars if they said otherwise." Teacher 1-M, on the other hand, said that he had gained an appreciation of his Inspector's expectations, and would take appropriate measures. He elaborated on this in a questionnaire response:

> *Ist visit - did not tell children he [the Inspector] was coming nor planned anything unusual or different, and in fact carried on with group project work, which proved disastrous. 2nd visit, children knew he was coming, why, and my expectations of behaviour, movement, etc.. Visit better. Guess what I will do for the third visit? I believe my Inspector to be completely honest and fair, but he still has expectations of teachers and pupil behaviour.*
>
> [1-M: Questionnaire]

And lastly, 28-F remarked that the bad report she received for the second inspection was because she did not "play the game". Moreover, for her third visit, 28-F said that she would act as though she was the kind of teacher the Inspector wanted her to be. She continued:

> *They're [Inspectors] only looking for one kind of teacher, aren't they? They're only looking for a successful teacher in one kind of respect. From what I gather, my ideas are just about so far off the beam from what they are on about. The fact that I think children should learn at their own pace and never be forced to learn is just irrelevant to them. "You've got these kids and this is what you've got to teach them. If they don't learn it, either you're a terrible teacher or the kids are dumb." That's the impression I get. As far as I'm concerned the Inspectors are perpetuating the whole thing.*
>
> [28-F: Sept]

During October 1979, 1-M, 10-F and 28-F were visited by the Inspector, and subsequently received a successful report from him. Along with the other teachers in the sample, these beginners were awarded their teaching certificate at an official ceremony several weeks before the end of the school year.

Summary

Inspectorial Visits, the sixth category of the grounded theory, consisted of three properties of data. The first of these provided an overview of the visits the Year One teachers received from their Inspector,

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[25] These three beginning teachers were aware that the Inspector had the option of recommending that a further probationary be served by them.

including information on the frequency, and helpfulness to the beginners, of the visits.

In the second property, the supporting data relating to *The Introductory and First Visit* was presented, along with 4-F's account of the outcome of her first inspection. The final property of this category focussed on the second, formal inspection of the first year teachers, and highlighted the use of impression strategies by the beginners and in particular by the three teachers who were required to have a third inspectorial visit.

From these three properties, the propositions listed in the Table below were formulated.

Table 16

Propositions on *Inspectorial Visits*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS	LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY
6.1 Visits from Inspectors	*First year teachers ...*	
	6.1.1 Receive an informal, introductory visit from an Inspector during the first three weeks of the school year.	Medium
	6.1.2 Receive their first, formal inspection during term one, and their second inspection during term two of the school year.	High
	6.1.3 Receive inspections which are less than an hour in duration.	High
	6.1.4 Find inspectorial visits of some help.	Medium
	6.1.5 Find inspectorial visits of no help.	Medium
6.2 The Introductory and First Visit	*First year teachers ...*	
	6.2.1 Who receive an introductory visit from an Inspector find him/her to be helpful or friendly.	Medium
	6.2.2 Express satisfaction with the outcome of their first inspection.	High
6.3 The Second Visit	*First year teachers ...*	
	6.3.1 Are certificated after having received two inspectorial visits.	High
	6.3.2 Are aware of, and use, strategies (e.g., tidying the classroom) to impress the Inspector.	High
	6.3.3 Are worried by inspections.	Low
	6.3.4 Are not worried by inspections.	High

Discussion

6.1 Visits from Inspectors and 6.2 The Introductory and First Visit

The current system operating in New Zealand primary schools where an Inspector visits first year teachers, and is responsible for recommending their certification, has few counterparts in overseas countries.

It therefore is not surprising to find a paucity of research and literature on the interaction between Inspectors and first year teachers. Indeed, even the New Zealand studies of beginning teachers (e.g., Davenport, 1971; Ennis, 1972; Ussher, 1975; Doyle, 1977; Murdoch, 1977), as well as recent reports of inquiries into teacher training (Department of Education, 1979) and the registration of teachers (Department of Education, 1978), make little direct reference to the contact Inspectors have (or are supposed to have) with beginning teachers. The supporting data on this category, then, provides some insight into the interaction between the sample of teachers in the present study and Inspectors. In more detail, the propositions derived from the first two properties of this category hypothesize that, while some beginners are visited informally by an Inspector early in the school year (see propositions 6.1.1 and 6.2.1), most first year teachers receive two, formal inspections, each of which is less than an hour in duration (see propositions 6.1.2, 6.1.3 and 6.2.2). Although there appears to be some ambivalence on the part of beginners as to the helpfulness of inspectorial visits (see propositions 6.1.4 and 6.1.5), proposition 6.1.5 finds support with Ennis' (1972) research in which he reports that the majority of the 78 Year One teachers in his study did not consider the Inspector to be helpful.

6.3 The Second Visit

The frequency with which Year One teachers receive inspectorial visits, and the outcomes of these visits, has virtually gone unreported in New Zealand studies of beginning teachers, although Ennis notes that two teachers in his sample signified that they did not have a visit from an Inspector. In the present study, most of the Year One teachers were certificated after having received two, formal inspections (see proposition 6.3.1).

In the lead-up to these two visits, there was evidence to suggest the proposition that first year teachers use, and are aware of, strategies (e.g., having workplans in order) to impress the Inspector (see proposition 6.3.2). Use of impression management techniques (Goffman, 1956) by beginning teachers has been documented by Rhodes and Peckham (1960), and more recently by Lacey (1977) and Battersby and Koh (1980). The latter researchers focus in detail on the notion of impression management and draw upon data from Battersby's (1976b) study of first year teachers in Australia to illustrate that beginning teachers, who are being assessed or inspected, are deft not only at the art of divining what is expected of them, but also of fulfilling these expectations in order

to meet the appropriate requirements. The credibility of this generalisation is strengthened in the light of the supporting data for proposition 6.3.2, particularly that relating to the third inspectorial visit received by teachers 1-M, 10-F and 28-F.

The last two propositions of this property hypothesize that, while some beginners are uneasy about inspections, most first year teachers are not worried by them (see propositions 6.3.3 and 6.3.4). This situation, however, contrasts with the views of Rhodes and Peckham (1960) and Southwell (1970) who comment on the stress and fear experienced by most first year teachers being inspected. Interestingly, while Morrison and McIntyre (1973, p.105) caution that "virtually nothing is known about the influence which Inspectors have on the behaviour of teachers", they themselves are prepared to speculate, without evidence, that few teachers witness the approach of an inspectorial visit without showing anxiety.

Overview

From the three properties of this category on *Inspectorial Visits*, 11 propositions were derived, six with a high level of generalisability. In the discussion on this category, reference was made to the significance of these propositions in view of the paucity of research and literature on the interaction between beginning teachers and Inspectors.

The supporting data on the final category, *Management and Organisation Patterns*, is presented in the next section, and this is followed by a summary statement of the grounded theory.

PART SEVEN

MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATION PATTERNS

7.1 Initial Expectations

Prior to the start of the school year, about half of the beginning teachers in the sample had made brief, passing references to management and organisation routines they expected to carry out, or have imposed on them, during the first year of teaching. Some of these teachers, for instance, said they anticipated difficulties in organising their pupils into groups, and in establishing classroom practices. Several of the beginners also commented that they thought they would be expected to have well-planned lessons and activities ready for the children; while,

others, such as 27-M, spoke in general terms about what they foresaw as their organisational routine:

> *I'm expecting to have myself and the kids fairly well organised at the start. You know, the worst thing you can do is to walk into a class and not be organised. Then, you're in trouble.*
>
> [27-M: Nov 1978]

As well, some of these teachers talked about an expected change in life style with having to organise themselves to adapt to the regular routine of going to school. Teacher 25-F, for instance, said:

> *College life is free and easy. You can come and go when you like and nobody really cares [laughs]. But, school is different, you know. You have to be there at set times, or else. That's going to take a bit of getting used to, I think.*
>
> [25-F: Dec 1978]

Teacher 3-F elaborated on this change in life style, and her view was also shared by 5-F:

> *I'm looking forward to the routine of it all.*
>
> *Int: What do you mean by routine?*
>
> *Well, I've had enough of university where you're sort of your own boss. I want a bit of structure on my life now, and I suppose it will come with a regular nine to three job. I know it will be difficult to start with, but it will be good for me.*
>
> [3-F: Nov 1978]

Although only about half the sample of teachers referred to their expectations about management and organisation procedures for their first year of teaching, this was not indicative of the emphasis they placed on the issue of management and organisation in conversations with the researcher, and in diary accounts, during the initial months of the 1979 school year.

7.2 Self-imposed Routines

One prominent theme to emerge from the field data and diary accounts during the first term was that of time, both in regard to the amount of time the beginners actually spent at school, and the time taken up with planning and preparation.

By the end of the first month of teaching, all the beginners had established fairly regular arrival and departure times to and from school. Most of them said they arrived at school between eight and

eight-thirty each morning, and would leave before four o'clock in the afternoon. Although this arrival and departure pattern continued throughout the year for the majority of the Year One teachers, there were some notable exceptions. Teacher 37-F cited the case of her colleague, 17-M:

> *Yesterday I rang his wife at about half past seven, to see if he wanted a ride because it was raining. She said, "Aw, he went at about half past six." He's been doing that quite a lot. I don't know whether it's good for him.*
>
> [37-F: March]

In justifying his reason for being at school so early, 17-M said:

> *Although I usually get here at about half past six, I'm not here because I like being here that early. There's just so much work to do.*
>
> [17-M: March]

Another beginner who regularly arrived at school before seven thirty each morning was 15-F, who explained that she found it impossible to stay behind at school to work in the afternoon because she was often fatigued by that time. In contrast, 4-F was one of three teachers who frequently remained at school until five o'clock each afternoon. In this case, 4-F said she had to stay late because she felt guilty doing school work at home when her husband was there. The other two teachers, 12-F and 25-F, found it necessary to remain behind at school because of transport arrangements.

The most common use of beginners' time, both before and after school, was that for planning and preparation, and this was particularly the case during the first two months of the year. Conversations with the Year One teachers during this period, as well as diary entries, revealed a wide range of comments concerning reactions to their planning and preparation commitments. The remarks varied from 6-F's observation that she had not realised there was so much to do, to 18-F's comment that planning was taking less time than expected, through to 5-F's statement that the time she spent on planning was as anticipated. Despite this variation, one common reaction, from almost two-thirds of the beginning teachers during the first month, was that planning involved a time commitment outside the hours spent at school. In this respect, 13-F's remark was typical:

> *I have to spend a lot of time outside of school hours planning. At least several hours on the weekend are spent on planning and preparation.*
>
> [13-M: Feb]

This commitment of time to planning led three of the beginners

to consider, in conversation with the researcher, whether it was a futile exercise. Teacher 2-F expanded on this sentiment:

> *Planning is a bit of a nuisance, especially if you take a lesson and plan it afterwards [laughs]. You have to have the stuff in your folder just for the record. That seems a bit of a waste of time sometimes.*
>
> [2-F: April]

Another four teachers in the sample expressed resentment that teachers college had required them to write full and comprehensive lesson plans during practice teaching sessions. The time-consuming effect of this habit was explained by 20-F:

> *At the moment my lesson plans are written the only way I know how - the way we used to do them at college. You know, "Lesson one, objective one, key questions." Sometimes I spend an hour and a half preparing for a maths lesson and then find that when maths comes I have to do something else. Lately, I've just been fed up with the whole thing. I suppose I'm just tired and exhausted.*
>
> [20-F: Feb]

This feeling of tiredness and exhaustion was remarked upon by all the beginners throughout the initial weeks of the first term, and to a lesser extent at the beginning of the second and third school terms. Most of the first year teachers attributed this feeling to a combination of activities: setting up routines, organising groups for reading, collecting stationery money, coping with planning, meeting colleagues, and making adjustments to home life. Nowhere was evidence of the intensity and effect of these demands more obvious than in diary accounts. The abridged diary entries below were typical examples:

> *Jan 30:* *Lots to organise! Stationery sorting out took a lot of time. They didn't tell us about that at college!*
> *Feb 2:* *Routines and general organisation seem overpowering. Had to sort out timetable.*
> *Feb 5:* *Maths groups, spelling groups, music groups! HELP!*
> *Feb 9:* *I put polycell glue in paint and it went all lumpy and sticky. Disaster!*
> *Feb 14:* *Haven't had time to do any washing at home because of teaching, planning, etc.*
> *Feb 16:* *Am quite tired. Have a bit to plan over the weekend.*
>
> [26-F]

> *Jan 30:* *Very tiring. I talked too much, but until routines are established, it's better to repeat instructions over and over to avoid confusions.*
> *Jan 31:* *I had a whistle today so I didn't lose my voice. Only now realising what teaching REALLY involves.*

Feb 2: *Ah, the weekend!! My legs are dropping off. Can't wait to get back into jandals. Will have to spend weekend at school organising for Monday.*

Feb 6: *Routines slowly becoming established. Sometimes I don't know whether I'm coming or going with all the things I have to do in one day.*

Feb 9: *Getting behind with planning!! Want to start a language and social science unit, but I don't seem to have time to plan.*

Feb 13: *There seems to be 101 things to be done - evaluation of class, read PAT manual (ugh!) reorganise timetable, etc., etc. Choosing priorities is difficult*

Feb 14: *So many things I want to do. Time is all I need!*

[30-F]

After the Easter vacation in mid-April, the tenor of the diary accounts suggested that, not only had the beginners adjusted to the effects of some of the self-imposed routines, such as those associated with the allocation of time on planning and preparation, but that some of the management and organisation demands they experienced earlier in the term (e.g., grouping children; collecting stationery money) had lessened. This was corroborated in conversations with the beginners, and also by several Principals who suggested that the adjustment of Year One teachers followed a predictable pattern. One of these was 29-F's Principal:

> *There seems to be a consensus that Year Ones don't find their feet till Easter. Just about then, and this is a generalisation, they begin to feel the bottom and stand up. Although the winter term is a long drag for them, and the third term can be crippling, they don't experience the kind of difficulties they had before Easter.*
>
> [29-F-P: May]

Although few of the beginners reported having difficulties with self-imposed routines (e.g., planning and preparation) during the second and third school terms, most of them commented frequently throughout the year on their experiences with school-imposed management and organisation routines.

7.3 School-imposed Routines

Early in the school year, more than two-thirds of the first year teachers expressed concern about their rostered duties in the playground and on road patrol, and in particular with the situation that they had to rely on what was learned during practice teaching since no one had

instructed them on how these duties should be performed. The dangers associated with beginners being ill-informed in this respect provoked comment from one Principal:

> *What do they [beginning teachers] do when they find somebody injured in the playground? They don't know what their legal responsibilities are for accidents. You know, you're virtually not allowed to take a splinter out of a kid's foot. You're not allowed to treat a stone bruise. You'd be a fool if you treated an eye. When they're told these things it's quite a shock to some of them. But they're not told at teachers college, that's the trouble!*
>
> [9-F-P: Sept]

At various times throughout the year, 12 of the beginners said they enjoyed being on duty either in the playground or on road patrol, primarily because of the opportunity it afforded them to interact with children in an informal way. At the same time, however, just over half of the teachers in the sample mentioned that, to them, playground and road patrol duty was an irksome task.

Besides rostered duties, other school-imposed routines had an influence on the beginning teachers. In the area of classroom management and organisation, for instance, all the teachers said they were required to adhere to stipulated procedures for such tasks as filling out children's progress reports, completing the class roll of attendance and filing pupils' absentee notes. The effect on the Year One teachers of the imposition of these type of administrative demands was most noticeable when report and progress cards were being updated prior to parent interviews and at the end of each school term. Teacher 6-F was one of 14 beginners who expressed surprise about these demands:

> *I had no idea that there was so much to do. Just doing folders, getting kids' work into folders, doing reports, P and A's [Progress and Achievement Registers] and progress cards has been quite a task.*
>
> [6-F: May]

Another was 38-M:

> *The amount of administrative stuff we have to look after surprised me. It really bugs me now that we have to do all this. We've got kids' records printed in about six different ways on six different things. We've got a P and A Register, we've got an evaluation book and we've got red cards to do. It really gets boring when I have to write out the same material in the same sort of way, six different times.*
>
> [38-M: July]

Despite the apparent burden of these administrative demands for many of the beginning teachers, only eight of them reported that they were given assistance or guidance from colleagues, and in the case of 17-M, the help he was given even seemed inadequate, as he explained:

> *I wasn't sure what to do with my P and A, so I asked the Deputy Principal and he told me that in a P and A you try to get as much into a few words as possible to fool as many as possible [laughs]. He didn't actually show me how to fill it in [laughs].*
> [17-M: June]

Another school-imposed routine the first year teachers adhered to was attendance at staff meetings, and by far the most common reaction of the beginners to these meetings was that they were either "boring" or a "waste of time". An illustration of this is seen in the following comment from one of the first year teachers:

> *At the staff meetings everyone sort of chats all the way through them to their neighbour, you know. The Principal talks away on just about anything. We don't sort of accomplish anything really.*
> [20-F: Sept]

Teacher 32-F even suggested to her colleagues ways in which their staff meetings might be improved. However, her ideas never came to fruition, as she reports:

> *Every Monday we have a staff meeting. At the beginning of the year I said, "Well, I think we should have meetings to discuss various things and also workshops." I brought that up again last week because nothing had happened in the past eleven weeks. I said, "Look, I may be I'm a junior, but others in the school are having the same problems as me." So, they said they were going to have workshops, but I don't think they will.*
> [32-F: April]

Besides attendance at weekly or fortnightly staff meetings, all the teachers were required to attend syndicate or area meetings, and these were usually held every two weeks, and sometimes less frequently. However, for those beginners teaching in open plan schools (10-F, 16-F, 20-F, 21-M and 36-F), the constancy of these meetings was a source of discontent to them, and this was evidenced in diary entries, conversations with the researcher and in their October questionnaire responses. Other than these teachers, the reaction of most of the beginners to syndicate meetings varied. Teacher 24-M, for example, said of his area meetings:

> *On Mondays we have area meetings in the library. I*

> *find a lot of time is wasted through just idle talk about what has happened in previous years, or what certain kids have done. I don't really say much.*
> [24-M: May]

Teacher 9-F expressed a different reaction to her syndicate meetings:

> *One of the things that has bugged me a bit has been our syndicate meetings where I always seem to be the one who has to fit in with everyone else.*
> [9-F: March]

Interestingly, 14-F, who was at the same school as 9-F, remarked:

> *I find that area meetings are helpful, and I get a lot from what the other teachers have to say. Because the STJC doesn't believe in us writing units, she provides us with most of them in the meeting, and we discuss them. This is a big help.*
> [14-F: July]

Like 14-F, teacher 21-M was also handed his units in area meetings. However, by mid-year, he said he was unhappy about this situation, primarily because of the pressure imposed on him by the school scheme:[26]

> *The units given out at syndicate meetings are there as part of the school scheme, and you have to jump right into them without any preparation or enthusiasm, and you have to finish them exactly on time. As a teacher you find that you're chasing your tail, as it were. You don't have time to look ahead and plan, and there's no time for reflection, questions and things like that. I think with a school scheme like ours, you end up with programmed kids.*
> [21-M: June]

In contrast to 21-M, seven of the beginners mentioned that they found their school scheme a help and a guide to planning. About the same number of teachers in the sample also regarded their scheme as an imposition because of its lack of flexibility. A reason for this inflexibility was advanced by several Principals, and couched in terms similar to the following:

> *Before the end of the year, we will have set out, week by week, what's going to happen most of next year. When the staff come here on the first day next year, they're given a folder containing a copy of their long-term plans for the year. Admittedly, some teachers find this type of thing a bit over-powering, but they get used to it.*
> [4-F-P: Oct]

In general terms, then, the school-imposed management and organisation routines the Year One teachers were required to adhere to during the year involved rostered duties, administrative tasks (e.g.,

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[26] This is the planned, school programme for the entire year.

filling out pupils' progress cards), and attendance at various types of meetings. Moreover, amongst a number of the beginners, the imposition of these routines was often cause for pejorative comment.

Summary

Contained in this final category of the grounded theory were three properties, the first of which looked at the expectations the beginning teachers had of the management and organisation routines they expected to carry out, or have imposed on them, during the first year of teaching.

Self-imposed Routines, was the second property of this category, and here data was presented on some of the tasks faced by the beginners, such as planning and preparation and the allocation of their time on school work. The last property on *School-imposed Routines* focussed on the beginning teachers' experiences with rostered duties, administrative tasks and attendance at staff and syndicate meetings.

These three properties of this category on *Management and Organisation Petterns* gave rise to a series of propositions and these are shown in Table 17, on the page following.

Discussion

7.1 Initial Expectations

Classroom organisation and management, excluding the area of pupil control and discipline, has attracted little attention by researchers studying beginning teachers. Indeed, Morrison and McIntyre (1973) suggest that, not only is there a lack of research about teachers' management and organisation activities in general, but that there is a dearth of knowledge about teachers' views of these activities, and their experiences with them. In the light of this deficiency in the research and literature, this property of data provides some insight into the expectations beginners have of the management and organisation routines (e.g., grouping children; planning; adjusting life style) they feel they may carry out, or have imposed on them, during the first year of teaching (see proposition 7.1.1).

In focussing on the first year of teaching, Davenport (1971) claims, on the basis of his survey of beginning teachers in Auckland, that:

The average young teachers' greatest need when faced

Table 17

Propositions on *Management and Organisation Patterns*

PROPERTIES	PROPOSITIONS		LEVEL OF GENERALISABILITY
7.1 Initial Expectations	7.1.1	First year teachers have differing impressions about the management and organisation routines they expect to carry out, or have imposed on them, during the first year of teaching.	Medium
7.2 Self-imposed Routines	*First year teachers ...*		
	7.2.1	Have established regular arrival and departure times to and from school by the end of their first month of teaching.	High
	7.2.2	Use their time before and after school for planning and preparation.	High
	7.2.3	Spend time planning outside their hours at school, during the first month of teaching.	High
	7.2.4	Feel tired and exhausted throughout the initial weeks of the first school term.	High
	7.2.5	Have adjusted to, and find less demanding, some of their self-imposed routines, following the Easter vacation.	High
7.3 School-imposed Routines	*First year teachers ...*		
	7.3.1	Are concerned that they have to rely on what they learned during practice teaching as a guide to how they should perform playground and road patrol duties.	High
	7.3.2	Enjoy playground and road patrol duty.	Medium
	7.3.3	Consider playground and road patrol duty as an irksome task.	Medium
	7.3.4	Are required to adhere to administrative procedures such as filling out children's progress cards and completing class rolls of attendance.	High
	7.3.5	Feel burdened by the administrative demands placed on them.	High
	7.3.6	Are given assistance and guidance from colleagues with administrative demands.	Low
	7.3.7	Are required to attend staff and syndicate meetings.	High
	7.3.8	Consider staff meetings as either boring or a waste of time.	High
	7.3.10	Who teach in open plan schools find the number of meetings they have to attend a source of discontent.	Low
	7.3.11	Find the school scheme as a help and a guide to planning.	Low
	7.3.12	Find the school scheme as an imposition because of its inflexibility.	Low

> *with a class for the first time was the ability to organise himself.*
>
> *(Davenport, 1971, p.358)*

There was evidence in the supporting data on this property that some of the beginners in the present study, like 27-M, were aware of this need and its importance to them. Furthermore, Ennis (1972), another New Zealand researcher, found that difficulties with management and organisation routines were experienced by his sample of 78 beginning teachers. Although Ennis does not report on the expectations held by his sample, the data on this property indicates that some beginners do anticipate

problems and difficulties with management and organisation during their first year of teaching.

7.2 Self-imposed Routines

The fact that most beginning teachers seem to establish regular arrival and departure times to and from school (see proposition 7.2.1), and that they use their time before and after school for preparation and planning (see proposition 7.2.2), is corroborated by Battersby (1976b) and Chafetz (1976), whose data also highlight experiences of beginning teachers with self-imposed routines of management and organisation. Chafetz, for instance, in his study of beginning teachers in New York State, cites the case of one teacher in his sample who, like 17-M in the present investigation, arrived at school before seven o'clock each morning to undertake planning and preparatory work. Both Battersby and Chafetz also provide strong support for the propositions which hypothesize that beginners, particularly during the first month of teaching, spend time outside of school hours on planning and preparation (see proposition 7.2.3), and that beginners feel tired and exhausted throughout the initial weeks of the first school term (see proposition 7.2.4).

This latter proposition concurs with a number of studies, dating from Waller's (1932) observations in the United States and those of Phillips (1932) in Britain, to the recently published work of Ryan (1980). Although the data from the present study indicates that beginners attribute these feelings of tiredness and exhaustion to the combination of a number of factors (e.g., planning; setting up routines; making adjustments to home life), other researchers (e.g., Hopper, 1965; Taylor and Dale, 1973; Styles and Cavanagh, 1977; Coulter, 1978) seem content to speculate, often on the basis of little evidence, that there is a causal relationship between these feelings and single variables such as, beginners' expectations or the suddenness of their break from training college.

The last proposition of this property states that, following the Easter vacation, beginners have adjusted to, and find less demanding, some of their self-imposed routines (see proposition 7.2.5). From research carried out in the 1970's (see, Raggett, 1975; Battersby, 1976a, 1976b, 1978a; Lacey, 1977), there are findings which indicate that beginning teachers may experience a "honeymoon period", lasting from two to three months, when they first enter the teaching profession. It is claimed that during this period, beginners come in contact with the pressures associated with the routines and demands of teaching, as well as the

emotional and physical stresses of a new phase in their life. To an extent, then, the supporting data for this property lends credence to this notion, and more so to the suggestion that the period prior to Easter may be the time when first year teachers are faced with the demands of setting-up, and adjusting to, self-imposed routines both at the classroom and personal level, and that after Easter, these demands are not as great.

7.3 School-imposed Routines

The propositions that emerged from this property of data cover a number of situations, including playground and road patrol duty (see propositions 7.3.1 to 7.3.3), administrative demands (see propositions 7.3.4 to 7.3.6) and attendance at staff and syndicate meetings (see propositions 7.3.7 to 7.3.10). Here, as with the previous sets of propositions on this category, there has generally been little research reported which focusses on these everyday experiences of beginning teachers. However, Morrison and McIntyre (1973) do mention that first year teachers usually have to rely on their own initiative, rather than help from their training college courses or from colleagues, in carrying out management and organisation tasks imposed by the school. In the present study, propositions 7.3.1, relating to beginners performing playground and road patrol duty, and 7.3.6, focussing on the help they are given from colleagues with administrative demands, lend support to this contention.

Ennis' (1972) research also makes brief reference to two issues conveyed in this property's propositions: staff meetings and the school scheme. Ennis reports that, while his sample of beginning teachers in Otago schools was required to attend regular staff meetings, and presumably syndicate meetings, not unlike the first year teachers in the present study (see proposition 7.3.7), more than half of them considered staff meetings to be of little help. Although this finding is couched in different terms to proposition 7.3.8, it nevertheless provides supporting evidence for it. On the issue of the school scheme, propositions 7.3.11 and 7.3.12 hypothesize that some beginners find it a help and a guide to planning, while others consider it an imposition because of its inflexibility. A similar ambivalence in the attitude of beginning teachers is reflected in Ennis' study where he notes that half his sample considered the school scheme to be of some assistance, while a third of them said it was of no help.

Overview

Eighteen propositions were formulated from the three properties of this final category on *Management and Organisation Patterns*. These propositions were then discussed in the light of the relevant research and literature. This chapter now concludes with a brief, summary statement on the overall structure and composition of the grounded theory.

SUMMARY

The objectives of this chapter have been to present a summary of the supporting data on the seven categories of the grounded theory, and also to provide an indepth and systematic insight into the day-to-day situations faced by a group of Year One primary school teachers during their first year in the profession.

In meeting these objectives, the process of socialisation for the beginning teachers in the present study was able to be elaborated and clarified. In particular, the seven categories of the grounded theory represented the major, over-riding factors, which were able to be identified, in the process of these beginners' socialisation. Within each of these categories, the properties detailed some of the more dominant components of this process. And, using the data base of the present research, the propositions provided a set of suggestive, generalisable hypotheses about the socialising situations and influences experienced by first year primary school teachers.

Also included in this chapter has been a discussion of the links between some of the research and literature cited in Chapter One and the propositions and supporting data on each category of the grounded theory. This discussion is continued in the following chapter with particular reference to the implications the present research has for the professional development and practices of beginning teachers, and for teacher socialisation theory.

CHAPTER FIVE

USES AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE GROUNDED THEORY

This chapter is comprised of three sections. The first outlines, in general terms, some of the uses and applications of the grounded theory presented in the preceding chapter. The second and third sections focus on the implications some of the outcomes of the present study have for (a) policy relating to the professional development and practices of beginning teachers; and, (b) teacher socialisation theory. In these latter two sections, recommendations are made for further research.

In Chapter Two, it was suggested that the grounded theory derived from this research on beginning teachers equated with Nagel's (1969) fourth sense of theory; that is, theory which aimed to elaborate and to clarify concepts with a goal towards explicating some of the major components of the problem being investigated. In the present study, this has been achieved with the aim of providing other researchers, and more particularly lay people associated with the field (e.g., school teachers), the opportunity to understand and to apply the theory. This point deserves special emphasis because the grounded theory outlined in the preceding chapter is based on the day-to-day experiences of first year primary school teachers, and, as such, it may be both meaningful and relevant to them as well as to other interest groups (e.g., Principals; Inspectors; researchers). Theories of this type have been strongly advocated by Olesen and Whittaker (1970) and Ramsay and Battersby (1979) as profitable starting points for empirical research on the socialisation of professional groups, such as school teachers. Equally important is the application of these types of theories to school and classroom life, as has been recommended by Bates (1979), who suggests that:

> *The test of a theory is its efficacy in the practical world in which teachers and pupils conduct their affairs. Without such a criterion, theory may well, it is argued, be largely irrelevant, incomplete or wrong.*
>
> *(Bates, 1979, p.13)*

In the light of Bates' assertion, then, it is appropriate to consider some of the uses and practical applications of the grounded theory developed in this research. Before doing so, however, an important,

general principle of grounded theory application will be outlined.

USES AND APPLICATIONS OF THE GROUNDED THEORY

A General Principle of Grounded Theory Application

A disappointing feature of most grounded theory studies reported to date is the failure of their authors to suggest or to illustrate practical applications of the theory. Conrad (1978), for instance, in his extensive investigation of academic change in higher education, referred to in an earlier chapter, merely concluded his study by suggesting that his theory was "offered as an alternative to existing procedures" (Conrad, 1978, p.112). Likewise, both Chafetz (1976) and Gehrke (1976), whose research was reviewed in Chapter One, can be criticised for the lack of attention they give to discussing how their respective theories might be used.

In commenting on the application of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967) argue that all too often people only take as their guide to a theory's credibility,

> *... the canons of rigorous quantitative verification on such issues as sampling, reliability, validity, indicators, frequency distributions, conceptual formulations, hypothesis construction, and presentation of evidence.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.224)*

They suggest further that these canons of quantitative research are inappropriate when applied to grounded theory generated largely from qualitative data. Instead, they recommend that any judgement concerning the credibility of grounded theory should be contingent upon an understanding of what grounded theory is, and how it is derived. In other words, it should be realised that grounded theory is developed over time and through an intense and systematic procedure of data collection and analysis; that the outcome is usually in the form of a suggestive set of categories, properties and propositions; and, that this outcome is not a finite product, but rather one stage in a continuous process of theory development relating to the area being researched. Indeed, as Glaser and Strauss point out, the continuity of this process is assured because the user of grounded theory becomes, in effect, a generator of further theory:

> *The person who applies the theory will, we believe, be able to bend, adjust or quickly reformulate a*

a grounded theory when applying it.

(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.242)

Appreciating what grounded theory is, then, and how it is developed, is an important principle to be understood by the person seeking to use or to apply these types of theories.

Some Suggested Uses and Users of the Grounded Theory

The grounded theory developed from the present research may have pay-off for at least four groups of people: school personnel, such as those who have a direct interest in the welfare of beginning teachers (e.g., Principals, Senior Teachers and Inspectors); beginning teachers themselves, as well as student teachers; researchers, particularly those interested in studying beginning teachers and the teacher socialisation process; and, teacher educators. For each of these interest groups, the grounded theory, either in extended form with the supporting data, or the table of propositions at the end of each category, may serve two, general functions:

(a) To clarify and to explicate some of the major, over-riding factors, which can be identified, in the process of socialisation for beginning teachers; and,

(b) To predict and to explain some of the day-to-day situations experienced by beginning teachers during their first year in the profession.

In more detail, some of the potential uses of the grounded theory, for the four groups of people mentioned above, can now be outlined.

For school Principals, Senior Teachers and Inspectors, the grounded theory could be utilised in a number of practical ways. It may:

(a) Sensitise them to some of the day-to-day situations experienced by beginning teachers during their first year of teaching;

(b) Provide a base from which they could develop and build upon their own theories about the socialisation of beginning teachers;

(c) Assist them to better understand their own role, and its relationship to the role other people play (e.g., parents, pupils), in the socialisation process;

(d) Assist them in policy and decision making relating to

beginning teachers they are responsible for;

(e) Provide a foundation for induction programmes, and form part of inservice courses, for beginning teachers; and,

(f) Initiate dialogue about the socialisation process for beginning teachers.

For first year teachers, and students undertaking teacher training, the theory may have the following applications. It could:

(a) Promote an awareness about themselves as teachers (or as potential teachers), and their expectations of self and others (e.g., pupils, parents, Senior Teacher, etc.);

(b) Provide a scenario, and thus help them place in context some of the situations they may experience during their first year of teaching;

(c) Make them more aware of some of the personal changes (e.g., change in life style) which may occur during their first year of teaching; and,

(d) Assist them to anticipate and to plan for events (e.g., parent-teacher interviews, Inspectorial visits, etc.), and to develop a repertoire of strategies to capitalise on any possible, positive outcomes, and to counter what they see as any ill-effects of these events.

For teacher educators, the grounded theory could:

(a) Form part of a course they teach, such as in the psychology or sociology of teaching (see, Battersby, Ramsay and Sneddon, 1980);

(b) Provide a rationale for examining the effectiveness and outcomes of various components of a teacher education programme (e.g., student teachers' skills in the control and disciplining of children); and,

(c) Be utilised in a range of inservice and preservice courses where reference is made to beginning teachers.

And finally, researchers interested in beginning teachers and the process of teacher socialisation, may find the grounded theory useful in:

(a) Providing insight into the teacher socialisation process for beginning teachers, and thus a starting point to research (see, Ramsay and Battersby, 1979); and,

(b) Suggesting a set of propositions, some of which could be empirically tested by quantitative research.

Following on from the above recommendations concerning possible uses of the grounded theory, at least three, tentative policy implications, relating to the professional development of beginning teachers, can be drawn from the outcomes of the present study.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

It has already been stated that one of the aims of this research has been to shed light on the everyday situations encountered by a group of Year One primary school teachers during their first year in the profession. In achieving this objective, a number of propositions relating to their day-to-day experiences was able to be generated. Some of these propositions raise questions concerning the education, training, induction, supervision and certification of Year One teachers. For instance:

(a) Should beginning teachers have problem children assigned to their class?

(b) Are beginning teachers given sufficient training in, and assistance with:
   [i] Control and discipline problems?
   [ii] Coping with critical incidents (e.g., pupils swearing, fighting, etc.)?
   [iii] Report writing?
   [iv] Handling parent interviews?
   [v] Administrative demands (e.g., keeping class records)?
   [vi] Planning?

(c) Is a remote style of supervision by Senior Teachers adequate to meet the needs of beginners?

(d) Should Principals visit the classrooms of beginning teachers more frequently?

(e) Do Inspectors spend an appropriate amount of time observing each beginning teacher before making a judgement concerning certification?

(f) Are Inspectors aware of the impression strategies used by beginning teachers during formal inspection visits.

To debate these and similar questions individually, with the aim of deriving policy suggestions about the professional development of

beginning teachers, is a difficult and complex task, and one which necessarily involves making a series of value judgements. The question, "Should beginning teachers have problem children in their class?", provides a case in point. In the present study (see Chapter Four, pp.72-76) almost two-thirds of the sample of teachers reported having, what they considered to be, problem children in their class, despite a recommendation made to school Principals (Department of Education, 1978b) that Year One teachers must not be given pupils who pose a serious behaviour or control problem. Such a policy as this may prove to be ineffective because of the differences which are likely to exist between a Principal's and beginning teacher's conception of the type of pupil who constitutes a serious behaviour or control problem. Moreover, the issue is made more complex by the fact that, on the one hand, pupils who are a behaviour and control problem may cause concern and stress for first year teachers, and there was evidence that this occurred with some teachers in this study. On the other hand, however, what is also apparent is that some beginners derive satisfaction from helping and interacting with children who are a behaviour and control problem in their class (see Chapter Four p.76).

This particular example provides an illustration of the dilemmas to be faced when making policy suggestions relating to these types of issues. In acknowledging the difficulty in developing policy which needs to take account of the fact that individuals are different, and that their understanding of situations, their day-to-day experiences and view of reality may also differ, three tentative recommendations about the professional development of beginning teachers can be made using the present grounded theory study as a reference point. The recommendations are outlined and discussed below.

Recommendation 1: That teacher training institutions should endeavour to increase the level of awareness student teachers have about the first year of teaching.

A prime criticism often made about preservice teacher education programmes is that they fail to prepare students to be teachers (see, for example, comments by Currie, 1967; Hoy, 1967; Katz, 1974; Horne, 1975). Indeed, some critics (e.g., Allen, 1963; Shipman, 1967; Lortie, 1968; Ryan, 1970) question whether courses currently offered in Education have an enduring effect on teacher behaviour, pointing out that officials responsible for these courses are seldom able to defend their programmes with anything more than opinions, impressions, hunches and guesses.

Although the outcomes of the present study provide little direct evidence either to support or to counter these claims, they do lead to the suggestion that more serious consideration be given to increasing the level of awareness student teachers have about the first year of teaching. In particular, in view of the importance placed on the first year of teaching by individual educationists in New Zealand (e.g., Freyberg, 1977; Ramsay, 1979), established educational organisations (e.g., NZEI), and their representatives (e.g., Davenport, 1971), as well as the Department of Education (see, Department of Education, 1979), it seems justified to recommend that teacher education institutions in this country should give more emphasis to the first year of teaching in their programmes.

A start has already been made in this direction at one college of education in New Zealand which has introduced an experimental Sociology of Education course, focussing on the first year of teaching, and designed for students in their final year at teachers college. This course, which provides one model for achieving this first recommendation, is specifically aimed at increasing the level of awareness student teachers have about the processes involved in the transition of teachers college students to beginning teachers in the classroom. The originators of the course, explained its rationale and content in the following terms:

> *We believed that [student teachers] would find it [the course] both meaningful and relevant if we concentrated on information derived from our own researches on beginning teachers and our recent experiences in schools and teachers organisations. Our major aim was to relate this background information to the schools and communities the students would be entering as beginning teachers. Our belief for such a course was based not only on logical grounds, but also on the basis of empirical evidence, which suggests that such courses can contribute to the successful transition of students to teachers (Riddle, 1972; Warnecke and Riddle, 1974).*
>
> *(Battersby, Ramsay and Sneddon, 1980, p.1)*

Courses of this type, then, which can also serve a useful purpose in linking theory to practice, can provide a vehicle whereby students become more aware about the first year of teaching, and this is seen to be beneficial for two reasons. First, it may encourage them to re-examine some of their own expectations about themselves as teachers, and about the people they will probably intereact with during their first year in the profession (e.g., pupils, colleagues, parents, etc.). And second, in line with the findings of Riddle (1972) and Warnecke and Riddle

(1974), this increased awareness may better equip student teachers for the transition from college to classroom.

An equally important recommendation to be derived from the present research, and one which is related to the foregoing, is that beginning teachers should undertake a preservice orientation programme prior to the first year of teaching.

Recommendation 2: That provision be made for a formalised, preservice orientation programme for first year teachers.

It is evident from the grounded theory detailed in the previous chapter that most of the beginners in the sample made a brief visit to their school, and had met their Principal, prior to the commencement of the school year, and that some beginners had gained general details and impressions about the pupils and parents they would come in contact with during their first year teaching. However, what was also evident was that obtaining this type of information, and visiting the school and meeting the Principal, was largely undertaken on a haphazard basis. And yet, there was evidence in the data to suggest that even the limited contact the beginners had made with their school was beneficial to them, and perhaps was sufficient to reduce the impact of "reality shocks" which reportedly accompany the transition from college student to school teacher (see, Waller, 1932; Becker, 1953; Helsel and Krchnaik, 1972; Crane, 1975; Ramsay, 1979).

With the implementation, then, of a co-ordinated, preservice orientation programme for first year teachers, much of the abruptness with which they seem to assume their new role, and their apparent lack of close familiarity with the setting in which they will work, could be lessened considerably. Such a programme could be instigated during the final weeks of the academic year for third and fourth year student teachers, and co-ordinated by the training institution. It is envisaged, that student teachers would spend time at the school they had been posted to on a familiarisation course. This course, which may involve following through a schedule of activities similar to that suggested by the New Zealand Review of Teacher Training (Department of Education 1979, p.91), could begin in the same way to that described by Siddle (1975):

> *All new staff are invited to visit the school and sent a copy of the school prospectus, which includes comments on the aims and objectives of the school, the geography of the site and buildings, details of the staff and pupils, curriculum, class organization,*

discipline, parents, clubs and societies.

(Siddle, 1975, p.42)

While this preservice programme may be school-based, it would seem advantageous for the student teachers to return to the training institution during this period so as to consult lecturers for advice or counsel, to marshall resources to be used for teaching, and perhaps to engage in seminars involving such people as representatives from the teachers union and personnel from the Education Board (e.g., Advisers, Inspectors, the Personnel Officer, etc.).

It is being suggested, then, that this type of individualised, preservice orientation programme, which has proved successful in Britain (Bolam, 1975; Zeichner, 1979) and in the United States (Zeichner, 1979), could be beneficial, not only in easing the transition of beginning teachers into school life, but also in providing them with opportunities to meet their Principal, supervising teacher, colleagues and pupils, and to discuss concerns, as well as to obtain advice and to gather resources. Indeed, this preservice programme is seen as a starting point to on-the-job training for first year teachers.

Recommendation 3: That provision be made for on-the-job training, during a period of internship, for first year teachers.

Currently, the issue of teacher induction is receiving attention in empirical research (e.g., Bolam, 1975; Bradley and Eggleston, 1975, 1976, 1978; Fyfield *et al*, 1978; Board of Teacher Education, Queensland, 1980), and in reports of educational review committees, such as the New Zealand Review of Teacher Training (Department of Education, 1975). With few exceptions, a common observation made by both the researchers and the review committees is that, with teacher induction,

> *... major weaknesses still remain. In brief, these are in the nature of gaps between what ought to be done, and what is done, between declaration of intention and achievement.*
>
> *(Department of Education, 1979, p.41)*

To improve the current situation in New Zealand, the committee who reviewed teacher training in this country recommended, *inter alia*, that on-the-job induction for beginning teachers be mandatory, and co-ordinated on a regional basis, that time-tabling should make provision for regular

discussion sessions, and that an induction programme

> *... should cover such topics as institutions and community, organisation of institution, classroom society, content, evaluation, self-analysis and development.*
>
> *(Department of Education 1979, p.43)*

Unfortunately, it seems that an assumption underlying these and many similar recommendations for induction is that the sole objective is to mould beginning teachers to fit into the school system. However, as Zeichner (1979) points out:

> *The fact is that, no matter what we do in a teacher induction programme in attempting to shape the attitudes and behaviours of neophytes, the beginners do not merely become what we wish them to become.*
>
> *(Zeichner, 1979, p.37)*

Furthermore, implicit in the suggestion of mandatory on-the-job induction programmes for beginning teachers appears to be another assumption, namely, that such programmes are always of benefit to beginners. Contrary to this belief, there is mounting evidence to indicate that poorly planned and *ad hoc* induction procedures may disadvantage some beginners (Coulter, 1978), while compulsory, non-individualised group-orientated induction programmes may be ineffective (Bouchard and Hull, 1970; Hull, 1975) and have little influence on teacher performance (Zeichner, 1979).

In the light of this uncertainty about the effectiveness of certain types of on-the-job teacher induction programmes, the recommendation emerging from this study is that, following on from a preservice orientation phase, provision should be made for individualised on-the-job training for beginning teachers. Two observations made during the course of the present research underpin this recommendation. The first was that the schools involved in the study provided few opportunities for their Year One teachers to engage in further training, or to attend courses offered by the local Education Board officers and the teachers college. And second, as was evident in the previous chapter, the beginners did experience difficulties (e.g., with pupils, management and organisation, etc.), and in a number of instances they were given little assistance having to rely on their own initiative and resourcefulness in seeking solutions. It therefore seemed that provision for on-the-job training in handling some of these difficulties may have been advantageous for the beginning teachers concerned. It was also obvious from the present study that, because of the numerous differences which

existed between the beginners themselves, the people they interacted with and the schools and communities in which they taught, any on-the-job training scheme for these teachers would have to be introduced, as Ramsay (1979a) suggests, on an individualised basis:

> *It should be carefully noted ... that the problems experienced by beginning teachers are highly idiosyncratic. Accordingly, the programmes developed for young teachers should also be idiosyncratic. At the one extreme, young teachers demand time on their own to try out teaching techniques with a minimum of guidance ... while on the other some young teachers require and request almost continuous supervision.*
>
> *(Ramsay, 1979a, p.31)*

Co-inciding with this recommendation for on-the-job training, and to emphasise its importance, it is suggested that the first year of teaching should be regarded as an "internship" period for beginning teachers.[27] This recommendation is aimed at re-asserting the current policy of the New Zealand Department of Education that the first year of teaching "is a continuation of a teacher's training" (Department of Education, 1978, p.1). The fact that teachers college personnel, school Principals, and beginning teachers themselves, seem to be unaware of this regulation is cause for some concern. Moreover, as Ennis (1972) remarks:

> *... the authorities are leaving too much to chance to insist on the one hand that [the first year of teaching] is a continuation of a teacher's training ... and yet provide no training, and little information on the most appropriate ways of helping the young teacher to develop professionally.*
>
> *(Ennis, 1972, p.200)*

What, then, are some requirements for on-the-job training of beginning teachers to take place? Below are briefly detailed several suggestions.

Closer Liaison Between Schools and Teacher Training Institutions:

While this proposal is not new (see, Collins, 1969; Davenport, 1971; Battersby, 1976a; Ramsay, 1979a; Murdoch, 1979), recent evidence (Zeichner, 1979) indicates that vastly improved relations between colleges and schools results from their collaboration with the on-the-job training of beginning teachers. This collaboration may involve, for instance,

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[27] A similar recommendation has been made by the Marshall Committee (see, Department of Education, 1978a, p.17), although it suggested a two year period of internship.

college personnel, resources and courses being made more freely available to beginning teachers. Also, teachers colleges may undertake to provide school Principals and supervising teachers with more comprehensive details about the first year teachers being appointed to their school.[28] In particular, detailed information on the beginning teachers' programme of studies at teachers college, teaching competencies and weaknesses, and personal background, seems necessary so that an informed assessment can be made of the apparent needs, and potential contributions, of the Year One teacher.

Time-Off and Reduced Teaching Load:

In accordance with a recommendation made by the Department of Education to all primary and intermediate school Principals in New Zealand (see, Department of Education, 1978b), Year One teachers are allocated a class or group of children not in excess of 30 pupils, and are expected to play a "full part as a [staff] member in both planning and teaching" (Department of Education, 1978b, p.2). In this respect, Lortie's (1975) observation about the beginning teachers in his Five Towns Study has some relevance:

> *Fully responsible for the instruction of his students from his first working day, the beginning teacher performs the same tasks as the twenty-five year veteran.*
>
> *(Lortie, 1975, p.72)*

This expectation that Year One teachers take a full part in planning and teaching may need to be waived if on-the-job training for beginning teachers is to prove effective. Indeed, it would seem necessary that schools exercise flexibility in allowing beginners, and in some instances encouraging them, to take a lighter teaching load and to have regular time-off periods.[29] This provision may promote an increase in opportunities for beginners to visit and to observe in other classrooms, as the Currie Report recommended (see, Department of Education, 1962), to undertake short-term inservice, and perhaps preservice, courses, and to

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[28] Teachers colleges currently provide Principals with a brief, two page report on the beginning teacher (E2/16A Report), giving the teacher's academic record, practice teaching grade, college diploma award and a personal statement on the attributes of the teacher.

[29] The New Zealand Review of Teacher Training has suggested that "the teaching load of all beginning teachers should be reduced in terms of time, range and depth of responsibilities in proportion to the length of the training course" (Department of Education, 1979, p.42). No justification for this proposal is given and its lack of flexibility is questionable in view of the individualistic nature of beginners' needs.

consult with colleagues, Advisers and other first year teachers, as well as to plan and to prepare work. The success and pay-offs from this type of on-the-job training has been well documented (see, for example, Marks, 1971; Hull, 1975; Cohen, 1976; McCabe, 1978a, 1978b), so too has been the reactions of beginning teachers involved in such programmes (see, Crane, 1975; Tisher *et al*, 1978). A number of researchers (e.g., Taylor and Dale, 1973; Battersby, 1976b) have commented that, from the viewpoint of beginning teachers, one of the most salient outcomes from having a reduced teaching load, and released time, is the therapeutic effect of these measures:

> *... it enables some of them [beginning teachers] for the first time to discuss with their peers problems which often seem more personal and intractable when faced alone.*
>
> *(Taylor and Dale, 1973, p.298)*

Because of the individualistic nature of the on-the-job training that is required for beginning teachers, and arising from the above suggestion for a flexible policy concerning reduced teaching loads and time-off periods, there would seem to be the need to monitor, supervise and evaluate the training undertaken by beginners, as well as to oversee their professional development during this internship period.

Co-ordinating Supervision, Inspection and Certification Procedures:

In recommending an internship period for first year teachers, with the emphasis on on-the-job training, supervising teachers and school Inspectors would be seen to assume new roles. For instance, the current practice of Principals delegating responsibility for a Year One teacher to the Senior Teacher in the same syndicate may need to be re-examined, taking into consideration the commitments of the Senior teacher and his ability and willingness to participate in the on-the-job training of a first year teacher. It is envisaged that teachers with different levels of experience and expertise could fulfil this supervisory role. They, too, may also require a reduced teaching load and released time, as well as the opportunity to attend courses specifically designed for those overseeing the professional development of beginning teachers.

Inspectors, on the other hand, would need to work in conjunction with the supervising teachers, and may well assume the role of adviser and mentor both to the beginners and their supervisors. In view of this, it may be advantageous for Inspectors to be located at a school in the region they are responsible for.

Finally, at regular meetings involving the Inspector, supervising teacher and the beginner, an on-going evaluation of the on-the-job training programme in operation could be carried out. As well, the Inspector may wish to observe the beginner, to teach with him, or to demonstrate teaching techniques, in the classroom situation. At the end of the internship period, after having consulted with the supervising teacher, the school Principal and the beginning teacher, individually and collectively, the Inspector would then report on the eligibility of the beginner to be certificated as a teacher, and, make recommendations concerning further training during the teacher's second year in the profession.

Further Research

The above policy recommendations relating to the professional development of beginning teachers should be regarded as tentative because:

(a) The present study, from which they are derived, only focussed on the day-to-day experiences of a small group of beginning teachers in one Education Board in New Zealand; and,

(b) The individualistic needs and problems of beginning teachers transcends, and makes it difficult to develop, policy recommendations.

Nevertheless, the policy suggestions which have been outlined do provide a starting point for further research on beginning teachers. They also raise a series of general questions which deserve follow-up study. For instance, with the implementation of these recommendations:

(a) Would the resignation rate of teachers in their first years of service be reduced?

(b) Would the classroom performance and effectiveness of first year teachers be enhanced? and,

(c) Would the morale, job satisfaction and vocational commitment of beginning teachers be influenced?

Several further areas for research on beginning teachers are detailed in the final section of this chapter which draws attention to some of the theoretical implications arising from the outcomes of the present investigation.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER SOCIALISATION THEORY

The second aim of the present study was to generate theory about the socialisation of beginning teachers derived from data relating to their day-to-day experiences. The theory which was developed, and elucidated in the preceding chapter, paralleled with Nagel's (1969) fourth sense of theory, or with what Glaser and Strauss (1967) refer to as "substantive" theory; that is, low level theory which

> *... can give participants in a situation a broader guide to what they already tend to do, and perhaps help them to be more effective in doing it.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.248)*

Glaser and Strauss maintain that theories of this type, while limited in scope and conceptual depth,

> *... have important general implications and relevance, and become almost automatically a springboard or stepping stone to the development of a grounded formal theory.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.79)*

The objective of the following discussion, then, is to speculate on some of the implications the grounded theory developed from the present study has for more formal theory about teacher socialisation.

One implication arising from this study is that little support is given to the lock-step, input/output theories and models of teacher socialisation, such as those advanced by the advocates of the structural functionalist perspective (e.g., Marsland, 1970) which were the subject for critique in Chapter One. Indeed, in the light of the experiences of the sample of teachers in this research, it seems justified to suggest that much of the current theory on teacher socialisation, with its emphasis on the orderable and causal nature of the process and a *tabula rasa* conception of the teacher, can now be abandoned. In its place, cognizance may given to incorporating the following notions into a new and formal theory about the processes of teacher socialisation.

Individualism and the Idiosyncratic Nature of People:

An important, yet common-sense observation which can be made about the beginning teachers focussed on in this investigation is that each was different. Despite the fact that there were some similarities between their backgrounds (see Appendix A), the schools they were posted to, and

the pattern of situations they encountered, their first year in the profession provided each of them with a unique set of individual experiences which they reacted to and interpreted idiosyncratically. In view of this, formal theory about teacher socialisation should encapsulate the notion that the process is highly individualistic, as has been suggested by some researchers (e.g., Cogswell, 1967; Lortie, 1975; Ramsay, 1978, 1979a), and that it is influenced by the way people define and interpret reality. Moreover, as Giddens (1976) points out, such theory would concern itself not with

> *... a pre-given universe of objects, but one which is produced by the active doings of subjects.*
>
> *(Giddens, 1976, p.160)*

Teacher Socialisation as a Political Activity:

Besides the effect an individual teacher may have on his own socialisation, the sources of influence from elsewhere are probably many and varied and differ for each teacher. In the present study, for instance, the beginning teachers interacted with, and were influenced by, a number of people (e.g., pupils, parents, Inspectors, etc.). By conceptualising teacher socialisation, then, as the interplay of these influences, the process can be seen as a political activity rather than as a neutral enterprise (see, Popkewitz, 1979). Hence, formal theory about teacher socialisation may take into consideration the key notion of "power", because, as Edgar (1974a) comments,

> *... power implies the ability to decide who will be given access to how much common recipe knowledge and who will be denied access to certain forms of role-specific knowledge. The problem is thus to understand and explain both the social distribution of knowledge and its obverse, the social distribtion of ignorance.*
>
> *(Edgar, 1974a, p.7)*

The Socialisatory Episode:

Another observation which can be made about the first year teachers in the present research was that the socialisation process for each of them appeared to be episodic in that it revolved around incidents and events they experienced. For example, 28-F was involved in a series of conflicts with her Senior Teacher (see, pp.113-119), while 32-F encountered difficulties in handling a problem child (see, pp.72-75). In both instances, the Year One teachers spoke at length with the researcher about the influence these particular events had on them. There were also socialisatory episodes of a different type: teacher 22-M dislodging a chair one of his pupils was sitting on, and the resultant intervention of

the child's parent (see, p.89); teacher 7-F's experiences on the school camp (see, p.77); and, the effect of 8-M's sporting involvements on his pupils (see, p.81).

Not only did the socialisatory episodes appear to differ in type, but they also seemed to differ in intensity, duration and outcome. Some episodes, for instance, lasted only several minutes, but produced intense socialising experiences (e.g., the introductory visit some of the beginners received from the Inspector). There were also ongoing socialisatory episodes which extended over several months, and which also varied in intensity (e.g., teacher 37-F's interaction with her Principal, as detailed on pp. 103-104). Furthermore , socialisatory episodes experienced by some beginners appeared to be similar, and yet resulted in different outcomes (e.g., the supervision of the beginners by their Senior Teachers).

This notion of the socialisatory episode, then, which corresponds closely with Schutz's (1967) idea of "multiple realities", may need to be given due recognition in formal theory on teacher socialisation. In particular, it is recommended that such theory take account not only of the individualistic nature of these episodes, but also draw attention to the variation in type, intensity, duration and outcomes of such episodes.

Teacher Socialisation as a Process:

While teacher socialisation is often referred to as a "process", there has been a tendency to study and to conceptualise it as a static phenomenon (Cogswell, 1967). However, using as a basis the grounded theory developed in this research, it would appear that teacher socialisation is a dynamic, ongoing and complex process. Because of this, and due to its individualistic, political and episodic characteristics which have been described above, it may prove a difficult task to discover precise, quantitatively validated factual knowledge on which to base a formal theory about the process of teacher socialisation. Nevertheless, this objective to develop formal theory in this area is seen as both necessary and desirable if teacher socialisation is to become a more meaningful field of academic inquiry.

Further Research

While there is a need for formal theory on the process of teacher socialisation, the foregoing comments relating to the contribution of the grounded theory generated from this research should be regarded

as speculative. However, the above discussion does provide a basis for recommending that follow-up research should concentrate on:

(a) Indepth ethnographic and case study investigations of teachers during their first years in the profession to identify further:
   [i] the individualistic nature of the teacher socialisation process and in particular the differences between socialisatory paths for teachers; and,
   [ii] the various dimensions (e.g., type, intensity, duration and outcome) of socialisatory episodes experienced by teachers; and,
(b) The interaction between teachers and those with whom they come in contact, with the intention of focussing on the power processes involved in teacher socialisation.[30]

Finally, because little is known about teacher socialisation beyond the first year of teaching, it seems that one of the most pressing needs is for longitudinal research on the career of teachers. While Lacey (1977) is of the opinion that a call for this type of research will go unheard because such a proposition is unsuitable for thesis students and agencies funding research, it should, nevertheless, be seen as one of the prime objectives of the community of researchers who share an interest in the study of teacher socialisation.

SUMMARY

Using as a reference point the grounded theory developed in the present study, this chapter has sought to suggest potential applications of this theory, and to speculate on some of its implications for the professional development of beginning teachers and for teacher socialisation theory.

In the first section of the chapter, it was recommended that understanding what grounded theory is, and how it is derived, should be the first goal of those seeking to use this type of theory. Some of the suggested uses and users of the theory that emerged from this study of beginning teachers were then outlined. Following this, the discussion

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[30] Ramsay's (1978) research, which has identified some of the power processes involved in the socialisation of student nurses and student teachers, provides a starting point here.

centred on the policy recommendations that were derived from the present research, namely, that attempts should be made to increase the level of awareness student teachers have about the first year of teaching, and that there should be provision for a preservice orientation programme and on-the-job training for first year teachers. It was suggested that, though these recommendations were to be regarded as tentative, they did provide the basis for further research.

The chapter concluded with a discussion of the grounded theory's contribution to more formal theory on teacher socialisation. It was speculated that such a theory may incorporate the notions that teacher socialisation is an individualistic, political and episodic process. Arising from this, areas for further research were identified.

In the final chapter, which follows, attention is focussed on some of the methodological outcomes of the present study, including the dilemmas and difficulties faced by the researcher in doing fieldwork in schools and in developing grounded theory.

CHAPTER SIX

SOME METHODOLOGICAL OUTCOMES OF THE RESEARCH

In the previous chapters, discussion has centred primarily on explaining (a) how the aims of the present study developed; (b) how these aims were then achieved through employing case study data collection techniques in conjunction with the grounded theory strategy; and (c) some of the uses and implications of the grounded theory that emerged. This final chapter completes the discussion by focussing on the methodological outcomes of the research with the aim of highlighting some of the problems and issues involved in doing fieldwork in schools, and in using the grounded theory strategy.

Rarely do researchers who have undertaken ethnographic or participant observation studies in schools, discuss in detail problems and difficulties which arise in doing this type of research, or their experiences with unforeseen and unplanned-for events that occur in the field. Often, the impression is given that this information is either unimportant, or that carrying out fieldwork in schools is an orderly, uncomplicated and perhaps easy-going adventure. Dow (1980), for instance, in her recently published neo-ethnographic study, *Learning to Teach: Teaching to Learn,* excludes from her discussion the dilemmas she must have faced as a researcher monitoring teachers and observing them in classroom situations. Even the better known studies, such as those of Jackson (1968), Smith and Geoffrey (1968) and Lortie (1975), are similarly uninformative in this regard. And yet, there is a comprehensive body of sociological and anthropological literature (see, for example, Wax, 1957; Becker and Geer, 1957, 1958a; Roth, 1962; Geer, 1964) which documents the type of methodological problems, pitfalls and dilemmas which are likely to be faced in the field.

In the present study, a number of such methodological issues did arise, and these are highlighted in the discussion below, with particular reference to the researcher's experiences in (a) carrying out the fieldwork for this research; and (b) using the grounded theory strategy.

DOING FIELDWORK IN SCHOOLS

The Education Board: An Unforeseen Hurdle

The relationship between the researcher and the Education Board, the employing authority for teachers in the region where the study was being carried out, was an uneasy one. The origins of this can be traced to the very beginnings of the study. During the course of lengthy correspondence, and eight visits to the Education Board from March until October in the year prior to the fieldwork, several facts were established. It was learned, for instance, that longitudinal-type studies of teachers in this particular Board region were somewhat a rarity, as too were those studies which did not rely on the use of postal questionnaire data collected from teachers. In addition to this, it seemed that the status of the researcher, in the eyes of some Board officers, was that of an outsider: at that time, a full-time university student, who, unlike most people who had projects approved by the Board, had no real affiliation with the staff of a university or teachers college, or with the Department of Education.

Although no overt attempt was made by officers from the Board to dissuade the researcher from following a group of beginning teachers through their first year of teaching, a number of requirements were imposed upon the researcher (e.g., not allowing access to information regarded as confidential; requesting character references) which had the initial effect of delaying the Board's final approval of the study. Indeed, it was only the intervention of the researcher's university supervisors that prompted officers from the Board to provide the necessary and important data on teacher postings that would enable a sample of beginning teachers to be selected.

This tenuous relationship between the researcher and the Education Board continued throughout the study, and was mainly evidenced in the exchange of correspondence which centred on the refusal of Board officers to provide certain information (e.g., teacher selection committee ratings) requested by the researcher. These unplanned-for encounters, while not significantly changing the aims or style of the investigation, made the researcher aware of, what Voss (1966) labelled as, some of the "pitfalls of social research", and also of a double jeopardy that can exist in gaining entry into the field. In this case, the first, and an unexpected hurdle, was seeking and gaining assistance and approval from the Education

Board. The second, and that which is more commonly reported (see, for example, Whyte, 1955; Gans, 1968), is gaining entry and acceptance in the field, and several incidents related to this issue, which occurred in the present study, are detailed below.

The Fieldworker as a Participant

The advantages of a fieldworker being accepted by his subjects has been widely discussed (e.g., Kahn and Mann, 1952; Gold, 1958), and in this study one of the pay-offs of this acceptance can be seen in the array of data that was collected. Nevertheless, there were unintended consequences which did arise from the relationships that developed in the field between the researcher and some of the beginning teachers. For instance, the researcher was aware that he liked some of the teachers he was studying better than others, at the same time realising the inherent danger that:

> *... the fieldworker can become so involved with the people he is studying that he stops wanting to be the researcher and becomes a true participant.*
>
> *(Gans, 1968, p.316)*

This temptation to become a true participant was a constant one, in that, on 27 different occasions throughout the study, the researcher was asked for advice on a wide number of personal and professional matters by some of the Year One teachers. Re-directing conversation was the most common strategy used by the researcher to avoid offering opinion. In five of these cases it was explained to the beginning teachers concerned that it was not ethical for the researcher to offer advice, and this explanation seemed to be accepted by these teachers. There were, however, three instances known to the researcher - one involving a school Principal - where involvement in the field as a true participant occurred. Each of these situations is outlined below.

The Case of 20-F:

On the second day of the school year, 20-F told the researcher that she was most unhappy with her teaching appointment. She prefaced her remarks by referring to a visit she had made to her school towards the end of her college training:

> *When I came here at the end of last year, the teacher I was going to work with was rearing to go. I went and had a look at my room and it was lovely. It was a two-teacher cell block, and I was at one end and she was at the other. Originally, I wanted standard three*

> *and four, but the Principal said no, because they were in a large block. He said, "I'd rather not have you in a large block." When he showed me that room out there it was so lovely. Perfect set-up for a first year teacher where you were able to be on your own when you wanted to.*
>
> [20-F: Jan]

However, 20-F said that when she arrived at school on the first day, the two-teacher relocatable unit had been removed from the school grounds, and that the Principal had requested that she teach in a five-teacher open plan unit. According to 20-F, it was this situation which made her feel despondent:

> *Well, I reckon it's hell! I reckon it's horrible [crying]. I've got a different group for maths, and I've got a different group for spelling. I just can't understand; I just can't see it working.*
>
> [20-F: Jan]

Moreover, she said that she now seemed to have little control over her own destiny as a teacher:

> *Sometimes you feel that everyone is doing everything for you, and the next minute you're completely on your own and you don't know what to do, you know. If it was my room and my class, I could stay till eleven o'clock at night and plan. But, you can't do that because you don't know what they [the other teachers] want you to do. You have to go at their pace, you see. If I was on my own, I could run at my own pace.*
>
> [20-F: Jan]

Towards the end of the conversation, 20-F remarked that her current state of disenchantment was likely to deteriorate, and that she could see little value remaining in the teaching profession:

> *I want to give up teaching [crying]. I would've loved to have walked out and not have come back yesterday.*
>
> [20-F: Jan]

The researcher's reaction to 20-F's suggestion that she was contemplating giving up teaching was recorded in the fieldnotes of the day:

> *During the afternoon I encountered my first real dilemma in this research: should I help this young teacher by offering advice? I was to telephone her that evening, and I felt she would reiterate her wish to resign from teaching. It would be a simple task to suggest that she tell the STJC about her feelings and seek his assistance. On reflection, perhaps I have over-reacted to this situation in that it is not my responsibility to solve 20-F's problem.*
>
> [Fieldnotes: Jan]

During that evening, a brief telephone conversation took place between the researcher and 20-F:

Int: *How are you?*

20-F: *Ah, oh, I think my spirits are on the way up a little.*

Int: *What makes you say that?*

20-F: *I don't really know. I just felt a little bit better this afternoon. I don't really know why. Probably after talking to you, having told you everything, I sort of felt that I got it all off my chest, and I could start to look forward a bit.*

[20-F: Jan]

The fieldnotes which were written following this telephone call, convey the researcher's methodological commentary on this incident involving 20-F:

From this telephone conversation with 20-F, several points emerged:

(a) I had probably over-reacted to the threat of resignation;

(b) Even though no advice was offered to 20-F, I still had become an artifact in the fieldwork situation. I was used as a sounding-board, and this she acknowledged;

(c) It made me realise that my role as fieldworker could be interpreted as the role of a counsellor, if, and when, the beginners were involved in stressful situations; and,

(d) As a fieldworker, I should always remember to look and to listen, but not to be lured.

[Fieldnotes: Jan]

Another instance where the researcher became a participant in the field, occurred with teacher 28-F.

The Case of 28-F:

For most of the school year, 28-F experienced conflict with her Senior Teacher, Mrs N (see, Chapter Four, pp.113-119). Early in the third term,

28-F telephoned [the researcher] during school time from the home of one of her friends. She explained that she and the STJC had had an argument ... 28-F went on to say that Mrs N had told her that she was going to contact the Inspector and suggest that he should not endorse her [28-F's] teaching certificate. 28-F said this had infuriated her. She asked for advice and, with some hesitation, it was suggested [by the researcher] that she should get in touch with an NZEI Counsellor.

[Fieldnotes: Sept]

This decision to suggest to 28-F that she seek help from an NZEI Counsellor was taken primarily with her welfare in mind.[31]

The outcome of accepting the researcher's advice was clearly evident in comments made by 28-F in conversations and diary accounts during the remainder of the year. The tenor of these comments is illustrated in the following excerpts from a conversation with her in October:

> *He [NZEI Counsellor] came and he was magnificent. He actually said that I could have brought a charge of unprofessional conduct against her [Senior Teacher]. I won't do that to the old dragon... I don't know why I thought of you [the researcher] at the time. I thought, "Well, I'll ring him and see if he knows anybody." And you did know the right person at the right time, and that was excellent value. I was very pleased... I'm thinking much more positively about things now. Before, I sort of felt that everybody was saying that I had to put up with her [Senior Teacher], but apparently I don't anymore.*
>
> [28-F: Oct]

The third incident, where the researcher became a true participant in the field, involved a school Principal.

The Case of the Distressed Principal:

Towards the end of the school year, the researcher visited and spoke with some of the Senior Teachers and Principals responsible for the beginners in the present study. On one occasion, as the fieldnotes below relate, a Principal conveyed to the researcher the problems he was experiencing with a Year One teacher and another staff member, and the distress caused by this:

> *The Principal greeted me as I arrived at his office. Several minutes after we had been speaking, he commented that filling in responses for Jane's[32] questionnaire would be a lot different now than two months ago. I probed further for the reason. The Principal became a little uncomfortable. Finally, after a few seconds silence, he said that Jane had developed "this sort of relationship" with one of the other Senior Teachers in the school. This other teacher was a female, aged about thirty years. He went on to say that their relationship was causing him great concern and worry, and that he wasn't sure what he should do about it. According to the Principal, Jane's teaching was suffering and her relationship with her own supervising teacher was being strained.*

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[31] At that time, 28-F was three months pregnant.

[32] Because of the personal nature of this incident, the pseudonym "Jane" will be used in lieu of the teacher's code number.

The Principal went on to say that he had talked with the Inspector and the solution both had come up with was to leave things as they were for the present.

The Principal now became a little uneasy telling me about this problem and he reverted to discussing other matters. At one stage, the telephone rang. After about thirty seconds, the Principal called me to his side, while still on the telephone, and pointed out the window with the comment, "There tells a tale Outside one of the classrooms, Jane and her Senior Teacher-friend were sitting, shoes off, basking in the sun. When he had finished his conversation on the telephone, the Principal said that on most mornings the same ritual was carried out by these two teachers. Furthermore, he remarked that neither of them came regularly to morning tea or to lunch, that both did playground duty together, and at the end of the day they would leave as soon as school finished and return to the Senior Teacher's home.

It was now quite obvious that the relationship between these two teachers was causing considerable distress for the Principal. Indeed, he commented that he had had sleepless nights worrying about it, and that he just wasn't sure what he should do. He said that he had had both teachers in his office to talk about the problem, although this did not solve the situation, according to him. Getting out of his seat, and displaying some unease about telling me of his predicament, the Principal said that he was rather busy this morning and shuffled me out of his office.

[Fieldnotes: Oct]

The dilemma faced by the researcher here was whether or not the Principal needed help to ease the stress he was experiencing. Having determined that such a need did exist, one of the researcher's supervisors was then consulted and informed of this decision. Subequently, counselling assistance for the Principal was provided through the use of intermediaries, and, as far as could be ascertained, the Principal was unaware that the researcher had originally initiated this move. As an outcome of this intervention, it became difficult to gather further information from the Principal on his problem with these two teachers. Thus, an opportunity to study teacher deviancy, from the vantage point of a Principal, was lost.

Discussion

In detailing these three incidents, the objective has been to outline those occasions where the researcher was aware that he had become a true participant in the situations being researched. In the case of 20-F, the researcher, while not offering advice to the beginning teacher,

was conscious of being an artifact in the situation, and this was made more obvious by the fact that 20-F openly admitted gaining a therapeutic effect from talking about the problems she was experiencing. This particular case, then, highlights one of the difficulties in becoming, what Webb and his colleagues (1971) call, the "unobtrusive fieldworker" who is often seen as both a stranger and a friend by those being studied.

The other two incidents detailed, give an insight into the researcher's motives for deliberately intervening in the field with the aim of helping teacher 28-F and the distressed Principal. These actions taken by the researcher raise a series of ethical questions about the role of the fieldworker, and his relationship with, and responsibility towards, the people he is observing.[33] Lofland (1971) argues, for instance, that, although the fieldworker can often deeply empathise with the "pains, joys and boredoms" of his subjects,

> *... these are not truly his pains, joys and boredoms for he is ultimately only an observer. His job is to write about life.*
>
> *(Lofland, 1971, p.97)*

One implication which can be drawn from Lofland's remarks is that "being only an observer" diminishes the responsibility a fieldworker has towards the welfare of his subjects. Contrary to this view, Zigarmi and Zigarmi (1978) suggest that the fieldworker does, indeed, have a responsibility towards those he is studying, and if, in the opinion of the fieldworker, their welfare is threatened, then intervention in the field should not automatically be discounted.[34] This advice was followed in the present study, so too was the recommendation made by Zigarmi and Zigarmi that if intervention does occur, then the reasons for it, and the consequences which resulted, should be documented as far as possible.

Besides these three incidents, several events occurred during the research which emphasised the influence some data collection techniques can have on the people from whom the data is being gathered.

Data Collection: A Source of Influence

Nisbet and Watt (1978), among others, point out that in research where case study data collection techniques are used, the researcher is

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[33] These questions have been addressed in a number of publications. See, for example, McCall and Simmons (1968), Webb *et al* (1971), Lofland (1971), Schatzman and Strauss (1973) and Bogdan and Taylor (1975).

[34] This is, of course, distinct from the type of dangerous and unethical intervention practised by Garfinkel (1967) in some of his research.

often the "chief instrument" (see, Chapter Two, pp.20-21). Some of the luxuries (e.g., being able to gather a rich array of data) and dilemmas (e.g., being a participant in the field) associated with this role have already been discussed, and are referred to at length in the literature (see, Footnote 33). A less commonly reported occurrence, however, is the unforeseen difficulties which can arise from using various techniques to gather data. Here, the research of Ramsay (1978) is particularly enlightening. In his study of the vocational commitment of student nurses and student teachers, Ramsay detected instances of where some of those in his sample, when given questionnaires to complete, faked the responses, while others attempted to manipulate interview and observation sessions through the use of impression management tactics. Although these types of strategies did not seem to be in play in the present research, the use of diaries and confidential questionnaires (see, Chapter Two, pp.36-42) resulted in a unique set of problems which highlighted the influence data collection instruments can have on subjects.

The Use of Diaries:

Issuing personal diaries to teachers, and requesting them to log happenings they consider important, or think the researcher should know about, has been a technique used by Moore (1967), Hannam *et al* (1976) and Dow (1980). Although each of these researchers reports success with this method of data collection, they fail to mention any problems associated with using diaries. Some of these problems were able to be identified in the present study. For instance, several of the Year One teachers were not accustomed to having a dairy and reported difficulty maintaining an interest in making daily entries. There were three beginners who said that early in the year they had left the diary on their desk, but had subsequently discovered that "pupils found it interesting reading." And, there was one first year teacher who used to fill in his diary in the staffroom during morning tea, but discontinued this practice after one of his colleagues made a joke, in front of the staff, about the "sacred ritual" of this daily event. These occurrences, then, illustrate some of the difficulties which can arise from using diaries as data collection tools. On two occasions during the year, more serious methodological problems developed when two of the teachers lost their diaries.

One of these beginners was 18-F, and the effect on her of not being able to locate her diary is evident in the following excerpt from a conversation in March:

Int: *How are you going?*

18-F: *I've been dreading meeting you.*

Int: *Why is that?*

18-F: *I've lost my little red book [diary]. It's been missing for a week now. I'm just hoping that one of my sisters hasn't got it at home. It's got a whole lot of things in it, and I wouldn't like my sisters to look at it. I'm also dreading that one of the kids has taken it and that the parents will come along to school about it. I'm starting to worry about it. It's really getting to me because I've got things in there that I wouldn't like anyone at all to see.*
[18-F: March]

Teacher 18-F's diary was never recovered, and even in the end-of-year interview she said she was still perturbed at its loss and the consequences should it "turn up in the wrong hands."

The other beginning teacher to lose his diary was 38-M. During the second school term, 38-M had a brief case, which contained his diary, stolen from his car. In talking with 38-M on the day following this incident, he said that he was extremely worried that the contents of the diary could be damaging to him if they came into the possession of a parent or the Principal. Indeed, in his interview with the police, 38-M said that he stressed this point to ensure that the diary, if recovered, was returned to him. Although his diary was not found, its loss and the consternation it caused 38-M, was constantly discussed by him during the remainder of the year.

The Use of Confidential Questionnaires:

In October, immediately following the inservice course attended by the beginning teachers, their Principals and Senior Teachers were sent a confidential questionnaire (see, Appendix F), and all but one of these was returned within two weeks. After a further week, the researcher then visited the Senior Teacher who had not sent back her questionnaire. The fieldnotes of the day describe the outcome of this visit:

On arriving at the school, I went and saw Mrs P, the Senior Teacher responsible for 35-F. This was only the second occasion on which I had met Mrs P. She greeted me in the playground with a rather curt remark that she had not filled out her questionnaire, nor had any intention to do so. I followed her into the classroom and there she commented that she didn't like people spying on her. I informed her that I wasn't at all spying, and laughed, thinking she may have been joking. However, this made her quite irate. She flung the

questionnaire at me, suggested I had better leave her classroom, and then stormed out in front of me.

[Fieldnotes: Nov]

It was apparent that this questionnaire had greatly incensed the Senior Teacher, and because of this it was decided that no attempt should be made by the researcher either to challenge the Senior Teacher about the accusations she made, or to seek a reconciliation with her over the affair. However, this incident prompted the researcher to seek comment about the questionnaire from the Senior Teachers and Principals who completed it. The one criticism to emerge from their comments was related to the length, and not the nature of the questionnaire.

Discussion

In the overall context of the present study, these methodological problems which developed from the use of diaries and confidential questionnaires were relatively minor. Nevertheless, the fact that these problems did arise serves as an illustration of the influence a method of data collection can have on some of those people from whom the data is being gathered.

The incidents detailed above involving the loss of diaries and the Senior Teacher's reaction to the confidential questionnaire, also raise two questions which relate to the role of the fieldworker. First, when subjects misplace or lose a data collection instrument (e.g., a diary or questionnaire), which may contain highly personal information about themselves and others, what degree of responsibility does the researcher assume for that instrument? This issue was highlighted when 18-F and 38-M both expressed concern about the possible ramifications if their diary came into the possession of a person such as their Principal. The second, and more general question is: What rights does a fieldworker have in responding to accusations, made by those whom he is studying, in an attempt to uphold his own credibility as both a person and a researcher? This particular question was prompted as a result of the researcher's interaction with the Senior Teacher who refused to complete the questionnaire. While an answer to these questions may depend on the situation and people being studied, the fact that such issues do arise provides further evidence of the precarious nature of the fieldworker's role.

As well as the methodological problems arising from carrying out the fieldwork for the present study, difficulties were also experienced in

using the grounded theory strategy.

USING THE GROUNDED THEORY STRATEGY

In outlining the design and methodology of the present research (see, Chapter Two), it was suggested that the grounded theory strategy was still a novel technique in educational research, and that there were certain drawbacks in using it. Perhaps the most serious of these was that there had only been a small number of studies which had utilised the technique,[35] and none of these was a replication of a previous grounded theory investigation, nor was any devoted to analysing in detail the problems and pitfalls in using this approach to theory construction. One exception to this latter criticism is the work of Smith and Pohland (1976) and that of Haig (1980), which will be briefly referred to below.

During the course of the present study, four issues surfaced as potential problems for users of the grounded theory approach. These were: (a) The influence of researcher bias in developing theory; (b) The mechanics of data analysis; (c) Theoretical saturation; and (d) Data relevance. Consideration is given to each of these issues in the discussion below.

The Influence of Researcher Bias in Developing Theory

To overcome problems of researcher bias, a number of writers (e.g., Schwartz and Schwartz, 1968; Zigarmi and Zigarmi, 1978; Battersby and Ramsay, 1979) have recommended that, prior to undertaking fieldwork, researchers should make an honest assessment and recording of their predispositions. This was carried out in the current investigation, and in Chapter One the researcher's predispositions were briefly stated, along with a resume of his research and teaching background and a discussion of how these influenced the design of the present study. However, this self-assessment of the researcher's predispositions was subsequently shown not to be rigorous enough. This was demonstrated with the emergence and development of *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching* as two categories of the grounded theory (see, Chapter Three).

During the third school term, the researcher discovered that the data on the above two categories were almost entirely derived from

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[35] Richer (1975), Chafetz (1976), Gehrke (1976), Harvey (1978), Conrad (1978), Florio (1978) and Yinger (1979) have used the grounded theory approach in educational research, while Quint (1967) and Olesen and Whittaker (1968) have used it in nursing studies and Meyer (1971) in research on police.

structured interview responses, researcher-initiated questioning and from questionnaire data. Moreover, in sharp contrast to the other seven categories, little data on *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching* was collected by way of diary accounts or from unsolicited comments from the Year One teachers. In seeking to explain the reason for such differences, these two categories of data were closely examined. As an outcome, it was found that their development could be traced to a previously untapped predisposition of the researcher. In this case, it was assumed that beginning teachers normally reflected upon the relevance of their teacher training, and also on their future in, and commitment to teaching, as a career, and therefore, the researcher was predisposed towards asking specific questions about these issues (see, interview schedules in Appendix C, and questionnaire items in Appendix E). However, the data that was gathered indicated that beginning teachers did not normally reflect upon such issues. Here, then, was an example of where the researcher's bias became an artifact in the data collection process (see, Cicourel, 1964), and led to the development of the categories, *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching*. Once this bias was detected, these two categories were excluded from the the framework of the grounded theory. Furthermore, a close scrutiny of the remaining seven categories of data was carried out with the aim of discerning further researcher bias. None was found.

Although researcher bias is recognised as a problem in fieldwork studies, for the user of the grounded theory strategy it can represent a potential threat to the credibility of an emerging theory primarily because of the intimate link which exists between data and theory. Glaser and Strauss (1967) seem to under-estimate this threat when they suggest that, while a fieldworker cannot possibly erase from his mind all his predispositions, his untapped biases will ultimately be checked in the field because of the nature of the grounded theory procedure. To ensure that such biases are checked, it can be recommended, on the basis of this study, that future users of the grounded theory approach should endeavour to make a detailed analysis of their predispositions prior to, and during, fieldwork. By adhering to this suggestion, detection of researcher bias then becomes built into the fieldwork process, and thus as Schwartz and Schwartz (1968) indicate, the researcher may

> *... be more motivated to look for his biases; look for them actively and, having come upon a a bias, explore its meaning and ramifications; and, look upon the uncovering of his biases as a continuous process of discovery - as an ongoing process to which there is no end.*
>
> *(Schwartz and Schwartz, 1968, p.103)*

Other potential problems for the users of the grounded theory strategy can also arise from managing and analysing data.

The Mechanics of Data Analysis

In Chapter Three, an account was given of how the framework of the grounded theory in the present study evolved from data collected on the day-to-day experiences of a group of beginning teachers. Two key elements involved in the development of this framework were the handling and analysis of data, and problems associated with each of these issues are briefly discussed below.

Handling Data:

The grounded theory strategy is characterised by the emphasis it places not only on the ongoing and systematic collection and analysis of data, but also on the researcher as an efficient manager and organiser of the data he has collected. In view of this, it is surprising that Glaser and Strauss (1967) do not outline procedures to assist the researcher with the time-consuming, and often problematic, task of handling data. Their only suggestion is that the researcher

> *... must engage continually in some systematic coding (usually just jotting categories and properties on the margins of his fieldnotes or other recorded data) and analytic memo writing.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.72)*

On the basis of the current investigation, it can be recommended that users of the grounded theory approach should carefully plan procedures for organising and managing their data. In this study, for instance, all the data was typed and then filed in a chronological catalogue, and in the beginning teachers' personal folios. As well, the data was transferred onto file cards (see, Figure 9, p.45), and a grid format (see, Figure 10, p.50) was used in the process of delimiting and refining the theory. Adopting procedures such as these may also assist the researcher in overcoming what is a perennial problem: the efficient use of time.

An associated problem which may be encountered with the grounded theory approach is that of data analysis.

Data Analysis:

One difficulty a researcher may face in developing grounded

theory, particularly in the early stages of research, is that of imposing upon newly collected data concepts from borrowed theory, rather than letting categories, properties and propositions emerge from the data. To help overcome this difficulty in the present study, the procedure adopted was similar to that recommended by Smith and Pohland (1976), namely, to become sensitised to the fact that grounded theory should always be intimately linked to data. In the current study, this was achieved through the researcher becoming *au fait* with all the data that was collected, and by monitoring closely the development of the categories, properties and propositions to ensure they were linked to the day-to-day situations experienced by the beginning teachers being researched.

The issue of data analysis also raises a more complex and personal problem for the user of the grounded theory approach. Because so few grounded theory studies have been undertaken, the researcher has no yardstick to use in judging the results of his data analysis, and the pressure this creates to present a credible and an acceptable theory may be felt throughout the time it takes to do a study. In carrying out data analysis, it therefore seems necessary not only for the researcher to document the procedures he adopted (see, Chapter Three), but also to keep in perspective the notion of what grounded theory is. This latter task, according to Haig (1980), is not an easy one as there has always been a tendency in educational research

> *... to treat theories as having arisen in full-blown form from the head of Zeus [rather than] to look upon theories as historically evolving entities with their own developmental history.*
>
> *(Haig, 1980, p.6)*

Haig goes on to point out that users of the grounded theory strategy should continually remind themselves that their task is to develop "nascent theories which stand in clear need of further development" (Haig, 1980, p.6), In this context, theory is seen as a developmental process, where the aim of data analysis is to suggest a set of plausible categories, properties and propositions which may elaborate and clarify the problem being researched.

It is suggested, then, that some of the stresses which may be associated with data analysis, and the need to produce a credible and accepted theory, could be lessened if the researcher keeps in perspective, and fully understands, the nature of grounded theory. Besides problems with data analysis, theoretical saturation may present difficulties for the user of the grounded theory approach.

Theoretical Saturation

Theoretical saturation was described in Chapter Two (see, pp. 25-26) as the criterion used to judge when to stop collecting data on a particular category. According to Glaser and Struass (1967) saturation occurs when the researcher makes an intuitive, but informed judgement to stop collecting data on a category when he can find no additional data to enrich that category further. In the present study, the notion of theoretical saturation was found to be a useful, although a somewhat slippery concept. On the one hand, it provided the researcher with a guideline whereby he could justify terminating a category of data. On the other hand, however, as Smith and Pohland (1976) indicate:

> [*Theoretical saturation*] *assumes that one knows in advance what the key categories are and where the locus of information is.*
>
> *(Smith and Pohland, 1976, p.269)*

One of the major difficulties, then, with the notion of theoretical saturation is that a researcher may come across new data on a category which has already been judged to be saturated. When this occurred in the present study, the new data was placed on a separate file card and attached to the appropriate category as an appendix. However, because most of the categories in the current study became saturated towards the end of the research, relatively little new data on saturated categories emerged, and none of this data gave rise to any further properties or propositions. Nevertheless, the fact that new data was collected does highlight a potential problem for the user of the grounded theory approach, particularly if categories are judged to be saturated early in the research. This situation also raises another issue in that the constraints (e.g., time) associated with doing fieldwork studies may lead the researcher to make a premature decision concerning the saturation of categories. Although this did not arise in the current investigation, it was recognised that the time sequence set down for a research project may not be compatible with the time required for theoretical saturation of categories to occur. In this regard, Glaser and Strauss deliver a general caution:

> *The tempo of the research is difficult to know beforehand, because it is largely contingent on the tempo of the emerging theory, which may come quickly at some points and at others involve long periods of gestation.*
>
> *(Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.74)*

One further problem concerning the use of the grounded theory strategy which was identified in this study was that of data relevance.

Data Relevance

It was earlier stated that in developing grounded theory, the researcher must participate in an ongoing and systematic collection and analysis of data. One problem which may arise from constantly being at the interface between the collection and analysis process is that of deciding on the relevance of certain data. Glaser and Strauss (1967, p.58) maintain that the researcher "must remember that he is an active sampler of theoretically relevant data." However, the assumption here is that the researcher is always in a position to make a judgement concerning the relevance of all the data he has collected. The inherent danger of this stance is that data which is judged as not being theoretically useful may, in the light of subsequent data, be extremely relevant (see, Battersby and Ramsay, 1979).

This difficulty was coped with in the present study by systematically recording all data and regarding it as both useful and relevant. Furthermore, regular breaks were taken from collecting data in the field (see, Chapter Three), and during these occasions the researcher was able to analyse his most recent data, and then review it in the light of that which had been gathered previously.

SUMMARY

This final chapter has provided an insight into some of the methodological problems and pitfalls experienced during the course of the present study. In carrying out the fieldwork, the researcher faced an unforeseen hurdle in gaining assistance and approval from the local Education Board in the region where the research was being undertaken. Following a discussion of this issue, three instances were cited where the researcher was aware that he had become a participant in the field. In two of these cases, the researcher deliberately intervened with the aim of helping a beginning teacher and a Principal cope with the stress they were experiencing. This first section concluded with a discussion of where data collection techniques were seen to be a source of influence on those from whom the data was being gathered.

The second objective of this chapter was to detail the difficulties encountered in using the grounded strategy. Researcher bias was the

first of these, and here reference was made to the influence of the researcher's predispositions on the development of *Teacher Training* and *Career in Teaching* as two categories of the grounded theory. Handling and analysing data also provided problems in the present study, as too did the notion of theoretical saturation, and these were outlined. Finally, the issue of data relevance and the potential difficulty it can cause the user of the grounded theory approach was also discussed.

A brief concluding statement to the report of this investigation follows. A bibliography of the research and literature that was consulted during the study is then provided, along with a second volume which contains biographical information on the sample of beginning teachers chosen for this research, copies of the questionnaires and interview schedules that were used, and an analysis of the questionnaire results.

CONCLUSION

This study has sought to achieve two objectives: to provide an indepth and systematic view of a group of beginning primary school teachers' experiences during their first year of teaching, and, to derive from this, a theory which would elaborate and clarify the process of socialisation for these teachers.

The first chapters of this report discussed the development of these objectives in the context of the research and literature on beginning teachers, how these objectives influenced the selection of a research design and methodology, and how the implementation of this design was carried out using case study data collection techniques in conjunction with a strategy for theory construction known as "grounded theory". The remaining chapters focussed on the outcomes of this study which were presented in the form of a grounded theory. The propositions emerging from this theory were discussed; its uses and implications were highlighted; and, the methodological problems and issues which arose in developing it were outlined.

Besides fulfilling the above two objectives, this study has made a contribution in providing an insight into the the transition of first year teachers from college students to primary school teachers; in developing a theory which may prove to be a profitable starting point for further research on beginning teachers and on teacher socialisation; and, in pioneering the use of case study data collection techniques in tandem with the grounded theory strategy, in educational research.

Finally, one cannot be far from the spirit of theory as process if one concludes by conceding that the major contribution of the present study is an embryonic theory, closely tied to the everyday world of first year teachers, which seeks to shed light on the process of teacher socialisation. This theory is not a perfected product, but rather an entity which needs further development.

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