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An evaluation study of the Galbraith Project PSIII internship

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AN EVALUATION STUDY
OF THE GALBRAITH PROJECT
PSIII INTERNSHIP

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B.Ed., University of Lethbridge, 1990

A One-Credit Project
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Abstract

The purpose of the Galbraith Project is to document the experiences of the participants (the interns, the teacher mentors, the faculty mentor, and the administration) in a PSIII internship study. 10 interns were “clustered” at Galbraith School. Specifically, the objectives of the project are: Did the participants meet their goals, what helped or hindered the attainment of their goals, and what changes; if any, would be recommended for the PSIII internship program? The findings from this research indicate that the role of the mentor, collaboration between the participants and time to reflect were important factors in aiding the participants to reach their goals.
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INTRODUCTION

The notion of inductive internship encapsulates the basic purposes of Professional Semester III, the final field experience within the teacher education program at the University of Lethbridge. It is a fifteen week school-based internship designed to enable qualified students who have successfully completed most of their university course work and three cumulatively more challenging practica, to undertake a gradual experiential bridge into the teaching profession.

The Galbraith Project took the general design of the PS III internship and integrated it with the school-based professional development needs of the school. Instead of having a small number of interns working on individual professional development projects with their mentor teachers, the project attempted to place as many interns as possible in one school. This provided the opportunity for clusters of pairs of interns and their mentor teachers to work together in a collaborative way on professional development projects which met individual, group, and school needs. It also provided the opportunity to explore whether such a large group could be effectively integrated into the ongoing work of the school, and maintain accepted standards and objectives for teaching.

RATIONALE

The purpose of this study is to document the experiences of the participants of the project: the administrators, teacher mentors, faculty mentor, and interns. More specifically, the objectives of the project are to answer the following questions:
1. How far was each participant whether teacher mentor, administrator, intern, faculty mentor, able to meet their own goals in this project?

2. What processes, elements, and relationships were significant in enabling each participant to meet their goals?

3. What resources, persons, and processes helped participants meet and overcome challenges?

4. What factors hindered meeting professional development and other goals?

5. How do participants rate the effectiveness of the various elements and processes in relation to their goals and professional development?

6. What changes in the structures, roles, relationships, and processes in PS III can participants suggest to improve the effectiveness of their internship?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition

As we approach the millennium there is an expanding consciousness of the need for programs for neophyte teachers which it could become known as the century of induction. What is induction? Traditionally, induction alludes to the “influence exerted on reports by a profession’s admission, preparation, and initiation systems, usually involving special status passages that mark the path to full acceptance and membership” (Lawson, 1992, p.165). It is a staged process beginning with recruitment, succeeded by education in a university and lastly, after graduation, a job in the workplace. Induction is a social process which, hopefully, results in “professional socialization” of the novice (Lawson, 1992). Today in education, induction denotes a planned, organized orientation procedure. Huling-Austin (1990) defines induction as a “planned program intended to provide some systematic and sustained assistance, specifically to beginning teachers for at
least one school year" (p. 55). He states that the goal of induction programs should be:

To provide the support and assistance necessary for the successful development of beginning teachers who enter the profession with the background, ability, and personal characteristics to become acceptable teachers. (Huling-Austin, 1990, p. 57)

**The Need for Induction Programs**

Why are induction programs needed? Formal induction programs provide continuity between the closely supervised preservice or practicum experience and the assumption of full classroom responsibilities (Ballantyne, 1995).

Student teachers have not experienced a sequence of instructional failures, boredom or the trapped feeling of burnout within the profession. They do not always encounter the nonteaching requirements of staff meetings, supervision, home visits, and parent/teacher conferences. Studies reveal the most common problems of new teachers are: “classroom discipline, control and management; motivating students; dealing with individual differences among students; identifying appropriate levels at which to teach; evaluating one’s own teaching; assessing student’s work and progress; relations with school authorities and colleagues and relations with parents” (Veenman, 1984).

Research shows that becoming a teacher is not a simple progression from one role to another. Katz (1972) names four developmental stages of teachers over the course of their careers. The first stage of teacher development is the survival stage. It involves making it through the daily and weekly planning coupled with feelings of inadequacy and self-doubt. Next is the consolidation stage where interests move beyond worries over the
self and to the students. The novice feels more comfortable with the teacher role and demonstrates an interest in the needs of the students. The third stage is where the burned out teacher seeks renewal and professional development. Lastly is the honoured state of maturity and looking forward to retirement. Fuller (1969) stated three major problem phases: pre-service non-concerns phase, early teaching concerns phase and late teaching concerns phase. The concerns of the beginning teacher are threefold: survival (especially classroom management and discipline) and self-adequacy, limitations and frustrations of teaching, and distress about students learning and needs. These findings suggest a definite need for supportive induction programs.

As teaching becomes more complex and challenging, the transition year becomes more a survival test than a time of professional growth and development (Cooke, 1991). The experience of the beginning teacher has been depicted as a “sink or swim situation.” New teachers are often placed in a classroom with little preparation and minimum support. A characteristic of beginning teachers discovered in the induction research is “unrealistic optimism” (Hulig-Austin, 1992, p. 176). The researchers discovered that teacher education students tend to think they would experience less difficulty than the seasoned teacher on tasks such as classroom management and organizational skills. They suggest that student teachers leave the practicum experience with the assumption that “teaching is not all that difficult” (Hulig-Austin, 1992, p. 175). When teachers attain their own classroom, this conviction becomes what Veenman labels as “reality shock” (1984, p. 15). It is no wonder that 30% of beginning teachers leave the profession during the first
two years, and another 10% to 20% leave during the next five. Statistics show that 50%
of beginning teachers leave the profession within seven years! Sadly, those of whomleave are the most academically talented teachers (Haipt, 1990). Induction programs need
to be aware of this propensity and plan accordingly.

Researchers argue that teachers have two roles to learn: the first is teaching the
students effectively and the second is learning how to teach (Talbert & Camp, 1992).
They state that a lot of recognition is attributed to the first role but the second is ignored.
As the intern begins to learn his or her role, socialization takes place in the induction
program. Schlecty (1985) defines induction as “the implantation of school standards and
norms so deeply within the teacher that the teacher’s conduct completely and
spontaneously reflects these norms” (p. 34). Teacher socialization is not a simple
transition from one role to another. According to Lacey (1977) it is a “social process
involving complex interactions between prospective and experienced teachers and their
social situations” (p. 57). Neither teacher education nor induction could be observed as a
linear black and white process, as it was traditionally viewed. Today, teacher
socialization is perceived as “contradictory and dialectical” and “situated within the
broader context of institutions, society, culture and history (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p.
343).

**Qualities of an Effective Induction Program**

The goal of an induction program is to transform the neophyte student teacher into
a competent teacher. Schlechty (1985) proposes that effective induction programs could exemplify the following characteristics and suggests a checklist of eight program qualities:

1. The program explains to the inductees that the process of selection is based on special requirements and that induction training is crucial to their future success.

2. The induction process is divided into progressive stages of achievement.

3. The program cultivates mutual support within peer groups.

4. The training is oriented toward long-term career goals.

5. Expectations and norms of teacher conduct are clearly articulated and disseminated.


7. The responsibility for supervision should be distributed throughout the faculty in a tightly organized, consistent, and continuous program (p.89).

He concludes that signs of effective inductive programs can be observed in the “attitudes and behaviours of the faculty and administration: support of school norms and the general conformity of teacher performance to those norms” (Schlecty, 1985, p.92).

The most commonly cited goals for induction programs are:

1. Orientation to the community and school system (culture, philosophy, policy and procedures).


3. To encourage collaborative work.

4. To help teachers cope with the transition to teaching.
5. To develop and enhance personal and professional skills.
6. To provide information and support.
7. To promote self-esteem.
8. To encourage teachers to stay in the school system.
9. To enhance the "inquiring teacher" and ongoing reflection.

Existing Programs

As the terms internship and induction, many components of teacher induction programs are borrowed from other professions as medicine and business. The literature reveals several current induction models. The three most commonly referred to are Fifth year Internship Programs, Mentoring, and Professional Development Schools.

Fifth Year Internships

Definition

There seems to be a great deal of debate on the meaning of the term internship in teacher education as we head towards the 21st century. Words such as induction, preservice, mentoring, extended practicum and professional development schools become intermingled with internship. What is internship? According to Titley (1984), internships encapsulate these features:

1. It is a learning experience that deals with the reality of professional practice.
2. It follows other theoretical and practical aspects of preparation.
3. It is normally a terminal experience - the last stage before the granting of full professional status.

4. It is an experience that is subject to evaluation by qualified practitioners.

5. Though under supervision, the internship must also entail full-fledged decision-making and its concomitant professional responsibility (p.87).

**Goals of Internship**

Titley goes on to state that even though a lot of programs are labelled as internships, to use his terminology, they are really extended practicums which can lead to confusion. To attempt to make some sense of the muddle, five main objectives of internship are:

1. Improvement in quality of services delivered by an profession.

2. Development of client and collegial skill, by observation, guidance and experience.

3. Employment and receipt of semi professional services from graduates.

4. Provision of opportunities for supervising practitioners to assess each interns’ potential suitability for permanent employment.

5. Possible enhancement of supervisory skills between reflection, demonstration, and discussion with neophytes (Ratsoy, 1987, p. 167).

Jacknicke and Samirodin (1991) state three common characteristics of teacher internship:

1. A great deal of emphasis is directed at integrating theory and practice.

2. They are designed to facilitate the transition from academic preparation to full professional responsibility.

3. There are a wide variety of programs labelled internship.
Other features of internship programs are:

1. Extended on site application and refinement of practical and theoretical skills.
2. Practical instruction modelling and personal and professional guidance by an expert supervisor.
3. Individual tailoring of the program.
4. Duration of one year.
5. Mandatory participation.
7. Full certification.
8. Variety of professional tasks.
9. Employment by a professional firm with partial payment.
10. Associated with a limited period of formal instruction culminating with an examination (Ratsoy, 1987).

Benefits of Internship Programs

The benefits of internship programs are similar to those of induction programs. According to Ratsoy (1987) the benefits are:

1. The intern will overcome feelings of isolation and reserve to seek professional assistance.
2. It will improve selection of teachers by featuring incompetent ones.
3. It provides a means of reviewing theory and practise of teacher preparation programs.
4. A much smoother transition from neophyte to professional with the aid of a mentor.
5. It will foster recruitment of teachers.

6. Improves retention of teachers and decreases the attrition rate.

7. Develops and reinforces classroom management techniques.

8. Provides opportunities for beginning teachers to observe and develop professional relationships with colleagues and learn the ethics of the profession.

A Brief History of Internship Programs

In 1895, at Brown University the first practise teaching took place in high schools. In 1919, the University of Cincinnati instituted a program for beginning teachers. They worked half time with a salary, and had responsibility for supervision and course work. At completion, degrees were awarded and, hopefully, a job would be obtained. It is interesting to note how the political scene changed the concept of internship.

During the depression a surplus of teachers developed, and colleges extended the program to five years. With the onset of World War II practicum or internship programs were thrown out the door. Teachers would have one year of teaching with minimal internship. During the 60s, we see two types of internships: a) a graduate level program with a master of arts awarded in the fifth year, and b) a probationary year prior to certification.

In Alberta, the first internship programs were set up during World War II as emergency six week teacher training programs! In the 60s the Cameron Report called for a “one year internship” but it was not really to the 70s and 80s when reality became practise.
Different Models of Internship in United States and Canada

Internship and induction both agree that the “first year of teaching is the crucial stage in transition” (Ratsoy, 1987, p. 180). Yet there are a lot of variations labelled internship. What are they? Programs that go beyond the traditional four year education degree are know as fifth year programs. In the United States and Canada fifth year programs are lengthened undergraduate degrees as at the University of Lethbridge. At many universities in the United States, the fifth year is a chance to commence a master’s degree. It is interesting to note that despite the findings of the Virginia State Education board that only 4% of teachers wanted a fifth year paid internship program, many are being developed through the US and Canada.

Normally, internships range from 16 weeks to a full school year. They may occur after graduation or be integrated into an undergraduate program. The interns are usually supervised or evaluated by university professors, the associate teacher, the principal or the school district representatives. Some programs engage the interns in seminars where they return to the university on a regular basis for “hands-on” workshops or discussions with their peers.

Some programs, as stated previously, are before graduation while others are after. In some the interns are paid, though usually half of a regular teacher’s salary. The paid intern combines half time teaching responsibility with academic studies. Some intern programs assign the teachers a mentor in the form of a senior more experienced teacher
who provides continual support for teacher development.

In Washington, the Catholic University of America has developed a fifth year program in which the fifth year is a paid induction year during which the student is supervised by an experienced mentor teacher (Holmes Group, 1988). Various states have acted to reform their education systems. Nineteen colleges in Alabama have graduate programs for prospective teachers. In Tennessee, persons who have not student taught work as an intern for one year which counts as the fifth year of study. Two models proposed for fifth year programs encompass a 15-month graduate internship while the second model totally immerses the student in a 12 month graduate level program.

In Canada, the history of internship programs begins in Ontario at Queen’s University in 1974 (Titley, 1984). QUIP (Queen’s University Internship Program) is a nine week internship in the schools with cooperating teachers and university staff viewed as mentors or “helpful guides.” Other internship programs in Canada, at the University of Victoria, Saskatoon and Regina, are similar. At the University of Saskatoon, students begin by taking a half course to develop classroom skills. By the second phase they have 16 weeks of extended practica which culminates with a full teaching load. Seminars are also a characteristic. The University of Regina also has a one year compulsory internship. The University of Manitoba instituted a graduate internship program in 1975 where one could share half time teaching appointments and pursue graduate studies. At the University of Calgary they have a 13 week program with 20 days of full immersion.

The history of the extended practica is interesting in Alberta. It begins in 1905 with
the Calgary Normal School offering practise teaching so that by 1914, teachers enrolled in a 4 month teaching course taught 8 practise lessons! In the 1920s Edmonton’s Normal school offered 35 half days in the schools for practise teaching. The 30s saw the University of Alberta offering two full days per week in schools for six weeks. The war restricted practicums. Post War there was limited practise teaching, but with the onset of the 60s, education students had a two year program with a six week practicum. By the 90s the Albertan government legislated 12 full weeks of practicum!

Distinction is blurred between the extended practica and internship. Ratsoy (1987) states the difference between practicum and internship:

1. Practicum is the component of a teacher preparation program. Internship follows graduation.

2. Condition of graduation is successful completion of Practicum whereas internship is not always compulsory.

3. No salary for Practicum. Usually there is for Internship.

4. Practise Teachers are closely supervised by TA and University.

5. Practicum focuses on range of teaching tasks and responsibilities of teachers while Internship focuses on shortcomings and needs of individual interns.

6. Student teachers are exposed to a variety of schools whereas interns one.

7. Interns take major responsibility. (p.201)

Disadvantages of the Fifth Year Program

One disadvantage of the fifth year program is they do not attract enough minority students. Hence in the United States and Canada, the increasing percentage of minorities
could expect to be taught by a decreasing minority in the teaching field (Bass de Martinez, 1988). Another problem is that researchers have discovered that teachers are reluctant to put their financial means into a five year program when other professional careers require only four years and have higher remuneration (Talbert & Camp, 1992).

Some more disadvantages of the fifth year program are: interns misassigned to schools, unclear role expectations of supervising teacher and intern, inferior supervising teacher, a year is too long, low or non existent salary, principals unclear of expectations, too many interns clustered in one school, interns feel unprotected legally, most schools have not developed good internship programs, evaluation of interns not always fair, and the role of mentor is unclear. This leads to an alternative internship model (Ratsoy, 1986).

Wise (1986) suggested a sixth year program. His proposal included a 4 year undergraduate degree followed by a one year master’s degree culminating with a one-year paid internship.

Jones (1986) also proposes a 6 year program to alleviate some of the “problems” of a fifth year internship. According to Jones more deterrents of a five year program are:

1. The time required to complete a 5 year program adds to financial stress.
2. Financial loss during the extended period of study, a loss in earning power.
3. The ability to maintain an adequate number of high quality students.

4. Extended low salaries offered to graduates.

5. Limited financial support to finance the fifth or sixth year.


7. A continuing reduction in the pool of applicants age twenty-two to twenty-nine. (Jones, 1986)

In Jones’ 6 year program, he has three related phases: the Pre-professional which is comprised of three years of study at the university. In the Pre-Service Professional Preparation phase the student will integrate in the first year, nine weeks of student teaching with upper level courses in a teaching speciality.

In the second year he or she will take more classes plus engage in a twelve week internship program. Phase III of his proposal referred to as the “Initiation into professional practice” is completed during the first year of employment and leads to certification. Furthermore, involvement in this program, will permit students to earn twelve hours of graduate credit towards a Master’s degree. At completion of this sixth year, the teacher will be fully inducted into the system.

**Mentoring: An Alternative Model**

"It is the supreme art of the mentor to awaken joy in creative expression and knowledge."

Albert Einstein
Definition

Another current model of induction is mentoring. Mentoring is actually inherent in most models of induction, but is such an important component, it needs to be set apart. The term itself comes from Greek mythology. In Homer’s *Odyssey*, Athene took the image of Mentor a wise and loyal friend of Odysseus. She guided his son Telemachus on his voyage to maturity when his father ventured off to fight the Trojan War. Hence the word mentor historically indicates a “trusted guide and counsellor, and the mentor-protege relationship, a deep and meaningful association” (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1986, p.8).

Apparently as in the education field, the relationship between Telemachus and Mentor was not an effortless one. He comments, “it was Mentor’s difficult task to help Telemachus see the error in his judgement in a way that would allow the young protege to grow in wisdom and not in rebellion” (Clawson, 1980).

Keeping in mind its historical context, mentoring has been defined as the establishment of a personal relationship for the purpose of professional instruction and guidance (Purdue, 1986). Many professions, such as business, medicine and particularly administration use mentoring as an induction procedure to ensure that the accumulated knowledge of its senior members is passed on to the next generation.

Most research on mentoring has been in business professions and adult development education which can be modified to the school setting. An excellent definition of mentoring comes to us from Levinson’s *Seasons of a Man’s Life* (1978) which is a study on mentoring from the adult professional development point of view. The mentor
relationship can be interpreted as:

The mentor may act as a teacher to enhance the younger man’s skills and intellectual development. Serving as a sponsor, he may use his influence to promote the young man’s entry and advancement. He may be a host and guide, welcoming the initiate into a new occupational and social world and acquainting him with its values, customs, resources, and cast of characters. Through his own virtues, achievement, and way of life, the mentor may be an exemplar that the protégé can admire and seek to emulate. He may provide counsel and moral support in times of stress. (Levinson, 1978, p.108)

Levinson compared poor mentoring to ineffective parenting and implied that a young adult would be at a disadvantage without an effective mentor. One study reveals that many adults are immersed into a mentor relationship at an early adult stage or in the mid life crisis stage. The implications for this of understanding the induction period for the beginning teacher as they become practised teachers. At this stage, one is concerned about developing competence, skills and a professional identity.

An older more experienced teacher, going through a mid life crisis, may encounter what Eriksen terms as “generativity vs. stagnation.” Generativity has been described as “a commitment to improving life conditions for the next generation and suggest that it conveys the depth of satisfaction with one’s accomplishments as well as the realization that individual life does not continue forever” (Otto, 1991, p.56). Mentoring is a way to contribute to the next generation and to avert stagnation. Hence, research states that older more experienced teachers as well as beginning teachers can benefit from mentoring (Bova & Philips, 1992).

Findings state that protégés learn risk-taking behaviors, communication skills,
political skills, and skills related to their professions. In academic mentoring, different terms have been used interchangeably to describe the functions of a mentor. In adult education, such terms as networking relationships, peer pals or guides, coach and confidante or sponsors are used (Wunsch, 1994). With student teachers, the term could mean teacher, counselor, friend, cheerleader or role model. As one can see there is much ambiguity. What are the characteristics and functions of mentoring?

**Characteristics**

A mentor is supposedly an older, experienced teacher who assists the younger neophyte teacher to become an effective professional. Talbert and Camp (1992) identify 5 main functions of a mentor:

1. Sponsoring
2. Encouraging
3. Counselling
4. Befriending
5. Teaching (p.39)

Mentors could serve as support persons, give emotional encouragement, as well as provide suggestions for classroom management or effective teaching instruction. Three possible mentoring activities would be demonstrating lessons, observing and giving feedback and holding support seminars (Talbert & Camp, 1992). According to Bova and Philips (1982) ten characteristics of the mentor-protégé relationship are:

1. Mentor-protégé relationships grow out of voluntary interaction. It must grow from an established relationship of trust founded on mutual respect and cannot be dictated.
2. The mentor-protégé relationship has a life cycle: introduction; mutual trust building; teaching of risk taking, communication and professional skills, transfer of professional standards; and dissolution.

3. Mentors become mentors in order to pass down their accumulation of information to the next generation.

4. Mentors, interested in the protégé’s career development, encourage the protégé in setting and attaining short-and-long-term goals.

5. Mentors guide technically and professionally. The mentor teaches the protégé skills necessary to survive daily experiences and promotes career-scope professional development.

6. Mentors protect protégés from major mistakes by limiting their exposure to responsibility. This also includes protection by developing the protégé’s political awareness.

7. Mentors provide opportunities for protégés to observe and participate in their work.

8. Mentors are role models.

9. Mentors sponsor protégés organizationally and professionally. The protégé’s activities reflect on the mentor’s ability to transfer appropriate information.

10. Mentor-protégé relationships do end, amiably or bitterly. (p.38)

**The Mentor Relationship**

Mentoring is a complex role requiring “higher order ability to observe, to demonstrate and coach” (Thies-Sprinthall, 1986, p. 15). Huling- Austin (1988) discovered, in a study on teacher induction, the importance of the relationship between the mentor and the neophyte teacher. The mentor’s age, gender, organizational position, power, and self-confidence play a large function in the success of the relationship. Age
differences much greater than 8-15 years incur problems. If the mentor is a generation older, there is the risk of a parent-child dependency which could interfere with the mentoring function. Whereas if the age span is less than 8 years, the relationship resembles peer friendship.

Gender also plays an important function. In a male-female situation, female protégé experience “overprotectiveness and greater social distance while dealing with sexual tensions and fears, public scrutiny and stereotypical male-female roles” (Galvez-Hjornek, 1986, p.12).

The traits of a mentor can affect the relationship. The six most important characteristics of a mentor are: “A willingness to knowledge, honesty, competency; a willingness to allow growth, a willingness to give positive and critical feedback, and directness in dealings with the protégé” (Knox & McGovern, 1988, p. 40). More than personal qualities, mentors need interpersonal skills such as “attentive listening, assertiveness, feedback methods and positive reinforcement techniques” (Sandler, 1993, 14). Odell (1991) stated that effective mentors are distinguished by “teacher excellence, ability to work with adults, respect for others viewpoints, willingness to engage in active, open learning and social and public relations skills” (p.69).

Using the Delphi Technique, Sandler (1993) had teachers rate attributes of effective guides. The most beneficial were; “approachability, positive outlook, integrity, confidence, ability to listen commitment to the profession, sincerity, openness, willingness to spend time experience in teaching, teaching competence, tactfulness,
trustworthiness, cooperativeness, receptivity, flexibility, willingness to work hard” (Sandler, 1993, p. 15).

Benefits of Mentoring

Mentoring aids all participants: the mentor, the intern and the school. The intern’s struggle to survive is eased comparably. The sense of “reality shock” is eased by regular interaction with an experienced mentor. Collegiality is promoted by regular sharing on a professional level. Quick assimilation into the culture of the school and teaching and developing professional competence are others. Environmental difficulties such as difficult work assignments, unclear expectations, inadequate resources, isolation, role conflict, and reality shock coupled with the specific needs of beginning teachers are all benefits for the intern with a mentor. The needs of a beginning teacher as researched by Odell (1991) are:

1. Managing the classroom.
2. Acquiring information about the school system.
3. Obtaining instructional resources and materials.
4. Planning, organizing, and managing instruction and other professional responsibilities.
5. Assessing students and evaluating student progress.
6. Motivating students.
7. Using effective teaching method.
8. Dealing with individual students’ needs, interests, abilities, and problems.

9. Communicating with parents.

10. Adjusting to the teaching environment and role.

11. Receiving emotional support.

By not paying attention to these needs, the intern could experience depression, lack of self-esteem and may ultimately drop out of the teaching profession. Research on effects of mentoring reveals that 95% of teachers in mentoring programs considered mentoring an important element of teacher induction (Hulig-Austin, 1987). Learning to teach well is a life long process, one that is achieved with the aid of an effective mentor.

How do mentors benefit? They need to reflect and analyse their own teaching and in doing so become teachers and learners. The transference of skills and knowledge, the questioning or challenge of beginning teachers, mutual observation and assessment all contribute to the teaching-learning process. Eriksen’s theory of generativity versus self-absorption is implicated for the mentor looks beyond oneself and is concerned about the next generation of teachers and the future of teaching itself. If one is self-absorbed, one is preoccupied with one’s own well-being and material gains which can be overcome by stagnation, boredom and interpersonal impoverishment. The role of mentoring leads not to the black of hole of burnout but to the road of renewal.

Schools also reap the rewards of mentoring. Studies show schools who participate in mentoring programs actually lower their teacher attrition rate. Close supervision also “weeds out” the ineffective teacher. Involving experienced teachers in the program
demonstrates interest in the faculty and is conducive to lifelong learning and professional growth.

Problems/Cons

There is much ambiguity with the roles of mentoring. One problem is confusion with assessment and evaluation. Does the mentor assume the role of evaluator? No, because an effective mentoring program must be founded on a basis of trust. The mentor is a guide, not a judge. Criteria and methods for choosing compatible mentors is another problem common to programs. Once again, a good relationship is based on mutual trust and respect and both should have compatible personalities. Mandatory placement seems to place obstacles to the program. Mentors should be mentors because they want to be. Philip-Jones recommends that participation be voluntary.

Models of mentoring

Mentoring programs can be structured or informal, can include evaluation or not and can be province wide or school wide. Structured programs often include the combined efforts of the school and university. Sullivan (1992) portrays three models of mentoring programs:

1. In one model, the energies of school and higher education personnel are combined. Teacher educators work together with district administrators and classrooms teachers to ensure that the transition from student teaching to full-time teaching is smooth.

2. Another model emphasizes supervision and coaching from the building
administrator or district staff personnel. In some cases, the first year of teaching is considered as an internship, featuring intensive feedback from district supervisors.

3. A common model of induction features experienced teachers as mentors, who provide the new teacher with legitimate access to a colleague’s expertise. The mentor program provides a sounding board for the new teacher’s questions and concerns, and mentor teachers may provide formal classroom observations in a format of clinical supervision. (p. 234)

Professional Development Schools

The last model emerging in the 1990s of inductive internship is the concept of Professional Development Schools (hereafter referred to as PDS). The need for educational reform takes us back to the 60s with the focus on curriculum development and minority students. In the 70s we saw the “back to basics” movement while in the 80s and 90s the focus seems to be on improving teacher quality and preparation or teacher education programs. Over 100 years ago, the “Committee of Ten” urged closer ties with the universities and schools to improve education. Around the same time, John Dewey stated the need for laboratory schools on university campuses to serve as research sites and educate new teachers. Laboratory schools peaked in the 60s but never did reach the ideal for research that Dewey hoped for.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the need for renewed partnership with universities and schools was revived in the writings of John Goodlad. Goodlad stated three concepts which adhere to the PDS model. Firstly, frustrated with the dichotomy between university and schools, he called for; “A new organization, a school of pedagogy, consisting of
liberal arts faculty, college of education faculty, and public school personnel” (Goodlad, 1990, p.102).

The new centres would work collaboratively to place the students as cohort groups in PDS as interns for a one year term. Secondly, with the students placements, they would be totally immersed in the culture of the school. All efforts for reform and reconstruction by the entire school would take place. Thirdly, identifying the dilemma of conflict and theory, Goodlad proposed a PDS where students, teachers and university faculty would work collaboratively to “thrash out conflicts between practise supported by research and accepted school practise.” By frank discussions, he hoped to “develop an atmosphere of congruence and reinforcement of theory and practise” (Goodlad, 1990, p. 103).

In 1986, the Holmes Group which is a committee of 110 deans of universities of education proposed the development of PDS which followed Goodlad’s principles. In the PDS, beginning and experienced teachers would be educated and work collaboratively with university and school faculty on educational research and professional development. The functions of the PDS are:

Student achievement, teacher induction, and improvement of practice. Schools which share this mission are also known as professional practice schools and clinical schools. These schools are collaborations between school districts, universities, and teachers unions; sites where practitioners, researchers, and clinical faculty work together to expand the knowledge base of the profession and prepare future practitioners. (Holmes Group, 1986)

The most recent Holmes report (1986) states that faculty should model a “living bridge between campus and practice as they share with colleagues on campus
responsibilities associated with the Professional Development School agenda and with the development and operation of professional studies programs. Differentiated roles will be developed, where faculty having their tenure with the schools collaborate with faculty tenured with the university in making significant contributions to programs of teaching and inquiry" (p. 56). It should also be mentioned that in the Holmes group proposals, preservice students are 5th year students working in the schools as interns.

Goals of Professional Development Schools

According to the Holmes Group (1986), PDS sites should adhere to the following six principles:

1. Teaching and learning for understanding. Students must do more than complete isolated drills, they must participate in meaningful life experiences that allows learning to continue learning for a lifetime.

2. Creating a learning community. Classrooms and schools must be organized as communities of learning in which democracy is practised not preached.

3. Teaching and learning for understanding for all children not just those of the dominant culture.

4. Continued professional growth for teachers, administrators and all who participate.

5. Reflection and research on practice of teaching and learning. Both individual and collective reflection and research are necessary for improvements to occur.

6. Inventing a new institution. If the previous five principles are adhered to, the PDS will have to develop a different kind of organizational structure. (Winitzky & Stoddart, 1992, p. 6)
One can see that the focus is on teaching and learning for all, the student teacher, the student, the university faculty and the staff. Zeichner (1990) states that one of the most serious obstacles to teacher practicums today are “the cross-purposes pitfall, or the lack of attention paid to student teacher learning versus student’s learning” (p.119). The goals of the PDS seem to reflect a response to this problem.

**Characteristics of PDS**

There are many attributes of a PDS based on the findings of the Holmes Group (1986) and Goodlad (1990). The following characteristics are:

1. Congruency between university and schools to reinforce an efficient model to prepare interns.
2. Clustering of students in schools.
3. Intensive and extensive practicum which involves sometimes the entire school.
4. New roles for teacher training which could involve full time responsibility in the schools for university faculty.
5. Curriculum reform tied to teacher training.
6. Engaging interns more in the culture of the school, i.e. conflicts between parents and special interest groups.
7. The concept of a new institution composed of university faculty, and schools with their own budgets, site based management.
8. Linking the field experience of teacher education to school reform.
9. The empowerment of teachers in dialogue, discussion, and inquiry of practise
Problems/Concerns of PDS

The concept of PDS sounds beneficial in theory but there are some concerns of the actual practise. Many activities and methods may expend considerable financial resources. A collaborative model of teacher training could involve more time, money and personnel than the traditional teaching model. The university culture may inhibit the called for faculty involvement in school affairs. Some faculty may not want to return to the school system. Aspects of the school culture also may inhibit the development of professional schools. Differential treatment may be seen as favouritism while collegial reflection may be challenged.

On the practical side, there may be few sites for the schools, resulting in strong competition for positions as interns, leading to elitism. The PDS movement is relatively new. Even though a number of schools in the United States and Canada are establishing PDS’s, little is really known of attempts to address these problems. Zeichner (1990) stresses that professional development schools are not “panaceas for the problems of the practicum” (p.120).

Failure to broaden the practicum beyond the boundaries of the school and into the community is a obstacle. Yet, the basic assumptions are worthy of further assessment and it seems to be critical to examine the pros and the cons of PDS for their future success.
Why Qualitative Research

Why qualitative research? Alan Peshkin (1991) states his preferred research procedure is based on these facts: “I liked watching, I liked asking questions, and I liked listening. I also enjoyed reading, particularly fiction, which influenced the form of my writing. Eventually I built a research course around the way I learned and wrote. I learned that I had always been a qualitative researcher!” (p.4). Due to the experiential aspect of the Galbraith project the qualitative paradigm seems to be the best method of evaluation.

Qualitative research is an umbrella term which refers to several different phrases and concepts associated with the term. For example: field work, naturalistic, phenomenological, ethnography, case study, symbolic interactionist, the Chicago school, grounded theory, descriptive, soft data and ethno methodological to name a few.

This can cause some confusion for the researcher. What is the meaning of the phrase or is there one specific meaning? To many the meaning varies depending on the user and the setting. Perhaps if one delves into the difference between quantitative and qualitative research, one can see the “forest for the trees.”

Most people are familiar with quantitative research. One thinks of utilizing a measuring instrument such as questionnaires on a large sample, collecting and analysing hard data by reducing it to numbers or statistics. Objectivity, reliability, validity,
empirical, deductive, hypothesis, replication, statistically significant are terms and concepts commonly associated with the approach (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). The researcher’s role is one of detachment and objectivity. He or she must observe and measure data taking care not to “contaminate” the results through any personal involvement with the subjects. To the positivist or quantitative researcher, the world is comprised of “observable, measurable facts” (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p.6).

**Characteristics of Qualitative Research**

Whereas to the qualitative researcher, the world view is one of interpretive inquiry where reality is “socially constructed, complex and ever changing” (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p.6). According to Bogdan and Taylor (1975) qualitative research has the following five features:

1. The natural setting is the data source and the researcher is the key data collector. Researchers immerse themselves in the setting of others and use many methods to gather data. They believe that the setting influences human behaviour and whenever possible go there.

2. It attempts primarily to describe and only secondarily to analyse. Nothing is taken for granted for it may be a clue to unlock the complexities of social interaction.

3. The concern is as much with the process (what has happened) as with the outcome or product. Researchers ask “How can I assemble my data into something meaningful? What else should I be asking? How do certain labels come to be implemented?” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p.290)

4. Data is analysed inductively. Rather than beginning with a hypothesis and theories, it ends with one. Theory is developed from the bottom up from many
pieces of gathered data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) refer to this as “grounded theory.” One could compare the process to that of a “funnel: things are open at the beginning or top and more directed or specific at the bottom” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 29). What is of the utmost importance is not predetermined (preconceived) by the researcher.

5. Meaning is the main concern, the why is as much interest as the what? Frequently asked questions are: “What are the subjects experiencing, how are they interpreting their experiences, and how they themselves structure the social world in what they live?” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p.30)

Hence, these five features of qualitative research reflect the paradigm and reinforce the connection of social interaction to the complexities of the participants reality.

Theoretical Underpinnings & Historical Traditions of Qualitative Research in Education

As stated previously, qualitative research is an umbrella term for such methods as ethnography, case study, phenomenology, etc. To understand the category or affiliation the Galbraith study can claim to be, it is important to explore the historical traditions and theoretical underpinnings of the field. The roots of qualitative research actually revert to the nineteenth century. Due to mass immigration and urbanization many societal problems occurred in cities across the United States and Canada. One of the first photographic study was How the Other Half Lives (1902), which documents the plight of the urban poor in America. Many surveys following after were modelled from European surveys of the urban poor. Frederick Leplay, in the late 1800s, immersed himself in the
lives of working class families in Europe. The term “participant observer” originated from this study.

Charles Booth (1906), also conducted many social surveys of the poor, relying not only on quantitative data, but interviews, life histories and vast descriptions of poverty in London. In the States, the first survey was the Pittsburgh Study in 1907. Integrating the qualitative with the quantitative, statistics were mixed with “detailed descriptions, interviews, portraits and photographs” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

The term “ethnography” describes the anthropological tradition of immersing oneself in the field, where participant-observation and interviewing are the main methods of data collecting (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Bronislaw Malinowski was one of the first anthropologists to carry out long term field work among native cultures by observing the Trobriand Islanders - quite by accident (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). World War I broke out on his arrival in New Guinea. Malinowski with his limited budget had no choice but to remain on the islands till 1918!

The famous cultural anthropologist Margaret Mead refined the method of qualitative data collection called participant observation. She believed that to really understand a culture on their own terms one must spend extended periods of time with people in their natural settings (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Mead was the first anthropologist to reflect on education centering on concepts not methods. She contended that teachers must “study through observations and firsthand experiences” the role of students socialization to become better teachers (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975).
The “Chicago School” approach to research is responsible for the term symbolic interaction. Dewey, Mead, Becker are just a few researchers who contributed to the meaning of this term. Most agree that human experience is moderated by interpretation. Meaning is bestowed on us, through interaction with others we construct our own meaning. We also construct our idea of self by how others view us. In education this idea of self has led to qualitative studies of the self-fulfilling prophecy (Merriam, 1972). Reality is viewed as a social construction where interaction is shaped by meanings and expectations people bring to situations and not by quantifiable test scores.

Phenomenologist share the view of the interactionist that the meaning of our experiences make up our reality. Hence, reality is once again socially constructed. We live with daily contradictions in our life. My reality may be different than yours, it all depends on where you are sitting, how things look to you. The basic premise of this theory is never assume one knows what things mean to people because we all construct reality in different ways. Phenomenologists begin their research “in silence” to understand “the subjective aspects of people’s behaviour” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 31). Ethnomethodology is another fairly new term associated with qualitative inquiry. It refers to: “the study of how individuals create and understand their daily lives” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 22).

After delving into the different concepts of qualitative research, I am still confused as to what category this study fits. But is that not qualitative research? One cannot fit everything into a tidy pigeonhole and say this is it! Qualitative research is ever changing.
As one learns more and more, confusion sets in until eventually the light goes on. The researcher begins to notice patterns and themes emerging from the data and voila! One sees the world from a different view. The qualitative researcher must focus on how the subjects see and experience their own “world view” in their terms, not ours.

METHODOLOGY

“You know my method. It is founded upon the observation of trifles.”
(Sherlock Holmes)

The Sample

The setting for this study is Galbraith Elementary School in Lethbridge. Galbraith Elementary School was completed in 1912 at the edge of the Lethbridge city limits. The city has since grown around the school which now sports a major addition built in 1962. In the last decade, a wave of immigrants and a large low-income housing development nearby saw a much needed increase in specialized programs such as English as a Second Language, Multiculturalism, Resource, and Challenge Programs. The school population is very diverse. By the late 1990s, economic restructuring of the staff and programs eliminated funding for English as a Second Language. Resource and special education programs moved towards inclusion into regular classrooms.

Mission Statement

The current mission statement reflects the need for more collaboration of parents, teachers and staff and the need for more professional development.
1. Children will develop into responsible, caring, life-long learners in a safe and positive learning environment;

2. The promotion of positive self-esteem fosters considerate and responsible citizens;

3. Parents, as the first teachers, should be closely involved in a home and school partnership;

4. All staff should feel safe and equally valued for their professional competence and contribution.

5. Galbraith School will continue to be hard-working, progressive risk-takers embracing new ideas while valuing the uniqueness of all individuals.

The school’s motto, logo and mascot also reflect the need for more collaboration with the community and school to meet the needs of the students including focusing on increasing professional development. The school insignia of the teacher rainbow umbrella held by the caring hare stands for Collaboration, Achievement, Respect, Excellence, and Safety.

Professional semester III is the last component of the field experience program at the University of Lethbridge. It is an integrated semester consisting of internship, academic study and professional development. The main purpose is to help “bridge the gap” for the neophyte teacher on the course of development into a full fledged professional. Interns teach half-time with the guidance of a teacher mentor and faculty mentor. The administration observes the intern and formatively evaluates him/her two or three times a semester. The intern works on a professional portfolio as part of his/her
professional development. The mentor teacher also has a professional development project to work on.

Goals of PSIII

Interns should be involved with the mentor teacher’s projects. The following goals reflect the collaborative, nurturing environment of Professional Semester III.

1. To provide the Intern teacher with a support system to ease the transition from the university to the classroom.

2. To help the Intern teacher become a self-reliant professional.

3. To promote the personal and professional well being of the Intern teacher.

4. To provide opportunities for the Mentor and the Intern teacher to share their knowledge and experiences in a supportive, dialogical, and collegial environment.

5. To improve teaching performance.

6. To contribute to job satisfaction and attitudes about teaching.

7. To assist with socialization.

8. To foster a disposition toward continuing professional growth at all stages of development.

9. To provide opportunities for Mentors to develop and engage in professional development plan that is relevant to their interests and needs.

10. To provide opportunities for Mentors to recognize and to value their own personal, practical knowledge and experience.

The sample of mentor teachers for this project consisted of those teachers who volunteered and were approved by the field office. The interns from the University of Lethbridge are all successful fifth year students who have completed most of their university course work and three preceding practica. Nine interns were placed with their respective mentor teachers for a fifteen week school-based internship. The matching of the intern to the mentor teacher was achieved by utilizing specialized forms. Two administrators evaluated the interns twice in a 15 week period.

The Faculty Mentor from the university acted as a "screen, an avenue, a counsellor and a role model." His role is to provide support, assistance and guidance but not to evaluate. An orientation meeting to all those involved in the Galbraith study was held at Lethbridge Community College in December preceding the practicum. Consent letters were distributed for the research project and all participants agreed to have the interviews tape recorded. (See Appendix A)

Data Collection Method

Data was gathered from nine successful interns, nine teacher mentors and two administrators. All participants were interviewed by a graduate student based on questions related to the following objectives. Each group of participants was asked to respond to a common set of questions, some of which are adapted to suit specific roles. (See Figure 3) The same questions were basically used in all three groups: the teacher mentor, the intern and the administrators.
The tapes were transcribed and subjected to qualitative interpretive analysis to identify common themes and issues. Since one of the key roles of the researcher emphasizes the role of “human as instrument” collecting and analysing data, it is appropriate to report information about myself. I am presently a Faculty Associate at the University of Lethbridge and had the opportunity to mentor PS III interns last semester. This project is my last credit towards my Masters Degree in education. I was not involved in this project at the initial stage but took it over after the interviews had been transcribed.

**Rationale: Why Interviews?**

> “I’ll tell you one thing. It has been an interesting conversation with you because I think in the course of conversation it’s given me a time to reflect...on what we are doing, and how we are doing it...It has given me a good opportunity.”
>  
> An interviewee

Qualitative data includes “detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviour; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes and beliefs and thoughts” (Merriam, 1988, p. 68). It is the role of the researcher to get close. “To be factual, to represent the participants in their own terms...the consequence is that the qualitative study is a process of discovery. It is the observer’s task to find out what is fundamental or central to the people under investigation” (Merriam, 1988, p. 68).


**Interview Questions for Interns**

1. Can you very briefly describe your goals for the PSIII project?

2. What processes, elements, relationships were significant in enabling you to meet the goals you described? How and Why?

3. Did anything in particular stand out in helping you meet and overcome particular challenges? How and why?

4. What hindered the attaining of your goals? How and why?

5. What were the top elements of the PSIII experience which enabled you to meet your goals?

6. Did any elements of the PSIII experience have minimal impact?

7. What changes in the structures, roles, relationships, processes in the PSIII experience would you suggest to improve its effectiveness in meeting both intern, teacher mentor, administrators, school and university goals?

**Interview Questions for Teachers/Administrators**

1. As above but in reference to firstly (a) your own needs/goals as a teacher/administrator; secondly (b) your role as a mentor and your interns’ needs and goals.

Qualitative studies count on data acquired from participant observation, documents and interviews. The use of multiple methods of collecting data is called triangulation. Other forms of triangulation are: investigator, theory, methodological, and data. Lack of triangulation of data sources is a limitation with the Galbraith study. Nine mentor teachers, nine interns and two administrators were interviewed at the end of the 15 week practicium by a graduate student. I analysed the interview transcripts to discover common themes and patterns.
The fundamental principle of qualitative interviewing is to provide a framework within which respondents can express their own understandings in their own terms (Patton, 1980, p.205). Why interviewing for the Galbraith Program? Interviewing is necessary when we cannot observe the participants feelings or discover their world view. In this study, by asking open ended probing questions of the subjects, the researcher will reveal relevant data. Interviewing is also a good choice when one has a large sample and relatively short period of time. Twenty subjects and 15 weeks to obtain data makes interviewing a credible data collection method.

Thirdly, through qualitative interviews, researchers evaluate all kinds of programs. Interviewers talk to people and discover strengths and weaknesses of a program or a project which could lead to major improvements (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Lastly, researchers glean information from the interviewees to reveal common patterns and themes which could lead to “grounded theories.” Glaser (1967) defines these theories as grounded in the “details, evidence, and examples” of the interview. They explain “what is happening in the terms of those involved in a situation.” These explanations and theories can have practical implications. For example, I taught for six years on a native reserve in southern Alberta. The reading scores of the students are below Provincial average. By various quantitative testing methods no data is revealed as to the reason. After interviewing the students, you realize they are coming to school without breakfast...they are hungry and it is hard for them to pay attention. By starting a breakfast program for the students, they will be able to concentrate on their work.
One might see a light at the end of the tunnel.

Three underlying themes for successful qualitative interviewing are:

1. Successful interviewing requires an understanding of culture, for it affects what is said and how the interview is understood.
2. Interviewers are not neutral actors but participants in a relationship.
3. The purpose of qualitative interviewing is to hear and understand what the interviewees think and to give them public voice. (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p.19)

This brings us to the issue of researcher bias. In order to learn more from the data, the interviewer must listen to his or her own internal voices and cultural assumptions. Be more self aware. With this in mind, one will be less likely to impose your own opinions on interviewees ideas. The researcher must learn to recognize that other people’s world view is as authentic as yours (the theory of relativism) to foster better understanding and communication.

The standardized open ended interview was used due to the limited time period. A certain set of carefully worded questions were organized and arranged. Flexibility in probing seemed to be limited. Since it was only possible to interview participants once, each person was asked the same questions. The benefit of this method is that it minimizes interviewer bias or effects. Also, the interview is systematic, further reducing bias. Lastly, this method allows data analysis to locate and organize themes to similar questions. The interview questions were designed to achieve the standards of transparency, consistency-coherence and communicability to gain credibility. Ethics were
also considered. A consent form was given and signed by all, promising anonymity and confidentiality. All efforts were made to acquire and disseminate trustworthy information in ways that can cause no harm to the participants.

DATA ANALYSIS

"There is so much I want to know. I feel as though each interview is a rosebud to me. As I take them home and transcribe them, they begin to bloom, and each petal is a new idea or a deeper understanding. Here I stand with three beautiful flowers in one hand and my other hand outstretched. Tomorrow another bud." A researcher’s lament

Introduction

The Galbraith study revealed a lot of “beautiful flowers” yet many buds are still waiting to be opened. According to Patton (1980), to analyze, interpret, and evaluate qualitative data, researchers must focus on the purpose and direction of the study and “remove from their shoulders the burden of having to generate Truth” (p. 268).

What is Truth? Comedienne Lily Tomlin captures the essence of truth when she says: "Lady, I do not make up things. That is lies. Lies is not true. But the truth could be made up if you know how. And that’s the truth."

Keeping these words of wisdom in mind, I will describe the findings in relation to the purpose of the Galbraith Project (What was said?), present my analysis of the data (How did I bring order to the data? What patterns, themes emerged?), interpret the data (What meaning arose?), evaluate the data (Who cares? So what?) and arrive at some recommendations.
The Findings

"You can love a landscape for a lifetime, and it will still have secrets from you."
(Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 175)

What secrets emerged from the data? As stated earlier, nine interns, nine mentor teachers, and two administrators were interviewed at the end of PS III by a graduate student. The questions, adapted to fit the objectives of the project, were:

1. How far was each participant whether teacher mentor, administrator, intern, faculty mentor, able to meet their own particular goals in this project?

2. What processes, elements, relationships were significant in enabling each participant to meet their goals?

3. What resources, persons, processes helped participants meet and overcome particular challenges?

4. What factors hindered meeting professional development and other goals?

5. How do participants rate the effectiveness of the various elements and processes which were designed to be part of the Galbraith project in relation to their goals and professional development?

6. What changes in the structures, roles, relationships, and processes in PSIII can participants suggest to improve the effectiveness of the internship they experienced?

The interview questions relating to the above goals will be used to organize and describe the responses of the participants. The comments from all three groups: Intern, Mentor teacher, and Administration were tabulated together in each respective category.
Interview Question #1: Can you briefly describe your goals for the PSIII project?

Interns' response

The interns’ goals ranged from learning evaluation methods to basically “just getting through it, to finish it.” A reoccurring goal was professional development to survive the transition from neophyte to professional:

“Just sort of one step beyond a university student, I wanted to get an idea of what is was like to be in the classroom, to get a taste of honing my skills in the classroom, my teaching, planning and discipline, everything and to become as close to a real teacher as I could.”

The goals were: to improve evaluation methods and techniques; to modify programs for multi-level classrooms; to simply be more relaxed in the classroom; to learn survival skills by “honing skills” of evaluation; unit planning; classroom management; strategies and making report cards; to become more reflective in teaching; learn more reading strategies; improve time management and lesson planning skills; and finally just to get through the practicum!

Mentor teachers’ response

With the advent of the new science and math curriculum in the 1990s in Alberta, every teacher’s goal seemed to relate to the new science curriculum and ways to integrate computers in the new curriculum. The goals for the mentor teachers seemed to focus more on their professional development project rather than their mentoring role. “My goals briefly were to explore, investigate the new science curriculum in great detail,
locating resources at the District Learning Centre and to investigate technology to go with the science.”

The goals were: to develop new science units; to become computer literate; to work collaboratively on units with other teachers; to acquire multi-age information for adapting the curriculum; to develop software programs for Special Education students; and to teach computer skills to other staff.

Administrators’ response

The administration’s responses followed closely the roles and responsibilities of the Principal as outlined in the handout for PSIII distributed by the Field Experience Office. There seemed to be some concern for the number of students entering the school “en masse” and the effect on the school climate. “I felt that my goal was to ensure the continuity of our staff, our students and our parents, our relationships, and that management of student behaviours would continue. We were so tight for space. Tight space can irritate people.” The leadership role of the principal is demonstrated by this comment: “I wanted to provide a good experience for the interns in and out of the classroom. I wanted our teachers to meet their goals so that it would be a positive experience for them.”

Interview Question #2: What processes, elements, relationships were significant in enabling you to meet the goals you described? How and why?
Interns’ response

The responses ran from having the time for reflection; to good relationships with the teacher mentor, faculty mentor, administrators and other teachers which helped the interns meet their goals.

“One thing of course was working half time and being at the school the rest of the time, you have much more time to reflect, much more time to make adjustments, and that is definitely a good thing. You know what I mean like had a really positive relationship with all the other PSIII students. We worked together as a group to help one another. I had a good relationship with the administration, my mentor teachers, the other grade 4 teachers and my faculty supervisor. It was being able to know that if there was a problem I could come and talk to him about it too. So I guess these relationships were significant to me.”

Other findings that helped the interns meet their goals were: the collaboration of the large group enabled them to share ideas; to work together and be an excellent support group for each other; the orientation meeting at the college three weeks before the practicum where the interns met their teacher and shared goals and expectations; “amazing support” from the administration; the “open climate” of the school where one felt comfortable to ask for help from any teacher; the seminar sessions which were good for “venting”; and the many professional development workshops, especially one on reading strategies taught by the vice principal.

Mentor teachers’ response

The mentor teacher’s responses ran along similar lines from having “uninterrupted time to reflect, self evaluate, to work on goals, to table meetings, to bounce off ideas with
"My intern was very capable and easy to work with. I think this was the most positive aspect of my experience. We had a good relationship and I felt confident that she could do the job without me having to stand over her so to speak."

Other results were: the positive working relationships with their colleagues; to be able to "springboard ideas off each other"; the high quality of the interns of whom one felt confident to leave alone in the classroom; and the good match of the interns with the teacher mentors all helped the participants meet their goals.

Administrators’ response

Administrators felt the high qualities of the interns; the excellent matching of the interns to the teacher mentor (with the exception of one); the orientation meeting with the Faculty Mentor; the meeting with the administration and interns where expectations were clearly set; and the "easing in" session or transition time into teaching with the interns and the teachers all aided the participants to meet their goals. The large group of interns also was commented on in a positive note: "Having so many people I think, motivated everyone. The school was buzzing with life."

Interview Question #3: Did anything in particular stand out in helping you meet and overcome particular challenges? How and why?
Interns' response

Once again, the idea of so many interns in one place or of clustering seemed to be at the top of the list for helping and overcoming particular challenges in the practicum. One intern stated:

"So many interns in one place we shared. I did not have the feeling of being alone. No matter what we were classified as we were still kind of the outsiders. Stepping into a situation that everybody else was a type and then here we come, you know like the adopted kids kind of and just knowing each other was there if you didn't want to talk to your mentor about a problem, the other interns were the best option to come up with a possible solution. And that really helped a lot."

Other findings that aided interns overcome any problems were the positive relationship with the mentor teacher, and previous experience of teaching at Galbraith School. The intern was not "shocked at the amount of modified programs" and was able to deal with multi-level teaching. The half day of teaching left time to plan and regroup. Mentor teachers all worked well together so the interns felt they could go for help to anyone.

Mentor teachers' response

The time to sit together and work out problems; the flexibility of the interns willing to teach anything; the helpful, supportive administration; and the collaboration of the teachers and interns to work out problems together were all listed as helping the mentor teacher overcome any challenges.

"We admitted to each other when we were having troubles with the various aspects."
We met, all six of us, ... so we modelled the problem solving process and addressed the problems as we saw them. Sometimes you could tell the person directly and sometimes people have defences. The interns were really protective about being told how to teach. So it was a challenge to ensure they were learning and growing over the weeks. That’s how I saw the experience, enabling the interns to be more real."

Administrators’ response

One administrator responded that a professional relationship had developed, that she didn’t expect, with the five interns that she evaluated.

“One was in a position where she was forced to suspend a student and I supported her on this. Through that she learned a lot about classroom management and she maintained a fair amount of dialogue with me. The relationship developed and was good.”

The supportive, nurturing role of the faculty mentor with the interns was also reported as a positive factor in overcoming any challenges.

Interview Question #4: What hindered the attaining of your goals and why?

Interns’ response

A few interns commented on the political atmosphere of the school as hindering the attainment of their goals:

“I mean like the school climate was critical...there was political threads running through the whole semester...there were a couple of meetings about multi age classrooms. While we were outside of the process because we didn’t have a vote but we were expected to be at the meetings. The final meeting in particular that I left, I was physically sick to my stomach and in tears...you know just a horrible thing...while it didn’t matter in the classroom it made things really awkward but there was a really, really strong undercurrent that made things awkward.”
Some interns blamed the university for not making them aware of the new math and science curriculum in their methods, plus the lack of resources in the curriculum lab which made it more difficult to attain their goals. The project mandated by the university also was viewed as a hindrance because "it took time away from professional development." The project could be developing a teaching unit or a portfolio. Also the project seemed to create some unwelcome stress on the intern by creating competition to "be the best."

"You see this (a project) and think I have gotta do something better than this and it's good to have competition but I know some interns it created an awful lot of stress...and then the other part of the project is that you don't really get evaluated on it...so I am not sure if I would keep that part of the program."

Lastly, "the tough group of kids" was seen at the beginning of the semester to hinder one interns' goals:

"I could say working with a really tough group of kids did at first...it was very tough to handle...I didn't feel prepared for these kids and they needed so much from me....they rebelled in a big way...but after I got the hang of it and learned the discipline...it actually helped me attain my goals."

**Mentor teachers' response**

The mentor teachers cited lack of resources (ie., computers), the time went too quickly, spent too much time with intern at the beginning due to behavior problems, one's own personal lack of motivation and the personalities of the people involved as
hindrances to reaching their respective goals. "The personalities of the people, I really had to work around this issue at all times."

Administrators' response

The administration’s only concern was that due to the large number of interns, the evaluation process was rushed:

"I had to sign something that there was a concern with - we needed to discuss the accuracy of this but there was no time... It was at the very end... It was important to read it carefully because the wording can create a different meaning...but there was no time."

Interview Question #5: What were the top three elements of the PSIII experience which enabled you to meet your goals?

Interns' response

The common three elements which enabled the interns to meet their goals were: time, the mentor, and collaboration. With one-half day to teach, the remainder was utilized for reflection, attending Professional Development workshops and completing their goals. The transition time of two weeks, until taking on a full load of teaching, was beneficial to learn the climate and culture of the school. The supportive role of both the teacher mentor and the faculty mentor was viewed as another top element of PSIII. "The role of the mentor gave me the freedom to teach because I wasn’t constantly being watched and observed." The largeness of the group was also viewed as a positive element.
"I think being such a large group helped because it wasn't one or two coming in where you weren't anything special it was like a lot of the teachers were experiencing the same thing...they in turn helped all of us instead of just one or two of the interns."

The collaboration of the staff, teacher mentors, administration and the faculty mentor developing a harmonious working relationship in the school which was seen as one of the top elements of the PSIII experience for the interns.

Teacher mentors’ response

The top three elements of the teacher mentors are similar to the intern’s: having the time for professional development, collaboration with other teachers, interns and administration, ("the joy of working together") experiencing the mentor’s role of guiding, helping, sharing and the high quality of the interns. "The intern was very good so I was able to have the freedom to work on my professional development project."

Administrators’ response

The commitment of the staff and interns, where the whole group wanted to make this experience work, with continuing involvement and the positive support of the Faculty mentor were perceived as the top elements of the PS III experience. "The faculty mentor was very good. He dropped in often. He gave us feedback all the time."
Interview Question #6: Did any elements of the PSIII experience have minimal impact?

Interns’ response

The project: “I just cranked out yet another unit plan because it was something that had to be done when the time to me was very valuable and could have been spent in either the classroom or doing more extra curricular activities.” The weekly seminars at the university were seen as a “waste of time, not helpful, and to be more of a complaint session” by some interns. One intern stated “it was a good venting session.” Another stated “that the size of our group at the seminars was the biggest problem because too many people had too many agendas. Some people spoke and others didn’t.” The evaluation by the principal was “too short, the administrator observed for only two twenty minute slots.”

Teacher mentors’ response

Most teacher mentors said nothing had a minimal impact.

“Absolutely not, I don’t think so, no, I have some of the same students and the actual teaching that the intern did, they still talk about it. They say, “oh, yeah, remember Miss-----taught us that.” “We came out of it having done what we wanted to do. My experience was really positive.”

Administrators’ response

The amount of time for evaluation by the administration was reported to have a minimal impact. There were nine interns and only two administrators. Two formative
evaluations for each intern were required. One administrator stated: "It requires a lot of time to do two evaluations, properly."

Interview Question #7: What changes in the structures, roles, relationships, processes in the PSIII experience would you suggest to improve its effectiveness in meeting both intern, teacher mentor, administrators, school and university goals?

Interns' response

The changes recommended by the interns were:

1. Drop the seminar or make more practical and structured. Topics could include: report cards, p-t interviews, resume, job hunting and interview skills and how to handle the "reality shock" of the real classroom.

2. More visits from the principal for evaluation purposes.

3. Try to involve the parents more with the interns. Perhaps hold a "meet the interns night."

4. The university needs to give the interns in PS1 and PSII more solid foundation courses.

5. Perhaps PSI, PSII and PSIII could be at the same school.

6. Drop the project, make it more practical such as doing a Portfolio.

7. Reduce university fees for PSIII because we are considered a "real teacher." Or pay the intern for half time work.

8. Get the Faculty Mentor to come to the classroom to observe the intern at the beginning, middle and end. Practical reasons for a letter of reference and if there is a problem of evaluation.

9. The role of the teacher mentor and the faculty mentor needs to be clearly defined.
Teacher mentors' response

The changes recommended by the teacher mentors were:

1. Have workshops on the role of the teacher mentor.

2. Drop the weekly seminar meetings at university for interns, perhaps have a meeting every two weeks in the school with intern/TM one week, then FM/interns the next. The teachers could be in control of the weekly seminars.

3. Extend the practicum longer for the intern is “just becoming comfortable.”

4. Make sure interns are placed at the level they want to be.

5. Liked orientation meeting but another informal meeting between intern and mentor teacher could be beneficial.

6. More sharing of interns as in PDS schools, some teachers became “jealous” because they did not have one.

7. Have interns teach more than half time.

8. Spend more time on transition time with interns.

9. Need guidelines to incorporate collaborative work to be effective.

10. Notify parents early concerning the interns and invite them into classroom more to “get a feel for what is happening.”

11. Faculty Mentor could organize a meeting halfway through practicum with all involved to avert possible problems.

Administrators' response

Changes recommended by administration are “Evaluation is a lot for only two administrators and are two really necessary?”
Emerging Themes /Patterns

This study is based on the principle of inductive analysis. What does this mean? The themes that emerged from the Galbraith project come directly from the data rather than being dictated before the data collection and analysis. Bogdan and Biklen (1982) define a theme as: “some concept or theory that emerges from the data: some signal trend, some master conception, or key distinction” (p.173). During the initial analysis, I coded the data from the transcribed interviews into four major overarching themes. Each theme was analysed for meta or sub themes. Four major themes pulled from the data are:

1. Helping interns cope with the transition role from neophyte to full fledged professional (the importance of a Mentor: the teacher mentor(TM) and the faculty mentor(FM).

2. Interrelationships among participants (collaboration between the TM, FM, staff, administration and interns, clustering and the quality of interns).

3. Professional development for all participants (the inquiring, reflective teacher; and teaching and learning).

4. Orientation to school culture (teacher socialization, and relationships).

Theme #1: Mentor as guide on the Odyssey to professionalism

“Mentors give us the magic that allows us to enter the darkness: A talisman to protect us from evil spells, a gem of wise advice, a map, and sometimes simple courage.” (Laurent A Daloz)

One of the main goals of an effective induction program is to help beginning teachers cope with the transition from neophyte to seasoned professional. Beginning
teachers with their “unrealistic optimism” frequently experience “reality shock” when plunged into the unfamiliar culture of the school. “The reality of what is out there is not really taught to us, or can’t be taught to us.”

They either “sink or swim”. One effective method to help teachers cope with the transition to teaching is with the guidance of a supportive mentor. The importance of an effective mentor was a recurring theme in the Galbraith study:

“I think it’s really important to have a mentor teacher, they guide you but I was lucky, the one that I had treated me as an equal which was really a neat experience because she said this is your classroom 50% of the time...it was a real taste of what it is like...but you are still not on your own like the Faculty mentor says you’re not sinking or swimming, you know they (the faculty and teacher mentor) help to keep you afloat...so that’s really great.”

What makes a mentoring relationship work? The data from the Galbraith study seem to reflect the findings of various researchers of the traits or attributes of effective mentors. Important characteristics of a mentor are personal skills such as a honesty, competency, able to give positive feedback to allow growth, and strong, interpersonal skills such as attentive listening, ability to work with adults and excellent social and public relation skills.

The following mentor attributes arose from the data:

1. Approachability, “I was able to come to my teacher mentor at any time and have that good relationship and rapport.”

2. The ability to listen, “And knowing that if I had a problem I could come and talk to him (faculty mentor).”
3. A willingness to allow growth: “What I liked with the Faculty mentor’s approach was that he allowed us a lot of freedom and there wasn’t a lot of structure so we could go at our own pace and yet he was available if we needed him.”

4. Supportive, willing to give positive feedback: “I had an absolute wonderful mentor teacher. She was always there when I needed her, if I needed her I would ask, “Could you come and watch this class with me and see if there was something not quite right, could you give me a hand?” ...she was always there.”

5. A willingness to engage in open learning: “I like the open endedness of the relationship with the mentor...the freedom to do what we felt was right.”

6. Strong interpersonal skills: “We had a meeting at the college with the faculty mentor...it was excellent...he has outstanding social skills.”

7. Tactfulness: “My mentor was always there to support us but never intrusive.”

8. A willingness to competency, commitment to the profession: “My mentor is a tremendously conscientious and professional person in the sense that he is always asking what we can improve, what’s working for the students...that’s what we need to do as teachers more.”

Protégés become effective teachers by assimilating the attributes, skills and professional knowledge of the mentor. Without a “good match” with someone who shares similar professional interests, it is unlikely the protégé will be successful. In the Galbraith study, a “good match” of mentor and protégé was found for all but one. Various studies extrapolate the value of “voluntary participation” of the mentor. Mentors make good mentors because they want to be. Forced mentorship can amount to contrived collegiality which could undermine trust and support (Lawson, 1992).

The mentors in this project seemed to be enthusiastic and supportive which created a mutual bond of trust. The functions of a mentor to act as a “sponsor, friend, encourager, counselor, teacher” were depicted. As a counselor: “Really the faculty mentor was a
good bridge for us. He checked in to see how things were. We had one student who didn’t work out but we all resolved it well for all parties concerned.” As a sponsor: “I have seen at least four of the interns returning to our school to visit their mentors after the semester. My intern is still actively involved on a regular basis.” As a friend: “Our relationship is very positive. We go for coffee and still make time to get together.”

One problem, common to mentoring, of confusing assessment with evaluation was solved in this study (Zeichner, 1990). With the burden of evaluation lifted from the teacher mentor’s shoulders, a foundation of mutual trust was built. Many teacher mentors expounded on the fact that: “They were glad they didn’t have to evaluate the interns. It would have hindered our relationship. We were more partners and shared our experiences and offered each other support and suggestions.”

Thus, mentoring benefited all the participants of the Galbraith study; the teacher mentors, the faculty mentor, the interns and the school. The interns’ struggle to survive was eased by the aid of the faculty mentor and the teacher mentor. The teacher and faculty mentors, by transferring their skills and knowledge, became effective teachers and learners. The terms “generativity versus stagnation” seems to apply. The mentors seemed to have a genuine concern for the protégé, which provided some insights into the significance of their professional lives. The school seemed to flourish with the collaboration of the mentors and interns: “I wish you could have been in the school when this was happening. There was lots of laughter and collegiality. It was so exciting to show that teaching is a collaborative thing. You work together and have fun.”
Theme #2: Interrelationships among participants: Collaboration

According to Zeichner (1990) the most serious problem of teacher education today is “the way we have isolated ourselves into little communities composed of those with similar orientations and then only communicate with those who share the same general orientation” (p.107). Teaching has the perception of being a solitary activity. The traditional teacher’s working life is not characterised by collaboration:

Schoolteaching has endured as an assemblage of entrepreneurial individuals whose autonomy is grounded in norms of privacy and noninterference as is sustained by the very organization of teaching work...Long standing occupational and organizational traditions supply few precedents, rather they buttress teaching as a private, solitary endeavour. (Powell, 1990, p.3)

The interns in the Galbraith study referred to feelings of isolation by utilizing such terms as the “outsiders” and “adopted kids.” The overall theme permeating throughout the data is collaboration among all participants: the teacher mentor, the faculty mentor, the interns, the staff, and the administration. One teacher mentor succinctly commented on this feature:

“I think teaching in isolation is sort of like teaching in a dark room, you’re finding things on your own, it’s a different perspective. In this project, I see everyone working on some sort of team. I think everyone is working on a mini team and then the big team in a sense. The encouragement from others was great.”

Collaboration is not an easy word to define. It can mean different things to different people. For instance, “To collaborate is to work toward a unified action” or “labouring with others to move effectively with each other” (Powell, 1990, p.4). Collaboration can
be confused with cooperation. They both reach mutual agreements. The main difference between the terms is that cooperation requires reaching agreements but “proceeding individually toward self-determined goals” whereas collaboration is a “cooperative endeavour that involves common goals, coordinated efforts and outcomes for which the collaborators share responsibility and credit” (Austin & Baldwin, 1991, p. 5).

What helped promote collaboration in this study? Many factors are associated with effective collaboration. One must take into account the characteristics of the team members plus of the group as a whole. In the Galbraith study, the size of the group of interns “clustered” in one school together promoted collaboration. Clustering is the convention of placing groups of interns in one school. Research indicates that clustering has many advantages:

1. Increases supervisory opportunities
2. Fosters curriculum development
3. Promotes effective evaluation
4. Facilitates interaction among prospective teachers
5. Reduces isolation
6. Promotes reflection
7. Encourages bonding (Potthoff & Alley, 1996, p. 85)

All seven advantages benefit collaboration in the schools. The interns spoke of feelings of isolation being reduced by collaborating with each other, “a community of our own” was created. “We could have our own little community and not feel so alone because we are all in the same boat.” Bonding was fostered and the group became a
“support group” where problems were discussed and solved and friendships evolved. The
feeling that they were “in this together” promoted group cohesiveness.

“We all worked together as a group to help one another...we were meeting the same
challenges...it was good to be able to share....so there were just so many of us it was
a positive thing that we were not all alone.”

Research on group dynamics indicates that as a group increases in size, the
performance rate decreases. On the other hand, a larger group means a larger number of
knowledgeable and skilled people (Austin & Baldwin, 1991). This seemed to be the case
for the interns. “So many interns in one place, we shared.” The group’s composition also
seemed to be an advantage. The best group includes “individuals who are somewhat
different in background, attitudes and experiences but not radically different” (Austin &
Baldwin, 1991, p.56). The interns came from different backgrounds but all shared the
common goal to “make it work.” “And then the other thing about this is we all had
different strengths and backgrounds so that really helped.”

The large size of the group was beneficial for collaboration not only with each other
but with the Teacher mentors, the Faculty mentor, the staff and the administration. The
whole school seemed to participate and work together to help each other in the spirit of a
Professional Development School:

“I think being such a large group helped because it wasn’t one or two coming in
where you weren’t anything special it was like a lot of the teachers were
experiencing the same thing, they in turn helped all of us rather than just the one or
two interns.”
A high level of communication between all participants fostered collaboration.

“Communication enables team members to work out common goals, resolve differences and strengthen each individual’s commitment to a joint project” (Austin & Baldwin, 1991, p.59). All participants felt supported by administration, staff, mentor teachers and the faculty mentor.

“I don’t think it could work in any school, I think you need a school like Galbraith that is very supportive, there’s very strong support and communication between staff members and administration, they are very open, they are the type of people you feel you can go to rather than the type you go to as a last resort.”

The effective matching of the interns to the teacher mentors promoted collaboration. The high quality of the interns also was a factor. In some cases, the interns and teacher mentors became “friends” and “spent time outside of school to discuss things.” Very close professional relationships developed: “We cried, we laughed, we struggled at times. My partner was able to see that I am very human; that all of us have our bad days. It was a very rich experience.”

The fact that the great majority of participants were female also could have increased the level of collaboration. Evidence suggests that women academics have a tendency towards more personalized interaction with colleagues while men often interact strictly on a professional basis (Austin & Baldwin, 1991). While collaboration was a theme, in relative terms the strongest collaboration was noted among groups of interns and groups of teachers rather than between the mentor teacher and the intern. Although some mentor teacher and intern pairs were characterized by daily collaboration, some were not.
Theme #3: Professional Development for all: Teacher as Learner

Another important goal of a effective internship or induction program is to encourage professional development. All participants in the Galbraith Study (the teacher mentors and the interns) stated that they met their professional development goals. What was the determining factor? Time. The interns taught half time which gave both intern and TM the uninterrupted time to focus on their goals for professional development, planning, to work collaboratively, and to reflect. "The major thing was working half time and being at the school the rest of the time, you have much more time to reflect, much more time to make adjustments and that is definitely a good thing."

Teachers never seem to have enough time in one day, as one frustrated teacher mentor quoted: "The number one thing to help me meet my goals was time. Don't give us people, give us time." Time to free up the overworked teacher for professional development also had a positive effect on the students:

"There were days when I wondered how I had survived without this intern. All of the teaching that I took on during that time was better. My lessons were better and there was more flair to everything. I had the time to put in that much more effort. So between the two of us, the kids were getting a very high quality day."

The professional development workshops put on by the administrators were also viewed as a positive force. "At Galbraith I felt we were lucky because we had a lot of workshops on professional development..."

The balance between theory and practise is depicted in this quote:

"So I found I would be in the class wondering if I was doing the right thing, then we'd have a workshop, I would either have it confirmed or else I would learn new
The transition time of two weeks of being eased slowly into the intricacies of teaching also enhanced the role of teacher and learner for both mentor teacher and intern. One intern comments that she:

"Liked the transition in where you generally didn’t start taking over the classroom in our teaching time for two weeks because you got to know the class, you weren’t just thrown in...it made me feel comfortable and helped me know the students in a non threatening way."

A key principle essential to professional growth is reflection (Chamberlain & Vallance, 1991). Reflection means “meditation, contemplation, mental consideration” and arises from the Latin root reflectere (re + flectere: to bend). According to Donald Schon (1993) teaching is a reflective practice which has certain implications for induction programs. The “reflective practicum” or “reflection in action” suggested by Schon includes “coaching strategies, reflective supervision, self-analysis in order for the intern to ask “What is?” and consider “What could be?” (Schon cited in Papouli-Tzelepi, 1993). Factors that enabled reflection to occur are inherent in the Galbraith study:

“A focus on the participant’s goals, an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect, rapport and collaboration between all involved, and most importantly, time to discuss, observe and plan. “Teaching half time gave us all much more time to reflect, to think....”
Theme #4: Orientation to School Culture: Teacher socialization

Another meaningful goal of effective inductive programs is to orient the intern to the community and the school system (the culture, philosophy, policy and procedures). Many of the interns commented on certain factors which helped them in orientation to the school. The two week transition time seemed to be beneficial to learn the climate and culture of the school. The open supportive staff and administration who were committed to “making it work” were a major consideration. “It was a very open school, you could go to anyone for help both the teachers and the administration.” The staff included the interns at all times. “They included us in everything...we got a taste of the PTA analysis. We got parent teacher interviews, we got fully involved with parents.”

The political climate considering multi age grouping was seen as both a positive and negative force by the interns:

“It was really an eye opening experience about the politics involved in a school, it was good to see how a school goes through that process...We learned a lot about politics and how to conduct myself professionally...I was there and watched the whole process so I think that was an invaluable experience. Not many interns do see this.”

At times the interns felt uncomfortable and unsure they had a voice in the school. “There were times I would be in the staff room and I was not sure what to say. Should I just keep quiet? We didn’t have a vote. Yet we were expected to attend all of the meetings.”

The role of the intern in the school as perceived by the intern and the teacher mentor was unclear at times. “Are we teachers or not teachers? I think some of the mentor teachers considered us student teachers and not interns. Some of the interns were unclear
of the specific role that we had in the school? How much authority we had?”

The relationship with parents was interesting and caused a problem at first.

“Parents came in to check me out. If there are strategies for having parents into classes that can be passed on down then it needs to be done.” Miscommunication with parents was seen as a disappointment by the interns. “Not to hear about problems...they were complaining and to see their lack of support, I found disillusioning.”

CONCLUSIONS

The road goes ever on and on
Down from the door where it began.
Now far ahead the Road has gone,
And I must follow if I can
Pursuing it with weary feet,
Until it joins some larger way,
Where many paths and errands meet.
And whither then? I cannot say.
(Tolkien, 1965)

So what and who cares are questions I must ask myself at this point. The purpose of this study was to document the experiences of the participants of the project—administrators, teacher mentors, faculty mentor and interns and answer the following questions:

1. How far was each participant able to meet their own particular goals?
2. What enabled and/or hindered them to meet their goals?
3. How do the participants rate the effectiveness of the study?
4. What changes could they recommend to improve the effectiveness of the PSIII experience?
The answer to these questions reside in the attitude, beliefs and feelings of the participants. Based on the data from the interviews, I would conclude that each participant had a successful experience in attaining their goals and that the “PSII experience” is meeting the goals of an effective induction program.

The basic findings revealed that the role of the mentor, the collaboration of all participants, the clustering of the interns in one school, having the time to develop professional development skills and the open climate of the school all contributed to the participants accomplishing their respective goals. Both faculty and teacher mentor acted as a “guide leading the travellers on a pilgrimage of discovery.” All participants worked cooperatively toward “common goals, coordinated efforts and outcomes” and could share responsibility and credit for “making it work.” The placing of a large group or “clustering” enhanced collaboration between the interns and benefited all. Having the uninterrupted time to reflect, plan, etc., helped the participants grow professionally. Similar to PDS theory, the open climate of the school created a learning community where mentors, staff, and administrators “worked together to prepare future practitioners.”

What hindered the participants from accomplishing their goals and had minimal impact? The basic findings were minimal. Lack of resources in the curriculum library at the university, the parents’ attitude, the project, and the seminar meetings were viewed as obstructions. One teacher mentor stated that the parents were at first sceptical of the interns but by the end of the term, the interns had gained their trust. Lack of textbooks at the school were also noted. The project for the interns was seen as unnecessary and
“taking away from important professional development time.” The weekly seminar was commented on in similar lines as a “waste of time.” The interns expressed a desire to “get rid of it altogether” or make it more practical, (i.e., job hunting, interview, and resume skills).

For some interns, the political climate of the school concerning the multi age issue was viewed as an impediment while others saw it as a chance to grow and learn. One intern commented on the evaluation by the principal as being too short. “She came into the classroom for only twenty minutes each time.” The drawbacks of this study seem minor when one considers the benefits but need to be noted for possible improvement.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the following changes are recommended by the participants and myself for the PSIII experience:

1. Drop the project requirement for the intern or make it more practical such as integrating it with the development of a portfolio.

2. Make the seminars more practical with meetings on job hunting, interview and resume making skills. The seminars could be supervised by the teacher mentors and not the university faculty and held at the schools.

3. The role of a mentor, both faculty and teacher, and the role of the intern need to be clearly defined by holding workshops on expectations, etc.

4. A “Meet the intern night” for the parents to inform them.

5. Reduce the tuition fees at the university or pay the interns ½ a salary.

6. More visits from the principal for evaluation.
7. More sharing of the interns with all teachers.

8. Increased faculty involvement with the collaborating schools, perhaps through attending school-based seminars and working with intern teachers in the classrooms.

9. Make the internship longer but with pay.

10. To strengthen collaboration between the mentor teacher and the intern restructure the work assignments and joint projects. Insist on a collaborative project.

11. Institute a transitional period at the beginning of the internship whereby the intern and the mentor teacher work together in the classroom until the intern is ready to take over the assigned workload.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE INDUCTION/INTERNSHIP

The Galbraith Evaluation Project has provided a few insights for the components of an effective inductive program. All four themes extracted from the findings mirror the qualities of an effective inductive program. The first implication is the importance of the role of a mentor. As stated in the literature review, the mentor role is complex and “requires higher order ability to demonstrate, observe and to coach” (Theis-Sprinthall, 1986, p. 18).

Although the mentor teachers in this study averaged ten years teaching experience each, a few struggled with defining their own role of mentorship while trying to be supportive of the interns. “How can I be more effective for my intern? What are the expectations? Should I evaluate?”

This suggests a definite need for understanding the specific aspects of not only the teacher mentor’s role but the intern’s at the outset of the internship. The university and
school systems need to work collaboratively to commit to intensive mentor preparation.

Montagu (1966) states that more reflection and collaboration could be a solution for the “problems” of education:

The critical social and educational problem of today is one of learning how shared relationships may be fostered and freedom of inquiry accelerated. It seems to me, first, that this must be done through the schools, and second that there must be virtually complete change in our attitudes towards education. (p.118)

In the 90s, the need is for teacher as reflector and collaboration within the community of educators. We need to provide opportunities for beginning teachers to reflect upon their theories and practices about teaching and learning. Collaboration between school districts and universities is necessary to encourage “student achievement, teacher induction and improvement of practice” (Holmes Group, 1986, p. 6). Faculty should “form a living bridge between campus and practice...differentiated roles will be developed” (Holmes Group, 1986, p.7).

The Galbraith study revealed the significance of collaboration among all participants, the need for professional growth for all, the necessity for reflection and research on teaching and learning, and for creating a learning community that exemplifies the notion of learning for a lifetime.

These attributes are principles of the hottest current trend in the United States and Canada, the Professional Development School. As we approach the millennium, the plea is for “cultural transformation” to change the cultures of both the school and the university. Teachers and teacher educators must work together. Perhaps the collaborative model of the Professional Development School’s are the solution of the future, promising exemplary induction programs and continuing professional development. As Bullough (1997) proclaims: “Professional Development Schools are much more than a fashionable new idea. They are an imperative of professional responsibility in education” (p. 85).
References


Appendix A

Dear [Name],

We will be conducting an evaluation study of the Galbraith School PSIII in which you were a participant. This research will take place during May/June, 1996.

We are writing you to participate in this project. You will be required to participate in one interview for approximately one hour.

The enclosed proposal describes the project and its objectives.

If you agree to participate, your responses during the interviews will remain confidential to Elaine Hoon. Dr. Richard Butt will be unaware of your identity. Your identity will remain anonymous.

The tapes and transcripts will be destroyed upon completion of the project. You will also have an opportunity to inspect the final report in order to validate and veto any prejudice at any time. If you wish to consult an external person about this project, you may call Dr. Peter Chow in his capacity as the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Committee (329-2433) at the University of Lethbridge.

We trust you can assist us in this project.

Sincerely,

Richard Butt/Elaine Hoon
Faculty of Education,
University of Lethbridge,
4401 University Drive,
Lethbridge, AB.
T1K 3M4

I agree to participate in this study.

NAME/SIGNATURE
Appendix B

Interview Reflection Sheet for Galbraith School PS III Project

The following is a map of the basic elements and processes of the PS III project at Galbraith School coplanned by participants. Please reflect on your experiences and the project in preparation for your interview through using this worksheet and the interview questions provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element and/or Process</th>
<th>What worked/what didn’t?</th>
<th>What changes would you recommend?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introductory meetings.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Relationship with pupils.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Relationship with parents.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Relationship with staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Relationship with peers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Relationship with admin.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Relationship with FM.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Intern/TM relationship.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. PD team at school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. PS III seminar.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Portfolio.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Coaching Transition.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Other.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>