

1. The Place of Induction in Becoming a Teacher

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Tom Tyker never beat me up. While other boys in that third grade class cowered in the presence of this older boy, I was at ease. We had an understanding, Tom and I, born of the lunchtimes we spent together while others were on the playground. As a good student, I was to guide him through the math and reading and spelling he hadn't learned. I was the means by which our teacher gave him some extra help. And, I suppose, the review sessions kept him away from others, out of trouble. For some reason, he never bullied me.

I don't know whether Tom ever learned any math or reading or spelling during those lunchtimes. And in fifth grade he got into trouble for the last time and was kicked out of our school. But my recollection of those days suggests to me that it was with Tom that I started to become a teacher. With no knowledge of methods, with motives that were supplied, with effectiveness measured only in the plaudits of our teacher and the witness of other students, I began to see the possibility of myself as a teacher.

(The reflections of a teacher, on becoming one.)

"Becoming a Teacher" Revisited

In their now classic chapter in the 1975 NSSE Yearbook, *Teacher Education*, Frances Fuller and Oliver Bown explored the experience of

“Becoming a Teacher” as it was reflected in the extant empirical literature on learning to teach. They first considered the context in which one becomes a teacher, and then addressed the experience itself. It was in this latter section that they put forth the idea that individuals who become teachers pass through stages of concerns as they learn to teach.

According to this concerns-based model of becoming a teacher, preservice teachers move from concern about their own survival as classroom teachers, to concern about the situations in which they are expected to teach, to concern about pupils. This view of becoming a teacher matches what many teacher educators have observed as they work with prospective teachers. It has become a classic view of the progression of changes in teacher candidates.

Perhaps because this concerns-based model had become so widely recognized and valued, the words *becoming a teacher* are often associated primarily with the steps of preservice teacher preparation. Such an association, however, misses a point made by several researchers and which Fuller and Bown themselves reiterate in the very same chapter: The experience of learning to teach does not begin with a preservice preparation program, but rather begins earlier in one’s experience as a child and student. These early influences are important bases of motivations and choices made in entering a teaching career and beginning practice. Furthermore, the authors suggest, after preservice preparation, the experience of becoming a teacher continues into the inservice years of a teacher’s career. A teacher continues to learn about teaching as the practice is carried out.

If one were to revisit Fuller and Bown’s chapter, and the many subsequent reports in the literature on teacher education and teaching, the words *becoming a teacher* would most certainly be given a broader reading than simply the experience of preservice preparation.

What Is It to Become a Teacher?

Becoming a teacher has elements of building a self-image. The teacher whose experience with Tom Tyker is recollected above might well

mark that experience as the start of his becoming a teacher. Other teachers have similar stories to report about events which marked the starts of their careers.

More traditionally, when a preservice teacher completes a program of study and has been granted a teaching credential, he or she has “become a teacher.” This step of becoming has an element of image-building—seeing oneself as legitimate. But it also has related elements of qualification and capacity—having knowledge, skills, and values necessary for teaching practice.

It might be argued by some that becoming a teacher means being hired to teach, being given an opportunity to practice as a teacher. This affirms the self-image and puts to use the acquired knowledge, skills, and values. It also particularizes those elements: at first, as related to content, grade level, school, and district; and eventually, as related to particular students, events, and circumstances. Thus, one becomes a teacher in the particular context in which one is hired to practice.

Research on teachers’ careers suggests that the first three to five years of teaching are a period of time in which an individual moves from “novice” to “established” teacher status. In a sense, the new teacher continues to become a teacher throughout that period, acquiring contextually useful knowledge, skills, and values; and refining, detailing, and deepening the image of self-as-teacher.

Finally, it is not uncommon for veteran teachers to report that in some ways they are still becoming teachers—still creating their professional practice to respond to the needs and opportunities presented by each year and each student.

While all of these instances of becoming a teacher seem different, they have in common elements of developing an image of self-as-teacher, and acquiring knowledge, skills, and values upon which to base practice. Furthermore, these instances suggest that becoming a teacher is a highly personalized experience: in the least, the influence of experiences as a child and student make it different for each individual; the particulars of the context in which one begins and continues to practice teaching enhance those differences. Relatedly, they

point to the importance of context in shaping the experience. Finally, these instances suggest that becoming a teacher is a continuum of experiences over a span of time, rather than one point in time.

To “become a teacher” might better be thought of as *the continuous experience of an individual through which an image of self-as-teacher is formed and refined, and during which knowledge, skills, and values appropriate to the work of teaching, as it is to be practiced in a particular context, are acquired and used.*

Teacher Preparation and Becoming a Teacher

If becoming a teacher is to be interpreted as more than engaging in a preservice preparation program, it is then useful to consider just what part preservice teacher preparation plays in the overall experience. In what ways does it add to the experience of becoming a teacher? How does it differ from other experiences that are part of that development?

Conventional and unconventional preparation. As already suggested, the experiences that individuals bring to teacher preparation programs vary as much as the people themselves. The motives they bring to the work of teaching; the beliefs and personal theories about what is effective; the images they hold of themselves—what kind of teacher they will be, what they will be good at, what will be their weaknesses: these are all matters that make one prospective teacher’s entry into a program somewhat different from the next prospective teacher’s. These matters will also make the unfolding experience of the program different for each individual.

Though there is great variance among the individuals who pursue teaching careers through preservice preparation, the program they enter (even though there are literally thousands of them) follow fairly conventional patterns. Indeed, because most if not all of these programs are designed to meet the requirements for registration with the various state education agencies, they might be characterized as “standardized.” The match between an individual’s unique experience of becoming a teacher and a program’s contribution to that de-

velopment may be good or it may be rough; the goodness of fit may be an important determinant of the success of the program in contributing to the individual's becoming a teacher.

The conventional preservice teacher education program is designed for a student who will enroll in a four-year college or university program which leads to a bachelor's degree and an initial credential for teaching. In the conventional program, a student begins with the general requirements of the institution and courses in the liberal arts and sciences. Often in the first and second years of undergraduate study, the professional education component is begun with courses that include early field experiences: a time when commitments to teaching can be confirmed or reexamined, and when learning about teaching becomes a process different from what has been experienced in all the years of being a student. The conventional program continues in the third and fourth years of undergraduate study with additional courses in liberal arts and sciences, typically including concentrated study in one field or in related interdisciplinary fields. The professional education component continues with more in-depth study of the foundations of education and of teaching methods and curriculum; often additional field experiences are incorporated into these professional studies. The conventional program concludes with an extended field experience—student teaching—which is typically considered the capstone of the program; teachers often report, retrospectively, that it was in student teaching that they learned how to teach.

An increasing number of individuals are beginning their pursuit of teaching as a career after their undergraduate years. These individuals may build on their undergraduate majors to form their content area specializations. Some of these individuals are coming to the work of teaching as a change of career, after years of success in another field. These prospective teachers often select preparation programs which extend undergraduate study or are combined with graduate study programs. Though they begin their professional studies at a point different from undergraduates, their preparation programs most often parallel the conventional model.

But yet other types of individuals are seeking to become teachers. Some have acquired extensive substitute teaching experience and seek to gain regular faculty positions. Some are building on years of experience as teacher assistants, or work in child care agencies, or involvement in community and church school programs. Some are skilled technicians or accomplished professionals in other fields whose involvement in teaching is limited to a specialized course. And some individuals are those who, for whatever reason, simply elect not to follow the conventional designs.

For these individuals, very unconventional preparation and practice experiences are often their means of becoming teachers. They may begin with intense study in the weeks before the school year begins and then participate in workshops and seminars during the year as they teach. Or they may be "apprenticed" to an experienced teacher for a period of time, after which they are assigned to their own classes. Some are employed on a part-time basis so they can participate in pre/in-service experiences or enroll in courses of study which are designed to enhance their teaching practice. These unconventional preparation programs may be brief, lasting only several weeks, or may span one or more years.

The variety of conventional and unconventional preparation programs may be necessary to serve the needs and interests of the even wider variety of individuals who intend to become teachers. Some have argued that this variety itself may be a strength of the profession and a grace of its members.

The contribution of teacher preparation to becoming a teacher. While the variety of conventional and unconventional approaches to teacher preparation have quite different designs and components, they might be viewed as contributing to becoming a teacher in a similar way, though perhaps with somewhat differing emphases. Consider again the suggested broader reading of becoming a teacher:

the continuous experience of an individual through which an image of self-as-teacher is formed and refined, and during

which knowledge, skills and values appropriate to the work of teaching, as it is to be practiced in a particular context, are acquired and used.

Though very important aspects of this development occur before entry into a preparation program and teaching itself, all preparation programs seek to add to the development of prospective teachers in ways congruent with this reading:

1. Preparation programs seek to help the prospective teacher form an image of self-as-teacher which generally might be characterized as "positive," "able," and "professional." More particular images are the goals of some programs: teacher as "decisionmaker," "artist," "advocate," "change agent," and so on. Programs often help particularize the image a prospective teacher forms: an elementary classroom teacher, a resource room teacher, a mathematics teacher, and so on.

Teacher preparation programs add to the experience of becoming a teacher by prompting a review of images of self-as-teacher acquired as a child and student, images that are often inadequately developed and sometimes inappropriate for the actual practice of teaching. Programs offer the opportunity to encounter new images, to "try them on" for fit.

2. Preparation programs seek to help the prospective teacher acquire knowledge, skills, and values appropriate to the work of teaching. Prospective teachers acquire knowledge of the content to be taught, of child and adolescent development, of human learning and behavior, of the structure of the curriculum, of the role of school as an institution in the society, and so on. They learn skills in planning and delivering instruction, in evaluating student performance, in working with colleagues and parents, in assessing one's own teaching. The prospective teachers also acquire values reflective of the recognition of the worth and uniqueness of each student, of the importance of learning in a complex society, of the provision of opportunity for learning to all students, of the need to be a learner even as a teacher.

Teacher preparation programs provide a conceptual base for the organized, systematic study of teaching practice. They assist the

prospective teacher in forming a framework, in part using the already acquired knowledge, skills, and values which the individual brings to the preparation experience. Through such a framework, an individual can plan and pursue the acquisition of other knowledge, skills, and values which will make the structure more complete and usable for teaching. Such a structure is necessarily general, and thus it is usable for guiding practice in a variety of teaching contexts. Having such a framework, an individual has the basis for continuing to learn about and practice teaching.

3. Preparation programs seek to provide experiences in particular contexts, through early field experiences, practica, student teaching, and sometimes teaching itself, during which the images being formed and the knowledge, skills, and values being acquired require particular application.

Teacher preparation programs provide opportunities for the prospective teacher to explore images of self-as-teacher and to apply knowledge, skills, and values in particular settings. Such explorations and applications are important means of learning and are also necessary if those acquisitions are to endure in actual practice. Importantly, programs provide guided experience in which explorations and applications can be undertaken with help and encouragement. They provide "safe" experience in which learning about self-as-teacher and teaching can proceed with maximum result and minimum risk for the prospective teacher.

No preparation program seeks all of these ends. And it is evident that no preparation program, whether it be conventional or unconventional, is successful in achieving these ends with every prospective teacher. Preparation programs are limited in scope and effect. Each to its own degree contributes to the becoming a teacher of each individual who participates. What is also evident, however, is that though some of these ends might be achieved without a preparation program, many of the images, much of the knowledge, skills, and values, and some of the particularization of experience would not readily be part of the experience of becoming a teacher for many individuals without the opportunity of participating in preparation programs.

Thus, teacher preparation programs contribute to becoming a teacher in ways that differ from accumulated prior experience and the experience of teaching itself. These contributions might not otherwise be gained. The combination of these contributions of a teacher preparation program to an individual's becoming a teacher results in yet greater outcomes: (a) for the individual, becoming a teacher is not a matter of imitation and reproduction but rather of invention and creation; (b) for the field, the greater outcome is the advancement of teaching.

Induction and Becoming a Teacher

With such outcomes of teacher preparation programs as suggested above, it would seem unnecessary to be greatly concerned about the further development of the individual as a teacher. Well prepared, the new teacher should be able to begin practice and self-direct the further steps in becoming a teacher. Indeed, historically, that is very often what has been assumed: (a) when the preparation program was completed, the support of the individual for learning about teaching was withdrawn; (b) any subsequent learning was informal and optional, or relegated to selected graduate courses or the in-service study days of the employing school district.

The inadequacy of such an assumption is clearly evident. Researchers and practitioners have for decades reported on the difficulty of the first year of teaching. In many reports, "experiences of new teachers" has been synonymous with "problems of new teachers." Kevin Ryan is one of those educators who has focused on the challenge of beginning teachers, documenting their experiences in texts such as *Don't Smile Until Christmas* (1970), and a decade later, *Biting the Apple* (1980); these accounts show the continuing experience of becoming, and the need of new teachers for support in that development. More recent reports such as Robert Bullough's *First-Year Teacher* (1989) extend this tradition. Articles and books document those problems and point to the need new teachers have for support in addressing them.

While some of those reports undoubtedly reflect the historic limits of teacher preparation programs, the difficulties of first-year teaching cannot be attributed to these limits alone. Indeed, even recognizably well prepared new teachers have faced a challenge in their first years of practice. And though many current teacher preparation programs have become more sophisticated in design—drawing on four decades of research on teaching and teacher education, integrating the study of theory with more extensive and more carefully selected field experience, and shaping the experience to the individuals who would be teachers—the need to extend support to new teachers in their first years has not lessened. Though teacher preparation programs contribute in a unique way to the experience of becoming a teacher, other critical steps in that development are taken after preparation in the first years of teaching. Support for new teachers as they continue to become teachers is crucial.

Perhaps this is even more true today than it might have been when the earlier documentation of the difficulties of first-year teachers appeared. The work of teaching has itself become a greater challenge, even for veteran teachers:

1. Teachers face a wider range of children in classrooms—children who differ in intellectual abilities, cultural backgrounds, background experiences, interests, and learning styles.

2. The curricula which classroom teachers are expected to address is more extensive, more varied, and more prescribed.

3. A greater variety of instructional tools are available for use in classrooms, still including paper and pencil media and workbooks, chalkboards, and displays, but also including multiple texts, learning centers, sophisticated audiovisual materials, and computer technologies; while they enrich the instructional process, they also challenge the teacher to incorporate them effectively and appropriately.

4. Teaching itself seems a more complex task: (a) using knowledge in decision making—both the personal and idio-

syncratic knowledge acquired through experience and the more generalizable knowledge derived from research and scholarship which is now informing practice; (b) working with other adults in the provision of services to children and adolescents—teachers, teacher assistants, parent volunteers, and community resource people, among others; (c) balancing the demands of classroom work with the demands and opportunities of increasing professionalism.

5. The complex work of teaching is now placed in societal and professional contexts characterized by greater sensitivity to accountability, generated by the reform movement of the 1980s. Teachers face and feel an increased individual sense of responsibility for the conduct and outcomes of schooling.

If these changes in teaching present challenges to veteran teachers, then perhaps even more so they challenge new teachers. Starting a career in teaching is, for all these reasons perhaps, more demanding than in past years, when already as many as half of each cohort of beginning teachers left the work within the first five years.

The advent of induction programs. Though the difficulties of first-years teachers have long been documented, it is only within the last decade that there has been a groundswell of interest in addressing the needs of beginning teachers. The response to the challenges of beginning a career in teaching are being addressed through rethinking the *transition* from preparation to practice. State agencies, school districts, and colleges and universities are working on their own or collaborating on means of easing that transition through an array of induction programs.

While the term *induction* is not new, the particular meaning that it has now taken on is somewhat different from the meanings it has formerly been given. Whereas induction often referred to the informal, often reactionary, and ritualistic socialization of new teachers, its use now refers to more sophisticated and systematic efforts to initiate, shape, and sustain the first work experiences of prospective career teachers.

In a recent publication of the Association of Teacher Educators, induction is defined as “a transitional period in teacher education, between preservice preparation and continuing professional development, during which assistance may be provided and/or assessment may be applied to beginning teachers” (Huling-Austin, et al. 1989, 3). Induction is acknowledged as a step in becoming a teacher, different from but related to preparation and longer term career development. Importantly, this definition points to a view of induction as active and productive, in contrast with the view once held of it as a passive and often debilitating experience. Like teacher preparation programs, induction has goals and activities organized into programs that seek to add to the experience of becoming a teacher.

Leslie Huling-Austin et al. (1989) lists five common goals of programs designed to assist beginning teachers:

1. To improve teaching performance
2. To increase the retention of promising beginning teachers
3. To promote the personal and the professional well-being of beginning teachers
4. To satisfy mandated requirements related to induction
5. To transmit the culture of the school system (and the teaching profession) to beginning teachers.

Sandra Odell has condensed a somewhat different set of goals from her review of the literature on practice. They present a more comprehensive view of the purposes of induction programs:

1. To provide continuing assistance to reduce the problems known to be common to beginning teachers
2. To support development of the knowledge and the skills needed by beginners to be successful in their initial teaching positions
3. To integrate beginning teachers into the social system of the school, the school district, and the community
4. To provide an opportunity for beginning teachers to analyze and reflect on their teaching with coaching from veteran support teachers

5. To initiate and build a foundation with new teachers for the continued study of teaching
6. To increase the positive attitudes of beginning teachers about teaching
7. To increase the retention of good beginning teachers in the profession (Huling-Austin et al. 1989, 20–21).

In pursuit of goals such as these, induction programs have been planned and implemented which have involved new teachers in a variety of activities. Descriptions of induction programs—their designs and structures—are appearing in professional journals and are being presented at conferences and workshops. Increasingly, reports of the positive impact such programs are having on the experiences of new teachers are appearing in the literature. It would seem that induction programs have been part of the experience of many recent new teachers; it would also seem that in the future, as programs increase in number, this will be the case for many more.

Though the goals and activities and outcomes of induction programs have been widely reported, less attention has been given to relating induction programs conceptually to other experiences in becoming a teacher. Are they repetitive of preparation programs? Do they simply extend preparation into the first year? Are they the first stage of staff development programs? Or are induction programs and other types of programs disassociated? For that matter, given the broader interpretation of “becoming a teacher” that has been suggested here, just how do induction programs contribute in a unique way to this development?

Toward a Theory of Induction

To understand the contribution of induction programs to becoming a teacher, and to relate these programs to other events in the experience, it is useful to have a conceptual understanding of induction itself. Such an understanding should account for the suggested broad interpretation of becoming a teacher, and would therefore necessarily

integrate the broader life experiences and the contributions of preparation and continuing development.

Having a theory of induction with which to work would be helpful on several levels. Like other theories, it would serve to describe, to explain, and to predict phenomena associated with induction. Having a “good” theory—one that does these things well—is a useful basis of planning induction programs, judging their qualities, and reviewing their effects.

Three Basic Concepts

A theory of induction might usefully begin with a set of three concepts: teacher competence, teacher performance, and teacher effectiveness. These three concepts were discussed by Donald Medley (1983) and have been used in thinking about teacher evaluation (Soar, Medley & Coker 1983). Medley drew important distinctions among the three concepts, which once drawn, become useful for building the theory. For the present purposes, the three concepts are discussed particularly as they might be applied to beginning teachers, though more generally defined they might just as readily apply to experienced teachers.

Teacher *competence* is the body of knowledge, skills, and values appropriate to the work of teaching, acquired by an individual. It is the sum of what a new teacher knows, can do, and values doing. Competence is a unique quality of each new teacher.

Competence is acquired in the experiences of being a child and student, and through participation in a preparation program. A new teacher's competence may include in-depth knowledge of a particular topic acquired through courses of study, knowledge of a particular management strategy acquired through being a student with whom it was used, or knowledge of a student subculture acquired through work in summer camp counseling. A new teacher's competence may include skills such as being able to create a dramatic effect in classroom presentations, or being able to introduce oneself to strangers and initiate a collegial relationship. A new teacher's competence may

include values such as a commitment to helping all students learn, a desire to maintain some balance between professional and personal time, or a premium on being respected by colleagues.

Teacher competence is transportable. An individual new teacher brings competence from prior experience and study to the work of teaching in any given classroom and school; she will take her competence along when she moves to the next setting.

Teacher *performance* is the expression of the new teacher's competence through the enactment of the tasks of teaching in a particular context. It is the challenge of using what is known, what skills have been acquired, and what values have been formed, in the particular classroom and school in which one is hired to teach. Context bears heavily on performance. That is, a new teacher is not expected to teach "in the abstract" or "in general," but in actual settings.

Performance tasks include classroom-related activities such as planning, delivering instruction, managing the classroom, and evaluating student accomplishment; they require use of the new teacher's competence in serving specific learners, regarding specific content and drawing on established curricula and instructional materials. Outside of the classroom, performance tasks might include forming associations with other teachers and other professionals, working with parents, and participating in the life and culture of the school, district, and community; again, each task requires applications of competence in particular circumstances with particular people.

Importantly, performance is always context bound. Performance is not transportable. That is, the new teacher does not bring prior performances to the setting of his first year of teaching, nor will he take the present performance with him to the next teaching assignment. Rather it is his competence—augmented as it might or will have been by the experience of performance—that accompanies him to each new teaching assignment.

Teacher *effectiveness* is the accomplishment of intended outcomes as a result of performance. Most typically, such outcomes are related to student learning and student behavior. But intended outcomes of performance are also related to out-of-classroom tasks such

as becoming part of the faculty, working with parents, and understanding and working with the culture of the school and community.

Like teacher performance, teacher effectiveness is always context bound—expressed in a particular, real setting. Measures and standards of effectiveness vary from context to context. Indicators of student accomplishment in one classroom might not be useful or valued indicators in another. Similarly, indicators of effective work with parents or colleagues in one setting may not be appropriate or used in another. Thus, teacher effectiveness, like performance, is not transportable. The new teacher does not bring her effectiveness with her to the new teaching assignment, but rather it is her competence—augmented as it might have been by prior experiences of effectiveness—that accompanies her.

Four principles

The theory of induction further develops by relating these three concepts to one another through a set of principles:

Teacher competence is the basis of teacher performance. New teachers who have acquired appropriate knowledge, skills, and values have the basis on which they may begin to enact the tasks of teaching in a particular context; persons who have not acquired competence do not have a basis for performance. While it is possible for even incompetent persons to perform as teachers on occasion, sustained performance can be based only on competence.

Teacher performance is the basis of teacher effectiveness. Without the enactment of the tasks of teaching in the particular settings to which they have been assigned, the new teacher's accomplishment of intended outcomes is in doubt. Again, while it is possible that intended outcomes may be reached on occasion without appropriate performance, sustained effectiveness can be expected only from appropriate performance.

Though teacher competence grounds teacher performance, it does not guarantee teacher performance. Thus, new teachers may

have appropriate knowledge, skills, and values, but may not know how or may not be able to express them in the particular context in which they are expected to perform.

Though teacher performance grounds teacher effectiveness, it does not guarantee teacher effectiveness. New teachers may enact the tasks of teaching, but the intended outcomes may not be accomplished, or may not be accomplished in terms of local measures and standards.

Consider how these concepts and principles of the emerging theory may describe, explain, and predict the experience of individuals who have prepared for teaching and are about to enter their first year of teaching. The beginning teachers are competent. They have acquired knowledge, skills, and values appropriate to teaching. The new teachers bring their competence to the particular context in which they have been hired to teach. But that competence will require specific interpretation and adaptation in the new contexts. Furthermore, the knowledge, skills, and values that have been acquired and are brought by the new teacher may be ill-formed or inappropriate for use in a given setting. And finally, the new teachers will not likely have acquired all the knowledge, skills, and values needed for teaching in the setting in which they are expected to perform. These conditions do not mean that the new teachers are incompetent. Rather it suggests that their knowledge, skills, and values may need to be interpreted for application, refined, or augmented.

Very often, new teachers have performed well in other settings. They have enacted the tasks of teaching to the satisfaction of their master teachers and supervisors in field experiences and student teaching. In many instances, their effectiveness has been reported in terms of the academic achievement of their students and in terms of their success in becoming part of the faculty and school community. The reviews of their performance and reports of their effectiveness are further evidence of their competence.

This combination of acquired competence, successful performance, and evident effectiveness ought to be the grounds for another

important characteristic of new teachers: self-confidence. The new teachers ought to be able to draw on their own sense of being competent, and their histories of performance and effectiveness in approaching their new teaching assignments. This combination of competence, performance, and effectiveness is the best basis and the surest predictor of future success. Being confident of oneself as a beginning teacher—particularly because of one's competence and past performances and effectiveness—is an important grounds for continuing development in the first year of teaching and beyond.¹

The Contribution of Induction to Becoming a Teacher

A new understanding of induction emerges from the theory. This understanding differs from some popular beliefs about the needs of beginning teachers. Induction is not a process in which the deficits of the preparation program are to be remedied. Nor is induction a means of teaching the neophyte everything that needs to be known for a lifetime of practice in the "real world." Induction is not simply the experience of socialization of the new teacher to the local culture of teaching. And induction should not be the extension of a screening device for the newly hired.

Seen as part of the experience of becoming a teacher, induction might be better understood as follows: *Induction is an effort to assist new teachers in performing—that is, expressing their competence in the particular context to which they have been assigned—toward the end of being effective. Through induction, new teachers continue to form and refine their images of themselves as teachers in terms of their competence, performance, and effectiveness.*

Induction remains a highly individualized experience. Each new teacher brings to it a unique set of qualities which require a unique response. Furthermore, the focus of development is *in* each new teacher. The new teacher necessarily plays an active role in the experience of becoming.

Programs which are planned for the induction of new teachers hope to achieve these ends through the design of mechanisms and ac-

tivities which hold the promise of adding to each individual's experience of becoming a teacher. Importantly, each new teacher acts as one of the designers of the experience. Using the language of the emerging theory, induction programs (a) assist new teachers as they interpret and adapt their competence for performing in the particular context, toward being effective; (b) provide new teachers the opportunity and means to acquire new competence which they see as needed to perform in that context; and (c) help new teachers convert their present experiences into competence on which to build future practice. Induction programs build on the experience of becoming a teacher already established within the individual, and thus build on what is the basis of the new teacher's self-confidence. The result of an induction program is a competent, performing, and effective teacher, who on these bases is increasingly confident in approaching the work of teaching.

Induction Through Mentoring

The emerging theory of induction describes how induction fits into the experience of becoming a teacher. It suggests that induction comes at a particular time in that development—after a period of preparation and as the new teacher faces the challenge of expressing his competence in the new context in which he is expected to perform and be effective.

The emerging theory does not specify how that assistance is to be provided. Presumably there are a number of alternative means—informal and formal—by which it can be accomplished. Indeed, as programs of induction have been initiated across the country, it is clear that as teacher educators think about this matter, they have designed a variety of mechanisms and activities which they judge to be good means to this end.

One means by which induction support can be provided is through mentoring. Whereas this support mechanism has traditionally been informal and available to only some new teachers as they

enter the field, increasingly it is becoming the central feature of formal induction programs. The use of mentoring in formalized programs of induction not only makes the experience of having a mentor available to all new teachers who are to be served, but it also brings a valued dimension to the induction effort that is not part of programs that use other means of addressing matters of competence, performance, and effectiveness. Induction through formal mentoring is increasingly being seen by teacher educators on campus and in the field as the induction program of choice.

The term *mentoring* comes from Homer's classical Greek story, *The Odyssey*. This term suggests older, more experienced persons who assist younger people as they face the challenges of becoming adults. In recent years, recognizing its potential, a number of business, industrial, and professional organizations have adopted mentoring or mentoring-like arrangements for supporting their new employees and colleagues. Reports of the success of such efforts have renewed interest in mentoring in the field of education, including teacher education. Mentoring as a means of educating schoolchildren and adolescents is being explored. Mentoring as means of responding to the long-standing call for support of new teachers is taking hold as a standard in induction practice.

There have been a number of useful analyses of the concept of mentoring as applied to the support of new teachers. Nathalie Gehrke (1988, 44–45) noted particular qualities in a mentor-protégé relationship that distinguishes it from other helping roles. She drew on the philosophical work of Martin Buber to suggest that a mentoring relationship is better characterized as an “I-Thou” relationship. Toward such an end, she offered eight points of guidance to those who would promote mentoring.

1. Allow both the mentor and protégé to choose each other.
2. Provide time for the relationship to develop.
3. Allow for negotiation of what is to be addressed in the relationship.
4. Assure growing independence and equality for the protégé.