

Too Little or Too Much:

Teacher Preparation and the First Years of Teaching

Dan Liston, Jennie Whitcomb & Hilda Borko<sup>i</sup>

University of Colorado at Boulder

Exhilarated and exhausted, hopeful and cynical, fulfilled and dejected—these adjectives depict the emotional spectrum characterizing teachers’ first year experiences. Narratives of teachers’ initial years speak to the gritty reality of “really learning to teach.” Their stories tell of the challenges experienced as they come to understand the depth and texture of their students’ lives and their unique developmental needs. They work to develop humane, yet efficient, routines to manage the daily business of classroom and school life. They struggle to design engaging curriculum and to build knowledge of rigorous and fair standards for student work. They try to fend off fatigue, seeking to balance career demands with activities and connections that rejuvenate. They grapple with the absurdities and paradoxes of school bureaucracies, choosing when to critique and resist ill-framed policies and practices. They stumble in some interactions with colleagues, administrators, and parents. They wonder why their trying work and hard won accomplishments are viewed with such low regard by the general public. In short, narratives of first years pivot between epiphany and disillusionment (e.g., Johnston, 2002; Kane, 1991; Michie 1999).

The challenges brought to life in these narratives are persistently documented in the research literature (Fuller, 1969; Veenman, 1984; Roehrig, Pressley, & Talotta, 2002). Difficulties in the first years of teaching have implications for both practice and policy, particularly because the estimated financial cost of teacher turnover is \$2.6 billion



attentional resources to achieve them” and the ability to “move beyond existing routines...to rethink key ideas, practices, and even values in order to” respond to novel situations (Hammerness, et al., 2005, p. 358-359). Similarly, Snow and her colleagues’ (2005) conception of “progressive differentiation” outlines five levels of knowledge teachers draw upon (declarative, situated procedural, stable procedural, expert/adaptive, and reflective/analyzed). They caution that these five levels “should not be thought of as ‘stages’ separated from one another by sharp discontinuities” (p. 9). Rather, different levels are more prominent at different points in the development from preservice to master teacher. Preservice teachers, for instance, draw more upon declarative knowledge than do either novice or master teachers.

Feiman-Nemser’s (2001) proposal for a professional learning continuum suggests a curricular framework to foster the development of adaptive experts. Her continuum delineates the central tasks of learning to teach in the preservice, induction, and continued professional development phases. For example, teacher candidates’ five central tasks include: analyze beliefs and form new visions, develop subject matter knowledge for teaching, develop understandings of learners and learning, develop a beginning repertoire, and develop the tools to study teaching. Novice teachers in the first three years of teaching build upon teacher preparation experiences to accomplish a different set of tasks: learn their particular context, design a responsive instructional program, create a classroom learning community, enact a beginning repertoire, and develop a professional



children. Feiman-Nemser's discussion of a professional learning continuum also suggests



teach. District policies on standards, curriculum, and induction play a role in what materials and supports are available to beginning teachers (Grossman & Thompson, 2004; Kauffman, Johnson, Kardos, Liu, & Peske, 2002). Yet, even when these resources are plentiful and strong, many beginning teachers report spending significant time finding



reading courses at 72 randomly selected teacher education programs throughout the



teachers are still integrating and consolidating their knowledge of teaching and learning, and they lack the wisdom of experience held by veteran teachers to trust their choices. Third, moments of disillusionment often punctuate the first year. Individuals choose teaching on the basis of powerful visions, ideal individuals about



A third explanation for challenges in the first years has to do with whether beginning teachers land in workplaces that support their development and learning. Research on induction and professional development shows organizational contexts vary, and some are much better places for new teachers to continue their development. The Project on the Next Generation of Teachers, led by Susan Moore Johnson and colleagues (2004), outlines the following features of schools that are organized for teacher and student learning: They have principals who are instructional leaders and who develop personal relationships with new teachers; they give new teachers appropriate and reasonable assignments; they provide sufficient supplies and equipment to support student learning; they have reasonable and consistent policies and infrastructure; they use





Generation study, of the fifty teachers in their sample, only thirteen (26%) were described



teacher preparation. Over the last thirty years scholars have articulated a knowledge base for what teachers should know and models for how they learn to teach (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Shulman, 1987; Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). When critiques are put forward, teacher educators need to speak out and present the evidentiary base for the knowledge and skills candidates learn in our programs and for how individuals learn to teach.

For example, in response to the NCTQ study finding that most elementary teacher candidates do not learn the science of reading, teacher educators should speak out about what *is* taught in reading courses and the broad research base informing that curriculum (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). Few in the reading community discount the *National Reading Panel (NRP) Report* evidence supporting the five components of effective reading instruction. However, some scholarly appraisals of the *Report* argue that the criteria used to include studies were too stringent; as a result, it excluded important empirical evidence about how children learn to read and write, and classroom practices that support literacy d 7e,( 0.00eracy)-5.9n8 7.9(t)-6.8(TD-0.., Pr6( 7.9sslee )-5.7(.9(r)1.8(i20.00e.2(nA0 uf)-4.1( effe( rea)7, wc







Second, using technology resources, they can establish virtual networks that allow  
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during their first years of teaching. All teachers were graduates of a “specialized teacher education program” that prepares urban teachers, and the professional development was offered either through that program’s Urban Educator Network (UEN) or their schools. The authors offer suggestions for how universities might build strong linkages that support program graduates to develop long and rewarding careers. Pardo's study, “The Role of Context in Learning to Teach Writing: What Beginning Urban Teachers Need to Know” examines the impact of three beginning teachers' varied knowledge sources and instructional contexts on their writing instruction. “Effective Teaching/Effective Urban Teaching: Grappling with Definitions, Grappling with Difference” by Anderson and Olsen consider the contrasts between novice teachers’ definitions/descriptions of

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