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THE ROAD TO SOCIALIZATION: A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF THE FILIPINO IMMIGRANT TEACHERS' SEARCH FOR THEIR PLACE IN THE HAWAI'I DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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by

Maria Rosa Villongco Flores
To Rosa Peña-Tongko, Spiritual Leader, Physician, Lawyer, Moral Compass, Inspiration, and Loving Grandmother: I give you your wish.

Rose
I would like to extend my deepest appreciation to all the members of the doctoral committee for their invaluable support, guidance, and encouragement throughout the doctoral program and the various stages of this study. Dr. Stacey Roberts' insightful suggestions, guidance, patient encouragement, trust, and personal interest in the quality and scope of the study were immeasurably helpful. Dr. Ron Heck's reviews and suggestions on statistical procedures resulted in meaningful simplification of the findings of this study. Dr. Joanne Cooper's guidance on the qualitative method helped clarify critical aspects of the study. Dr. David Ericson's insights on educational policy helped direct appropriate focus on the implications of the study. Dr. Robert Gibson's guidance and recommendations drawn from his extensive studies and experience working with immigrant teachers and students were particularly helpful in assessing the significance of responses to the study.

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ABSTRACT

A large number of Philippine-trained teachers are presently employed in the Hawai‘i Department of Education (HIDOE). Although a big percentage have earned their tenure and working full-time as teachers in the Department, about half of Filipino immigrant teachers are holding part-time positions and more than half of them are still working on completing their credentials to meet the requirements for teaching in the HIDOE. Many of those who are non-tenured or temporary hires often encounter difficulty earning tenure and permanency. As teacher shortage continues to afflict the HIDOE and new educational reforms and initiatives are being introduced to the school system, descriptive studies that examine the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers are necessary. This study was designed to describe the professional and organizational socialization processes of Filipino immigrant teachers in HIDOE. Five questions were developed to guide this study: (1) what are the institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the HIDOE? (2) what have been the socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the HIDOE? (3) what assumptions about teaching in the HIDOE did Filipino immigrant teachers hold prior to their initial teaching assignment into the school system? (4) did these assumptions change over time, and if so, what were these changes? and (5) what factors helped these changes? A case study design combined with survey research, socialization theories, and theoretical framework, was used to collect and interpret the data from interviews and questionnaires. Findings of the study indicate that commitment to student learning is the
most powerful variable influencing the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers, that
the overall level of socialization was generally high, and that assumptions held by
Filipino immigrant teachers prior to teaching in HIDOE concern student behavior,
teacher orientation, parents, administrators, colleagues, curriculum, and teaching
materials. Other themes that emerged from the study were challenges, coping strategies,
commitment to students, and professional commitment and empowerment. Research
findings contribute to the recruitment, retention, and professional development for
teachers and will be valuable to school administrators and university personnel.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Every year a large number of Philippine-trained teachers migrate to Hawai‘i as permanent residents, equipped with their professional qualifications and high expectations. Many of them soon realize that their credentials from the Philippines do not meet the requirements for teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education system. In addition, many of these teachers are not familiar with the types of teaching positions, resources, and requirements set out by the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Because of this limited knowledge, a large number of these Philippine-trained teachers end up finding employment performing menial jobs where they are mostly overqualified and overeducated. The teachers who find teaching employment in the Hawai‘i Department of Education as non-tenured or temporary hires often encounter difficulty earning tenure and permanency. Many leave the Hawai‘i Department of Education and find employment elsewhere where their services are better appreciated. Together, these circumstances constitute a net loss, both actual and potential, to the educational system of Hawai‘i. The Hawai‘i Department of Education loses the rich background experience and qualifications that these teachers bring with them. Potential losses could arise from equity issues related to inability of the Hawai‘i Department of Education to meet legally mandated needs of the rapidly growing immigrant student population in the public school system.

The Hawai‘i Department of Education, responding to pressures from two sources, has established an affirmative action plan to assist in the recruitment and training
of underrepresented teachers. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act established affirmative action in government hiring through the introduction of goals and timetables for the hiring process, and provision for new opportunities and equal access to jobs for American minorities (Chang, 1996). This federal action prompted the Hawaiʻi Department of Education to open its doors to many Philippine-trained immigrant teachers and to encourage them to apply for teaching and administrative jobs in the Department. A teacher shortage, which is now in its tenth year, also prompted the Hawaiʻi Department of Education to hire more immigrant teachers through temporary credentials for those who had not yet completed the examination requirements for new teachers. There is a loss of talent whenever a group of potentially effective immigrant teacher candidates is not given the opportunity to teach especially in a time when there is a teacher shortage (Spellman, 1988).

The development of a culturally-sensitive affirmative action plan, classroom management training, test preparation workshops, job referrals, and links between University of Hawaiʻi and the Hawaiʻi Department of Education helped set up the structure for entry of more Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawaiʻi Department of Education (Chang 1996). More work in this area appears to be in store for the Hawaiʻi Department of Education. Statistics from the Hawaiʻi Department of Education show that from the nineties to the present, Filipinos make up only 6% of the teaching positions and that many Philippine-trained immigrant teachers are relegated to part-time temporary teacher and educational assistant positions in the Department (Personnel Certification and Development Group, 2001).
Statement of the Problem

Immigrant teachers in the United States face problems different from those of native-born Americans. Most of these problems surround their socialization to the new environment. This difficult situation manifests itself when an immigrant leaves the country of origin and arrives at a culturally different environment (Horowitz, 1985). Teacher training and preparation in the Philippines incorporate culturally-based attitudes about performance and commitment that contribute to the Filipino immigrant teacher’s perception of his or her role as a teacher. The same elements contribute to the immigrant teachers’ socialization and adjustment to American school system. These elements may be explained in the context of Van Maanen’s (1984) reference to the culture brought by a newcomer to the new setting as the “culture of orientation” (p. 213). This culture of orientation may be bruised by socialization agents in the new setting who have an interest in eliminating the prior understanding that newcomers bring with them. However, Van Maanen emphasizes that honoring, or at least tolerating, the culture of orientation by socialization agents will allow for the learning of new things using old ways.

Immigrant teachers often experience discrimination due to cultural differences, enforced through official attitudes toward accent, language, and culture. School officials often find that speaking English with a non-Western accent and comprehending different cultural codes and practices are considered low-valued skills or signifiers of “sub-par qualifications” (Chang, 1996). School administrators frequently question competencies of immigrant teachers in the classrooms. Many school administrators believe that immigrant teachers are not culturally prepared to teach and maintain discipline within the “local”
classroom. Angry Hawai'i Department of Education officials years ago, when charged with discrimination by Filipino activists, suggested that immigrant applicants should go to school to become qualified (Chang, 1996).

A newcomer experiences a "breaking-in" phenomenon when initially joining an organization (Van Maanen, 1977a, p.15). This phenomenon represents a crisis period that occurs regularly throughout an individual’s career. Van Maanen refers to this as a "breakpoint" in which old relationships are severed and new ones are forged, old behavior patterns are also forgotten while new ones are learned, some previous responsibilities are abandoned and new ones are adapted. Louis (1980) refers to this process as "learning the ropes" (p. 230). The individual entering a new environment searches for common sense theories that can create meaningful explanation of what is going on. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) state the following common assumptions related to the socialization process:

1. Individuals undergoing any organizational transition are in an “anxiety producing situation” (p. 214). The psychological tensions are in a way affected by feelings of loneliness and isolation related to the new environment, and anxieties related to their performance in the newly acquired role. Lack of identification with the activities in the new environment places a newcomer in stressful situations.

2. “Organizational socialization and the learning associated with it does not occur in a social vacuum strictly on the basis of the official and available versions of the new role requirements” (p. 215). The newcomer is provided
with support and guidance from colleagues, superiors, and other associates in interpreting events within the organization as well as adjusting to its new role.

3. The newcomer's performance in carrying out tasks has a great bearing on the stability and productivity of any organization. The socialization processes within the organization provide individuals with skills to solve ongoing social concerns.

4. The manner by which newcomers adjust to circumstances is almost uniform although a variation in particular content and type of adjustments exists. The individual’s prior knowledge and understanding will reflect on his or her transition to the new role regardless of its newly acquired knowledge about the new role.

Cultural values play a significant role in the socialization experiences of immigrant teachers. These values are portrayed by teachers in their teachings and through their associations and interaction with students and colleagues. Socialization, according to Van Maanen and Schein (1979), must not be taken for granted nor ignored on the basis that cultural learning is fundamentally functional and that the transmission of information and values involved in the socialization process is merely a cultural matter. Eckermann (1994) suggests that a fruitful socialization experience with corresponding acquisition of relevant “culture switching skills” will contribute and increase immigrant teacher efficacy and effectiveness. Little is known, however, about the relationship between socialization in the new environment. There is a need for more descriptive studies on immigrant teachers as teacher-training programs are developed and implemented in order to understand the process of socialization that they go through.
Significance of the Research

Teachers' beliefs and practices, biographical experiences, relationships, and assumptions all have an impact on the teachers' socialization within the school system (Connelly and Clandinin, 1990; Lacey, 1987). Unfortunately, there are few research studies done in the area of immigrant teacher socialization. Zeichner and Gore (1990) note in their socialization research that "the socialization of minority teachers is another area that has been totally neglected in the literature to date" (p. 335). There is limited substantial information on the socialization experiences of immigrant teachers despite their increasing number in the teaching profession across the country.

Immigrant teachers' biographical experiences are often-undervalued (Galindo, Aragon, and Underhill, 1996). Also, research on immigrant teachers has failed to recognize the influence of racial and ethnic identity on teachers' beliefs and practices (Foster, 1991). The examination of minority teachers' socialization, lives, and career narratives contribute to an understanding of the educational significance of teachers' biographical experiences to their professional development and role definition by highlighting the perspectives derived from minority community members' experiences as students and professional educators. Su (1997) supports this fundamental belief by stating that "understanding the unique perspectives from minority teacher candidates is the key to creating and implementing more effective programs for recruiting and preparing those individuals who have the appropriate commitment and competence for careers in public school teaching" (p. 326). Efforts to recruit and prepare immigrant teachers to meet the
needs of an increasingly diverse student population will continue to be unsuccessful without such knowledge.

Filipino immigrant teachers' struggles, success, growth, and learning are worthy of study and may provide added information on how they face challenges and change in their socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Teachers in general experience difficulty when they must learn and implement an educational innovation (Fullan, 1993). This experience is further aggravated by changes involving relocation, transition to a new culture with norms, values, and behaviors that must be learned with which one's personal practical knowledge must be aligned (Court, 1999).

Institutions of higher learning, policymakers, and the Hawai‘i Department of Education may benefit from the results of this study as they continue to recruit and provide training programs for teachers. Filipino immigrant teachers' needs and concerns may be different from those teachers who received their education and professional preparation in the United States. Data from and analysis of results of the study may therefore contribute to the development and improvement of training activities for teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education system. Darling-Hammond (1990) states that:

Given the persistent national concern for a competitive edge in the world economy, for social order and the demographic realities of this country, it is naïve to perceive a quality education for any child that is developed by a parochial educational system and delivered by a homogeneous teaching force. (p. viii)
Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to describe and document the professional and organizational socialization processes of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Socialization is defined as the processes through which an individual acquires the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to perform a social role effectively (Greenfield, 1985; Merton, 1968). The study was based on the assumption that immigrant teachers’ perceptions and expectations of their roles will affect their adjustment to the new environment. As an immigrant familiar with the challenges that Filipino immigrant teachers face, I personally believe that their struggles, successes, innovations, and professional growth are worthy of study.

There is an abundance of theory in the socialization literature that seeks to explain the phenomenon of socialization. This study uses Hess’ (1971) theory to provide the framework. This model of socialization describes the operation of a system that includes distinct conceptual elements. These conceptual elements include:

1. An environmental structure which can either be political, social, educational, and religious institutions.
2. A body of beliefs, attitudes, values, skills, laws, rules, and customs that are included in the operation of institutional systems.
3. Designated agents that are both institutional and individual.
4. Objects of socialization that are considered initiates into the institution.
5. A process of teaching and learning where norms, beliefs, values, etc. are transmitted by socializing agents.
6. A behavioral outcome in the form of expressed attitudes and acceptance of norms and conformity with the values of the institutions.

7. System-sustaining behavior that includes the support of the goals of the system and attempts to convince others to accept its norms.

**Research Questions**

A multicase study approach was used to answer the following questions:

1. What are the institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

2. What have been the socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

3. What assumptions about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education did Filipino immigrant teachers hold prior to their initial teaching assignment in the school system?

4. Did these assumptions change over time, and if so, what were these changes?

5. What factors helped shape these changes?

**Definition of Terms**

*Filipino Immigrant Teachers:* Filipino immigrant teachers are those who received their teacher education in the Philippines, left the Philippines, their country of origin, to settle in Hawai‘i.
Teacher Socialization: Teacher socialization is a process through which a teacher becomes a participating member of the profession (Danzinger, 1971). Aside from learning how to teach, Lacey (1977) views that acceptance of values, attitudes, and challenges of the teaching profession are also included in teacher socialization. Zeichner and Gore (1990) state that the socialization process can best be understood in the context of culture, history, politics, society, and institution and mediated by factors such as race, social class, and gender.

Professional Socialization: Professional socialization refers to the processes wherein one comes to acquire, in patterned and selective fashion, the beliefs, attitudes, values, skills, knowledge, and ways of life established in the professional culture (Su, Goldstein, Suzuki, and Kim, 1997). The individual becomes a member of the profession who eventually develops an identity with the profession.

Organizational Socialization: Van Maanen and Schein (1979) refer to organizational socialization as the process where one is taught and learns “the ropes of a particular organizational role” (p. 211) in a specific work setting. It is also the manner in which individuals become members of an organization from the standpoint of the individual and from the standpoint of others in the organization.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE RELATED TO THE STUDY

The literature on teacher socialization can be grouped into three general categories: those pertaining to teachers and teacher socialization, theories on socialization in general, and literature laying down a theoretical framework for socialization. Teacher socialization may be viewed following either a functionalist, or interpretive paradigm, occurring as a continuous process through formal or informal settings. Socialization of a teacher may be molded by organizational and professional expectations, and affected by a number of variables. The stages of socialization are well described in the literature, with the models sharing common themes. Socialization for the individual teacher may be explained on the basis of either a spatial or temporal framework.

*Teachers and Socialization*

Socialization in education can be examined from different theoretical views. This particular study operated on the conceptual framework of teacher socialization. It examined related research on teacher socialization following two paradigms: a functionalist paradigm that holds a view characterized by a concern in providing explanations of the social order, social integration, solidarity, need satisfaction, and actuality; and an interpretive paradigm that seeks explanation of individual consciousness and subjective interpretations (Zeichner and Gore, 1990).
Professional roles and attitudes of individuals are related to the meaning of the social interactions and the interpretive processes employed by individuals (Blasé, 1985). Socialization involves coordinated ideas and responses that a person uses when dealing with a problematic situation. These ideas and responses can be in the form of thoughts and actions that escalate in response to specific institutional processes.

Becker (1971), Caplow (1964), Lacey (1987), Merton (1957), and Schein (1971) view socialization as a continuous process throughout ones’ career in an organization because of its relevance on each individual’s career move (e.g., new acquired position, promotion, function, or geographical transfer). Caplow (1964) visualizes socialization as continuous since behaviors appropriate to the organization are learned and relearned throughout the career and not just acquired at the assumption of the position. Haller (1967) states that socialization processes are not limited to training periods but considered part of the work experience itself. For Louis (1980), each role change involves socialization into the new role and setting regardless of the individual’s prior experiences. Louis describes socialization as an experience “characterized by disorientation, foreignness, and a kind of sensory overload” (p. 230).

Socialization processes occur through formal and informal settings (Greenfield, 1985; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). These settings are distinguished from each other by the degree to which the material to be learned or the role of the learner is specified. For Greenfield, the material and the role of the learner are specified in the formal socialization setting as opposed to informal socialization where neither the role of the learner nor the material to be learned are specified in a formal sense.
Teachers, like any unique individuals, bring to their teaching personal qualities, experiences, and histories as members of society, communities, schools, and classrooms (Lemberger, 1997). Data on teacher socialization by Blase (1985) indicate that during their initiation, teachers bring with them naive and unrealistic assumptions, values, and goals that were drawn from preservice preparation and experience.

Teacher as a Person

The adaptation of biographical perspectives as well as the subjective interpretations of their professional preparation and experiences as teachers provides a better understanding of immigrant teachers' professional development and role identity. Horowitz (1985), in her study on immigrant teachers, concludes that teaching is a culturally-conditioned occupation, and that the perceived role of the teacher reflects not only the inherent requirements of the occupation, but also the normative inputs of the social environment. An analysis of how immigrant teachers view themselves in their occupational role will also help in understanding their professional behavior.

Teacher Perspectives

Greenfield (1985) defines perspective as a coordinated set of ideas and actions a person uses in dealing with some problematic situation. Teachers’ perspectives develop over time and depend on an individual’s past experiences. Greenfield concludes that the emergence of perspective is thus tied to the context of the learning situation, in this case the school organization as a work setting. The culture of the school and the situational-specific pressures encountered in the work setting itself are believed to be instrumental in
shaping perspective, and the underlying pattern of assumptions guiding thought and action in response to problematic situations in the school. Norms and values are usually learned through one’s immersion in the setting. Immigrants who have not yet “absorbed” the new culture’s norms and values must learn through trial and error, by modeling, and by practicing them overtime (Court, 1999).

Socialization Theories

Expectancy Theory

Role acquisition according to Brim (1966) is the central concern of socialization. In this regard, Brim sees the socialization process as the way by which an individual acquires the behavior appropriate to the individual’s position in a group as he or she interacts with other members of the group. The same group also holds normative beliefs about the individual’s role and rewards or punishes the individual for acceptable or unacceptable actions. For Brim, the requirements for individuals to attain a satisfactory performance of the role are that (a) an individual must be aware of what is expected of him or her, (b) he or she must be able to meet the role requirements, and (c) there has to be willingness on his or her part to practice the behavior. Van Maanen (1976a) simplifies the expectancy theory as the:

Concept that postulates that an individual is motivated to perform a particular role to the extent that the individual visualizes himself or herself capable of performing the role and that the person perceives performance of the role leading to favorable outcomes. (p. 73)
The benefit derived from the expectancy theory is the mechanism that allows motivation for the individual to carry out the demands of the designated role. Outcomes of socialization are therefore determined by the organization's selection of methods used to communicate clearly to the individual the related role behaviors that would lead to valued rewards (Van Maanen, 1976a).

To the extent that role expectation is defined by the organization, it plays a major part in the socialization process. This notion can be seen in the induction process where an individual is provided with a clear view of job responsibilities and expectations prior to performing the task. Weitz (1957) concludes that role definition prior to task performance may often determine whether the individual will leave or stay in the organization.

Newcomer Expectations and Socialization

Organizational theories indicate that newcomer expectations are shaped prior to entry into an organization (Major, Kozlowski, Chao, and Gardner, 1995). Impressions on the nature of the job and the newcomer's roles are formed during induction and selection processes. Upon entry into the organization, the newcomer encounters challenges that amplify the reality of the assumed organizational role. Newcomers' expectations are inclined to include reality shock, surprise, and uncertainty (Louis, 1980; Major et al., 1995). Louis concludes that newcomers are surprised upon discovering that aspects of one's self do not sufficiently suit the demands of the role assumed upon entry. This then leads to the sense-making stage or attempts to attune the differences between the role and one's self. For Major et al., "the discrepancy between anticipatory expectations and the
organizational reality confronted upon entry determines whether newcomer expectations are exceeded, met, or unmet” (p. 418).

In a study of Major et al. (1995) on newcomer expectations, socialization outcomes, and role development, the authors differentiate between role conflict expectations, role clarity expectations, and acceptance expectations. Role conflict expectations deal with the degree of beliefs of the newcomer on the incompatibility of the role demands that will be required upon him or her by the organization. This is a belief that role requirements will be inconsistent. Expectations on role clarity refer to the extent to which the newcomer assumes that role demands will be well defined or role requirements will not mislead the newcomer. Acceptance expectations deal with the degree of beliefs of the newcomer that he or she will have to transform to fit the demands of the role. In this case the assumed role will need personal modification. The study develops constructs that deal with the relationships between the newcomers and insiders in the organization during initial socialization process. One construct is the leader-member exchange (LMX) which can be utilized to deal with the relationship between the supervisor and the newcomer, while the other construct, the team-member exchange (TMX) can be used to detect the relationship between the newcomer and the members of the organization. These constructs are found to address the quality of role development relationships between the newcomer and the socializing agents by Major et al.

Major et al. (1995) state that the extent of personal acceptance experience of the newcomer affects the degree of effectiveness of the socialization process. Attempts are also made by the newcomer to integrate the assumed organizational role with one’s own personal needs and values to establish consistency between the two aspects. Major et al.
propose that the disparity between the initial expectations and early organizational experiences will also affect the socialization outcomes of the newcomer.

Major et al. (1995) find that a role negotiation process happens upon the newcomer’s engagement in the organization. The process includes the offering of the role by the supervisor to the newcomer and the rejection, revision, or acceptance of the role by the newcomer. They explain the role of negotiation through its initial phase where the LMX and TMX correspond with the newcomer and assist the newcomer in his or her assimilation to the social group as well as the postulation of the social role.

Two important findings of this study suggest that leader-member exchange (LMX) is an important variable in the socialization process and that team-member exchange (TMX) is a significant variable in lowering the degree of the effects of unmet expectations. The study also supports the crucial role of the supervisor in the socialization process of the newcomer as an informant for relevant information and as a source of feedback in learning to adapt oneself in the new role and the organizational setting. The findings also imply that the harmful effects of the unmet expectations of the newcomers can be overcome through distinct relationships with one’s supervisor. The authors point out that “it seems likely that as the newcomer’s perspective begins to converge with the more normative view offered by the supervisor, naïve prior expectations are cast aside” (p. 429). Major et al. (1995) claim that the actual findings of the study are consistent with the theoretical perspective that insight formation, knowledge acquisition, and convergence processes are pivotal to the assimilation of newcomers to the organization. Louis (1980) supports these findings by stating that newcomers who have established quality relationships with supervisors are better equipped to overcome reality shock and
experience better adaptation to their new role even though expectations on the organization are not met.

Professional Socialization

Professional socialization as defined by Lacey (1987) is the process of change whereby individuals become members of the teaching profession and progressively acquire more mature roles within the profession. Professional socialization includes a process where an individual is being prepared to assume a variety of jobs or a role within an occupation. Internalization of knowledge and skills, and commitment to the values, norms, and traditions are included in the culture of the profession and are involved in the process of professional socialization. This type of preparation is done during the individual’s occupational training. Lacey’s treatment of professional socialization includes an emphasis on the school as a result of teachers’ desire to fulfill two goals: the acceptance into the existing structure of the school, and making a school a better place as teachers make attempts to mold the school into becoming the sort of place where they would want to teach.

Many authors believe that professional socialization of teachers starts at the students’ university training while others suggest that professional socialization starts during practice teaching. Changes are expected to occur during this process as new teachers acquire new responsibilities and begin to consider movements for promotion. These changes are supposedly recognized as “appropriate to becoming a full-fledged member of the teaching profession by the training institution as well as senior teachers in
the schools" (Lacey, 1987, p. 635). The process continues after the individual’s employment and is extended whenever a change in job or occupation occurs.

One theory of change is Becker’s (1964) concept of the mechanism of situational adjustment resulting from his study on medical students’ professional education. Becker states that an individual learns the requirements and experience success in situations as he or she operates within them. Continuous assessment and delivery of the required expectations will lead to the transformation of the individual to the kind of person the situation demands. Becker’s theory suggests that individuals change due to the forces of the environment. This theory is supported by Giroux (1980) who states that teacher education programs are, in effect, agencies of social control whereby future teachers are “educated” to accept certain attitudes and skills.

Lacey’s (1987) study on early teacher socialization indicates the presence of other mechanisms in addition to Becker’s (1964) situational adjustment. Lacey refers to these mechanisms as social strategies or devices for understanding how and to what extent teachers are socialized into their roles. These are internalized adjustment, strategic compliance, and strategic redefinition. Internalized adjustment refers to a compliance response by an individual to the authority figure’s definition of the situation. This strategy allows the individual to evolve into the kind of person that the situation stipulates and demonstrates behavioral conformity and value commitment. Strategic compliance, which appeared to be the most common in Lacey’s study occurs when an individual complies with the authority figure’s definition of situation without expressing one’s own reservation. In contrast, strategic redefinition happens when an individual introduces new knowledge, values, and skills in finding a solution to a situation. The results of Lacey’s
study indicate that the development of a career happens in a sequential manner or in stages since perspectives and attitudes only appear after the “processing and digesting” (p. 642) of practical experiences that form the basis of new perspectives.

Lacey (1987) identifies and defines four stages in the training year of beginning teachers. The initial stage is the “honeymoon period” where student teachers feel the freedom from the pressures of student life and enjoy the status of “being a teacher” and perform practical tasks. The second stage is the “search for material and ways of teaching” when student teachers face classroom challenges by locating materials and formulating various ways of presenting them. The “crisis” stage follows when classroom concerns such as pedagogical/instructional challenges and discipline cannot be fully solved by the accumulation of materials. This is where student teachers feel like “giving up.” Feeling more comfortable in making compromises and changes mark the “learning to get by or fail” or the final stage in the training year. At this stage, the beginning teacher feels comfortable in his or her role as a teacher without guilt. (p. 642). A beginning teacher’s career may be in jeopardy when he or she fails in this stage.

Becoming a teacher is considered only a part of the process of professional socialization. Eventually, teachers will consider long term prospects outline or “career maps” (Lacey, 1987, p. 643) that can be used to guide their careers. The hierarchical structure of the school system and the landscape of teachers’ career are said to influence the professional socialization of teachers.

Lortie (1975) identifies three basic components of professional socialization. These are formal schooling, mediated entry, and learning-while-doing. The two categories of formal schooling related to professional socialization are general schooling
and special schooling. General schooling refers to school experiences that precede career preparation. Lortie explains general schooling in reference to apprenticeship-of-observation, the start of professional socialization that students entering the teaching profession experience. The experience includes acquaintance with the tasks of teachers and fostering identification with teachers. Special schooling refers to the professional preparation of teachers or teacher education. Mediated entry is apprenticeship or "practice teaching" (p. 59) and considered the classic form of work induction. Individuals during apprenticeship start acquiring more demanding tasks and responsibilities under the supervision of persons who are holding recognized positions in school organizations. These persons provide suggestions and demonstrate ways of teaching. The knowledge acquired from this experience provides teachers the assurance that they can facilitate instruction and also affirms their choice of occupation. Teaching has relied heavily on the learning-while-doing component of socialization. Competency is based on what was learned in the course of everyday work and teachers agree that work experience is influential in shaping their performance as teachers. Continuing education is reinforced this way since salary increased and promotion are usually linked to additional coursework (Lortie 1975).

Edgar and Warren's (1969) theory of professional socialization suggests that teacher attitudes will change according to the attitudes held by their "significant others" (p. 387). Significant others in this theory is defined as the person considered to have the greatest "power" (p. 388) over the newcomer teacher in the context of organizational sanctions. Findings from the study conducted by Edgar and Warren on professional socialization imply that (a) organizational evaluation is a significant factor in professional
socialization, (b) a significant socialization variable is a personal liking between a teacher and his or her evaluator, (c) autonomy, when demanded, will often clash with the existing attitudes of the superiors, (d) it is more likely to achieve autonomy through the virtues of teacher's resources or qualities than by demand, and (e) satisfaction in teaching depends on the way tasks are assigned and evaluated.

Organizational Socialization

Feldman (1976) defines organizational socialization as the process by which employees are transformed from outsiders to participating, effective insiders, where new members are taught to adapt to the existing organizational culture and learn their individual roles within it, and where the individual learns acceptable behaviors that permit one to function as a member of the organization. Socialization involves the ways in which a newcomer changes and adapts to organizations (Wanous, 1992).

Organizational socialization becomes relevant every time the individual makes some kind of internal change such as change in job description, job location, or promotion (Caplow, 1964; Schein, 1971). Organizational socialization is used as a mechanism to control and maintain status quo in an organization in order to assure that newcomers will adhere to the important values and norms of the organization (Etzioni, 1964).

Zeichner and Tabachnik (1985) state that institutions including schools utilize mechanisms of control on their employees to assure compliance on the procedures set by the organization. Edwards (1979) as cited by Zeichner and Tabachnik identifies three forms of organizational control used to establish control in the workplace:
1. Personal or direct control where close supervision and monitoring of workers' actions are done by the school principal to ensure compliance with the organizational norms.

2. Bureaucratic control where control is firmly established into the social structure of the workplace and implemented through social and bureaucratic strata. The rewards and sanctions in this type of control are determined by officially approved policies where particular groups are accountable.

3. Technical control involves the organizations' control over its members in areas such as work tasks directions, performance evaluation, and rewards and worker discipline. This type of control is incorporated into the physical structure of the labor process. Jobs are charted in that would minimize the necessity for administrators' supervision.

Literature on organizational socialization views the process from a larger framework of adult socialization (Brim, 1966; Van Maanen, 1976a; Wanous, 1992). One theory on adult socialization by Van Maanen (1976a) states that the part of the individual's "life-space" (p. 79) relating to the various role demands of the organization is blank. Adult socialization, according to him, involves the individual's transformation of oneself into the type of individual that the situation demands. Successful transformation depends on the individual's knowledge development, skills, and motivation. Related to this is his concept of "taking the role of other" (p. 70) while trying to ascertain others' responses toward one's own conduct. This concept then leads to a personality perspective of "self-other" (p. 70) which increases in complexity as the individual is required to adapt roles throughout his or her lifetime. This is supported by
Brim (1966), when he agrees that the self-other relationships will also lead to the individual’s assessment of himself or herself as being good or bad, depending on the extent to which the individual lives up to the expectations of others. Brim continues that the significance of self-appraisal depends on the way by which the individual values other people’s evaluation of him or her. Wanous (1992) shares the concept that the individual’s personality system consists of a set of self-other relationships that can become increasingly complex as the individual matures and performs various roles. For Wanous, an individual entering an organization possesses a blank knowledge of the specific role demands of the organization. It is through this passage that the individual becomes receptive while searching for clues and information on how he or she should change according to the expectations of the organizations. From these shared viewpoints, the increase or decrease of the individual’s self-esteem could be the consequences of self-appraisal as well as the perceived adequacies or inadequacies (Brim, 1966).

As the individual matures and meets the demands on its identity, he or she learns to “act out new roles” (Van Maanen, 1976a, p. 70). The purpose of socialization as defined by Van Maanen (1976a) then is the process of providing the individual with knowledge, ability, and motivation to perform the role, and that accomplishment of this at the abstract level is through “alterations and extensions of one’s self-other systems” (p. 70).

Caplow (1964) defines organizational socialization as “an organizationally directed process that prepares and qualifies individuals to occupy organizational positions” (p. 169). For the individual to transform, Caplow provides four requirements
that individuals must acquire: (a) a new self-image, (b) new involvements, (c) new values, and (d) new accomplishments.

According to Caplow (1964), the self-image of a fully socialized individual reflects the entire organization's status order, interaction network, values, and activities. These perspectives provide an impression that the organization is unique and different from other organizations. New involvements are the result of encounters with "new people" (p. 170) as one joins an organization. The newcomer sees former acquaintances from a different angle since the newcomer is now performing a different role. The process of socialization suggests interaction of newcomers with "associates" (p. 171) within the organization that are recommended in advance. The practice is related to Feldman's (1976) concept of socialization where newcomers are transformed from outsiders to effective insiders through the process of being taught to adapt to the existing organizational culture by the insiders or those who have been in the organization for a long period of time. Aside from developing new relationships, organizational socialization also involves the abandonment of old relationships (Caplow, 1964). The type of socialization necessary depends on the relevance of old relationships that are to be given up. In many cases where socialization is extreme, the effect of socialization experiences can be expressed more profoundly in the abandonment of old habits than the difficulty in performing the new role (Caplow, 1964).

For individuals to function as a member of an organization, they must internalize the values that are communicated as their own (Caplow, 1964). Identification of oneself as a member of the organization must be demonstrated for other members. Occupying a
position in an organization requires completion of specified tasks such as “learning of skills with tools and techniques and of special vocabulary” (p. 172) for communication.

Organizational socialization is the result of the merging of individuals and the organizational pursuits. It may be regarded as continuous since behaviors required by an organization are not acquired at the assumption of the role but are learned and relearned throughout the individual’s length of career with the organization (Caplow, 1964). New demands, changes in expectations of others, and shifts in behavioral settings are made upon the individual through the life cycle. To be able to adapt to its demand, individuals must therefore learn to act newly acquired roles (Van Maanen, 1976a).

Studies conducted by Wanous (1992) suggest three basic components of organizational socialization. These are the process, the focus, and unique dynamic of conflict. Wanous refers to process of learning as “social learning” since the newcomer “learns the ropes” (p. 198) from people of the organization by listening and observing their actions. Wanous considers social learning to be the most important way that individuals learn, since organizational socialization involves “interpersonal” (p. 198) relationships. The focus of learning refers to the new adopted role, new norms, and new organizational values. Wanous introduces the term “psychological contract” (p. 200) which “refers to the understanding between the newcomer and the organization about what is expected to do for the other” (p. 200). Wanous considers the unique dynamic of conflict a component of organizational socialization since conflicts in organizations are caused by intertwines of people from different cultural, hierarchical, functional, and departmental groups.
Organization culture. An organization has a personality that can be referred to as the organizational culture (Louis, 1980). “How we do things and what matters are conveyed by an organization’s culture” (p. 232). For Louis, learning the ropes is learning the culture because culture relates relevant assumptions and norms on memberships, values and activities. Newcomers in an organization need “situation or culture-specific interpretation schemes” (p. 233) to understand what is going on around him or her and to be able to respond accordingly.

Socialization Dimensions

Organizational Socialization Tactics

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) refer to “tactics of organizational socialization as the ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organization” (p.230). These tactics may be unconsciously or consciously selected by the organization in socializing newcomers. Every tactic is a representation of significant events that may affect the individual being socialized into adapting preventive responses. The tactics presented by Van Maanen and Schein can be utilized in any type of organization, based on the fundamental assumption that individuals’ responses to the given roles in organizations vary not only because of the differences between organizations and people, but also because individuals go through the socialization process differently. Van Maanen and Schein explain the existence of these tactics in a continuum by describing each tactic and its corresponding or opposing tactic with significant range in between. These tactical dimensions are
(a) collective vs. individual, (b) formal vs. informal, (c) sequential vs. random, (d) fixed vs. variable, (e) serial vs. disjunctive, and (f) investiture vs. divestiture.

**Collective vs. individual socialization.** Collective socialization involves group training of recruits. Examples of this are boot camp in military organizations, and intensive training for salespeople in business firms where a group of people is trained for an extended period of time (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). Individual socialization, on the other hand, involves the training of a single recruit. This tactic could be in the form of apprenticeship programs, specific internship, or "on the job training" (p. 233) where the recruit is counted upon to assume a specific role. Becker (1964) regards the collective experience of recruits as "in the same boat" awareness where:

A group finds itself sharing a common situation and common problems. Various members of the group experiment with possible solutions to those problems and report their experiences to their fellows. In the course of their collective discussion, the members of the group arrive at a definition of the situation, its problems and possibilities, and develop consensus as to the most appropriate and efficient ways of behaving. (p. 47)

**Formal vs. informal socialization.** Van Maanen and Schein (1979) refer to formal socialization tactic as the training of newcomers in a more or less segregated manner from other members of the organization. The training experience involved is specifically designed for the newcomer. Examples of formal training are police academies and professional schools where activities involved in the training are programmed officially and distinctly. Formal socialization processes include learning the appropriate attitudes, values, and protocol related to the assumed role. Informal socialization, on the other hand, does not require distinction of the newcomer’s specific role and does not
differentiate the newcomer from the other members of the organization. The process includes a "laissez-faire" (p. 237) socialization where new roles are adapted mostly through trial and error. Examples are on-the-job assignments where newcomers are regarded initially as unofficial members of the group. Informal socialization tactics require that newcomers choose their own socialization agents. Benefits of the socialization will depend on the agents' pertinent knowledge and ability to shift this knowledge to benefit the newcomer.

Sequential vs. random steps of socialization. Sequential socialization according to Van Maanen and Schein (1979), refers to the extent to which organizations provide a series of particular steps towards performing the target role. An example of sequential socialization provided by Van Maanen and Schein is the professional training in medicine that includes a sequential method governing the assumption of a professional role that is planned in a prescribed manner. Random socialization happens when the steps toward the goal are not known, unclear, or uncertain. Although the process of random socialization might include a number of stages towards assuming the designated role, it does not specify the order in which the steps are to be followed. An example provided by Van Maanen and Schein is a general manager who follows a serial process only with respect to supervisory levels but the succession of rotation through occupational positions is commonly not articulated and left more or less to "random events" (p. 241).

Fixed vs. variable socialization. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) refer to this tactic as the extent by which a "timetable" (p. 244) of the socialization process is followed accordingly by the organization and expressed to the newcomer. Fixed socialization refers to the process in which a newcomer is given specific information on
the time involved in completing a given stage. Examples provided by Van Maanen and Schein include those employees placed by companies, or per employees’ request to complete rotational assignments every year, or those that are placed on assignment every four or five years. In a variable socialization, a newcomer is provided with minimal clues as to when the expected time is to complete a certain stage in socialization. An example is a business organization that cannot predict when promotion of employees will occur due to factors that cannot be controlled such as the status of the economy and turnover situations in the company (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979).

**Serial vs. disjunctive socialization.** A serial socialization refers to the process where trained members of the organization prepare newcomers who would eventually take over similar positions in the organization (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). The newcomer looks up to the person providing the training as a role model. An example given by Van Maanen and Schein is a newcomer in the police force being trained by an experienced police officer. The process allows the newcomer to “gain a surer sense of the future by seeing in their more experienced elders an image of themselves further along in the organization” (p. 247). Disjunctive socialization is characterized by lack of role models or immediate predecessor to follow or guide the newcomer in assuming a role in an organization. This can happen in cases where there are no or few trained personnel available who have a common experience with the newcomer. An example is when a female assumes a managerial position that was formerly occupied only by males (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979).

**Investiture vs. divestiture socialization.** The investiture socialization involves the confirmation that the newcomer’s attributes and qualifications will benefit the
organization (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). The newcomer perceives the organization saying “We like you as you are” (p. 250) and expected to use the newcomer’s knowledge, skills, and attitudes to enrich the organization. The process sends the message to the newcomer that he or she is valuable to the organization. Divestiture socialization, on the other hand, encourages the newcomer to get rid of their certain personal characteristics to be able to assume a new self-image. Some examples are severing old friendships, harassment from veteran members, mortification, etc. (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979).

In real organizations, it can be found that these tactical dimensions are related to each other (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). Effects of the combinations of tactical dimensions according to Van Maanen and Schein can “perhaps enhance and reinforce or conflict and neutralize each other” (p. 253). Cognizance of tactical dimensions will assist in designing socialization measures that will highlight certain outcomes that will benefit both the newcomers as well as the organization.

Methods of Socialization

Training. The training process according to Van Maanen (1976a) is skill-oriented and aimed at nurturing the abilities and knowledge of the newcomer to accomplish an assigned task. Caplow’s (1964) definition of training includes the communication of values, the development of ambience, the rejection of prior affiliations, and the development of an appropriate self-image. Fine (1970) suggests that individuals should be provided with skills to acquire the ability to cope with the organizational demands for conformity. Fine further recommends that training should include provision of a baseline
for social attitudes and abilities that will allow performance of specific role-related skills required by the organization.

All organizations, according to Van Maanen (1976a), should at least require that newcomers demonstrate "proper attitude" (p.103) from a simple criterion like being on time to more detailed criterion like "speaking the organizational line" (p. 103). It is assumed that the length of the training period determines the extent of emphasis on the development of the "proper attitudes" in newcomers.

Other examples of techniques that have been developed to provide training to newcomers include organizational development, team building, and sensitivity training. These techniques that rely on principles of group dynamics (Van Maanen, 1976a) are aimed at increasing the effectiveness of organizations through employee empowerment and are usually conducted under the leadership of experienced trainers or consultants.

**Education.** This method of socialization involves the systematic teaching of values and skills essential to effective participation in the organization. Education refers to the learning experiences that transpire outside of the organization. Van Maanen (1976a) states that "the longer and more scientific an individual's education, the more likely he is to assume a cosmopolitan role orientation upon entering the organization" (p.104). In this case, the professional school is considered the socializing institution. Consideration of education as a socialization technique depends partly on the extent of influence that organizations have on particular educational institutions. Organizations require certain conditions for membership. Therefore, the extent to which these conditions are related to the individual's educational attainment determines the extent of utilization of education as a method for socialization (Van Maanen, 1976a).
Apprenticeship. Apprenticeship method of socialization takes place within the organization. The person delegated to transform the newcomer to acquire a full status is an experienced member of the organization (Van Maanen, 1976a). It is expected that the person helping the newcomer transform be regarded as a role model for the newcomer to emulate. This practice is common in bureaucratic systems where grooming of an incumbent’s successor is performed (Caplow, 1964). Apprenticeship is said to be expensive since it is difficult to recover from socialization failures.

Mortification. Debasement experiences are mechanisms used to coerce the newcomer to abandon previous ways and attitudes and adapt a more modest view of oneself that will ease the adaptation of values of the new organization (Porter et al., 1974). Caplow (1964) states several features of debasement: standardization of appearance, removal of any outside identifying devices, punishments for slight deviations of organizational rules, minute subjection to routine events to embarrass or demean, and verbal profanation. Although this mode of socialization demonstrates to the newcomer the necessity of acquiring new responses, it can allow for alienation that will motivate the newcomer to leave the organization. Utilization of this method depends on the organization’s capacity to retain newcomers.

Cooptation. Cooptation consists of a two-step process where a newcomer is initially accepted to the organization and then eventually assimilated into a certain subculture within the organization (Van Maanen, 1976a). This mode of socialization is commonly practiced to assimilate subcultures within the organization into its larger culture. By connecting individual or subculture expectations and interest, the organization is able to monitor “deviancy” (p. 106).
Trial and error. Trial and error is one of the best means of preparing an individual to become socialized to the organization (Caplow, 1964; Deal and Chapman, 1989). There is a need for socialization in every organization that the lack of standard procedures does not prevent socialization from happening. Caplow states that founders of organizations and the first incumbents of new positions must be socialized by trial and error since “the vagaries of their experience are often carefully embalmed for future generations” (p. 174).

Assimilation. Assimilation is a gradual, unscheduled adaptation to organizational prerequisites through interaction and imitation (Caplow, 1964). The mode of assimilation is commonly practiced in organizations where membership is not greatly valuable such as in most civic organizations. Caplow specifies that the process of assimilation is also embedded in other modes of socialization such as education, training, and apprenticeship since most socialization is acquired through casual and unscheduled contacts with others.

Conversion. Conversion is a mode of socialization characterized by an abrupt, radical modification of values followed by a sudden change of behavior (Caplow, 1964). Conversion may manifest in a variety of ways to an individual or groups. Caplow sites the example of a middle-class youth joining a gang of lower-class delinquents who modifies his or her visible personality to get accepted by new peers. Another term used by Caplow for conversion is the “change of soul” (p. 176).

Nepotism. According to Caplow (1964), nepotism is more instituted as a course for appointing candidates rather than a procedure of socializing them. This mode includes the process of inculcation of values and accomplishments provided outside of the
organization, like for example in a candidate’s family, and the assumption of responsibility of the “nepotist” (p. 178) for the performance of his or her protégé.

Problems of Socialization

Although socialization has been described as a deliberate accomplishment of a social function as well as an organizational practice, many conditions in the process are not completely met in real situations. Adaptation of both individual and organizations create dysfunction for both parties. Caplow (1964) provides some problems that may arise during the process of socialization:

Obsolete socialization. Obsolete socialization may happen when organizations abandon certain values that were used to influence the newcomers. Old ways and values that are found to be obstacles to socialization are relinquished. For Caplow, obsolete socialization happens in a situation when a promotion requires the individual to acquire new values and accomplishments for which the previous position may not have prepared the individual.

Role strain. Roles imposed by organizations on individuals can be overwhelming. There is a possibility that an individual cannot fulfill responsibilities attached to different roles imposed by the organization. The organization’s concern is the allotment of responsibilities to the individual needed to achieve its goal. Two suggested ways are the limitation of role acceptance and another is a “role bargain” (p. 193) where the individual monitors his or her own level of activities with intentions of maximizing satisfaction and minimizing strain.
Dilemmas of succession. Organizations are faced with this problem from time to time. Dilemmas of succession are perceived as threats to organizations. There is no assurance that there will be a qualified candidate whenever a vacancy occurs, except in organizations with an excess of qualified trained candidates. Competition for the position in this case will be bitter and some members may be disappointed and leave the organizations, and some may stay and display disloyalty.

Socialization Variables

Socialization into a vocation is embedded in human interactions that take place in a group or cultural contexts (Lasky, 2000). There is no single socializing influence since individuals are inclined to hold membership in various groups. Ashton and Webb (1986), in their studies on teacher motivation describe a program of research that examined the motivation problems that jeopardize the teaching profession and influence teacher socialization.

School norms. Ashton and Webb (1986) cite the study by Leacock (1969) describing the development of culture comprised of accepted expectations for students and ways of relating to them. Leacock concludes in the study that when teachers agree that certain groups of students are uneducable, a low sense of efficiency can become a school pattern where new teachers may be pressured to accept the norm.

Collegial relations. Ashton and Webb (1986) indicate that teachers’ isolation in their classrooms may contribute to their dissatisfaction with the profession. Strong collegial support enhances positive teacher attitudes and student performance. Little (1990) states that norms of collegiality are found in successful schools, and that
researchers have attributed several benefits to teacher collaboration. These are student achievement, teacher morale in times of stress, support for innovation, and a reduction of reality shock on beginning teachers. For Little, advocates for teacher collaboration have identified the process with a sense of virtue where “the expectation that any interaction that breaks the isolation of teachers will contribute in some fashion to the knowledge, skill, judgment, or commitment that individuals bring to their work, and will enhance the collective capacity of groups or institutions” (p. 509).

Little (1990) provides an analysis of different conceptions that explains the varied involvement of teachers with one another. The first concept is storytelling and scanning for ideas. Little uses the term the image of “tinkering artisan” or “independent entrepreneur” (p. 513). This is the process when teachers search for specific ideas, solutions, and reassurances through hasty exchange of stories from other teachers. The second conception involves the equation of collegiality with immediate availability of mutual assistance or aid. However, limitation of this conception includes the possibility that inquiry made by a teacher to another teacher may be interpreted as a sign of incompetence or request for help. The third conception involves the practice of sharing materials and method of teaching among teachers. This process allows for more productive discussions on curriculum improvement and educational priorities among teachers, as well as “harmonious exchange of insights and methods” (p. 518). Little uses the term joint work for the last collegial conception. The term refers to the shared responsibility or teacher collaboration, collective conceptions of autonomy, support for teachers’ initiative and leadership related to teaching practices, and group affiliations. This process involves a collective action in completing a single task among teachers.
Little concludes that further research is needed to detect the significance or values of each conception to teachers.

Result of Gehrke’s (1981) study suggests that peer teacher group is next to student group in frequency of contact with teachers. Louis’ (1980a) study on MBA graduates rates the buddy or mentoring system as the most useful in occupation adjustment followed by periodic association with supervisors. Van Maanen (1976) states that peers assist newcomers translate the role demands expected by the organization and “cushion the impact of ‘reality shock’ accompanying the individual’s encounter with the organization” (p. 90).

Fisher’s (1985) study reveals the association between social support provided by colleagues to the outcomes of socialization such as job satisfaction, involvement, and intention to stay on the job. Results of Fisher’s study suggest that support coming from colleagues and supervisors “is positively related to satisfaction, performance, and commitment, and negatively related to turnover and intentions to leave the organization and profession” (p. 47). Fisher mentions that assistance from another newcomer can be another factor that may facilitate work adjustment. Fisher cites Van Maanen and Schein’s (1979) statement that supports this view of development of “in the same boat consciousness” (p. 51) where information and emotional support are shared.

Principal-Teacher relations. Ashton and Webb (1986) believe that a principal’s recognition and support of teachers are related to teachers’ sense of efficacy. Chapman and Lowther (1982) as cited by Ashton and Webb report that the recognition and approval that teachers receive from their administrators are positively related to their job satisfaction. One significance of the school administrator as a variable in socialization is
on its status as one who conducts formal and informal job performance appraisal, another
is being a source of information regarding work role, and as someone who defines
appropriate behaviors (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992; Schein, 1978). Results from the
study conducted by Ostroff and Kozlowski suggest that teachers who are able to increase
the amount of information shared by administrators and their knowledge of the task will
experience greater satisfaction and commitment to their jobs. Major et al. (1995) state
that the quality of evolving relationships between the supervisor and the newcomer may
also be relevant when newcomers’ expectations are not met. Provision therefore of
accurate information by the supervisor will facilitate the development of more realistic
expectations about the job and the organization. The socialization process can advance
easily when leadership climate shows a high degree of consideration (Van Maanen,
1976a). Considerations in terms of trust, respect, friendliness, etc. that
principals/supervisors display determines his or her ability to influence subordinates.
Edgar and Warren (1969), in their study on teacher socialization, conclude that teacher’s
attitude to autonomy tend to change towards the attitudes held by his or her significant
other, which in this case, the administrator who has the greatest power over teachers in
terms of organizational sanctions. Results from the same study indicate that personal
liking between a teacher and his or her evaluator is a significant socialization variable.

*Home-School relations.* Ashton and Webb (1986) state that teachers feel
ineffective working with students and their parents when they are unable to cope with
cultural discontinuities. Both authors also state that teachers may also exhibit alienation
to protect themselves from a threat to their sense of efficacy thereby increasing the
likelihood that they will avoid parent contact. Lasky (2000), in her study on the influence
of parent-teacher interaction on the emotions of teachers finds that teachers are more comfortable with parents who hold related set of expectations and shared value systems and, that teachers feel demoralized with parents who do not possess these expectations and values. Lasky further explains that the impossibility of individualized teaching and caring of students in a large group prevents teachers from establishing personal and professional closeness to the parents. "How to care, balanced by distance, without 'othering' or objectifying parents is a tangible tension that many teachers experience" (p. 857).

Students. Teachers' rewards are mostly gained from students. A reward for a well-done job as well as a proof of successful relationship between teachers and students is the promotion of students to others and the initiation of new ones (Geer, 1966). Lortie (1975) refers to this as "psychic reward" of teaching that "rotate around classroom events and relationships with students; the cathexis of classroom life underlies much of what teachers feel about their work" (p. 187). Student reactions are important because they contribute to the teachers' assessment of their teaching effectiveness (Eddy, 1969; Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986; Gehrke, 1981; Haller, 1967). According to Hargreaves (2000), elementary level teachers tend to experience psychic rewards by creating emotional bonds or understandings with their students as a foundation for teaching and learning, whereas secondary teachers tend to regard positive relationships with students through acknowledgement and respect than loving and liking. The same study of Hargreaves reveals that positive feedback from students, whole class groups as well as individuals, are immediately gained while students are being taught. Results of a study conducted by Gehrke (1981) on teachers' reference group relations indicate that
student-focused teachers find gratification in hearing praise or words of appreciation from students especially if it referred to their manner of teaching and not simply their personalities. For Gerhke, the students make up the first and largest reference group where all teachers must relate. She further concludes that most teachers find delight in students whose interest in subject areas and activities are highly valued by the teacher. This factor creates an impact for some teachers to stay in the profession.

**Socialization Outcomes**

Jones (1986) hypothesizes that role orientation, levels of role ambiguity and role conflict, job satisfaction, commitment, and intention to quit are possible outcomes of socialization. For Jones, these socialization outcomes when taken collectively describe the individual’s adjustment to the organization. Jones’ longitudinal study partly investigates the effects of individual and organizational variables on newcomer’s adjustment to organizations. The subjects of the study include MBA students from two successive annual graduating classes of a major university. Two questionnaires were completed by the subjects: one prior to joining the organization measuring level of efficacy, and another after five months of joining the organization, measuring the socialization tactics and the six outcome variables such as role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and commitment. Another measure included self-efficacy scales.

Results of the study reveal a high degree of intercorrelation between scales. According to Jones (1986), results imply that (a) high levels of role conflict and ambiguity are associated with innovative role performance, (b) the more institutionalized
the socialization, the greater the expression of job satisfaction and commitment, and the
to. However, Jones recommends that caution should be exercised in interpreting these results since the study relied on the results of a self-reported measure.

*General satisfaction.* Hackman and Oldham (1976) regard general satisfaction as the overall measure of extent to which the individual is satisfied and happy in his or her work. Chapman and Lowther (1982) in their study on teacher satisfaction conclude that personal characteristics, skills and abilities, the value assigned to selected criteria of success, and the actual accomplishments in those areas are significantly related to the teacher's level of career satisfaction. Another significant finding from this study is the strong positive relationship between recognition received from administrators and career satisfaction.

The two categories of job satisfaction are intrinsic and extrinsic (Chase, 1985; Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986). Intrinsic satisfaction can be derived from determined task-related rewards such as student achievement and are connected to feelings of competence, self-determination, and self-fulfillment (Dilworth, 1990; Fresko, Kfir, and Nasser, 1997). On the other hand, extrinsic satisfaction sources may be income, prestige, and power (Lortie, 1975).
Internal work motivation. Internal work motivation is the degree of self-motivation that the individual exhibits in performing his or her job effectively (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). This factor according to Vroom (1964) is often associated with job performance. Hackman and Oldham identify factors or “motivators” (p. 251) that are effective in motivating employees perform their tasks. These are recognition, achievement, responsibility, advancement, and personal growth. Hackman and Oldham state that the Herzberg theory specifies that “a job will enhance work motivation and satisfaction only to the degree that motivators are designed into the work itself” (p. 251). Vroom states that “the more motivated the worker to perform effectively, the more effective his performance” (p. 204). However, Vroom proposes that the task attainment of an employee should not be understood exclusively in terms of motivational factors but should also be dependent on the person’s ability to perform the task. Vroom suggests several conclusions regarding work motivation. One is that considerations by a supervisor for the needs and feelings of employees produce positive effects on the motivation of the employees to effectively perform their tasks. Therefore, the more considerate and supportive the supervisor, the more motivated the employees to exert efforts to complete the tasks. An assumption to support this is that an outcome of higher productivity is the result of employees’ participation in decision-making activities. The second conclusion is that the level of performance can be raised by the employees’ knowledge and awareness of the results or feedback. The third conclusion deals with the employees’ willingness to perform the task. Vroom hypothesizes that if an employee “believes himself to posses an ability and believes that successful performance of his task requires that ability, he will prefer performing the task effectively to performing it ineffectively” (p. 247).
Job involvement/commitment. Job involvement is the degree of the individual's personal commitment to his or her work (Feldman, 1976). Chapman and Lowther (1982) state that teacher's commitment to teaching plays an important role in deciding whether he or she stays in the job. It is possible therefore from this assumption to determine which teachers are “at risk” (p. 430) of leaving by examining their professional commitment (Fresko et al., 1997). Teacher commitment refers to the extent of psychological attachment to the profession of teaching (Coladarci, 1992). Fresko et al. find that commitment to teaching correlates with job satisfaction and state the assumption that commitment and satisfaction interact throughout the career of a teacher. These authors suggest that initial commitment may influence recent satisfaction but latent satisfaction that is affected by the actual teaching experience will likely change the individual's commitment.

Role orientation and role clarity. Role clarity is significant for job performance (Adkins, 1995; Major et al., 1995). For Adkins, learning one's role in the organization and within the work group is critical in the success of socialization of newcomers. Louis (1980) identifies role-related learning as part of socialization. Role-related learning usually happens during the encounter stage where role-relevant abilities are identified, expectations of others are relayed, and rewards and restrictions are identified to reinforce performance on the job. Related to role clarity is role domain or the boundaries of authority and responsibility, expectations and the acceptable behaviors for the position (Ostroff and Kowzowski, 1992). Learning to engage in appropriate role behaviors is done during the early stages of individual socialization through training that is focused on job content and task-related behaviors (Feldman, 1976). Feldman's study also supports
the significance of role definition in socialization. Results of his study suggest that
individuals who are made aware of their tasks and the time allocated to complete the
tasks exhibit more positive attitudes regarding their work and their relationships with
other members of the organization. The study also suggests that there is a positive
correlation between role definition and general satisfaction. Another related finding is
from the study on the job satisfaction and survival of insurance agents by Weitz (1956).
The finding indicates that providing prospective insurance agents with a realistic notion
on what the job and the task are all about will reduce agents’ termination. This finding
proves the accuracy of the study’s hypothesis that suggests “that when potential agents
are given a clear picture of their job duties, they are more likely to survive on the job”
(p. 245). Results of the study on role conflict conducted by Jackson and Schuler (1985)
indicate that role conflict is negatively related to commitment and job satisfaction and
positively related to intention of leaving the job. Another significant result is positive
relationships between role clarity to commitment and job satisfaction and negative
relationship between role clarity and intention to quit.

Teachers’ perceptions of their role vary. Lortie (1975) indicates that these role
perceptions may be attributed to the personality of the teacher, the absence of a technical
culture of teaching, the characteristics of students, and the organizational structure of the
school. Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) state that classical organization theory and
role theory deal with role ambiguity. Classical theory suggests that there should be
specified set of tasks or responsibilities for every position in a formal organizational
structure to acquire accountability for its specific completion. In complying with the
expectations of the organization, individuals will hesitate to make decisions and therefore
rely on the trial and error approach if they are not aware of the organization's expectations of them and the manner in which they will be judged. On the other hand, role theory indicates that role ambiguity or a deficiency in information available to perform a certain role “will result in coping behavior in the individual in the form of attempts to solve the problem to avoid the sources of stress, or to use defense mechanisms which distort the reality of the situation” (p. 151). Rizzo et al. conclude that role ambiguity increases the likelihood of the individual’s dissatisfaction with his or her role, anxiety about the job, distortion of reality, and ineffective job performance.

Commitment to teaching. Coladarci (1992) suggests the lasting importance of school-level factor in promoting teachers’ professional commitment. Coladarci’s study concludes that both teacher-student ratio and the principal’s conduct are predictors of teachers’ commitment to teaching. Results of his study indicate that commitment to teaching is higher among teachers with smaller classes, and among teachers with a principal who exhibits instructional leadership in school advocacy, decision-making, and relationships with students and staff. Another finding from the study suggests that salary is found to be not related to commitment to teaching. The reason, according to Coladarci, could be the probability of teachers’ acceptance of the low salary reality and compensates by considering other non-monetary rewards from teaching.

Teachers sense of efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined in terms of the individual’s expectations that “they can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcome” (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Bandura believes that a sense of self-efficacy develops as individuals gain conviction of personal competence based on the belief that he or she has the mastery of the behaviors necessary to achieve the desired outcome.
A study conducted by Ashton, Buhr, and Crocker (1984) on teachers' sense of efficacy concludes that teachers formulate their efficacy according to the norms of the school organization rather than from self-referenced norms. Teachers appraise their effectiveness according to the performance of other teachers. Ashton et al. (1984) imply that this basis of self-evaluation seems limited and biased because teachers have minimal information regarding other teachers' performance other than anecdotal comments from students and tales expressed in teachers' lounge. This study is supported by another study of Ashton and Webb (1986) indicating that self-efficacy refers to the situation-specific expectation that they can help students learn. Both authors suggest that the distinction between teaching efficacy and personal efficacy have to be made to adapt the appropriate intervention for each dimension. Ashton and Webb provide an example: if teachers' self-efficacy is low because they think that students cannot learn, certain evidence would be needed to change their expectations that they can positively affect the performance of their low-achieving students. On the other hand, if teachers' low sense of efficacy is caused by a belief that they lack skills to help low-achieving students, their low sense of efficacy feeling can be transformed only if they can acquire teaching skills that they can see effectively contributing to student learning. Teachers who are experiencing "universal helplessness" (p. 6) do not expect themselves or other teachers to improve student learning. Teachers who are suffering from "personal helplessness" (p. 6) are not sure of their ability to teach low-achieving students. Results from the study conducted by Ashton and Webb (1986) on teacher's sense of efficacy conclude that teachers with low sense of efficacy do not share responsibilities for academic failures of their low-achieving students. These teachers expect student failure in learning and believe that such failures
are due to student not being bright enough, not well behaved, or the upbringing is not
good enough to succeed in school. Ashton and Webb use the term “silk purse-sow’s ear”
(p. 71) argument to clear teachers of their responsibility for student learning and
behavior. Factors responsible for student failure according to these teachers fall on
genetics, the home, and/or the students themselves and not the teachers’ professional
competence. In other words, low efficacy teachers are not troubled by student failure
since they assume that they there is nothing that they and other teachers can do to help
low achieving students succeed. On the other hand, Gehrke (1981) concludes that
student-focused teachers demonstrate attributes of teachers who had greater experience
and greater sense of competence in their roles as teachers.

Schein (1968a) notes three possible socialization responses or outcomes
associated with role demands. The first is rebellion or a newcomer’s rejection of all the
organizational demands. Options to consider in this type of outcome could be the
newcomer’s move to convince the organization to change its role demands or the
newcomer leaving the organization through quitting or dismissal. The second type of
response is the newcomer’s acceptance of the overwhelming demands at the same time
rejecting the most relevant and peripheral role expectations. The third type is the
newcomer’s acceptance of role demands. Van Maanen (1976a) states that these three
responses fall roughly on a continuum where rebellion and conformity represent the end
points of the organization’s perspectives. Socialization processes then can be classified
according to its outcomes or responses within this framework.
Partial Typology of Individual Adjustment

Van Maanen (1976a) describes a partial outcome typology of newcomer's mode of adjustment to organizational setting. The typology is based on two general features of organizational socialization: the extent to which an individual satisfies the expectations of his or her relevant groups, and the extent which the individual satisfies the expectations of the organizations. The classification scheme includes (a) team player, the individual who agrees to both group and organizational expectations; (b) isolate, the person who only satisfies the expectations of the organizations and does not execute the demands of his or her relevant group; (c) warrior, a person who engages in constant battle with the organization; and (d) outsider, who fails to meet the expectations of either group or the organization.

This brief paradigm indicates that related role behaviors arise due to the difference between the organization and the group's definition of role behaviors. Collective behaviors in reaching valued goals or protecting certain privileges may be pivotal to a group, while to the organizations similar behaviors may be inappropriate because they are not meaningful or related to the mission of the organization. Van Maanen (1976a) concludes that there is not enough empirical evidence to establish a comprehensive theory on the processes that characterize these outcomes. These adjustment modes are considered ideal, and that it is unlikely that absolute cases of the categories exist.
The Loss of Idealism

One of the aspects of socialization in organizations is the gradual abdication of the organizations’ major beliefs and values by individuals. Caplow (1964) presents this phenomenon using army recruits, physicians in training, and college students as examples: an army recruit participating in illegitimate activities that cannot be justified by the goals of the organization, the rejection of the ideal optimal patient care that makes the physician in training experience anxiety, and student playing for grades. Caplow analyses the unresolved contradictions between formal and informal goals and the inconsistencies between the organization’s beliefs and its program. Caplow finds that the “displacement of idealism by cynicism in the course of socialization can usually be traced to increasing familiarity with illegitimate elements whose existence and purposes are unfamiliar to outsiders” (p. 200). Socialization can be reconciled by rationalization when the inconsistency between the beliefs and the program is not crucial. Individuals reject the organization’s values and in extreme cases, construct negative opinions by displacing organization’s original beliefs, when values are blatantly inconsistent.

Stages of Socialization

Van Maanen (1976a) enumerates the three-stage process of transformation of the individual from non-member to member. These are the anticipatory socialization, encounter, and metamorphosis.

Anticipatory socialization. Anticipatory socialization “refers to the degree to which an individual is prepared prior to entry to occupy organizational positions” (Van Maanen, 1976a, p. 81). Sources of preparatory learning could be family, peers,
educational institutions, and cultural influences. For Van Maanen, anticipatory socialization is not limited to early childhood periods but occurs during the individual’s social interaction with significant persons in the individual’s life. The process becomes more distinct as the individual learns particular values, interest, knowledge, and attitudes. Merton (1957) defines anticipatory socialization as the process where the individual adopts the values of the group to which he or she aspires. This definition includes two functions as part of the process. One function is to assist the individual’s acceptance to the group, and the other function is to facilitate the individual’s adjustment after being accepted by the group. For Louis (1980) anticipatory socialization is the period where “outsiders develop expectations about their life in the organization and on the job” (p. 230).

*Encounter.* A newcomer entering an organization is most likely to experience a “reality shock” (Van Maanen, 1976a, p. 84). Louis (1980) states that it is during the encounter stage where newcomers’ expectations are tested against actual experiences in performing the job inside the organization. The impact of this shock to the organizational socialization of the individual depends upon his or her expectations about the organization prior to employment. Van Maanen (1976a) describes cultural values, characteristics of the community, status of the organization or occupation, and relationships among organizations as environmental conditions that influence the effectiveness of socialization. Cultural values are considered the “cornerstone of most organization efforts” (p. 85) and are subject to continuous changes that may infringe on the effectiveness of the process. Other contingencies such as the nature of the community where the organization is located, economic conditions in terms of job opportunities and
pay levels, and regional norms involving lines of authority may also inhibit effective socialization practices. Observations support the view that the higher the status of the organization/occupation, the stronger the motivation of the newcomer to seek approval and acceptance. This statement proves Van Maanen’s statement that organizational/occupational status can influence socialization process.

The magnitude in which the organization can direct the sources of rewards valued by the individual depends on its capacity to influence his or her behavior, values, and attitudes (Van Maanen, 1976a). To support this, Etzioni (1964) postulates types of organizations that emphasize various forms of compliance. One type is normative organization that expects high moral commitment to the organization’s mission and promotes an alignment of values, attitudes, and motives from their members. Caplow (1964) states that normative organization is based on an organizational ideology that creates a psychological barrier that prevents the individual to disown the organization. Another type is utilitarian organization that aims to control overt behaviors of its members. Utilitarian organizations solely provide socialization procedures that are only relevant or required for the roles of the individuals in the organization. Coercive organization is the last type and its socialization process is centered on punishment, which is found to be favorable to compliance. Van Maanen (1976a) concludes that normative organizations are most likely concerned with the socialization of newcomers, utilitarian organizations are focused on teaching of skills, and that coercive organizations rarely provide formal socialization.

Van Maanen (1976a) highlights certain structural considerations that impact the individuals’ initial encounter in the organization. These are the formality of the setting,
length of formal socialization, whether newcomers are socialized individually or collectively, and serial or disjunctive patterns of socialization. The first one is the formality of the setting. He states that influence on the individual’s values and attitudes is more emphasized in organizations with formal setting. Status specialization rather than role specialization is also emphasized. The duration of the socialization process is an implication of the organization’s aspiration to inculcate “deep or surface characteristics” (p. 88) to the newcomer to establish cohesion and commitment. Van Maanen states that the more formal the socialization process, the greater the chances that the newcomer will internalize within his or her motives and values the desired outcomes of the organization. Van Maanen indicates that a collective setting provides newcomers with “strong social support for forming and adopting group perspectives” (p. 89). Becker (1964) supports this notion when he indicates that collective perspectives arise when individuals regard themselves as part of a group sharing similar concerns and problems. For Van Maanen (1976a) collective settings which allow individuals to be “in the same boat” (p. 89) with others are effective means to the development of group solutions to concerns in organizations. Patterns of organizational socialization can be serial or disjunctive. Van Maanen’s definition of a serial pattern is when others who were in the same situation have preceded a newcomer and are able to direct him or her adapt to the setting. A disjunctive pattern is when a newcomer “is not following in the footsteps of predecessors” (p. 89).

A related issue on organizational socialization is the relevance of the group factors or variables to the formality and collectiveness of the socialization process. Van Maanen (1976a) explains that a group’s influence in which a newcomer is initially
assigned has direct implications for the outcomes of the socialization. These groups are expected to be supportive of the newcomer in interpreting the role demands established by the organization (Fisher, 1985). Van Maanen refers to this as "cushioning the impact of the reality shock" (p.90). Van Maanen gives three conditions that determine the power of the group influence: (a) size of the group, smaller groups tend to be more influential; (b) homogeneity of the group, homogeneous groups tend to be more influential; and (c) communicative isolation, where isolated groups are found to be influential. It can be concluded then that part of the individual's socialization is his or her constant adjustment to the demands of the particular subgroups where he or she participates within the organization. Becker (1964), as cited by Van Maanen also refers to a "reference group" as a frame of reference of the newcomer for defining situations, experiences, and expectations. A reference group for a newcomer is "an audience—shared, real or imagined—to whom certain values are assigned" (Van Maanen, 1976a, p. 91). This is the same audience that a newcomer is trying to maintain or please.

The nature of the specific task or job characteristic assigned to the newcomer plays a crucial role in the organizational socialization of the individual (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Van Maanen, 1976a). Peter and Lawler (1968) indicate that intrinsic job satisfaction depends upon job design factors. One design factor that increases the identification and satisfaction is the level of autonomy that the individual has in performing the task and the extent of the individual's participation in the decision-making process. Autonomy for teachers can be seen in relation to a variety of task areas such as organizational, administrative matters, curriculum, colleagues, parents, community, and students (Edgar and Warren, 1969). Another design factor to consider is the amount of
responsibility and challenges identified with a specific task (Van Maanen, 1976a).

Hackman and Lawler (1971) identify five core dimensions of work tasks that are critical to the individual's satisfaction and performance in organizations: (a) skill variety, the extent to which one can use or perform a variety of skills as required by the job; (b) task identity, the extent to which one completes the entire process; (c) task significance, the extent of the importance of the job to others; (d) feedback, the extent of input on job effectiveness; and (e) autonomy, the extent to which the job allows for freedom and flexibility in executing the task. For Hackman and Lawler, jobs that are high on these dimensions provide a stronger internal motivation to individuals to perform their jobs.

Van Maanen (1976a) states that individuals who are in situations where jobs do not provide gainful experiences tend to consider the extrinsic values of the job (e.g., work group, benefits, salary, management). In the Herzber's two-factor theory, these extrinsic factors are referred to as “hygiene factors” (p. 251). The Herzberg theory implies that a job will strengthen work motivation and satisfaction solely to the extent that motivators are embedded into the task itself. Alterations related to hygiene factors alone are not expected to increase individual motivation.

Van Maanen (1976a) notes that personality characteristics are expected to influence the perceptions and reactions to the work environment as well as the outcomes of the organizational socialization process. Personality differences may include attitudes held by individuals towards the task and the organization. Results of a study on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover by Porter, Steers, and Mowday (1974) indicate that “attitudes held by individuals are predictive of subsequent turnover behavior, with individuals who ultimately leave the organization having less favorable
attitude than individuals who stay” (p. 607). The authors conclude that individuals who leave the organization exhibit extreme cases of personality characteristics (e.g. anxiety, aggressiveness, self-esteem, etc.) whereas other individuals who tend to be more susceptible to the socialization process in terms of outcome possess personality dimensions that are in the middle of these various continua. This result can then be viewed as outcomes of the socialization process where individuals compare their level of expectations with their perceived realities of the work environment (Porter et al., 1974).

Metamorphosis. Schein (1964b) as cited by Van Maanen (1976a) suggests that a process of unfreezing or moving away or letting go (Louis, 1980) is necessary for certain individuals who have different expectations from the organization settings. At this stage, the organization’s aim is to prove to the individual that his or her “previous self” (p. 100) is no longer of value, and that organizations create “upending events” (p. 100) that will disconfirm the individual’s assumptions about situations. This practice will help motivate newcomers to the organization to create new responses based on the new information acquired. New information is acquired from different sources such as colleagues, coaches, institutionalized rewards and punishments, etc. where a newcomer can choose related information. Cognitive reorganization through identification is attained when a single source of information is used, while scanning of relevant information is practiced when information originates from multiple sources (Schein, 1968a).

Symbolic events in the transition are sometimes referred to as rites of passage. These events validate the newcomer’s acceptance to the organization as a full-fledged member and guarantee membership assistance by developing the newcomer’s sense of belonging (Van Maanen, 1976a). This assistance can be in the form of title, extra rights
or privileges, or sharing of information that were previously withheld. Celebration of these rites of passage events is seen by Van Maanen as the individual metamorphosis through which a newcomer has transformed and acquired the skills, knowledge, and motivation to justify the occupation of a particular role. Caplow (1964) refers to the rites of passage as a change of soul where recognition is given to the newcomer’s newly-acquired status that separate the newcomer from his or her former equals.

*Models of Organizational Socialization*

*Model of the Newcomer Experience*

Louis (1980) outlines key features of a newcomer’s experience through a model to understand the coping strategies or sense making of newcomers in the organization. Louis identifies change, contrast, and surprise as the key features of experiences that a newcomer encounters upon entering an organization.

*Change.* Louis (1980) defines change “as an objective difference in a major feature between the new and old settings” (p. 235). The adjustment required from the newcomer depends on the dimensions of the elements that are different from the previous situation. When an individual assumes a new position, he or she goes through a change in role and professional identity.

*Contrast.* Contrast according to Louis (1980), is person-specific rather than innate to the organizational induction. Louis illustrates contrast as related to the process of discarding old roles and that there is no induction practice that can eradicate traces of the previous role prior to adaptation of new role. Newcomers instead “voluntarily undertake
the role change, change only one of the many roles they simultaneously hold, and carry into the new role memories of experiences in old roles” (p. 236). Contrasts are therefore generated during the recall of past experiences from the previous role. Examples illustrated by Louis include the evaluation of some aspects of the new role by the newcomer utilizing old-role experiences as anchors for comparison. Another is the merging of the aspects of the old into the new role, or an obstruction of the new role in favor of the old role.

*Surprise.* Surprise is the third feature of the entry experience (Louis, 1980). Surprise stands for the differences between the newcomer’s expectations and succeeding experiences in the new environment. For Louis, surprise also involves the newcomer’s reactions to the differences, including contrast and change. Surprise may be positive or negative. Louis enumerates some forms of surprise: (a) when conscious expectations about the job are not realized in the newcomer’s early experiences, (b) when expectations of oneself are not met because errors in expectations can happen during the encounter stage where a newcomer must learn to acknowledge that he or she is different from his or her former perception of self, (c) when unconscious job expectations are not met or when aspects of the job are unexpected, (d) surprises that arise from difficulties in accurately predicting internal reactions to new experience, and (e) surprises that result when the newcomer depends on cultural assumptions originating from prior settings, uses them as guides in the present setting, and fails. Louis considers successful socialization to be dependent on the magnitude by which newcomers are able to handle uncertainty and surprises by making sense of the organizational surroundings.
Stage Models of Organizational Socialization

Wanous (1992) cites four stage models of organizational socialization. These are the Feldman’s three-stage entry model, Buchanan’s three-stage early career model, Porter-Lawler-Hackman three-stage entry model, and Schein’s three-stage socialization model. The four models share the following themes: (a) models’ definition is according to the individual’s view during the socialization instead of that of the organization, (b) each model includes a pre-entry stage, (c) various broad definitions across the models, and (d) models are based on events that occur rather than just the passage of time.

Feldman’s three-stage entry model. Feldman’s model is based on the analysis of published research literature and a study of hospital employees (Feldman, 1976; Wanous, 1992). Stages include anticipatory socialization or the “getting in,” accommodation or the “breaking in,” and the role management or the “settling in.”

Buchanan’s three-stage early career model. Buchanan’s study (cited in Wanous, 1992) deals with new managers of five governmental agencies and three large manufacturing concerns. The purpose of the study is to investigate the level of a person’s commitment to a new organization as influenced by previous experiences of socialization. Stages of socialization include basic training and initiation for the first year, performance at work for years two, three, and four, and organizational dependability on the fifth year and beyond.

Porter-Lawler-Hackman three-stage entry model. The model is based on various research reviewed by Porter, Lawler, and Hackman as cited by Wanous (1992). Stages in the model are pre-arrival, encounter, and change and acquisition.
Schein's three-stage socialization model. The model describes the sequence of events that faces a newcomer when entering an organization (cited in Wanous, 1992). Stages include entry, socialization or post-entry, and mutual acceptance or the transition from a newcomer to an insider.

Integrative approach to stages of socialization model. Wanous (1992) combines all the four models and comes up with a single integrated model of post-entry organizational socialization. The stages include confronting and accepting organizational reality, achieving role clarity, locating oneself in the organizational context, and detecting signposts of successful socialization. The first three stages refer to the socialization process while the last stage involves the transition from the newcomer to an insider.

Immigrant Teacher Socialization

Immigrant teacher socialization involves teaching in the new country and in a culture different from the one where they were educated. Elbaz-Luwisch (2001) states that one reason why immigrants' stories of teaching in a new culture is rarely found in teaching literature is perhaps due to the fact that teachers are regarded as representatives of the culture and responsible for imparting knowledge to the next generation, and that it is not expected that this important task will be performed by newcomers in the culture.

The complex process of immigrant teacher socialization may be described in Clandinin and Connelly's (1994) statement on teachers that: encountered situations inside and outside of their classrooms influence teachers' lives, personal stories and cultural background influence their professional lives, and that their perception of reality
influence their ways of teaching and decision to choose teaching as a profession or their life-long career. Although not well specified, it is assumed that there is a positive relationship between the teachers’ race, culture, or life experiences and the quality of the teachers’ interaction with students (Bascia, 1996).

Teacher Induction

Immigrant teachers who were educated outside of the United States may have different beliefs and understandings regarding teaching and education. Lortie’s (1975) basic components of professional socialization that include formal schooling, mediated entry and learning while doing may not be part of the experiences of immigrant teachers. Many immigrant teachers lack the experience of going through formal induction programs in their countries of origin because of the unavailability of such programs in schools, and many of them are instantly assigned in the classrooms without going through pre-service training. Immigrant teachers, like other regular teachers, also learn to teach while doing, experience isolation, and have been in the “sink or swim” (p. 71) situations in the absence of administrative support. Lemberger (1990) implies that immigrant teachers’ have adapted themselves to teach in situations where their existence was questioned and resented. Lemberger adds that veteran immigrant teachers have had to teach without organized curriculum, materials, instructional models, or formulated philosophies during their early years of teaching in the United States public school system.
Student Advocacy

Lortie (1975) regards students as the source of psychic rewards. Student advocacy is one dimension of immigrant teachers’ job. Bascia’s (1996) study on immigrant teachers indicates the sensitivity of immigrant teachers to minority students and the extent of their engagement in assuming special advocacy roles with racial minority students. The same study states that immigrant teachers tend to serve as intermediary between the school and the minority students identified as “problems” (p. 154) by other teachers and administrators. The roles and close relationships of immigrant teachers with students may be influenced by cultural norms that allow for such relationships to flourish (Bascia, 1996; Montero and Perez, 1987; Tang, 1997). This assumption of an advocacy role is said to originate from immigrant teachers’ own predispositions, values, experiences, and the manner they perceived being a teacher is about (Bascia, 1996; Galindo, Aragon, and Underhill, 1996). Unfortunately, this advocacy role is not being recognized as a prominent aspect of the immigrant teachers’ identity and service.

Isolation and Alienation

Immigrant teachers experience painful feelings of social alienation and isolation at their schools and in other social contexts, and are mostly perceived differently from the cultural norm (Ada, 1986; Bascia, 1996; Lemberger, 1997; Reves and Medgyes, 1994; Thomas, 1999). Bascia agrees that there is a systemic influence of restricting immigrant teachers to particular assignments. Many immigrant teachers are encouraged to switch or teach ESL (English as a Second Language). Immigrant teachers in Bascia’s study suggest that their “own visible difference from the norm and the newness of minority teachers’
presence in schools seemed to contribute to other educators' perceptions of them as tokens and as only provisionally legitimate" (p. 157).

The study of Kamhi-Stein, Aagard, Ching, et al. (2001) states that formal networks such as mentoring programs sponsored by the schools as well as informal networks such as colleagues provide support to non-native English speaking teachers. The study reveal that both the native English speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaking teachers (non-NESTs) share common beliefs that developing networks can help both groups “deal with the demands of the school culture” (p. 81).

There are a number of studies that demonstrate that those teachers affiliated with presumably academic deficient students receive minimal administrative support, minimal influence on school scheduling, curriculum development, and professional development decisions, and receive less credibility and status among colleagues (Bascia 1996).

Career Promotion

According to Bascia (1996), immigrant teachers find it difficult to acquire administrative positions despite their training and credentials, and that most of them are encouraged to teach classes that focus on minority populations and are discouraged in their attempts to apply or accept administrative roles. Other results of Bascia’s study indicate that behaviors considered acceptable for the dominant ethnic group such as pursuing professional development and advancement are not acceptable for minority teachers.
Sense of Inadequacy in Language Mastery

There is a feeling of inadequacy among immigrant teachers in the use of English. This inadequacy is due to the notion that language use is a major gauge in the manner immigrant teachers are perceived by others. Reves and Medgyes (1994), hypothesize that the level of language proficiency of a non-native English speaker is the most influential factor in the difference in the teaching behavior between a native and a non-native English speaker. They state that “it can be inferred that the realization of this inadequacy is the strongest factor biasing non-NESTs’ self-perception and teaching attitudes” (p. 357). Thomas (1999) states that immigrant teachers often find themselves in situations where they have to establish credibility as teachers of English before being taken seriously. Teacher participants from Amin’s (1999) study on minority women teaching ESL state that they had to know all the rules of the English grammar because they felt that they are being constantly judged, tested, and “compared unfavorably with their white colleagues” (p. 100). Internalizing this inadequacy affect the immigrant teachers’ self-perception and teaching practices. Braine (1999), commenting on the irony of propagating multiculturalism and diversity in the school system states:

Although ESL students are praised and admired for the multiculturalism and diversity they bring into language classes, non-native English teachers, who can contribute their rich multicultural, multilingual experiences, are often barred from the same classes. (p. xvii)

Another source of challenge aside from colleagues is coming from students of the same and from different ethnic background (Amin, 1999; Braine, 1999; Thomas, 1999). It is said that immigrant teachers have to initiate their efforts twice as much to project
themselves as authentic teachers for both their students and colleagues (Amin, 1999). The students’ attitude and perception of their teachers’ non-nativeness in speaking English can greatly affect the performance of immigrant teachers as well as the facilitation of English learning by the students.

Medgyes (1994) states that non-native English speaker’s perspective on language proficiency resembles a coin where “if we look on one side, we see the language deficit. But if we look on the other, we notice the benefits deriving from a non-native command of English” (p. 77). Medgyes assumes that the advantages and disadvantages associated with non-native language proficiency equalize each other in the final analysis.

Effects of Challenges

According to Thomas (1999), effects of these challenges to immigrant teachers’ credibility can be debilitating. Broyard (1950) as cited by Thomas claims that those “pigeonholed” (p. 9) are in danger of believing the stereotypes about them and may unconsciously try to maintain them. Thomas, in relating her experiences, finds that experiences that challenge one’s credibility can make the non-native English speaker apologetic and nervous of their ability to succeed.

Adaptive Cultural Transformation

Liu (2001) introduces in his article his experience as an immigrant teacher in the United States the concept of adaptive cultural transformation. He states that one of the biggest challenges that he faced as an immigrant teacher was finding a balance between his cultural background and the United States cultural environment. Often, he
experienced conflicts in the process of his adaptive cultural transformation that "required
determination and a willingness to recognize my own native culture and to understand
and respect the target culture" (p. 56). To cope with the challenges of achieving language
proficiency, social identity, and acceptance as a member of the target culture, which was
a critical factor to succeed in his teaching career, he decided to "focused my attention on
improving my communication skills and mannerisms and even my appearance" (p. 56).
His internal transformation occurred when he learned some "normal" behavior rules in
classroom communication in United States system and through the unlearning of some
"normal" behaviors rules from his own culture. The process helped increased Liu's self-
confidence, helped attained a feeling of sense of belonging, higher self-esteem, and a
feeling of self-fulfillment.

Studies on the Similarities and Differences Between Non-native English-speaking
Teachers and Native English-speaking Teachers

Medgyes (1994) assumes that non-native English speaking (NNEST) and native
English-speaking teachers (NEST) "are two different species" (p. 27). Medgyes based his
statement on the following hypotheses: (a) NESTs and non-NESTs differ in terms of their
language proficiency, (b) NESTs and non-NESTs differ in terms of their teaching
behavior, (c) the discrepancy in their language proficiency accounts for most of the
differences found in teaching behavior, and (d) NESTs and non-NESTs can be equally
good teachers in their own terms. To validate the hypotheses, Medgyes conducted a
survey on teachers from 11 countries. One result of the study indicates significant
differences in the teaching behavior of NESTs and non-NESTs (Arva and Medgyes,
2000; Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999). According to Arva and Medgyes, difference does not mean that one group exhibits preferred teaching behavior than the other. Medgyes (1994) states that “different does not imply better or worse” (p. 76). “This being the case, teachers should be hired solely on the basis of their professional virtue, regardless of their language background (Arva and Medgyes, 2000, p. 358). An ideal school for Medgyes, is one that has a good balance of NESTs and non-NESTs who complement each other in their strengths and weaknesses.

Results of the Medgyes (1994) study suggest the following:

*Competence in the target language.* NESTs have the primary advantage due to their English language competence and non-NESTs have a deficient command of English. The non-NESTs teachers in the study recognized that they have problems with pronunciations, vocabulary, and colloquial expressions. Findings from the study of Karnhi-Stein, Aagard, Ching, et al. (2001) also reveal that non-native English speaking teachers’ perceived difficulty are in communication and vocabulary skills, and that non-NESTs are sometimes scared to commit mistakes when speaking and writing in English. There was a common fear from non-NESTs that this lack of knowledge of vocabulary may interfere with their teaching.

*Knowledge of grammar.* NEST participants perceived that grammatical knowledge is at the top of their weaknesses. However, non-NESTs claimed to possess an in-depth grammatical knowledge of English “as well as a metacognitive awareness of how it worked.” A NEST validated this as well, by stating that:
The non-native teacher has learned grammar and is able to convey that to people very clearly with no wastage, whereas I would have to more often look up to find out what it was I was being asked about. (Arva and Medgyes, 2000, p. 362)

Competence in the local language. One drawback in NESTs’ professional expertise in the study is their inability to speak the local language, which in this case, Hungarian. Their inability to speak the local language may also be the reason for their low level of empathy because they find it hard to appreciate what the students are going through when they’re learning English. On the other hand, non-NESTs appreciate the difficulties of their students since they themselves went through the same process.

Other aspects of professional behavior. The study finds that non-NESTs are more strict teachers perhaps due to their regard on the responsibility and the influence of their own schooling experience in a more restrained fashion.

Arva and Medgyes (2000) compare the results of the study and came up with several conclusions. The first conclusion confirms their assumption that NESTs spoke better English than non-NESTs. The second conclusion involves the teaching styles of both NESTs and the non-NESTs. Results indicate that NESTs are able to be innovative, flexible, and casual in their teaching style contrary to non-NESTs who tend to be more consistent and demanding in their teaching strategies due to their cognizance of their students’ needs and educational barriers. Non-NESTs tend to be more sympathetic to their students because of their similar encountered difficulties during their own English language acquisition. Another conclusion is that non-NESTs appeared to posses more insights into the meta-cognitive knowledge of grammar. This aspect was observed in the way both groups conduct the distribution of teaching tasks. Non-NESTs tend to use the
textbooks while the NESTs tend to use a variety of materials. NESTs were also found to be more tolerant of students' errors. Another observation was that non-NESTs were observed to be more conscientious in preparing their lesson plans. Their lesson plans are said to have more professional relevance.

A similar study on kindergarten to 12th grade non-NESTs and NESTs' perceptions was conducted by Kamhi-Stein et al. (2001). Major findings of the study include the following:

Pre-service and in-service training. Both NESTs and non-NESTs share a common agreement of the positive effects of their preparation and credentials although non-NESTs are slightly more positive than NESTs. Both groups' ratings on their formal mentoring program are between “average” and “strong” (Kamhi-Stein et al., 2001, p. 81).

Job satisfaction. Both NESTs and non-NESTs rating for overall job satisfaction is closer to “positive” than to “somewhat negative” (Kamhi-Stein et al., 2001, p. 82). The highest rating in the job feature for both groups is “interactions with students” (p.82). For Kamhi-Stein et al., this result is not uncommon since the responsibilities of teachers revolve on students' learning and emotional needs. Factors that contribute to NESTs' job satisfaction are interactions with colleagues, professional autonomy, interactions with administrators, and respect for minorities. For non-NESTs, the factors that contribute to their job satisfaction are interactions with parents, interactions with colleagues, and respect for minorities.

English language skills. Both NESTs and non-NESTs do not find their English language skills to be “poor” or “fair” although NESTs are found to have slightly more positive assessments of their English language skills. This finding according to Kamhi-
Stein et al. (2001) confirms the result on the research conducted by Medgyes (1994) that indicates that "pronunciation is an area of concern for non-NESTs" (p. 82).

School administrators. Non-NESTs are found to be less positive than NESTs in their evaluation of school administrators in the domain of "current support given by administrators" and "interactions with administrators" (Kamhi-Stein et al., 2001, p. 83). For Kamhi-Stein (2000), this result concludes that there is a need for school administrators to provide increased assistance to beginning teachers to handle and cope with the needs of the students.

Instructional abilities. The non-NESTs’ group rating on their extent of ease for different areas such as speaking, listening, writing, reading, and grammar are slightly more positive than NESTs. Kamhi-Stein et al. (2001) ascribe the difference in perceptions from non-NESTs’ slightly more positive stand on their professional preparation, and to factors such as non-NESTs’ cultural awareness, empathy, and ability to communicate with students’ parents.

Findings from both investigations provide insights on the similarities and differences between non-native English-speaking and native-English-speaking teachers.

Sources of Strengths

A summary of Tang’s (1997) study on teachers’ perceptions regarding NESTs and non-NESTs in Hongkong concludes that a shared native language with students is an effective instructional tool in classroom. Another conclusion is that the NESTs’ knowledge of their students’ native language allows them to understand the problems and the weaknesses of their students.
Supporting these results is the qualitative analysis of the open-ended survey conducted by Kamhi-Stein et al. (2001) on the perceptions of kindergarten to 12th grade NESTs and non-NESTs that reveals three sources of strengths for non-NESTs. These are cultural awareness, empathy, and linguistic advantage. In the study, the non-NESTs agree that they bring to the classroom a sense of cultural awareness that can intensify the school curriculum through the understanding of two or more cultures and wider worldviews. The respondents of the study also explained that their students often see them [non-NESTs] as role models that “they can identify and relate” (p. 80). From the study, the linguistic advantage of non-NESTs is explained by the assistance that can be provided by non-NESTs to the parents of their students who are not proficient in English. Non-NESTs in the study indicate that they provide assistance to immigrant parents in understanding the United States school system and ways on how parents can assist their children to become better learners.

These studies contribute to the public knowledge about immigrant teachers and suggest ways to improve the image and the self-perception of these teachers. Reves and Medgyes (1994) believe that teachers all over the world are unaware about one another. Both state that “this ignorance may blind them to the fact that they have a lot in common, great distances notwithstanding” (p. 354).

Theoretical Framework

Time and space become the focus of consideration upon individual’s entry into an organization (Louis 1980). This process continues until the newcomer is able to create
maps of time and space in accordance with the new setting (Van Maanen 1977a). Individuals should make up their own definitions to describe themselves within an organization. Van Maanen explains this phenomenon in another way: “identical situations may surround people, but the meaning of the situation may vary substantially from person to person” (p.18). For Van Maanen, reality utilized by individuals to organize, direct, and justify their actions in the world is dependent upon their socio-temporal location where individuals assign interpretations of present events based on their past experiences, roles, reference groups, expectations, and assumptions.

**Spatial Framework**

Van Maanen (1997a) states that the individual’s spatial framework or social space depends upon one’s choice of reference and assumptions as to the way others in the organization view him or her. Individuals take into account expectations from others when deciding the course of action to be taken. Van Maanen refers to this behavior as performance to a selected audience whose judgments are most important. Individuals, according to him must determine where they stand relative to objects, events, relationships and types of people they encounter. Van Maanen further explains that a social map helps individuals anticipate an invisible landscape upon which organizational activities take place. A social map, as explained by Van Maanen, is composed of distinct spatial properties in the form of location, distance, and directions. These representations consist of significant reference points connected by linkages and networks in between. The social map then helps an individual link and condense the different attributes of the environment and consequently allows the individual to determine his or her position in
the organization. The social map therefore permits the individual to say "where he is at
and where the others are coming from" (p. 22).

Van Maanen uses the term "normalizing the setting" (p. 23) as the process by
which an individual develops an understanding in locating oneself within an
organizational space through construction and testing of the organization’s rules and
guidelines. Normalization process cannot proceed unless a social map of the individual’s
spatial location has been at least partly defined. The individual therefore must be able to
ascertain the "behavioral train" (p. 30) in the organization setting that is considered
normal. For Van Maanen, this step involves knowledge of the details related with the
normal terrain (range), and the common theories on reasons why the normal terrain is
formed, as it is (accounts).

Temporal Framework

Social time, according to Van Maanen (1977a) refers to the manner in which
discrete events experienced by individuals are connected and arranged in chronological
order. Related to this definition is his statement that “one is able to understand the present
only in terms of where one has been and where one wants to go” (p. 31). From this
statement, one can conclude that the individual’s beliefs in future rewards motivate
current behaviors.

Van Maanen (1977) also labels the process as “discovering a theme” (p. 31). The
process enables a newcomer to construct expectations regarding the possibility of an
orderly organizational career. The individual’s presence in organizations becomes
meaningful and tolerable based on his or her understanding of the past and predicting the
future. This temporal framework of social time, according to Van Maanen suggests that individuals create timetables so that the past can be linked to the future thereby making the present meaningful. Theme is said to explain, guide, and provide context to the individual in the workplace. Realistic themes are those that are constantly experienced and documented while fantastic themes are those in a sense were never experienced and documented. Van Maanen concludes that themes are essential elements in individual’s present work interpretation because themes connect the individual’s past with his or her future.

Anomie is a condition when the individual is not able to determine what is going on or unable to ‘normalize the setting’ in which the individual finds himself or herself (Van Maanen, 1977a). This condition happens when the individual cannot connect meaningfully to the social work and activities that are observed to be happening in his or her surroundings. Individuals in this situation are said to lack social frameworks to assist them in understanding the conducts of the others. When states of anomie or alienation occur, the individual is forced to examine his or her situation identity or self-concept and the organization. This reconsideration will eventually lead individuals to change (Van Maanen, 1977a).

Van Maanen concludes that role adaptation will be unsuccessful when an individual is not able to determine his or her location in time and space. Being unable to locate oneself, an individual will find it difficult to devise realistic themes that will serve as guides in their participation in the organization. Anomie and alienation are said to exist in any encounter in organizations. However, “the observed ability to convert the strange
to the familiar is a tribute to individual ingenuity and adaptability—homage perhaps to human capacity” (p. 41).
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to describe and document the processes that Filipino immigrant teachers undergo in the course of their professional and organizational socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The study includes an exploration of their socialization processes, focusing on how Filipino immigrant teachers perceive themselves within the Hawai‘i Department of Education organizational structure.

*The Hawai‘i Department of Education*

The Hawai‘i State Department of Education is the sole single statewide public school district in the nation. The Hawai‘i Department of Education is considered a part of the Executive Branch of the Hawai‘i State government. The Department manages the public school system and the public libraries in the State of Hawai‘i. The Board of Education, which consists of 13 elected members, governs the Department of Education. A student member selected by the Hawai‘i State Student Council is included as a non-voting member. The Superintendent of Education is appointed by the Board of Education as the chief executive officer of the public school system (Department of Education, Plan of Organization, 2001).

Seven administrative units or districts comprise the Hawai‘i Department of Education: Honolulu District, Central Oahu District, Leeward Oahu District, Windward Oahu District, Hawaii District, Maui District (Lanai and Molokai included), and Kauai
District (Niihau included). District Superintendents are assigned to head the districts. To provide shared curriculum and instructional support to schools, complex learning support centers are instituted. Each complex is composed of a high school and feeder elementary and intermediate or middle schools (Department of Education, Plan of Organization, 2001).

The Department serves approximately 184,000 students from grade kindergarten through 12 in 258 regular public schools, and 25 public charter schools and such preschool programs and adult/community programs as may be established by law (Hawai‘i Educational Policy Center, 2003). Aside from regular programs of instruction and support services, the Hawai‘i Department of Education provides special programs for qualified students with disability, gifted and talented students, students with limited English language proficiency, and for students who are economically and culturally disadvantaged, school-alienated, or institutionally confined (Department of Education, Plan of Organization, 2001).

**Hawai‘i Department of Education Teacher Certification Requirement**

The Hawai‘i Teachers Standards Board authorizes the public school teacher certification standards. This procedure was prompted by the legislature in trying to institute consistency with the national efforts of establishing standards in evaluating teacher qualification for employment. Chapter 54 of the Teaching Licensing and Credentialing Standards, State of Hawai‘i DOE Section 8-54-4 Applicability states that beginning school year 1997-98 no person shall serve as a teacher in the Hawai‘i Department of Education without first obtaining a license or credential from the Hawai‘i
Department of Education. Credential is defined as an emergency or temporary license issued based on the standards and guidelines set by the board while license refers to the document signifying the board’s permission to practice the profession of teaching. Teaching licenses are issued by the Hawai‘i Department of Education and renewable every five years. Credentials issued by the Hawai‘i Department of Education are renewable every year up to a maximum of three years provided the “holder continues to satisfy the board’s credentialing standards and actively pursues appropriate licensing” (Department of Education, Administrative Rules, 2003).

Initial license may be issued to a hired teacher applicant provided that the applicant has completed a State-approved teacher education program indicating that the applicant is most likely to fulfill the performance standards established by the board, and attained the passing PRAXIS examination scores. Applicants who are not able to meet the requirements for a license may be issued a credential by the Hawai‘i Department of Education for a period not to exceed one year at a time and may be renewed up to maximum of three years provided that the applicant has completed a baccalaureate degree from an accredited university and is actively pursuing licensure (Department of Education, Administrative Rules, 2003).

*Entry level requirements.* The Hawai‘i Teachers Board requires teacher candidates to meet the following (Department of Education Office of Human Resources/Personnel Services Branch, 2002):

1. Completion of a State-approved teacher education program from an accredited institution.
2. Passing the PRAXIS tests at the State-validated levels.
3. Successfully completing a structured interview with an authorized professional staff interviewer.

If all employment conditions have been met, teachers are eligible for tenure after four semesters of demonstrated competence. In some occasions, teachers are permitted to start employment without fully meeting the standards. This employment arrangement is temporary to a maximum of four years and teachers employed in this manner do not have an opportunity to earn tenure (Department of Education Office of Human Resources/Personnel Services Branch, 2002).

*Hawai‘i Department of Education application procedure.* A personal interview of the applicant will be conducted once the Hawai‘i Department of Education Office of Human Resources receives the application and other required documents. After a successful completion of the application process, the applicants' names are entered the Hawai‘i Department of Education’s teacher hiring pool. The Personnel’s Office then refers a list of applicants to every vacancy for consideration. The school principal and/or designee will conduct the interview and make the final selection for the vacancy. This process allows for the selection of the best-qualified candidate for every teaching assignment (Department of Education Office of Human Resources/Personnel Services Branch, 2002).

Matching the requirements of the vacancy with the applicant’s strengths is based on Hawai‘i Department of Education’s assessments of application information, including academic preparation, teaching experience, personal interview results, PRAXIS results, college transcripts, geographic and grade level preferences, and other sources of information. Depending on the need of the schools, an applicant may be referred to many
school interviews before being selected for employment from the applicant pool
(Department of Education Office of Human Resources/Personnel Services Branch, 2002).

*English for Second Language Learners Program (ESLL)*

To meet the needs of limited English proficient students in Hawai‘i, the Hawai‘i Department of Education had developed comprehensive English for Second Language Learners Program. The program is state-funded and provides direct services to all identified ESLL students in the various language groups within the seven districts in Hawai‘i. The ESLL Program provides support to students whose first or native language is other than English so they can gain the maximum benefit from the educational experiences and opportunities provided to the schools (Department of Education, English for Second Language Learners Framework, 1995). Instructional services are provided to approximately 13,000 ESLL students in 246 public schools in Hawai‘i. The ESLL Program covers more than 40 student languages.

The Department of Education’s Identification, Assessment, and Programming System for Students in the English for Second Language Learners Program (1996) states the following goals of the Hawai‘i Department of Education ESLL Program for providing instructional services to ESLL students: (a) acquire a level of English proficiency which will provide them with equal opportunity to succeed in the regular education program, (b) acquire a level of achievement in reading, language, and mathematics which will enable them to succeed in the regular educational program, and (c) develop an understanding of and appreciation for the diverse cultures in Hawai‘i.
The Hawai'i Department of Education hires and employs teaching personnel trained in the theories and techniques of ESL and bilingual/multicultural education to ensure delivery of appropriate instruction and at the same time comply with Lau v. Nichols, the landmark decision rendered by the U.S. Supreme Court under Title VI of Civil Rights Act of 1964. The guidelines also stipulate that Hawai'i Department of Education State and District personnel provide in-service training to prepare staff for teaching in this program, conduct on-site visitations to schools with ESLL students, provide technical assistance to all levels of administrative and instructional personnel, and coordinate with training institutions in developing pre-service teacher education programs (Department of Education, Identification, Assessment, and Programming System for Students in the English for Second Language Learners Program, 1996).

As part of the compliance with federal laws and court rulings that established the rights of language minority students in the United States, the Hawai'i Department of Education provides the resources and qualified personnel necessary to render effective instruction. The instructional staff that provides services to ESLL students consists of full-time, half-time, and part-time teachers. These teachers provide instructional services utilizing bilingual and ESL strategies in instructional settings that include: (a) self-contained classes, placement characterized by heavy concentration of non-English proficient students; (b) team-taught or intervention classes, where ESLL students are grouped for instruction with mainstream students in the regular classroom; and (c) pull-out tutorial classes, where ESLL students are pulled-out of their mainstream class for one or more periods of the school day to receive assistance from the ESLL teacher.
**Part-time temporary teacher (PTT).** Aside from full-time and half-time teacher positions, the Hawai‘i Department of Education established part-time teacher positions to meet the diverse needs of the schools. In the ESLL Program, Part-time teachers (PTT) are often utilized in cases where the number of limited English proficient students to be served in certain schools does not warrant a full-time or half-time teacher specially when specific native languages are involved. A big number of part-time teachers are foreign-born and received their credentials from their countries of origin. Many of them are in the process of obtaining their certification from the Hawai‘i Department of Education, completing the required courses of the Department, and or completing the teachers’ examination. Presently, about 43% of Filipino immigrant teachers are in this position. The PTT position does not allow for medical and retirement benefits and advancement to tenure track. Work hours vary from school to school, 3 to 17 hours per week depending on the funding and need. Part-time teachers work under the supervision of certified teachers.

**Research Design**

Zeichner (1980) states that there is no one approach to research that can provide an instant and simplified solution to the complex problems associated with being a teacher. The inherently complex nature and paucity of studies on Filipino immigrant socialization preclude the use of a single research method in adequately addressing the topic of Filipino immigrant teachers’ socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of
Education. A mixed method approach would be more appropriate for this type of investigation.

Grant and Fine (1992) cite several illustrations of combining methods which include qualitative observations supplemented with quantitative measures, mixing of ethnographic experimental research, and the combination of qualitative procedures and survey research. This study is patterned around the mix of qualitative procedures and survey research. The combination of both approaches, applied in a complementary manner, leads to a more stable base of knowledge of the processes involved in immigrant teacher socialization than an approach using only one.

**Rationale for Using a Mixed Method**

Several factors inherent in the research questions necessitated the use of the mixed-method approach. First, the nature of the research problem (socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers) is primarily a qualitative problem. Second, the concept of socialization as it applies to Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education is still an immature and scantily researched one. Third, there was a need to examine and describe the phenomenon of socialization among Filipino immigrant teachers, and a need to develop a theory based on the results of the study.

Socialization of immigrant teachers has only recently become a focus of attention, and expectedly, only a few theories have been advanced. More to the point, an encompassing coherent theory has yet to be developed for Filipino immigrant teachers. This study, therefore, requires a combination of methods involving quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis procedures. Following Greene, Caracelli, and
Graham's (1989) statement on the purposes for combining the two methods in a single study, such combination provided the study of Filipino immigrant socialization the following benefits: (a) the development and use of the survey method helped inform the interview method, (b) the convergence of results was achieved through the triangulation of the survey and interview results with literature review on teacher socialization, (c) new phenomena and themes emerged from the data due to the overlapping and complementary characteristics of the various facets of teacher socialization, (d) fresh perspectives on immigrant teacher socialization were obtained from the survey and interview data, and (e) the combination allowed for the expansion on the description of the scope and breadth of Filipino immigrant teacher socialization.

Jick (1979) states that an intrinsic bias in particular data sources or methods will be neutralized when other data sources or methods are used. He further states that "the use of multiple measures may also uncover some unique information which otherwise may have been neglected by a single method" (p. 603), a point that Green et al. (1989) also make. These considerations are particularly pertinent to this study, which seeks to obtain only a beginning understanding of a hitherto unexplored subject, with an obviously multi-factorial composition.

Supporting the benefits of this combination of paradigms is the philosophical underpinning based on the pragmatist notion of Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) that integrated different theoretical perspectives in interpreting the data of the study. There are many similarities between the fundamental values and common assumptions of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. These include the belief that inquiry reflects the values of the investigator, the belief that reality is multiple and constructed, the belief in
the fallibility of knowledge, and the belief that any given set of data can be explained by many theories. Other shared ideologies between quantitative and qualitative methods stated by Tashakkori and Teddlie include the importance of understanding and improving the human conditions and the communication of results to inform decisions.

It is assumed from the literature review that teachers become socialized once employed by the schools. The issues that need to be addressed therefore, revolve around the institutional factors affecting the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers, the extent of their socialization in the school system, and the assumptions that they held prior to teaching in Hawai‘i Department of Education. Conducting a survey using a standard socialization scale and providing a first-hand description of socialization experience through interviews would derive the material necessary for an accurate and thorough portrayal of the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers.

Quantitative Method

I used the general model of socialization by Hess (1971) to structure the first and second research questions:

1. What are the institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?
2. What have been the socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

Hess’ model also served as the framework for the analysis of the institutional factors on teacher socialization. The elements of Hess’ general model consist of an environmental structure, beliefs, attitudes, norms, laws, values, skills, customs, and rules,
designated agents, objects of socialization, process of teaching and learning, behavioral outcome, and system-sustaining behavior.

The first of the two methods constituting the mixed-method approach used in this study is a quantitative one built around the basic survey research methodology. The major purpose of a survey is to describe the characteristics of a population so that inferences could be made about the attitudes, behaviors, and characteristics of the particular population (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000). Because the nature of the study is descriptive, I chose the survey to identify the institutional factors that affect the socialization of the Filipino immigrant teachers.

Survey is considered the most effective means to elicit descriptive and detailed information such as characteristics, attitudes, and behavior about a large group of population (Singleton, 1993), in this case, the Filipino immigrant teachers in Hawai‘i Department of Education. The survey can also identify the presence of certain characteristics and demographics among the Filipino immigrant teachers’ role groups, number of years of teaching experience, age, educational attainment, and instructional programs that can help in the description of their socialization. The standardized measurement capability of the survey is consistent across all respondents and ensures that data obtained is comparable (Fowler, 1993). This would allow for meaningful analysis of the distribution or patterns of associations among the socialization variables. Standard measurement will also help in reliability enhancement of the data. Similar to other methods, the survey can produce unexpected findings that would contribute to the development of a theory or inferences in the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers as well as evidence of the respondents’ common beliefs and perceptions regarding their
own socialization. The use of the mail survey allows access to respondents that are hard to reach in person or by telephone such as respondents living in the neighbor islands of Kauai, Lanai, Molokai, Hawai‘i, and Maui. Mail surveys also provide sufficient time for respondents to give thoughtful responses on the items included in the survey (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000).

**Qualitative Method**

The second method is qualitative and uses semi-structured interviews to collect data on individual situations. Insights on the participants’ assumptions prior to teaching in Hawai‘i Department of Education and related themes were captured through their voices and narratives during the interviews. The method itself consists of in-depth interviews starting with semi-structured questions and ending with unstructured follow-up questions.

The concept of spatial and temporal framework espoused by Van Maanen (1977a) was used to provide real-life context guided interpretation of the participants’ perceptions and assumptions and to address the third, fourth, and fifth research questions:

3. What assumptions about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education did Filipino immigrant teachers hold prior to their initial teaching assignment in the school system?

4. Did these assumptions change over time, and if so, what were these changes?

5. What factors helped shape these changes?

The premises that guide the spatial and temporal framework of the study are that (a) newcomers to the system determine where they stand relative to the objects, events,
relationships, and types of people they encounter, and (b) newcomers are able to understand the present only in terms of where he or she has been or where he or she wants to go.

A personal interview is said to be the most effective way to engage the cooperation of the participant (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000). It is for this primary reason that this method was chosen to gather data on the assumptions of Filipino immigrant teachers.

The use of personal interviews allows for the establishment of rapport between the researcher and the participants. Trust building is necessary when collecting data on participants’ prior beliefs because it requires honest reflection and recall for both the researcher and the participant. This process could be explained further by the statements made by Court (1999) that reflection is paramount when immigrant teachers must decide whether they are willing or unwilling to accept the norms and values of a new culture. Court’s study indicates that there is an intimate relationship between reflection and successful adaptation: reflection as a means to understanding new situations and where they fit in relation to past experiences and existing norms, and time as a process of assimilation of new experiences. Both factors most likely contribute to successful integration. This process of reflection over time, and trial and error, also leads to changes in the teacher’s philosophy and the process of learning.

Personal interviews permit narratives and dialogue to flow since the process permits the clarification of questions and responses. Narratives and dialogues are powerful tools in the construction of meanings (Cooper, 1995). Both narrative and dialogue support meaning-making of present events and visions of the future; in this case,
the Filipino immigrants’ perceived reality and their future plans in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Cooper states that this construction of reality must be shared using narrative and dialogue for the purpose of creating a community where construction of meaning can lead to a common purpose for teaching and learning. Teacher stories obtained through dialogue and narratives are considered constructions that can offer meanings to events and can communicate a distinctive sense of experience (Carter, 1993). Witherell and Noddings (1991) agree that knowledge of the narrative and contextual dimensions of individuals can create new insights, compassionate judgments, and shared meanings that can inform professional practice. Furthermore, the use of teacher narratives and dialogue is a method that acknowledge individual’s multiple realities that depend on one’s interpretation and perception (Merriam, 1998).

Participants of the Study

The participants of this study are all Filipino immigrant teachers. The study population comprises of teachers who received their teaching degrees and training from the Philippines. All are presently employed by the Hawai‘i Department of Education as full-time teachers, half-time teachers, part-time temporary teachers. All teach in elementary or secondary public schools in the seven districts in Hawai‘i Department of Education.
Survey Participants

The demographic characteristics of Filipino immigrant teachers collected in the survey are teaching positions, years of teaching experience in the Philippines, years of teaching experience in the Hawai‘i Department of Education, earned degree, grade level taught, and age (Appendix A). Those characteristics were selected purposely to help determine whether membership in a particular demographic stratum is linked to teacher socialization.

The largest percentage of Filipino immigrant teachers worked in the English for Second Language Learners Program, or ESLL (64%). One possible reason for this large representation of Filipino immigrant teachers in ESLL is their dual-language proficiency, which gives them a hiring advantage for this program when instructing Filipino immigrant students who account for a high percentage of the state’s ESLL enrollment. Regular education teachers, otherwise known as K-12 classroom teachers, comprised the second largest group of teachers (24%), totaling less than half of the number of teachers in the ESLL program. Those teaching in Special Education came in a distant third (11%) with Title I program having the smallest percentage (1%).

Fifty-five percent of the teachers reported having full-time teaching positions and forty-one percent were in part-time teaching positions. A disproportionately small percentage of teachers worked in half-time positions (4%). Fifty-eight percent of the participants were teaching in the elementary level and the rest (42%) were in secondary level.

Teachers in the 51 - 60 age bracket comprised the largest group (49%). This group had more than twice the number of teachers in the next highest bracket, the 61-and-
over bracket (20%). The 41 - 50 age bracket was the third highest group (15%) followed by the 31 - 40 age bracket (13%). The smallest was the 21 - 30 age group (1%). Not reporting their age brackets were five teachers (3%).

Of the 143 Filipino immigrant teachers participating in this study, 104 had earned their baccalaureate degrees (73%). Another 33 had earned their master’s degrees (23%). Six teachers had taken post-graduate courses or earned post-graduate credits (4%).

With respect to teaching experience in the Philippines prior to moving to Hawai‘i, teachers with more than 10 years made up the largest group (48%), followed by those with 3 - 10 years of experience (36%). Those with minimal (1 - 2 years) to no teaching experience made up a much smaller percentage (16%).

Fully half of the participants had been teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education for more than 10 years (50%). The next largest group had 3 - 10 years of teaching experience in the Hawai‘i Department of Education (29%). The smallest group, the beginning teachers, had 1 - 2 years of teaching experience (21%). As beginning teachers, they would be working toward tenure.

General Profile of the Typical Filipino Immigrant Teacher

From the characteristics just described, the typical Filipino immigrant teacher has a baccalaureate degree and is tenured as a full-time teacher teaching ESLL students. The teacher also is in the 51 - 60 age bracket with over 10 years of teaching experience in the Philippines prior to coming to Hawai‘i plus another 10 years in the Hawai‘i public school system.
**Interview Participants**

The five participants included in the study are Filipino immigrant teachers who received their teacher preparation and training in the Philippines. All interview participants teach in Oahu schools. Their ages ranged from 33 to 60 years. Four of them are presently working as full-time teachers in ESLL, Regular Education, and Special Education Programs. One participant is employed as a part-time teacher for the ESLL Program. Two participants teach in elementary level and three others in secondary level schools. The selection and responses from this broad cross-section of participants allowed for an extension of homogeneity and diversity of perspectives that melded into the emerging themes.

There were originally six participants who were contacted and agreed to participate in the personal interview phase of the study. One participant was dropped from the study due to non-interest, i.e., failing to return or make the required post-interview contacts despite repeated follow-up phone calls.

**Instrumentation**

The primary data sources for this study included survey questionnaire and interview transcripts. Considering Merriam’s (1998) statement that engaging in one strategy in case study data collection may lead to incorporation of subsequent sources of data, other documents were examined and analyzed as secondary data sources to gain a more in-depth understanding. This mixed-mode data collection system was necessitated
by the complexity of the study as well as a need for adequate flexibility in pinpointing and later developing the socialization themes.

Development of the Questionnaire

Items from multiple sources were used to develop the questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to measure the strength of each construct in the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Constructs that were found to be predictors of socialization factors and outcomes from literature reviews were matched with the items from questionnaires used in previous studies on socialization by Ashton and Webb (1986), Jones (1986), Lortie (1975), Ownby (1997), and Rosenholtz (1989). Components of constructs were adapted and modified to obtain numerical descriptions on some of the items. Modifications also were made to the questionnaire resulting in a reduction in the number of items selected, simplification of the wording of items by eliminating catch words and jargon, and addition of new items to reflect the context of teacher socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of Education (Appendix B).

As modified, the final questionnaire consisted of forty-eight items that respondents rated using a five-point Likert scale (Appendix C). Participant responses ranged from a score of one indicating “strongly disagree” to a score of five indicating “strongly agree.” Other items were also included in the questionnaire to gather demographic and other background information. The self-administered questionnaire was expected to measure the constructs affecting the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers. The constructs or scales, and items pertaining to each, indicated in parentheses,
are Teacher Induction (items 1 - 5), Peer Support and Acceptance (items 6 - 11), Performance Expectations, Evaluation and Feedback (items 12 - 16), Professional Support and Development (items 17 - 23), Parent and Student Support (items 24 - 30), Workplace Commitment (items 31 - 35), Commitment to Student Learning (items 36 - 42), and Professional and Personal Efficacy (items 43 - 48).

Content validity of the instrument. Validity was assessed with content validity, or the extent to which the scale actually addressed the institutional factors affecting teacher socialization. This was accomplished in two steps:

First, an 80-item survey adapted from the research studies of Ashton and Webb (1986), Jones (1986), Lortie (1975), Ownby (1997), and Rosenholtz (1989) was used. Items from these previous research studies were matched to the socialization theories included in the literature review. New items germane to the study were generated and added to identify the institutional factors. These changes were followed by focused discussions involving professional educators with expertise in teacher development, instructional support, and evaluation for the purpose of establishing the survey’s relevance as well as ability to address and measure the institutional factors.

The educators who reviewed and examined the survey included two school principals, a School Renewal Specialist (SRS), a Beginning Teacher Supervisor (BTS), the State Program Manager for the ESLL Program, a State Affirmative Action Resource Teacher, a recently retired ESLL Resource Teacher, and three Filipino immigrant teachers who are presently employed with the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Second, based on their input, items were retained, redundant questions were combined, new items were added, item syntax was improved, and the rest were deleted.
The former Director of Planning and Evaluation of the Hawai‘i Department of Education then reviewed the revised questionnaire for its psychometric quality. The questionnaire was next administered to a group of 12 Filipino immigrant teachers to assess its reliability.

Reliability of the questionnaire. To pilot the questionnaire, the test-retest method was used to determine the reliability of the scale over time (Fraenkel and Warren, 2000) with 12 Filipino immigrant teachers. Using this protocol, the first administration was followed by the second administration after a week using the same questionnaire. The obtained coefficients (Spearman rho = .85 and Pearson r = .87) using SPSS Version 11.0 for Windows indicated that the scale was statistically reliable for large-scale use with Filipino immigrant teachers (Appendix D). Feedback and suggestions regarding statements, clarity of instructions, and response choices contained in the questionnaire were requested from the pilot group. Recommendations received were incorporated to bring the survey instrument to its present and final form.

In-depth Interviews

Interview questions included the participants' previous professional histories and experiences prior to migration to Hawai‘i, initial professional experiences and assumptions held prior to teaching in Hawai‘i Department of Education, participants' reflections on those experiences, and factors that influence the participants' socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Interview guides included the following questions:
1. Could you tell me about your professional training background and experiences as a teacher in the Philippines?

2. Now that you’ve shared with me your professional experiences in the Philippines, can you also share with me the assumptions that you held prior to teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

3. Did these assumptions change over time? If so, what caused the change in your assumptions? If not, what made you stick to your assumptions?

Interview guides were reviewed through focused discussions by the same group of people who reviewed the survey questionnaire. Pilot interviews were conducted with three Filipino immigrant teachers to determine whether the interview questions would elicit responses for which the interview guides were designed.

Data Collection

Access to the records on the location of the participants was requested from the Hawai‘i Department of Education through the Superintendent’s office as well as the districts and schools where the participants worked. Initial meetings with the State Program Manager for the ESLL Program were held to identify potential school sites where Filipino immigrant teachers are presently assigned.

Survey

On January 2003, a copy of the questionnaire, a cover letter requesting their support, a self-stamped envelope, a complimentary bookmark, and a return postcard were
mailed and distributed to each of the 206 Filipino immigrant teachers employed by the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The socialization questionnaires were distributed to the entire population of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education to ensure a high-return rate. These questionnaires were mailed and hand delivered to the respondents, which were filled out at their convenience. Questionnaires were also distributed at teacher workshops, conferences, and other official meetings. The use of the self-administered questionnaire assured respondents’ privacy and allowed them, at their convenience, to reflect on the questions and make their choices (Singleton, 1993). Interest in the study was assumed to be intrinsically present since all of the participants were Filipino immigrant teachers. To ensure a high response rate, potential respondents were notified in advance of the survey through a variety of avenues, (e.g. at workshops, teachers’ meeting). To assure subject anonymity and minimize nonresponse, separate postcards with the participant’s identifier were sent during the initial mailing or distribution of the questionnaire. The procedure allowed for a follow-up for those who did not respond to the first questionnaire and helped increased the response rate. A follow-up reminder mailed to non-respondents indicated a new deadline.

One hundred twenty completed surveys were returned; one additional survey returned indicated training received in the US; an additional survey returned indicated a high school diploma; two respondents called and said that they graduated from the US; and three potential participants quit their jobs prior to receiving the survey.

A postcard reminder was sent to 79 non-respondents on the first week of February 2003. Twenty-three responded. A return rate of 72% was reached from the two mailings.
In-depth Interviews

Interview participants were selected using the Hawai‘i Department of Education lists of teachers and guided by representation for the following: (a) gender (b) HIDOE teaching experience (c) grade level taught (d) type of position (full or part-time) and (e) program taught (ESLL, regular education, special education). Potential participants were contacted to ascertain interest in the project. Those who agreed to participate were provided more information on the nature of the study.

From January 2003 to May 2003, two to three interviews were conducted with each of the five key participants, amounting to a total of 15 interviews. Each interview session lasted for about 45 minutes. Interviews included the gathering of information that participants themselves provided. Semi-structured and informal interviews were conducted using interview guides with questions for the participants to respond. Interviews were conducted at various locations such as public libraries, schools, and restaurants.

A discussion on issues expressed by Bogden and Biklen (1998) followed between the participants and myself prior to the interview process: purposes and intentions of the interviews, privacy protection using pseudonyms, final say over the content of the study, and logistics involved in the interview process.

Ethics

The study was conducted following established ethical practices set forth by Fraenkel and Wallen (1996):
Protecting Participants from Harm

Consent and fair agreement from participants using consent forms were obtained prior to their participation in the study. This agreement included an explanation of the nature of the study and expectations on the participants' participation. The participants were informed that their freedom to decline or withdraw from the study at any time would be respected and honored.

Ensuring Confidentiality of Research Data

Real names and identities were not used in the study, and will not be used in its publication. Pseudonyms chosen by the participants were used. Information gathered from the study was regarded as confidential unless otherwise agreed upon in advance.

Question of Deception of Subjects

Information and data collected from the study were shared with the participants for review and approval to ensure the absence of misconceptions and to avoid damaging effects on the participants. Careful correction, detection, and removal of identifying information were done to protect the participants' interests.

Official Approvals

The Institutional Review Board Committee on Human Studies, University of Hawai'i gave approval to conduct the study in October 2002 (Appendix E). Written permission from the Hawai'i Department of Education was received on the first week of December 2002. A list of potential participants for the study was provided by the Hawai'i
Department of Education with the assistance of the ESLL Program State and District staff. A total of 206 Filipino immigrant teachers were identified in 100 schools statewide. In accordance with the agreement with the Hawai‘i Department of Education, a letter was sent to 100 principals soliciting their cooperation.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

The following approaches were used to address the five research questions of the study:

Survey Analysis

All completed questionnaires were scored using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Program. A profile on socialization variables was expected to indicate the strength of the variables. Descriptive statistics were employed for this part of research.

Eight scales were developed: Teacher induction, Peer support and acceptance, Performance expectations, evaluation, and feedback, Parent and student support, Professional support and development, Workplace commitment, Commitment to student learning, and Personal and professional efficacy.

Mean ratings and standard deviations were determined for all scales for the three role groups (full-time, half-time, and part-time) to provide a measure of the strength of the variables in the socialization process.
**Interview Analysis**

The interview analysis started during the data collection phase. The themes and categories emerged from the review and examination of the data. Categories were assigned to sort descriptive collected data. Inductive analysis was employed in developing categories. Data organization depended on repeated examination of interview transcripts and documents. Personal interviews were transcribed verbatim. Information from the interview transcripts collected from the participants was compiled and categorized to identify emerging themes and common perspectives. The first part of the analysis included an examination of responses to interview questions on their assumptions about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The second part of the analysis included narratives and stories that contributed to the understanding of their own socialization as Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Among the coding categories used were: setting or context codes, situation definition codes, code on perspectives held by participants, event codes, strategy codes, codes on relationship and social structure, and methods codes. Analysis also included comparisons among the perceptions, assumptions, and expectations of the participants’ socialization. Levels of concerns and coping strategies were also examined to find patterns on differences and similarities among the mechanisms used. The process also allowed for an investigation of the variables affecting their socialization.

The case study summary description included (a) the educational attainment and background experience of the participants prior to the Hawai‘i Department of Education employment, (b) the Hawai‘i Department of Education entry level experience, (c) assumptions and expectations about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education,
(d) coping strategies, (e) commitment to student learning, (f) challenges, concerns, and fears, and (g) professional empowerment.

Data analysis also included descriptions of each five participants and quotes from their interviews to further illustrate emerging patterns and themes. Member checks were done throughout the data analysis. As the study progressed, data and provisional interpretations were presented to the participants for verification (Merriam, 1998). Written narratives of the study included stories of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education describing their experiences during their own socialization.

Throughout the data collection process, ongoing discussions were held with colleagues and immigrant teachers to minimize a major threat to internal validity, the influence of my personal background, life experiences, and interpretations on the participants. Participants from different sites and situations were included to provide a measure of diversity to improve the study’s external validity. Reactions to the emerging trends were sought.

In summary, data from three sources, namely the questionnaire, in-depth interviews, and literature review were triangulated in the classic sense of seeking convergence of results.

Role of the Researcher

As a researcher, I assumed the dual role of data collector and interviewer. I modified and then administered a socialization questionnaire and developed interview
guides covering the areas of teacher preparation, teaching experiences prior to moving to Hawai‘i, expectations, basic beliefs and values, and socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i public schools. I conducted individual interviews, recorded the interviews with a tape recorder in a private setting with only a participant and myself present.

I also monitored myself on the effects of my presence in the interviews. During and following this process, I provided the participants with further opportunities to reflect on and share their experiences with me. At the same time, I sought corroboration of the participants’ reports from non-immigrant and immigrant colleagues and verification of my understanding of their statements.

Researcher’s Background and Beliefs

As an immigrant to Hawai‘i from the Philippines, I have worked with other Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education over two decades. These included working as a District Resource Teacher for English for Second Language Learners Program for 18 years, a year as a School Assessment Liaison in one of the Leeward District’s school complexes, and as Elementary School ESLL teacher the last two years. My interest in Filipino immigrant teachers’ initiation to the Hawai‘i Department of Education arose from my own experience as a teacher in the Hawai‘i Department of Education and my association with other Filipino immigrant teachers in Hawai‘i. As a teacher with the Hawai‘i Department of Education, I experienced first-hand the barriers and constraints that immigrant teachers face while being “socialized” and initiated into the Hawai‘i Department of Education system. Thus, I am very much
impressed and moved by the Filipino immigrant teachers’ struggle to adjust and assimilate into the Hawai‘i Department of Education culture.

Connelly and Clandinin (1990) have argued that in order to understand teachers’ knowledge, one has to work directly with teachers in all aspects of their lives in classrooms, outside the classrooms, and in their personal lives. In line with this advocacy, I recently took a school-based teaching assignment where I worked with teachers in the classrooms. I believe this privilege has given me a keener awareness of the experiences that the participants of this study have undergone in the course of their socialization into the Hawai‘i Department of Education.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

This chapter presents the results and findings of the study. First, pertinent data collected from the socialization questionnaire survey of Filipino immigrant teachers is reported using tables. The mean and standard deviation of each variable is tabulated to provide an indication of relative strength and allow comparison. Second, assumptions, expectations, coping strategies, concerns, and challenges of Filipino immigrant teachers are examined to support the data collected from the socialization survey. Interview excerpts from the five case studies are used to express Filipino immigrant teachers' voices and perceptions of their own socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Pseudonyms are used in the five case studies.

Institutional Factors and Degree of Socialization

Research Question No. 1: What are the institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

Research Question No. 2: What have been the socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

To answer these questions, quantitative analysis of survey data by population subgroups was performed. Descriptive data obtained from the socialization survey questionnaire were then analyzed using several different techniques. Teacher
socialization variables were analyzed against the teacher demographic strata reported earlier. Means and standard deviations are the quantitative statistics used for this analysis. The ratings scored by the role groups full-time, half-time and part-time for each variable were totaled and averaged. The mean scores provide a measure of the strength of the influence of each variable on the socialization of the respondent role group. However, because the eight variables are not composed of the same number of items, the effect of each variable cannot be directly compared using the raw mean scores. To attain comparability, the raw means were divided by the number of items making up each individual variable. In this manner, the variables could be compared on the same metric, a 5-point scale. The adjusted mean variable scores and standard deviations for the 78 full-time teachers, 6 half-time teachers, and 59 part-time teachers are found in Table I below.
Teachers, irrespective of their positions, viewed *Commitment to Student Learning* as the most powerful variable influencing their socialization in the Hawai‘i public school system. *Teacher Induction, Peer Support and Acceptance, Performance Expectations, Evaluation and Feedback,* and *Professional Support and Development* were the least
influential variables. The strength of the rest of the variables appeared to be influenced by time spent in school (teacher position). Part-time and half-time teachers rated *Workplace Commitment* second highest, while full-time teachers rated this variable only fourth. On the other hand, full-time teachers rated *Parent and Student Support* second, while half-time and part-time teachers rated this variable fourth. This pattern seems to suggest that length of the workday may influence socialization of teachers in the three role groups in different ways. The short work periods for part-time and half-time teachers may foster a pace of work that is enjoyable and more conducive to the socialization process. On the other hand, the full-time teacher may regard the long workday as both blessing and burden. Full-time status provides increased opportunity for gratifying interaction with students and parents, but at the expense of opportunities for professional advancement and personal pursuits. This in turn may explain why full-time teachers rated *Professional Support and Development* next to last. Finally, there was one variable that hinted at a need for further analysis. This variable was *Personal and Professional Efficacy*. Half-time teachers rated this variable lowest, while the other two-teacher role groups rated this third. This may be explained by the career uncertainty that half-time teachers face even though they are generally certified and fully qualified to teach full time. For a variety of reasons, these teachers though they may want to, were unable to get full-time positions.

The mean ratings in Table 1 revealed that full-time, half-time, and part-time teachers were united in their views on the strongest variable connected with their socialization, *Commitment to Student Learning*. This suggested various child-centered teaching themes and strategies started in recent years in the Hawai‘i Department of Education, including No Child Left Behind and Every Student a Winner, had taken hold.
The ratings also showed Teacher Induction as one of the weakest variables. This was somewhat puzzling because teacher induction had been expected to provide the strongest, or at least a moderately strong influence on the socialization process. One explanation for this contradictory condition may lie in the induction program itself: its poor quality, but more likely the lack of, or limited access to a formal induction program in the school.

Teaching experience in the Philippines before coming to Hawai‘i did not appear to strongly influence the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers, as shown in tables 2 and 3. The minor exception here was the difference between teachers with no prior teaching experience in the Philippines and those with experience, with respect to the variable Peer Support and Acceptance. The mean ratings for this variable suggest that teachers with no prior teaching experience in the Philippines appeared to have an easier time gaining acceptance and support from colleagues than their more experienced counterparts. This finding suggests that prior experience in another work environment may inhibit the process of socialization either through establishment of unfavorable presumptions, or ingrained work habits that are in conflict with the new job. Teachers with no prior experience teaching in the Philippines, however, do not seem to be weighed down by such circumstances, and endured none of the uncertainties and challenges of transitioning from teaching in one school system to another. This transition most likely would have affected their personal and social lives as well. The data showed that teachers with no prior teaching experience in the Philippines actually scored higher on the majority of the socialization variables.
Table 2.

*Adjusted Variable Mean Ratings and Standard Deviations by Years Taught in the Philippines*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>0 years</th>
<th></th>
<th>1-2 years</th>
<th></th>
<th>3-10 years</th>
<th></th>
<th>Over 10 years</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Induction</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Support &amp; Acceptance</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Expectations, Evaluation &amp; Feedback</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Support &amp; Development</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent &amp; Student Support</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Commitment</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Student Learning</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal &amp; Professional Efficacy</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teaching experience in Hawai‘i public schools also did not appear to strongly affect the socialization process of Filipino immigrant teachers, as shown in Table 3. Beginning teachers (1 - 2 years), mid-career teachers (3 - 10 years), and veteran teachers (10+ years) tended to be more alike than different with respect to their socialization. Teachers seemed to be experiencing more needs and facing challenges with respect to Teacher Induction, Peer Support and Acceptance, Performance Expectations, Evaluation, and Feedback, and Professional Support and Development. These variables center on the perception of communication and support, or the lack of it, in working with the school administration, managing the classroom, and receiving training and support.
Table 3.

*Adjusted Variable Mean Ratings and Standard Deviations by Years Taught in the HIDOE*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1-2 years</th>
<th>3-10 years</th>
<th>Over 10 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Induction</td>
<td>4.03 0.79</td>
<td>3.97 0.72</td>
<td>3.72 0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Support &amp; Acceptance</td>
<td>3.70 0.86</td>
<td>3.96 0.73</td>
<td>3.93 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Expectations, Evaluation &amp; Feedback</td>
<td>3.63 0.72</td>
<td>4.03 0.71</td>
<td>3.82 0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Support &amp; Development</td>
<td>3.70 0.86</td>
<td>4.10 0.72</td>
<td>4.03 0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent &amp; Student Support</td>
<td>3.88 0.60</td>
<td>4.23 0.59</td>
<td>4.26 0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Commitment</td>
<td>4.14 0.85</td>
<td>4.17 0.65</td>
<td>4.32 0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Student Learning</td>
<td>4.33 0.51</td>
<td>4.43 0.49</td>
<td>4.51 0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal &amp; Professional Efficacy</td>
<td>4.15 0.46</td>
<td>4.11 0.50</td>
<td>4.11 0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part I ends with answers to the research questions: What are the institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education? What have been the socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

**Factors**

The factor exerting the most powerful influence on the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers was *Commitment to Student Learning*. *Teacher Induction, Peer Support and Acceptance, Performance Expectations, Evaluation, and Feedback*, and *Professional Support and Development* were the weakest variables (Appendix F).

**Degree of Socialization**

As to the degree of socialization that Filipino immigrant teachers have achieved, it can be inferred from the survey data that the overall level of socialization was generally high, but there were teacher subgroups that needed help, specifically half-time teachers and beginning teachers. Furthermore, five of eight factors could be improved, namely *Teacher Induction, Peer Support and Acceptance, Performance Expectations, Evaluation and Feedback, Professional Support and Development*, and *Parent and Student Support*. Socialization, however, was not affected by demographic factors such as prior teaching experience in the Philippines or in the Hawai‘i public school system.
Five Case Studies

Research Question No. 3: What assumptions about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education did Filipino immigrant teachers hold prior to their initial teaching assignment in the school system?

Research Question No. 4: Did these assumptions change over time, and if so, what were these changes?

Research Question No. 5: What factors helped shape these changes?

To answer these research questions, excerpts of information obtained through interviews from five case studies are introduced and analyzed. Individual expectations, coping strategies, concerns, and challenges are also examined.

Filipino Immigrant Teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education: Five Case Studies

The study documented Filipino immigrant teachers’ assumptions, challenges and perceptions surrounding their socialization in the Hawai‘i Department of Education that became evident in themes expressed in five case studies.

Case Studies

A semi-structured interview protocol was used as the primary means of data collection for this part of the study, and added information from face to face conversations to support the development of the case studies. To identify common themes, transcripts of the interviews of the five participants of the study were analyzed. The following is a description of the assumptions, expectations, and perceptions of five
Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Also included are the educational background and experience, Hawai‘i Department of Education entry level, and current teaching position. This information is important in understanding and interpreting the teachers’ narratives. I also considered my own journal entries, personal reflections, and teachers’ anecdotes in validating some of the participants’ perceived realities and assumptions.

These case studies provide further information regarding the institutional variables affecting the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education and highlight the rest of the research questions of the study.

The five participants in the study are Filipino immigrant teachers who received their teacher preparation and training in the Philippines. Four of them are presently working as full-time teachers in ESLL, Regular Education, and Special Education Programs. The schools where the participants are presently employed vary from low income to middle income communities, from racially mixed neighborhoods to neighborhoods comprised of predominantly Asian families, and from heavily populated schools [more than a thousand students] to schools with less than 400 students. One participant is presently employed as a part-time teacher for the ESLL Program. Two participants presently teach at the elementary level, and three others in secondary level schools. The participants who are in the ESLL Program work in various instructional settings such as self-contained, pull-out, and intervention classes. The participants in regular education and special education work in self-contained classrooms. Four of them are females and one male. Two of the participants are in their second year with the Hawai‘i Department of Education; the other three have been teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.
Department of Education for more than ten years. Three of the participants started work in the Hawai‘i Department of Education as part-time teachers, one as an educational assistant in special education, and the other as a special education teacher.

*Carmi.* Carmi earned her baccalaureate degree from the Philippines. She taught college level courses and has experience working with Indo-Chinese refugees teaching English as a Second Language in the Philippines. While teaching secondary level ESLL students in one of the heaviest ESLL populated schools in an Oahu district for more than 10 years, Carmi is also finishing her Master’s Degree.

Carmi’s previous Hawai‘i Department of Education teaching experience includes working as a Part-time Temporary Teacher (PTT) in a secondary school and as a full-time teacher in an elementary school.

*Nene.* Nene graduated with a bachelor’s degree in elementary education in the Philippines. She took additional courses in child study and taught for three years in both public and private elementary schools in the Philippines.

Nene applied for a full-time teaching position in the Hawai‘i Department of Education as early as 1979. She submitted all the necessary paperwork and records to the Department and was later granted the Hawai‘i Department of Education Professional Teacher’s Certificate. While waiting for a possible full-time position, she applied as a substitute teacher and was called once. She also applied as a PTT and was hired after two years for a summer school PTT position. Unfortunately, her PTT position was phased out due to funding constraints. She waited for another year and was again hired as a PTT in another school. Eventually, she was hired as a full-time teacher and later earned her tenure as a teacher in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Nene’s Hawai‘i Department
of Education employment has brought her to four schools over a span of 17 years, the last 10 years at her current school.

Trixie. Trixie earned three baccalaureate degrees from the Philippines, one of them in teaching. Her teaching experience in the Philippines includes elementary, high school, and college level teaching. This is Trixie’s first year as a full-time regular education teacher in a secondary school in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. She worked as a PTT for about a semester last year in an elementary school.

Trixie submitted her application and transcript of records to the Hawai‘i Department of Education in 2002. After two months, she was hired as a PTT for the second half of the school year. She was interviewed and hired for her present position as a full-time teacher in regular education last August 2002.

Urbano. Urbano received his Bachelor of Science in Education degree from a private college in the Philippines. He taught for eight years in a private Catholic high school in the Philippines. Prior to working in the Hawai‘i Department of Education, he worked in Hawai‘i as a teacher in a private school for 11 years and as an office clerk until he found full-time employment in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Urbano first applied to the Hawai‘i Department of Education in 1986 but was informed that there were no vacancies for social studies teachers at that time. He applied again in 1994 but was not called for employment. In 2001, he was interviewed and hired to teach at his present position, full-time special education teacher in an elementary school in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. This is his second year of teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.
Imelda. Imelda has a bachelor’s degree in secondary education from the Philippines and has earned more than 27 credits in a master’s degree program prior to moving to Hawai‘i. In the Philippines, she first taught in a mission high school. After 10 years, she transferred to a private school for boys where she worked for another 15 years. She also taught Spanish and served as a critique teacher in an educational institution in the Philippines.

Imelda first applied in the Hawai‘i Department of Education in 1991 for a full-time teaching position and admitted that she did not pass the interview portion of the application process. She stated:

Oh, I was scared. I didn’t know how to be interviewed. I didn’t know how to answer interviews. So they interviewed me. I was new. That’s why I know how immigrant kids feel. You are new in a place, your mind is blank, you become so nervous. I was in front, in the room in the DOE, then they asked me about my methods. I don’t know. I was just so nervous. So I did not pass the interview.

Imelda was later on accepted as an educational assistant in the special education program and worked with four special education students in a high school in the Hawai‘i Department of Education for three years. She was later hired as a PTT in the ESL Program and has worked at three different schools in Oahu school districts. She is presently working as an ESL PTT in a secondary school.
Assumptions

Upon becoming a new member of an organization, a newcomer brings along a set of expectations or assumptions about the new context as well as the new role that he or she has to play within the organization. During the process of entry, a newcomer may experience the effects of "reality shock" from unmet expectations (Major et al., 1995). Feldman (1976) states that one of the critical challenges that newcomers encounter upon entry into an organization is when he or she discovers the mismatch between his or her expectations regarding the organization and the actual situation or reality of organizational life.

Louis (1980) indicates that a form of surprise originates from the cultural assumptions that newcomers create about the new organization. Newcomers experience surprises when these assumptions fail as working guides in their present work. Louis implies that formation of assumptions may happen before or after entering the organization, and that these may be conscious, tacit, and or emergent. Focus of these assumptions may be on oneself, the job, the organization, and its culture.

The five immigrant teachers related their experiences with respect to six distinct assumptions about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education in the quotations that follow: teacher orientation, student behavior, parents, administrators, colleagues, and curriculum and teaching materials.
Teacher Orientation

Horowitz’ (1985) study on immigrant teachers supports the proposition that teaching is a culturally conditioned occupation. In this case, the manner by which the immigrant teachers view their role is not limited to the built-in requirements of the teaching profession but also on the “normative inputs of the social environment” (p. 306). To assist in their acculturation process, it is therefore necessary for new immigrant teachers to be provided with initial orientation on the policies, procedures, and philosophy of the schools. Huling-Austin (1986) enumerates the components of teacher induction programs: (a) printed materials on employment conditions and school regulations, (b) orientation meetings and visits, (c) seminars and training sessions on curriculum and effective teaching topics, (d) observations by supervisors/peers/assessment teams, (e) follow-up conferences with observers, consultations with experienced teachers, (f) the assignment of an experienced teacher to be a “helping” or “buddy” teacher, (f) opportunities to observe other teachers, (g) released time or reduction of load, (h) group meetings of beginning teachers for emotional support, and (i) the assignment of the beginning teacher to a teaching team.

Deal and Chapman (1989) reveal that new teachers at schools seldom learn the history, values, and culture of the districts and the schools. Most likely new teachers learn the ropes in isolation through trial and error and feel their way through their initial years (Court, 1999). New teachers, even immigrant teachers who had prior teaching experience in their home countries try to cope without the support of administrators or colleagues in isolation. Two teachers in this study, Carmi and Trixie revealed the following details that contradicted their assumptions about teacher orientation.
Trixie: I thought that there would at least be someone, a mentor, a department head who would show me the ropes, lead the way because I'm new and so I don't know what's going on in the school. I don't know anyone. And so it's sink or swim. Scary.

Trixie: I expected that they [administrators] would brief me or give me a picture of what is expected before I went to my classroom as a regular teacher. No, I never received that help. I had to discover things myself. I did not receive the support. I had to do it myself. But because I'm new, I have to learn things, how do I get in touch with them, I don't know. I'm scared because I don't have enough information on the step by step procedure on how to talk to them [administrators]. Before I started at this school, we had an orientation from the district but not from the principal. It involved information on salary, medical benefits, HSTA (teachers' union) but did not include curriculum and topics about the school. They [school staff] just gave me the key to my room and said, "This is for your room, you have to go there now and be responsible for what is inside the classroom."

Urbano reported that he had undergone teacher orientation at his school. This was a positive experience. He related that orientation was conducted collectively for a group of new teachers at his school. The group had the opportunity to tour the school campus and meet other school staff, administrators, department level chairmen, and colleagues. He was also assigned a "buddy" teacher whom he could talk to, peer teach with, and consult whenever he has school-related problems. Urbano felt that this buddy system was very helpful. He is very appreciative of all the support that he continues to receive from
his school in his orientation to the Hawai‘i Department of Education system. Nene and Imelda stated that they were provided some sort of teacher orientation but felt that this [orientation] was not adequate. They felt that they needed more instruction, guidance, and feedback.

Student Behavior

The participants assumed that students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education are respectful of their teachers. The participants believe that the status of a teacher symbolizes prestige and nobility of the profession. They stated that they were surprised with the behavior that they observed of students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. They found their students disrespectful to teachers and to other school staff, many stubborn with discipline problems, and many unmotivated to learn.

Carmi: I was thinking that the kids [ESLL students] are going to be the same, respectful, but I found out that after one or two years, the kids have changed. They’re more local, hardheaded with discipline problems, they basically don’t want to do anything in class. They don’t want to do their homework. I can’t believe these kids don’t want to do anything. It’s like they don’t have ambition anymore. In the Philippines, when teachers say, “Don’t do this,” students will say, “Yes.” But here, they will keep on doing it.

Trixie: What I expected was that students would be respectful. I even cried almost all the time after school because of my expectations that they [students] would treat me like a professional. They don’t even have self-discipline
and self-respect so I have to give them some information as to how they should act in class and how to treat not only me but every individual that they are with. It’s very different compared to my students in my home country because once you enter the room, they all behave. A teacher in the Philippines symbolizes a very, very well respected person.

Imelda: I know that the students here [Hawai‘i] are spoiled. But I thought that at least when they are in the classroom, they are respectful. They are not.

Nene: I saw that the discipline in the classroom was bad. You cannot teach. So I said, “I do not like to teach here in the American setting.” Way back in the school where I taught [in the Philippines], you get the respect, but over here, I don’t like ‘cause there’s no discipline. The kids take over the classes. So my high expectations of the students were not met.

Another assumption common to the participants is their expectation that students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education would be high academic achievers because of the availability of materials, resources, facilities, and qualified teachers. The recurrent theme is that participants were disappointed to learn that many students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education are not only not high academic achievers, they also cannot read at their grade levels.

Carmi: You give them homework and they just come to school, I will ask, “Where is your homework?” Zero, they just take it. I guess that’s the difference. It seems like the kids don’t know how to speak English anymore, can’t read.

Nene: I was expecting that at a second grade level, they already know how to
read, that they know their math. I thought with all the books, they
[students] must really be good. It was not the case. It was a wrong
assumption. Many kids don’t know how to read.

Parents

As cultural liaisons, bilingual teachers play a significant role in parental
involvement in schools. All participants expressed a collective belief that there is a need
for interaction with parents to encourage them to get involve in the educational process.
The participants communicated with parents through letters, phone calls, home visits,
school visitations, class observations, and parent meetings. The participants have
common assumptions about parents of students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.
They assumed parents to be supportive and active participants in their children’s
education. The experiences of Urbano and Imelda support this assumption.

Urbano: Most of my students are Filipinos by lineage and everytime I
communicate with their parents, I talk to them [parents] in Filipino
languages. I feel comfortable working with parents. In fact the Filipino
parents are very supportive. The main reason is that they know that I’m a
Filipino and we can speak and we know each other’s feelings.

Imelda: They are very supportive. They call me at night because I call them. I
would say, “Your daughter is doing good in class.” They respond in
positive ways too.

It is not uncommon for Filipino immigrant teachers to have experiences similar to
those of Urbano and Imelda. Kamhi-Stein et al. (2001) state that non-native English
speaking teachers outside the classrooms “can serve as cultural brokers” (p. 81) and comfortably communicate with parents because of their knowledge of the parents’ native language. The study by Kamhi-Stein et al. reveals that non-native English-speaking teachers agree that their ability to communicate with parents promote more positive parent-teacher rapport.

Nene and Trixie have gone through some challenging situations while trying to communicate with parents, and recognized that they made the wrong assumptions based on these experiences. In spite of their efforts to involve parents, both teachers feel that many parents at their schools are not as supportive and responsive as they should be. Teachers often feel frustrated due to this lack of support from parents. In Nene’s case, some immigrant parents chose to withdraw their children from the ESLL Program due to their [parents] belief that the bilingual teachers teach their children in their native language, not English. This situation may be attributed to the perception, confirmed by Tang’s study (1997), that native English-speaking teachers oftentimes earn more respect than non-native English-speaking teachers because of the assumption that the latter, by communicating in English all the time in the classroom, are better able to provide students with opportunities to learn English.

Nene: Even if you are the teacher, they [parents] don’t look at you as a teacher. Some Filipino parents who are professionals in the Philippines, they belittle the Filipino teachers and those who are in the ESLL Program. So I told the other teachers that if they [parents] don’t like my ESLL services, just write it in a piece of paper.
Trixie: My assumption was that they [parents] are all supporting you. They are not. I met some parents who are very rude and mean because they don’t believe that their kids have attitudes and are acting like that. What I’m telling them is true.

_School Administrators_

There seem to be conflicting views in the literature on school administrators’ support for teachers. The study by Applegate et al. (1977) on the first year teacher study includes findings that administrators provide needed support to its teachers. However, the study of Huling-Austin (1986) indicates that administrators provide minimal support to teachers. Results of the study conducted by Zeichner (1983) suggest that although principals did not provide a significant degree of direct support and assistance, beginning teachers were influenced by principals through technical controls that are fundamental in the teachers work.

Ashton and Webb (1986) state that a dimension in a principal’s role that is most likely related to teacher efficacy is its recognition and support of teachers which in turn related to teachers’ job satisfaction. For Ashton and Webb, an effective principal is someone who communicates high expectations for their teachers as well as for themselves. In looking for events that symbolize organization acceptance, newcomers tend to rely on the evidence shown by the “boss” as the “license or power to accept himself or herself into the organization” (Schein, 1978, p. 113). This is supported by Carmi and Imelda’s comments on their administrators.
Carmi: I thought the VP [Vice-Principal] would, first of all, at least welcome us to the school and tell us everything about the school, what’s going on, how to do things. I didn’t even know that the VP is supposed to be in charge of my program. I never talked to him, he never talked to us, never did anything with us so I really didn’t know he was our administrator.

Imelda: I was offered a half-time teaching position in another school before. Some of my friends said that I have to get out of my school [previous high school served]. But the principal told me not to leave. She told me, “We want you here in special ed. because you are a very good teacher, you can relate well with students.” The VP said, “They [students] do not throw dagger looks at you because you’re small and can relate well with students.”

Based on the participants’ prior experience in teaching in the Philippines, the teachers have common assumptions on administrative leadership. Through classroom visitations as one way of validation and evaluation of teaching competencies, the participants assumed and expected that administrators will conduct sustained observation and provide feedback on their teaching.

Nene: My expectation was that the administrator has the right to go around, go into the classroom to check if everything is running along fine. But it’s not. There’s so much leeway here. You [administrators] can just pass by the lanai [corridor] and that’s it. I think as an administrator you have the right [to enter a classroom] whether you asked permission from the teacher or not. We also have a teachers’ union in the Philippines but they
leave it to the administrators. Over here, everything has to be
"with the permission of," which is good in a way, but not good all the
time.

Other participants in the study chose to remain silent regarding their assumptions
about school administrators. One of the participants said, "I cannot give any comment
because I'm just new and I'm not close to them [administrators].

Colleagues

Van Maanen (1976a) describes peers as interpreters "of the role demands by the
organization who cushion the impact of 'reality shock' accompanying the individual’s
encounter with the organization" (p. 90). Ada (1986) cites the importance of peer
affirmation in schools where a mistaken perception of bilingual instruction as non-
prestigious makes collaboration among teachers a necessity. One of the collegial
conceptions states that the single most common expectation among teachers is that
perhaps colleagues will help one another and extend assistance and advice when needed
(Eddy, 1969; Little, 1990). This conception seems to be the basis for the assumptions
brought by the participants in this study. However, the participants’ experience with
colleagues differed. The participants’ comments imply being uncomfortable and
disappointed during their initial encounters with colleagues at their respective schools.

Trixie: You have to find a way to meet the person that could help you, but in this
school, there is no one that you can ask for support. You cannot expect
that they [colleagues] will come to you. It is hard. I try to choose the right
persons, to get to know them, you have to be observant and also have to be
careful here because you don’t know what they’re going to say and for me not to commit mistakes, and if possible to be a friend to everybody in school. You have to control and know the exact words that you are gonna ask them, that you gonna tell them because you don’t know them.

Imelda: Sometimes, I would suggest something to my lead teacher or to the regular teacher of my ESLL students, they would say “No.” Then I would ask them to share with me some materials that I can use to reinforce their [regular teachers] lessons they would tell me, “Can you just follow in class?” So, I will say “OK.” Some teachers don’t like you to be in their classrooms, “You’re disturbing us,” they would tell me. And when you’re in the classrooms, how can you teach when the regular teacher doesn’t want you to be there? So, I’m just useless.

Carmi: I did intervention with the thinking that the regular teacher and I would team teach but what happened was I was more of a teacher’s aide, checking papers, xeroxing materials, doing all the tasks that a teacher’s aide would do. It’s so demeaning. For a time it was really degrading. I was shocked because in my mind I was thinking, ‘You know what, I am also a professional so I need to be treated like one. I am not a TA [teacher’s assistant], I’m not here to check your papers and xerox your work.’ Teachers don’t talk to you, it’s like I was invisible. And other teachers, what they want you to do was to take out the kids [pull-out model], go wherever you want to go, they don’t care, just leave. And so when I was told to just take out the kids, I didn’t really mind because first, I was a new
teacher, that was not my classroom, I thought that’s the way things are done.

On the other hand, Urbano feels that his peers are providing him with enough support. He credits his success from the support given to him by his peers, especially through peer teaching.

Urbano: I have enough support from the school and from my peers. They are so supportive. There is peer teaching among us that I feel is very helpful for newcomers.

Nene finds her experience with other teachers rewarding. Having worked in four different schools, she finds her colleagues very helpful. For Nene, her colleagues also became her source of strength and social support when she experienced a critical incident that happened when she was teaching in one of the schools.

Nene: The teachers that I’ve worked with were so helpful. They gave suggestions and everything. They [colleagues] would come and visit me, talk stories. They called me on the phone. I realized that they were willing to help because they know the situation. The administrator never listened to their suggestions.

Curriculum and Teaching Materials

It was evident that the teachers entered the Hawai‘i Department of Education with preconceived notions regarding curriculum and resources available to students.

Carmi: In the Philippines, when you start, they give you exactly what you’re
going to teach, the curriculum. Here you make your own curriculum and it’s like do what you want and how do I know if what I’m doing is right? But then nobody was guiding me so like I said I just did the best I could, base on the description of the course.

Nene: When I first entered the system, I said, "Everything is easy here." The curriculum is already done. What I mean is it’s in print. All you do is follow. In the Philippines, we have to prepare everything, the materials, the lesson plan. What you do is get the curriculum guide and develop a lesson out of that, day to day, detailed. I was surprised because when we were in college, we were never told that the lesson plan here in the United States is already printed.

Summary of Assumptions

Most of the participants’ assumptions were formed and influenced by factors such as prior knowledge, experience working as teachers from the Philippines, and their own teacher preparation. Recurrent themes on their assumptions revolved around teacher orientation, student behavior, parents, school administrators, colleagues, and curriculum and teaching materials. These themes coincidentally parallel the institutional socializing factors identified by the 143 respondents in the survey portion of the study.

The assumption that teachers are provided with orientation is typical from anyone entering an organization. Reiterating Horowitz’ (1985) statement that teaching is a culturally conditioned occupation and relies on the inputs of the social environment, the participants’ need for teacher orientation is doubly critical not only because they are new
at their school but also because they come from another culture whose differences and similarities with the new culture have not been established. During their initial entry, the participants looked forward to knowing more about the school as well as the sources of support and information. They did not expect to “learn the ropes” by themselves. The participants’ assumption on teacher induction has changed because of their unmet expectations evident in their various experience.

The participants expressed their awareness of the nature of student behavior in the Hawai‘i Department of Education prior to being hired. However, they were still surprised to find out that their assumptions were well below their perceived reality of student behavior to the point that in dealing with behavior management in the classrooms, they have had to alter their classroom routines and instructional practices. Their assumption regarding student behavior was confirmed upon entry into the Hawai‘i Department of Education although the extent of the effect of student behavior on their teaching was not anticipated.

The participants held uniform assumptions on the attitude and role of parents in the education of their children. They assumed that parents would be supportive and willing to communicate with the schools. For most of the participants, their experiences with respect to their association with parents proved their assumptions that parents of students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education would be supportive. However, two of the participants were disappointed by their challenging experience with parents. Both admitted that they were wrong in making those premature assumptions.

Respect for school administrators is ingrained in Filipino immigrant teachers whether in Philippine schools or in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. For them,
school administrators are symbols of authority, prestige, and nobility. All participants assumed that the power and prestige vested in school administrators are used to promote teacher and student learning through sustained monitoring of school related activities. However, the participants recognized that management style among school administrators in the Hawai‘i Department of Education varies. Upon reflection, the participants realized that it would be difficult to expect the Hawai‘i Department of Education school administrators to function the way school administrators in the Philippine school system do.

Part of being a teacher in the public school system is being able to collaborate and work in harmony with other teachers or colleagues. This strong desire to be “accepted” comes from the participants’ aspirations to learn and adapt to the culture of the schools. Although the participants did not explicitly articulate assumptions about colleagues, a sense of expectations existed in their narratives. Expectations included colleagues’ support, respect, acknowledgment, teaming, collaboration, and acceptance. As expressed in the interview data, the participants’ interactions and non-interactions somehow affect their instructional methods and attitudes about teaching students. Some participants felt that they are “at the mercy of other teachers” since the design of student services requires collaboration between colleagues. Others who happen to work with supportive colleagues earn the benefits of teacher collaboration. It is possible that the failure of colleagues to recognize the adjustment difficulties of Filipino immigrant teachers may have been interpreted as lack of support.

The last common assumption of the participants is the quality and availability of curriculum and teaching materials. The participants assumed that assistance in
understanding the curriculum coverage would be provided to the teachers. The participants also expected that daily lesson plans would be required from them. The participants realized that they made the wrong assumption, and were surprised to learn that “packaged instructional materials” are commonly used in the Hawai‘i Department of Education classrooms. Their amazement was due to the fact that in the Philippines, teachers are expected to develop their own curriculum and instructional materials from curriculum guides required by districts. Nevertheless, there seemed to be mixed reactions from the participants ranging from a feeling of relief believing that their instructional task would be easier to perform, to a feeling of anxiety due to lack of flexibility in creating and improvising lessons according to the level and needs of students. With one exception, all interviewed participants experienced the surprise that Louis (1980) stated would be encountered by newcomers. The contrast between the assumptions and the realities of the new environment was stark, and the effect on the participants often jarring. Clearly, the surprises were more disappointing than pleasant.

Challenges

The Challenge of Accent

Lippi-Green (1997) states that “accent is used to refer to the breakthrough of native language phonology into the target language” (p. 43) when a native speaker of another language speaks English. In the case of Filipino immigrant teachers, it can be said that they have an Ilokano accent or Tagalog accent when the phonologies of those languages affect the teachers’ pronunciation of United States English. According to
Lippi-Green as cited by Amin (2000), “it is not possible for adults to eliminate their accent, and that even if adult immigrants could change their accents, the intersection of race, gender, class, and Third World status would be factors in their continuing disempowerment” (p. 102). For Amin, a marker of being “nonnative” is speaking with an accent that is different from the norm. Amin states that a “native speaker is imagined as having a White accent, one that is associated with Inner Circle countries such as Britain, the U.S.A., and Canada” (p. 93).

Chang (1996) states that accent came out as an issue due to the prevalent perception of school staff and students in the Hawai‘i Department of Education that immigrant Filipino English is substandard. A similar area of concern that came up from the study’s participants is that of being constantly reminded of their accent.

Carmi: I guess for teachers, because we speak with an accent it’s like equating intelligence with the way you speak. If you’re an ESL teacher and you’re a local person or an American, they treat you much better than they do a person who comes from another country like the Philippines or maybe China or ESL teacher from Korea. They give you more attention if you speak the language very well than when you speak it with a marked accent. Like they think that Asian accent is much lower than let’s say European accent.

Nene: I remember the first interview that I had. The principal asked, “Can you say fish?” So I said, “pish.” “But it should be an F,” the principal said. I said, “there is no F in our language.”
It is often seen that the stated provisions required for immigrant teachers have minimal emphasis on the actual requirements of the teaching job. In these cases, emphasis in hiring, employment, and evaluation seemed to revolve around the “acceptable accent” (which is hard to specify) and not on the qualifications and teaching effectiveness of immigrant teachers. Canagarajah (1999) states that many immigrant teachers feel obligated to spend unnecessary effort to fix their pronunciation or execute changes to “sound native” (p. 84) and that the anxiety and inhibitions about their pronunciation may cause them to lose sight of their educational goals as well as their rapport with their students.

Canagarajah (1999) provides several basic linguistic concepts that were developed through research:

We take for granted that all languages and dialects are of equal status; that there are no linguistic reasons for the superiority of one dialect or language over the other; that languages in situations of contact will always undergo modes of indigenization or vernacularization; that language learning is a creative cognitive and social process that has its own trajectory not fully dependent on the teacher (much less the teacher’s accent); that the contextually relevant variants of the language have to be used in different situations; and that language change or diversification cannot be stopped by attempts at purification or standardization. (p. 79)

Imelda: I had a bad experience about accent. When I was in the office of the Hawai‘i Department of Education, someone asked, “How can you become a teacher when you have a bad accent? Are you an English teacher?” So even in my teaching you know, when students laugh at me, I am
embarrassed and angry and I tell them [students], “When a person has an
accent, should you laugh at them?”

Imelda’s experience could be explained by the notion of restricting English
teaching to native English speakers only, the assumption of many that any native English
speaker has the linguistic and communicative competence in English to teach the
language. This stand is not universal as Canagarajah (1999) asserts a linguistic axiom that
“the superiority of dialects is a nonlinguistic issue and that matters of accent and even
pronunciation are surface structure features that do not indicate one’s competence in the
grammatical deep structure of the language” (p. 77). This experience is an extension of
the “birthright mentality” (p. 40) by Walelign (1986) based on the assumption that a non­
native English speaker is not qualified to teach the English language irrespective of the
person’s qualifications and associations with the English language.

Urbano admitted that he was very concerned at first that his students would have
difficulty understanding him because English is his second language. Through the years
of living in Hawai‘i, he now feels that he had acquired the proficiency level where he can
communicate with anybody in English. Urbano stresses views similar to the findings of
Amin’s (2001) study, which suggest that English could be learned. Urbano is aware that
teachers can effectively manage their teaching from the standpoint of being non-native
English speakers. The number of years that Urbano has spent learning and using the
English language in the Philippines allows him to empathize with his students who are
second language learner themselves.
Teacher Certification

Unlike Carmi and Nene who have earned their teaching certification from the Hawai‘i Department of Education, Urbano, Trixie, and Imelda are still in the process of preparing themselves to take the all important, gateway teachers’ examination, the PRAXIS Test. They, like all the Hawai‘i Department of Education teacher applicants, are required to take and pass the PRAXIS Pre-Professional Skills Test (PPST), a measure of basic proficiency in mathematics, reading, and writing. The Hawai‘i Teachers Standards Board requirements for a teaching credential or license include successful passing of the following PRAXIS assessments: (a) PRAXIS 1 or the Pre-Professional Skills Tests (PPST) in reading, writing, mathematics, and the Principles of Learning and Teaching (PLT) for Kindergarten to six grades and seventh to twelfth grades applicants for the required teaching field; and (b) PRAXIS 2 or the Content Area Tests for Kindergarten to sixth grades applicants and education major for secondary education applicants (Department of Education Office of Human Resources and Personnel Services, 2002). Understandably, Urbano, Trixie, and Imelda are fully preoccupied with the quest to pass the PRAXIS. For Imelda, passing the PRAXIS means qualifying for a full-time teaching position in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. For Urbano and Trixie, passing the PRAXIS would allow them to maintain and eventually earn tenure in their present full-time positions.

Urbano: I’m planning to stay put in the DOE but my main problem is passing the PRAXIS. I have to pass my PRAXIS so at least I can sleep soundly during the night. There are review classes conducted by the DOE but the only thing is that you see, we really need time to do this [review]. We have to
Imelda: My challenge is the PRAXIS. I think I need to go back to school to refresh myself. They [Hawai‘i Department of Education] told me that if I want to have a good job, I have to pass the PRAXIS.

Trixie: I have to pass the test in order to be licensed, to be a long-term employee of the DOE. You have to equip yourself, study to prepare for the test. I only need two points in one area and three points in another area to pass. But that’s my first time to take the test.

Summary of Challenges

Participants considered two challenges paramount: accent and teacher certification. Their accent acted as a persistent, conspicuous barrier to acceptance by administrators, fellow teachers, students, and parents. To the participants, their accent set them apart from the rest, subjecting them to ridicule and constituting an assault to their self-esteem. Teacher certification was the sword that constantly hovered over their heads. The teachers preoccupied themselves with preparing for the tests, acutely aware that failure to pass would seriously set back their professional and economic future. The participants’ concern regarding certification is supported by Dilworth’s (1990) notion that testing requirements for entry and certification for teaching presents a great challenge to minority teachers.
Coping Strategies

Coping with Isolation and Alienation

The participants discussed several ways of coping with perceived alienation and isolation. It took Carmi seven years in her present school to comfortably say that she belonged to a group. She took it upon herself to establish friendships with colleagues and clerical staff at her school through potlucks, sharing of food and things that she cooks or brings from her trips. She admits that she belongs to a certain clique at the school whose members are close to the administrators.

Carmi: We get the good things, get to know what’s going on, or if there’s something out there like extra supplies, we get to know it first. So that’s good. Bad side to it is if you get on their [clique] bad side then you’re like trash. So I try to stay in the middle. I make comments that are neutral.

Just like Carmi, Trixie and Imelda try their best to befriend and collaborate with other school staff members.

Trixie: I started greeting them and calling them on my room phone to make friends and plan on what we can do in the classrooms as teachers. When they ask me to be involved, I get involved, when they ask me to participate, I participate.

Imelda: Before, I kept things to myself because I’m very careful that I might be misquoted. I prayed and I only told my problems to the right persons because that might boomerang on me, you know. But I documented. I learned to document everything that happens. But then, I try to befriend
them [school staff] and make them feel important.

Nene admits that she is not bothered by school alienation while Urbano tries to live with school staff’s expectations.

Nene: There are teachers who won’t even greet you or give you a smile, but it doesn’t bother me.

Urbano: I see to it that I live up to the expectations that were given to me as a special education teacher. I have to ask help from the people around me and probably help from the district.

Coping with Instructional and Supplemental Needs

The participants have to deal with their own instructional needs besides their need to pass the teachers’ certification requirements. Although the participants admitted their concerns and feelings of anxiety about teaching in the Hawai’i Department of Education, they try to cope with the challenge by being positive, resourceful, and creative.

Carmi: We hardly get anything. If we wanted paper, it’s like begging for paper, begging for books, most of the time, because there is no budget and I didn’t know where to go. I just buy my own. I just use my own money because it is so embarrassing to ask.

Trixie: Last year I taught three content areas. I had a lot of preparation because I had six sections [classes]. I cannot focus my attention on the lesson of a particular subject [content area] because there are students who come Monday, Wednesday then off on Thursday and they come back again on Friday and there are those who will start Monday and Wednesday so the
subject areas are not the same. There are some students who are advanced and some behind. So, I am so confused and thought, ‘what is this now?’ because we have different periods every other day. I have to study late at night and wake up early again. To cope, I have to use Saturdays and Sundays to prepare the lessons for the following week. I have to study, no more time for the family.

Imelda: I go to the library to borrow books and read. And I don’t think of anything else but how to be a good teacher. I also go to the principal and explain how we can do things, talk to the teachers. I always go to the right people to help me out so they know what I’m doing, not just hearsay. I already graduated from that fear. Before, I was scared when they [administrators] called me to the office.

Urbano: If you come from a third world country, computer is something new to you. I have been so ignorant and even afraid to touch the computer and now it’s becoming a part of my life. I’m trying my best to learn how the other teachers are using the computer especially in using the ISPED (Integrated Special Education Database), inputting information in the ISPED little by little. I’m learning it already. I like it.

Summary of Coping Strategies

The participants related various ways of coping with isolation, alienation, and unusual instructional and supplemental needs. They employed a variety of strategies for dealing with isolation and alienation, ranging from collaborating, participating, or
avoiding. The participants also tend to cope with and solve their concerns on their own. Other participants solicit assistance from others when they feel that colleagues or administrators at their schools are not motivated to provide help. One situation was when Carmi asked an ESLL teacher from another school to "lend" her the copy of the ESL curriculum. Another situation was when Imelda sought the assistance of her school librarian for some materials when she sensed that her colleagues were not too cooperative. One participant adopted a middle-of-the-road stance. But most were always wary, always documenting their experiences. Participants also learned to cope with shortages in materials and supplies in positive, resourceful, and creative ways. Participants dealt with learning computer usage, rolling schedules, and teaching students of different educational abilities by burning the midnight and weekend oil. The coping strategies that the participants adopted seem to depend on their specific situations. Their adaptive mechanisms consider the culture of the schools, the status of their teaching position or employment, their perceptions as teachers, and their comfort level. These considerations contributed to each participant's chosen coping strategies. They occasionally refer to prior teaching experience in the Philippines to cope with challenges. This reference to prior experience supports Horowitz' (1985) statement that modes of behavior acquired from the country of origin of immigrant teachers affect the pattern of their acculturation in the new cultural environment.
The participants regard their teaching jobs seriously. Most of the concerns that they expressed about the students may be considered as reflections of their own experience as second language learners and as immigrants in the United States. Transcripts of interviews reveal the participants' advocacy role and common positive influences in their students' lives. The participants project a caring attitude towards their students. They tend to relate to their students in personal ways, being more humanistic than custodial. Their teaching modifications allow for empathy and accommodation of their students' needs. Supporting these demonstrated concerns is the study by Montero-Sieburth and Perez (1987) suggesting that immigrant teachers' role are considerably enlarged beyond that of regular teachers because immigrant teachers have to “buttress, in the midst of lowered morale, the students' self-worth – a factor that generally calls for reinforcement of continuity with their past” (p. 183). Related to this notion is the statement by Dilworth (1990) indicating that due to immigrant teachers' ability to know and communicate in more than one culture, they can innovate methods and curricula that can help increase the academic achievement of the diverse student population.

Carmi: I feel bad for the kids because they’re being labeled erroneously. When they [teachers] gave me the paper to fill-out [referral form for special education], I wrote, ‘This kid is acting this way because he does not understand what is going on, he’s been here [in the U.S.] for only a few months.’ They’re thinking that ESLL students are retarded just because they don’t know how to speak regular English.
Nene: One time I had a student in the ESLL Program who refused to receive ESLL services. So I said, “We just want to make sure that you are ready to enter a regular class so you will not suffer, so no one will belittle you.”

Trixie: I have a mixture of students in my class, there are misbehaviors and there are good students. I see to it that all of them are able to learn equally, even those who are misbehaving.

Urbano: I’m dealing with children with special needs. We have to understand the capacity of the child and be sure that they learn the skills. I see to it that my classroom is arranged in a way that there is structured learning among the students.

Imelda: One time an EA was so angry at me because I tried to modify the lessons for a child. So the VP called the teachers of this girl because I had to go and tell the VP what’s happening. Up to now these teachers are not in speaking terms with me but I still greet them ‘Hi, hello, good morning.’

Summary of Commitment to Students

The participants expressed their commitment to their students through statements that reflect a mixture of protective concern, defiant pride and confident determination. In their desire to help students, some participants encounter problems in their relationships with other teachers, parents, and office staff. One example was when Imelda and Carmi experienced their colleagues’ unwelcoming reaction to their presence during classroom team teaching. Another was Nene’s sentiments on students’ inappropriate placement in programs that do not benefit the students, Imelda’s initiative to collaborate with an
educational assistant at her present school created conflict between the two of them, and when Trixie’s good faith effort to reach-out to parents resulted in frustration and disappointments.

This section, brief as the statements may be, embodies the essence of the substance that guides these teachers through the exhausting and frustrating journey of socialization: a firm and unwavering commitment to the education of their students.

**Professional Commitment**

Chapman and Lowther’s (1982) study reveals that teachers’ commitment is an important factor in their staying in the profession. Coladarci (1992) also states that commitment is the extent of psychological attachment to the teaching profession. Several studies suggest the positive correlation between commitment with job satisfaction (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Porter et al., 1974).

**Desire to Remain in the Hawai‘i Department of Education**

Schein (1978) states that although implicit, the employee’s decision to remain in the organization is a sign that the employee agrees to accept the organization and its employment terms. The determination to remain in the Hawai‘i Department of Education can then be deduced from the teachers’ efforts to pass the teachers’ examination as in the cases of Trixie, Urbano, and Imelda, and from the positive comments and reflections of Carmi, Nene, and Imelda.
Urbano: I only pray that I will be lucky to pass the PRAXIS so I will be able to work with the DOE. I told my principal that I am a person who could adjust to things and if they need my service, I will be open to any. I'm not going to choose jobs [tasks] as long as I'm doing this for the school.

Imelda: I expected to be trained again because the DOE is really a good department. That's what the DOE wants - good, trained, qualified teachers.

Trixie: We have standards to follow. We have to implement the HCPS (Hawai‘i Content and Performance Standards) and have to align the subject matter with the content and make a lot of preparations.

Nene: I like it here. There are so many good teachers.

*High Level of Motivation*

From the anecdotes related by the participants, it could be seen that they devote long hours in preparing for their lessons, providing instructions to students, communicating with parents, and life-long learning activities to enhance their skills. Other evidence includes the teachers’ devotion to student learning through a sense of volunteerism.

Trixie: I have to be equipped for the everyday tasks of being a teacher because you cannot just go to school without any preparation. I conduct tutoring sessions after school so that the students will not be left behind.

Imelda: Teachers at my school often tell me, “Oh, you work twenty hours and three-fourths.” That’s how they refer to me because even if I should only
work for three hours, I go beyond. When kids come to me, "Mrs. Imelda, I need this." I don’t say, ‘I have to go home now.’ I stay till two thirty or until the child learns and understands the lesson. I am at school at seven o’clock in the morning when their [students] school bus arrives.

Nene: The paperwork, we have to do that. I have to do it in my house because we don’t have time to do it in school.

Carmi: I never realized there’s so much work to do. I’m here before seven and go home at five every day, five days a week ‘cause there’s so much work.

Urbano: I have a set of schedule for every student so I can train them in a systematic way, very orderly transition. I tell them ahead of time so they will be aware of what is expected of them. I have to understand the capacity of the child. I want to be sure that they learn the skills. What is important is how they socialize in the community like how to behave in public, how to act in front of people, how to manage themselves.

**Satisfaction**

Fresko et al. (1997) refers to intrinsic satisfaction as the “individually determined task-related rewards and is related to feelings of competence, self-determination, and self-fulfillment” (p. 431). Teaching is regarded as a profession of service and intrinsic rewards. These can be viewed in the perceptions and experiences of the participants when they find satisfaction in student achievement and validation of their competencies.

Urbano: We’re dealing with children with special needs. And that’s the main thing, giving service and see to it that we meet their needs. That is really
satisfying for me. I'm happy, I could go home at the end of the afternoon and feel happy.

Carmi: My kids are still very respectful. But some of them can be really bad. And they have their spurts of disrespect. They know that they couldn't get away with it with me. They try you know, but they're checked right there.

Imelda: I do not want to be defeated when it comes to vocabulary. We [Filipino immigrant teachers] are good in vocabulary. I'm happy that we have an “A” student and we have three honor students from my ESLL class at my school.

Nene: Whenever the regular teachers attend training, we [ESLL teachers] take over. Those kids [with behavior problems], I am able to manage them. It just that it takes so much on the part of the teacher.

Trixie’s way of counseling her students is an example of Foster’s (1991) statement that suggests that teachers’ interactions with students extend beyond the classroom and Blasé’s (1985) notion of the humanization process, or the attitudinal and behavioral changes in teachers that result from teacher’s interactions with students as people. Blasé states that intense reciprocal interactions with students provide teachers with knowledge about students’ problems, fears, insecurities, and deficiencies. The process involves growth of empathy, tolerance, and commitment on the part of the teacher to “actively pursue” (p. 237) three major outcomes: (a) relational, which is associated with friendly relations; (b) moral, which is the teaching of basic values (e.g., respect) and controversial values (e.g., related to poverty, racism, sex); and (c) counseling, which is assisting students with personal problems.
Trixie: Many of my students share with me their problems. I see to it that when these students come to me and share their problems, I encourage them and tell them that education is a way to move out of poverty. You have to be firm and carry on your task as a teacher because they [students] need direction.

Summary of Professional Commitment

Intertwined and almost indistinguishable from their drive to provide the best education for their students, the participants' professional commitment was clearly evident in their avowed goal of passing the PRAXIS tests, of the unsolicited statement of job loyalty, and their expressed belief in the soundness of the Hawai'i Department of Education actions. The participants indirectly offered further proof of their professional commitment when they related the long, extra unpaid hours that they spent endeavoring to help their students and the deep feelings of satisfaction that they felt over their wards' achievements.

Hawai‘i Department of Education Support for Professional Empowerment

Learning how to perform their teaching jobs and learning to clarify their roles as teachers are two of the tasks facing the participants. Results of the study conducted by Morrison (1993) on the effects of information seeking by newcomers in organizations reveal that "task mastery is related to the frequency with which newcomers sought technical information" (p. 178). Other findings of the same study indicate that
information received have an effect on both the mastery of the tasks as well as role clarity. Supporting Morrison’s belief that socialization not only involves organizational initiatives but also a process that includes members’ initiatives, the participants have adopted a proactive stance in their own professional development. The participants of the study expressed their need to acquire additional teaching skills, as well as their awareness of some discrepancies between their teacher training in the Philippines and in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The participants, in their desire to learn how to empower themselves, dutifully attend university level classes at their own expense as well as courses offered by the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Their attitude and belief system regarding professional development and teachers as life-long learners were articulated during the interviews. The interview data also revealed the participants’ high regard for the training that they currently receive from the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Trixie: I earned PD [professional development] credits and right now I’m working with my adviser to attend a 3-credit new teachers’ seminar. That will guide me and provide me with better direction on how to handle difficult students because they are very different from my students in my home country [Philippines].

Urbano: If there would be chances to upgrade myself and I need the course in line with my work with the DOE, I don’t hesitate to attend. I don’t mind about the training because any problem that might arise in the profession, I will not be afraid to adopt changes and I could learn as much as the others.

Imelda: I earned 27 credits, no 30 credits. I’m not counting anymore. When I listen to people during workshops, I trust them and jot down notes. I’m growing
because people make me grow. I had very good teachers from UH [University of Hawai‘i Continuing Education]. That gave me the pep because I’m like a sponge that absorbs as much as I can. The workshops are free. Why not take something that is free and at the same time worthwhile for my well-being. These workshops from the DOE are very helpful.

Carmi: I took classes in ESL through UH College of Continuing Education and LCC [Leeward Community College]. I am currently with UH for Masters in ESL.

Nene: I went to UH [University of Hawai‘i]. I had to fulfill the requirements. I can see the need because we [teachers] don’t know some things, the Philippines is so different from here. So when they [Hawai‘i Department of Education] offered the courses, I went. It helped, you know, it opened my eyes. Wherever you go to the system, to the Hawai‘i Department of Education, you have to require them [teachers] to attend the training. You don’t just attend because you were persuaded by your friends. You’ve got to know your strengths and liabilities. These [DOE-sponsored] training, teachers don’t have to pay that much money. I am thankful I was able to get credits because of that. I tell the other teachers that if they want to be teachers, they have to be willing to spend money to further their training.
Summary of the Hawai‘i Department of Education Support for Professional Empowerment

The participants showed that they have a clear idea of what their job entails, and what is involved in learning how to perform their job. Despite repeated references in previous sections to their Philippine experiences, the teachers indicated their acceptance of the realities of teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Finally, they accepted responsibility for their own personal development and the importance of personal initiative, while gratefully acknowledging the generosity of the Hawai‘i Department of Education and their administrators. The initiatives demonstrated by the participants support Lacey’s (1977) conclusion that socialization is interactive because the individual and the inducting institution are both actively involve in the process.

Conclusion

The analysis of the participants’ experience and diverse perceptions should not be regarded as judgments or criticisms but rather an effort to understand the complexity of the Filipino immigrant teachers’ cultural, professional, and personal adaptation in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Some elements that participants meant to convey during the interviews may have been lost in the process of analysis. In spite of this unavoidable contraction, these case studies provide insights into the perceptions, growth, and acculturation of Filipino immigrant teachers, and the influence of institutional variables on their own professional socialization.
The participants' thoughtful and reflective teaching as well as their respect for the teaching profession conforms to the notion of Goodman (as cited by Kuzmic 1994) of an empowered teacher:

Empowered teachers carefully consider the content of what is taught to children, are active in developing original curriculum based upon their own and/or their pupils' interests, and are able to creatively use materials, personal talents, and innovative resources in planning and implementing learning activities. In particular, these individuals are committed to providing thoughtful and challenging educational experiences for children; thereby, encouraging their pupils to become empowered themselves. (p. 2)
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, CONCLUSIONS

The first part of this final chapter includes the review of the purpose of the study, problem statement, research design, and results of the study. Implications of the results, recommendations, suggestions for future research on the subject of socialization of immigrant teachers to the Hawai‘i Department of Education school system comprise the second part of the final chapter.

The teachers’ narratives deepen our understanding of the influence of the Filipino immigrant teachers’ biographical experiences on their development as professionals. This focus on their perspective as teachers in the United States public school system adds to an overlooked area of literature, that concerning the immigrant teacher. It is my hope that results of this study will provide a better understanding and acknowledgment of the presence of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education as significant contributors to the teaching profession in the State of Hawai‘i public education system.

This study broadens understanding of immigrant teacher employment in the Hawai‘i Department of Education by considering how a group of immigrant teachers from the Philippines perceive their relationship with students, school administrators, parents, colleagues, and other Hawai‘i Department of Education personnel. The manner by which they describe or interpret relevant aspects of their socialization, including commitment and professional and personal empowerment, also provides additional insightful clues. The study points to a very strong commitment on the part of Filipino
immigrant teachers to student learning. This commitment spurs the teachers to improve themselves professionally, making every effort to overcome the barriers and constraints that they encounter at work. Thus, while they enhance their teaching expertise, the teachers may also advance their socialization into the organization. Examining this connection may therefore provide information that would help develop effective policies on recruitment, training, and retention of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

This study was designed to describe and document the professional and organizational socialization processes of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The institutional variables affecting the teachers' socialization, teachers' assumptions, and recurring themes from the participants' narratives were described and analyzed utilizing the theoretical and conceptual framework of teacher socialization, theories of socialization, research on teacher socialization, and research and literature on immigrant teacher socialization. Results of the study were based on the following questions:

1. What are the institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

2. What have been the socialization experiences of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education?

3. What assumptions about teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education did Filipino immigrant teachers hold prior to their initial teaching assignment in the school system?

4. Did these assumptions change over time, and if so, what were these changes?
5. What factors helped shape these changes?

A questionnaire survey was used to investigate the institutional factors affecting the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Interviews were conducted to investigate the assumptions that participants formed following their initial employment in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Documents in the form of memoranda, official letters, and records of teacher credentials were reviewed to verify, clarify, and to support the responses of the participants. These varied sources of evidence allowed for the identification and ranking of institutional socialization factors and the exploration and examination of Filipino immigrant teachers’ assumptions and socialization experience in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Limitations of the Study

It was not the intention of this researcher to generalize the findings of the study. Generalizability of the study should appropriately be limited to the interpretation of events, based on the patterns and themes that emerged from the data collection and analyses. It should also be noted that the participants in this study all work in the Hawai‘i Department of Education and do not represent other Filipino immigrant teachers teaching in private schools or higher education institutions in Hawai‘i, or other school systems in the United States. Furthermore, although most Filipino immigrants share certain values and traditions, it should be pointed out that Filipino immigrants come from different regions of the Philippines with cultural characteristics distinct from those of others. Other educational and professional experiences, skills, competencies, attitudes and beliefs that
may also be considered influential in teacher socialization may not be within the
parameters of this study. Therefore, the participants and procedure of the study cannot
support generalization of the results of the study to a larger group of Filipino immigrant
teachers in the State of Hawai‘i.

Salient Findings

Results obtained from the study indicated the following:

1. Commitment to student learning is the most powerful variable influencing the
socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i public school
system.

2. Teaching experience in the Philippines prior to coming to Hawai‘i, and
teaching experience in Hawai‘i public school system do not appear to strongly
affect the socialization process of Filipino immigrant teachers.

3. All participants experience the socialization process, regardless of prior
experience, age or academic preparation, although the process may proceed at
a different pace or degree for each individual.

4. Filipino immigrant teachers held several assumptions about teaching prior to
starting work in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. These concern student
behavior, teacher orientation, parents, school administrators, colleagues, and
curriculum and teaching materials.
Discussion

The findings of the study indicate that a number of institutional variables affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai'i Department of Education. These variables might best be considered using Hess' (1977) general model of socialization described earlier. Hess identified seven conceptual elements that characterize socialization:

1. An environmental structure which can either be political, social, educational, and religious institutions.
2. A body of beliefs, attitudes, values, skills, laws, rules, and customs that are included in the operation of institutional systems.
3. Designated agents that are both institutional and individual.
4. Objects of socialization that are considered initiates into the institution.
5. A process of teaching and learning where norms, beliefs, values, etc. are transmitted by socializing agents.
6. A behavioral outcome in the form of expressed attitudes and acceptance of norms and conformity with the values of the institutions.
7. System-sustaining behavior including the support of the goals of the system and attempts to convince others to accept its norms.

These elements will be applied to describe the socialization process of a group of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai'i Department of Education which in this case, is the object of socialization.
Environmental Structure

The Hawai‘i Department of Education in this study is the environmental structure element of the socialization process. Founded in the 19th century during the Hawaiian monarchy, the Hawai‘i Department of Education is considered as the only single statewide public school district in the nation today. The Hawai‘i Department of Education is the tenth largest school system in the nation employing a total of 21,220 professional and non-teaching support staff. Approximately 13,000 of these are teachers.

The Hawai‘i Teachers Standards Board authorizes the public school teacher certification standards. This procedure was prompted by the legislature’s attempts to collaborate with efforts at the national level to establish standards for evaluating teacher qualification for employment (Department of Education Administrative Rules, 2003).

The organizational structure of the Hawai‘i Department of Education and the schools affect the socialization of the participants of the study in various ways. This influence manifests through bureaucratic regulations and controls and takes the form of teacher evaluation, curriculum materials, instructional settings, teacher certification and examination, teacher recruitment and retention, and teacher induction. The participants validate the impact of the organizational structure on their socialization processes in the recurrent themes touching on these elements that they expressed in their interview narratives. The participants react positively to these demands of the organizational structure: they endeavor to comply. The reason for this response appears to be multifactorial, and is explained in the discussion of the next element that follows.
Body of Beliefs, Attitudes, Values, Skills, Laws, Rules, and Customs

The study findings indicate that the most significant factor that influences the participants' socialization is their commitment to student learning. This commitment can be viewed in terms of their own identities, beliefs, culture, values, and the social realities included in their own socialization. Concerns expressed by the participants regarding students may reflect their own concerns about themselves as second language learners, as individuals undergoing the same process of acculturation, and as teachers in an environment where their services and presence are mistakenly devalued because of their accent and foreign education. A feeling of exclusion still exists among the participants even as they make efforts to assimilate and share the views, behavior, and norms of the majority. However, the outlook for their socialization is promising, as the participants are guided by deeply held, interrelated beliefs and convictions: a moral commitment to teaching, advocacy for students and student learning, nobility of teaching, and respect for authority. This element also may account for the facility with which they comply with the demands of the organizational structure.

A surprising finding related to the effect of pre-existing skills or prior experience of teachers on their socialization was encountered in the process of analyzing these particular factors. The study indicated that those with no teaching experience in the Philippines had a relatively easier socialization process than those who had one to two years' experience. Those with three or more years' teaching experience reported the expected degree of socialization. It could be inferred that the teachers with no teaching experience were initiated into the Hawai'i Department of Education unfettered by preconceived notions of socialization processes. On the other hand, those with one to two
years' experience had probably undergone an incomplete process, with resultant notions about organization that may have been inappropriate, or that were in conflict with realities at the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The difficulties they indicated in the survey could be explained in this way. Finally, it could be said that those who had more than three years' teaching experience most likely had undergone a socialization process that equipped them with adaptive mechanisms adequate for coping with new, but similar environmental structures.

Designated Agents

It can be inferred from the study that assistance from agents of socialization is crucial to the adjustment of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Social support is associated with adjustment outcomes in socialization.

Support from colleagues and administrators is said to be positively related to the individual’s job performance, satisfaction, and commitment and negatively related to employee’s turnover and intentions to leave the organization and profession (Fisher, 1985). This element appears to be one of concern for the participants. Only two of the five participants interviewed felt a significant degree of school administrators’ support while the rest provided very minimal evidence of administrators’ support. The survey respondents ranked administrative support next to lowest of eight socialization variables. Similarly, some of the participants interviewed felt that one of the barriers in their socialization is the antagonistic relationship that they have with their colleagues. Survey respondents ranked collegial support fifth of eight factors. Teacher induction, which is traditionally conducted formally by school administrators and informally by colleagues,
was the variable ranked in the survey as the lowest contributor to participants' socialization. Interview results suggest similar findings. Schools generally offered little induction activity for new teachers. As they reported in their survey responses and interviews, the participants of the study feel that they were only minimally provided with a clear view of what was expected of them as teachers when they first assumed their present teaching positions.

Despite initially experiencing collegial exclusion from their own respective schools, they sought support from other Filipino immigrant teachers and colleagues from other schools. Evidence of these efforts could be viewed from the relationships that they tried to establish with colleagues and peer groups as their way of "fitting" into a group. This process of socially locating themselves to a reference group, which in this case was made up of colleagues and administrators from their respective schools, can be considered as their way of establishing their spatial location or their identities in the view of their colleagues and school administrators. Van Maanen (1977a) refers to this as individual's social map or determination of individual's standing in reference to the objects, events, relationships, and types of people that they encounter. These maps serve as their guides in creating connections and linkage among the characteristics of the environment.

The participants of the study recognize the value of parent involvement in the educational process. To these teachers, parents are crucial partners in the education of their children, with much of the students' success dependent on their parents' support. And as part of their cultural beliefs and shaped by the values inculcated in the teaching profession, the teachers vest their emotions towards establishing this vital interaction with
the parents. That the participants recognize and appreciate the important role of the parents is reflected in their high ranking for parent and student support among the socialization variables.

Teachers ranked commitment to student learning highest among the socialization variables in the study. Results of this study therefore support the notion of Lortie (1975) that students are the main source of psychic rewards of teachers and significant influence in teachers’ socialization. The influence of students as socializing agents for the participants is evident in the participants’ sensitivity to the needs of the students, their engagement in advocacy roles with respect to immigrant students, and their inclination to validate their instructional efforts with their students’ academic and behavioral outcomes. Thus, student achievement under their tutelage presents as an intrinsic reward that reinforces professional and personal efficacy, commitment to student learning of the teachers. Ongoing advocacy for immigrant students, with parental interaction, leads to growth of parental and support for the teachers. And finally, successful outcomes in these pursuits help establish a positive feeling of workplace commitment.

Objects of Socialization

The age range and experience of the bulk of immigrant teachers is another adventitious finding, 51 to 60 years old, with 10 years teaching experience prior to coming to Hawai‘i, and another 10 years of teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education at the time of the study. All of these teachers had at least a baccalaureate degree, and almost a third had master’s degrees. This is a highly educated profile with a large amount of teaching experience.
The participants in the study appear to adopt an active role in their own socialization by venturing into various ways of improving relationships with administrators and colleagues as well as ways of upgrading themselves professionally. Participants manifest their acceptance of the values of the Hawai‘i Department of Education and their compliance with its required regulations through conformity and adjustment.

Process of Teaching and Learning

Comments from the participants’ interviews imply that some aspects of prior teaching experience in the Philippines conflict with their teaching experience in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. One deduction from this belief is the notion of contrast by Louis (1980). Louis states that there is no newcomer passage ritual that can eradicate all the imprints of the old role. Individuals then take it upon themselves to transform and make the changes to adapt to the new role. Memories of experiences of the old roles may be brought up during the adoption of the new role. These are evident in the participants’ assumptions on student behavior, curriculum and instructional materials, classroom management, and teacher orientation, evaluation, and supervision. However, it is equally clear that the participants continuously make good faith efforts in learning and adapting new skills necessary to perform their role as teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education even as they try to incorporate aspects of the previous role into the new one. These efforts are guided by their high expectations of the teaching profession, development of professional and personal efficacy in performing the task of teaching, and the enhancement of their individual beliefs in the role of teachers. The process of
teaching and learning as a shared responsibility is apparent between the study participants and the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Behavioral Outcomes and System–Sustaining Behavior

The participants convey their conformity to, and acceptance of, the realities in teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education with their proactive stance and high regard for the professional training that the Hawai‘i Department of Education regularly conducts. This demeanor can be regarded as evidence of support and commitment to the goals of the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Another demonstration of the participants’ faith and promotion of the goals and visions of the Hawai‘i Department of Education can be seen in their common shared belief that teachers in general should continuously upgrade themselves professionally regardless of availability of support from the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Related to this demonstrated belief in the Hawai‘i Department of Education system is the establishment by the participants of their temporal framework for their teaching career. There is a strong sense of motivation among the participants to complete and pass the Hawai‘i Department of Education requirements for teachers, a conscious move to build and create expectations on the possibility of a prolonged teaching career in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Temporal framework or social time according to Van Maanen (1977a) is the attainment of benchmarks or milestones in chronological manner. For the participants, these can be the passing of the required PRAXIS, the selection for teaching positions, and eventually the attainment of tenure in teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.
The five participants employ the social strategies proposed by Lacey (1977) to face the challenges of institutional constraints. Internalized adjustment as the dominant social strategy is manifested in their willingness to comply with the hiring and recruitment policies of the Hawai‘i Department of Education and their continued loyalty, belief, and support to the visions of the organization. The participants employ strategic compliance when they respond against the constraints demonstrated by their colleagues and acted according to the demands of the situations while retaining their underlying beliefs. The strategy of strategic redefinitions is seen in the participants’ attempts to modify instructions, parental communication, and teaching preparation.

The participants in the study assume a proactive role in their own socialization. They respond to institutional constraints by actively sustaining their professional development and positively asserting their role as teachers to students. Their commitment to student learning motivates them to transform their own initial assumptions and redefine their relationships and teaching strategies with students.

**Degree of Socialization Achieved by the Participants**

As discussed in Chapter IV, overall level of socialization appeared to be high, although all teacher subgroups scored low in Teacher Induction, Peer Support and Acceptance, and Performance Expectations, Evaluation and Feedback. In general, however, socialization was not affected by demographic factors such as prior teaching experience in the Philippines or in the Hawai‘i public school system.
Assumptions about Teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education

The five participants interviewed identified several assumptions about teaching that they held based on their prior teaching experience in the Philippines. The first and most basic assumption that each of the five participants discussed concerns that of the basic nature of students. For each of the teachers, students are typically respectful, obedient, and well behaved. Their initial years with the Hawai‘i Department of Education, however, brought to the participants the jarring reality that Hawai‘i Department of Education students were not like this at all. They realized that many students in the Hawai‘i schools they taught in have behavioral problems, that many cannot read and do math at their grade levels.

The immigrant teachers’ next assumption was that being new to the Hawai‘i Department of Education, they would be mentored and provided with orientation. The reality was that the orientation process was the exception, not the rule. Only one of the five interviewees underwent a complete orientation; the rest had little to none.

The third assumption was that parents would be supportive, in general. What they encountered was a mix of parents who could be described as supportive, unsupportive, trusting, and skeptical.

The teachers expected welcoming and supportive administrators. Again, they experienced various shades of administrator responses to their presence. Some were supportive, others unwelcoming. Many administrators did not provide sustained recognition, observation, feedback, and evaluation. There were a few administrators who did give praise and appreciation for their work.
Colleagues gave similarly mixed responses, contrary to the teachers' expectations that their colleagues would be uniformly supportive. Some openly declined to team with them, although others did join them in a buddy system.

The last assumption that the teachers held regarding teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education was that teachers had responsibility for developing daily lesson plans based on curriculum guidelines. What they discovered was that many Hawai‘i Department of Education teachers from the interviewees’ respective schools used prepackaged, commercially developed curriculum guides which contained daily lessons for the entire school year.

Filipino immigrant teachers, therefore, came to Hawai‘i with a host of expectations about teaching that did not match the reality of teaching in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The differences were not due to any party’s fault. These appeared to be merely a reflection of the differences in two cultures, as expressed through their respective educational systems. Although the differences appeared to be difficult to accept, the teachers indicated at various points of their interview that over time, they had come to accept them as their present reality, in the same imperceptible way that they most likely had come to absorb their adopted country’s unique customs and mores.

Implications

This study has significant implications on the socialization of this population of Filipino immigrant teachers as well as for the need to develop programs and policies by
the Hawai‘i Department of Education in the recruitment, training, retention, and placement of these teachers.

The first implication that could be derived from the findings is that socialization for this population is unaffected by role group status. The results suggest that socialization progresses to the same degree regardless of whether the teacher works full, half or part-time. The literature on socialization appears to be silent on this issue, and this may very well be a new finding in this subject area. However, if true, this has implications for future research, especially if generalizability can be established. In that case, studies on socialization, for reasons of economy, may be limited to only one of the three role groups, assured that the findings could be applied to the entire target population of immigrant teachers.

Socialization is an ongoing process, one that occurs throughout one’s career, not merely at the beginning. Teachers who had prior teaching experience in the Philippines exhibited the same level of socialization as those who started teaching here. This finding supports Adkins (1995), Schein (1971), and Caplow (1964) who postulated that socialization may be viewed as “continuous, since behaviors appropriate to an organizational position are not acquired once and for all when the position is assumed but are learned and relearned throughout the length of a career” (p.169). Some of the participants’ responses may actually represent what Adkins termed resocialization. Adkins recognized the process inherent in adjusting to a new job from a prior one and noted that for many workers, organizational socialization is actually a process of resocialization. To obtain a clearer picture of socialization in a given organization, future researchers may have to design methods that control for prior socialization.
The findings of this study imply that socialization of this group of immigrant teachers occurs to the same degree regardless of the participant’s educational attainment. Academic degrees of the participants ranged from baccalaureate to doctoral, but responses were generally similar. The rationale for this is unclear, and may serve as a basis for future investigations.

Socialization variables do not affect teachers uniformly. This population of Filipino immigrant teachers rated four variables as the most significant among eight. *Commitment to Student Learning* was rated first by all three groups. *Workplace Commitment* and *Personal and Professional Efficacy* were ranked next overall by two of the three groups, followed by *Parent and Student Support*, which was ranked second by full-time teachers and fourth by half-time and part-time teachers. There are at least three likely explanations. The first is that this is a random occurrence, and that another Filipino immigrant teacher group would rank highest an entirely different set of variables. The second one, more desirable, and one to be wished for, is that the variable ranking found in this group may reflect a hierarchy of variables inherent in elementary and secondary school teachers. A third reason could be that their responses are unique to the values and culture of this group of immigrant teachers. In essence, their answers reflect the influence of their native culture, rather than exposure to their present environment. It would not be unreasonable to expect that individuals would internalize values that they are exposed to in the process of their education, and manifest them when placed in similar situations. Future studies for immigrant teachers from other nations, or for Filipino immigrant teachers in other states, may help clarify all of this.
At the lower end of the spectrum, were the variables *Peer Support and Acceptance* and *Performance Expectations, Evaluation and Feedback*. Although one of the interviewees referred to an effective buddy system in his school, the survey respondents and the other interviewees point to an inconsistent system of performance evaluation and feedback in the schools.

Similarly, *Teacher Induction* does not appear to be a consistent or clear component of the school-based training process in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. The high number of *disagree* and *uncertain* responses to survey questions about teacher induction suggest that: teachers have not undergone the process; if they did, they may have undergone only a very cursory one, not significant enough to be useful, or to have made an impression.

Participants are all highly socialized with respect to the primary mission of the Hawai‘i Department of Education, which is *student learning*. In this respect, the Hawai‘i Department of Education has succeeded in accomplishing one of the primary goals of socialization in the organization, which is instilling in the teacher a commitment to student learning. This information has important ramifications for the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Using the goal of student learning as a linchpin for professional development and retention efforts will enable the Hawai‘i Department of Education to secure greater participation and cooperation, for the teachers will be very receptive to participating in programs they know will ultimately result in improvement of student performance. Although this finding applies only to the participants of this study, there is no doubt that non-immigrant teachers share the same degree of commitment to student learning.
A disproportionate number of Filipino immigrant teachers are hired to teach in the ESLL Program. This appears to embody Bascia’s (1996) postulate that a systemic influence restricting immigrant teachers to particular assignments exists. Bascia had noted that many immigrant teachers are encouraged to switch and teach ESL. This appears to be the case for the Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. This is unfortunate, for this study also indicated that this population of teachers is well educated, and therefore has much to offer regular school students also, given the opportunity.

One related purpose of the study is to contribute to the building of knowledge foundation on Filipino immigrant teachers. Understanding the perspectives of Filipino immigrant teachers will allow for the creation of programs geared towards the preparation, recruitment, and retention of immigrant teachers. Filipino immigrant teachers can be an abundant source of effective educators that can be tapped to reduce the teacher shortage and provide adequate instruction not only to the increasing number of immigrant students but also for all the Hawai‘i Department of Education students in general. Their employment in the Hawai‘i Department of Education would reflect diversity and the ethnic background of Hawai‘i’s student population.

Findings from this study that show commitment to student learning suggest the need for the Hawai‘i Department of Education to develop a cohesive strategy for recruiting, training, and retaining Filipino immigrant teachers. Such a strategy must include a component that would facilitate greater acceptance of immigrant teachers by non-immigrant ones. This “uplifting” of immigrant teacher status in the Hawai‘i Department of Education can be accomplished through professional development.
activities that foster awareness of the cultures of the immigrant teachers’ countries of origin. A structured program for training administrators and non-immigrant teachers on cultural sensitivity and awareness would also be very helpful. One Hawai’i Department of Education aspect that consistently commanded concern among those interviewed is passing the PRAXIS tests. Success in this pursuit is synonymous with professional advancement and a secure future in the Hawai’i Department of Education. For part-time teachers, passing the PRAXIS is the door to full-time status. The Hawai’i Department of Education assistance in preparing for these PRAXIS tests for teacher certification would greatly facilitate the socialization process of these teachers.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the conclusions and findings of the study. These recommendations are designed for personnel who contribute to the hiring and retention of teachers, school administrators who are in-charge of school staff development programs and who assume the power of evaluating teacher performance, and university personnel who plan teacher education and training programs.

For School Administrators

Immigrant teachers face the same kinds of education-related challenges such as student discipline, curriculum development, and adequacy of facilities and resources that many non-immigrant teachers experience. Compounding these difficulties is the challenge of a new community and organizational culture. To help facilitate the
socialization process, administrators should develop a system of support for immigrant teachers in schools. This system should:

First, create an orientation process specifically for the immigrant teachers. This would supplement what is now regularly mandated for all beginning teachers in schools. The composition of this process could be identified by having immigrant teachers complete a needs assessment survey. The teachers’ responses would identify shortcomings of the regular induction process as far as assisting immigrant teachers, and specific challenges that they face in the school system because of a different teacher preparation and unique cultural background.

Second, appoint personnel to assist immigrant teachers during their initial year. One interviewee made reference to a buddy system. This could be used as a model. With this system, a veteran teacher would be paired with a new immigrant teacher. The veteran teacher would serve in a consultative role, serving as a ready source of information, advice and assistance on teaching and related matters to the new immigrant teacher.

Third, organize learning teams composed of veteran and new immigrant teachers. These teams would provide new immigrant teachers with opportunities to co-plan daily lessons and activities, modify curricula, and team-teach. These learning teams would also provide opportunities for new immigrant teachers to observe veteran teachers perform in the classroom. Providing this form of assistance will help the immigrant teacher rapidly adjust to the demands of school teaching and become an effective and contributing member of the faculty in a very short while. The camaraderie fostered by the dynamic interaction among the learning team members will provide a tremendous boost to the
morale of all involved, and greatly assist in the socialization of the new immigrant teachers.

Fourth, provide consistent and regular opportunities for evaluation and feedback from the principal. Minimal feedback was a recurrent theme voiced during the interviews and identified in the survey. Providing regular feedback will not only lead to more effective teaching, but will also engender a feeling of belonging and perception of concern from the administrator for the new immigrant teacher.

Fifth, identify needs of incoming teachers through a New Teacher Screening process to enable timely and effective assistance. Teachers coming into a school for the first time, whether new to the Hawai‘i Department of Education or veteran teachers transferring, face adjustment difficulties related to unfamiliarity with the new school’s physical layout, policies, and methods. For some, the differences are superficial. But for others, especially immigrant teachers, the differences may be unsettling. To minimize this possibility, a routine screening process could be instituted that takes inventory of what the newcomer knows and does not know about the new school, and identify the areas where the new teacher would need extra assistance. This process would help minimize adjustment difficulties, facilitate socialization, and help the teacher become productive in a very short time.

For State and District Administrators

Administrators at the state and district levels can play a vital role in the socialization and development of immigrant teachers. The following recommendations may appear to be idealistic, but are achievable, and if done, will ultimately lead to
significant improvement in student learning. In general, state and district administrators can provide valuable support to the schools’ induction process in many ways. These include the following:

1. **Funding and logistical support for the schools’ induction process.** This could be achieved by soliciting federal grants and supplemental funds from the legislature. The funds obtained would enable capacity building for support staff who would be given the task of assisting the schools in their induction processes.

2. **Technical assistance.** The district and state, supported by federal funds, could coordinate the provision of technical training and expertise for immigrant teachers at their respective schools. Critical, contemporary skills such as use of computer technology for classroom teaching, professional activities such as research and database development, and public presentations, would be taught to immigrant teachers and interested non-immigrant teachers. Knowledge gained through this route would help advance immigrant teachers professionally into a potent force that would contribute to the success of their school programs.

3. **Professional development.** The state and district leadership could hold continuing education courses for professional development for immigrant and non-immigrant teachers alike. The course content would be determined through a preparatory needs assessment. Thereafter, these courses would continue on a regular basis, evolving according to post-course feedback and periodic needs assessment. Courses that would greatly benefit the
immigrant teachers would include:

a. Cultural sensitivity and awareness training. Immigrant teachers will learn how to adapt to local culture, while non-immigrant teachers will learn more about and understand immigrant culture.

b. Ethnic studies. Values systems of the respective ethnic groups would be explained. This would greatly benefit both non-immigrant and immigrant teachers, as this would promote greater understanding of the various distinct cultures in the school, and greatly reduce ill will and mistakes due to culturally-induced misunderstandings.

c. Classroom management courses. Filipino immigrant teachers, who are used to generally compliant students in the Philippines, will learn how to manage their students in the new culture.

d. Curriculum instruction and development. Filipino immigrant teachers were surprised that the entire curriculum was already laid out for teachers in prepared lesson plan books. They expressed difficulty using the manuals and with the apparent lack of freedom in teaching that the prepared lessons engendered. The Hawai‘i Department of Education had their curriculum prepared. Training the immigrant teachers in the use of the books prior to classroom use would do much to relieve the fear and reluctance to use these books.

e. Student grading and assessment. This is one task that the interviewees expressed difficulty performing. Providing opportunities to learn
optimal methods for student evaluation would greatly help the teachers.

f. Education law. This could be taught in conjunction with classes on classroom management. Immigrant teachers will learn the legal issues involved in discipline of students in the U.S. such as those concerning search and seizure, verbal and physical means, restraining students, etc.

*University Personnel*

The University has much to offer the Hawai‘i Department of Education in general, and in providing assistance to the Hawai‘i Department of Education immigrant teachers in particular. The University should:

1. Continue to explore other options for providing training and continuing education courses that would help immigrant teachers attain the teaching competencies required by the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Such avenues would include credit courses, institutes, and seminars by University faculty in collaboration with the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

2. Exert efforts to work with immigrant Hawai‘i Department of Education personnel and teachers planning and evaluating staff development programs for immigrant teachers. In this manner, University staff would obtain valuable insight that would ensure that programs they develop for the immigrant teachers are relevant, appropriate, and effective.

3. Provide technical assistance to state, district, and school administrators by
disseminating research-based and current information on immigrant teachers and teacher induction programs. The information could be broadcasted to all school administrators as they become available to University staff in newsletters, journals, symposiums, workshops, conferences and other forums.

4. Offer courses in mentoring for prospective teacher-mentors who will be tasked with mentoring immigrant teachers.

**Conclusion**

The study presented part of the personal experience of Filipino immigrant teachers as they continue to pursue their moral commitment to the education of students in Hawai‘i public school system. During the course of the study, the participants had the opportunity to reflect on their own personal and professional experiences both in the Philippine educational system and in the Hawai‘i Department of Education. Each major role passage of an individual involves socialization to the new adapted role and environment regardless of the individual’s previous experience. Similar to the findings of this study, previous teaching experience does not appear to influence the socialization of the Filipino immigrant teacher participants of the study. The participants appeared to have constructed their individual career maps of time and space as seen in their efforts to locate and place oneself within the Hawai‘i Department of Education’s bigger scheme, and their efforts, perseverance, and patience in pursuing a long-term career in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.
This study will help policymakers and the Hawai‘i Department of Education develop staff development programs for all teachers, both immigrant and non-immigrant teachers. This study can also contribute to the recruitment and hiring of immigrant teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Policymakers and school administrators can support Filipino immigrant teachers by implementing programs that will promote feedback and communication. They should be aware of the perceptions held by Filipino immigrant teachers.
Appendix A

Participant Demographics

Table A1

Distribution of Participants by Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher program</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular education</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESLL</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special education</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A2

Distribution of Participants by Teaching Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time position</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half-time position</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time temporary position</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
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</table>
### Table A3

**Distribution of Participants by Grade Level**

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<th>Grade level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>58.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table A4

**Distribution of Participants by Age Brackets**

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<thead>
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<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 &amp; over</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

143 | 100.0
Table A5

*Distribution of Participants by Educational Attainment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree attained</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baccalaureate</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>143</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A6

*Distribution of Participants by Teaching Experience in the Philippines*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of teaching</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-10</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 10</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>143</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table A7

**Distribution of Participants by Teaching Experience in HIDOE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of teaching</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-10</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 10</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B
Socialization Questionnaire

The purpose of this survey is to identify institutional factors that affect the socialization of Filipino immigrant teachers in the Hawaii Department of Education. Socialization is defined as the process by which individuals learn the values, norms, and required behaviors which permit him/her to participate as a member of the organization. Please circle the most appropriate response to the items in terms of how you feel about your own socialization in your current school. You do not need to identify yourself.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When I started teaching at my school, I was provided with a clear view of what the school was trying to accomplish.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I was generally assisted to discover what my role should be as teacher when I started teaching at my school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My administrator takes the time to orient and help new teachers feel welcomed.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I gain a clear understanding of my role as a teacher in my school from more experienced teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I participated in professional development activities designed specifically for new teachers when I started teaching at my school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I receive much guidance about my work from more experienced teachers at my school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My fellow teachers went out of their way to help me feel that I was part of my school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Teachers at my school freely share ideas and materials with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I have access to teachers who are teaching similar students and classes at my school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I am comfortable discussing with another teacher at my school any classroom management or discipline concerns that I have.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Most of my fellow teachers were supportive of me personally.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I know what my administrators/evaluators admire about my teaching.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. When I started, my administrator told me what his/her expectations were for me.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. My administrator clearly spells out the criteria used to evaluate my teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. My evaluations provide clear feedback about areas of my teaching needing improvement based on observations of my teaching.</td>
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<td>16. I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. My support provider/coordinator is always available to provide needed assistance.</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. My support provider/coordinator assists me with my most pressing concerns</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. My support provider/coordinator helps me identify resources (workshops, materials, or</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I am provided with professional training in the content (e.g. Math, English, Science, etc.) or grade level that I am assigned to teach.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>The professional training provided to me by the school/organization is adequate and reinforces my classroom experience.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Most of the professional training activities from the school/organization that I participate in address my specific current needs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>The ideas presented in my professional training from the organization are consistent with those I experience at my school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Many of my students’ parents support me in performing my classroom duties.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>My school protects me from parental intrusion and harassment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>I find it easy to candidly respond to parents’ inquiries about their children’s performance in school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Most of my students’ parents support my efforts at teaching their children.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Most of my students comply with my classroom rules.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>My students show respect for me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Difficult and challenging students bring out the best in me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>I am proud to tell my friends that the school I teach at is a great place to work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>I would accept a more difficult assignment in order to keep teaching at this school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>I feel much loyalty to my school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>I would like to teach at this school for as long as I am able to.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>I enjoy working with the teachers and support staff at my school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>I find my teaching career very satisfying.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Being a teacher is worth the stress and disappointments involved in teaching.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Even if I could get another job that paid as much, I will stay in teaching.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>I make a positive difference in the lives of my students.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>I constantly look for ways to meet the diverse and changing needs of my students.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Even though the learning needs of my students are great, I make every effort to meet their needs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>When my students have difficulty learning something, I try another approach.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>My students’ misbehaviors seldom make me act like a “policeman.”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>A teacher can really do much even though a student’s motivation and performance depend a lot on his or her home environment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>If I try hard, I will be able to teach even the most difficult, unmotivated students.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>I am confident that my skills and abilities equal or exceed those of my colleagues.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Because the career ladder is clearly specified, I can predict my future career path in this organization.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>My past experiences and accomplishments increase my confidence that I will be successful in this organization.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Please mark the most appropriate response to the following questions.

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<thead>
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<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. What is your gender? (Optional)</td>
<td>7. Number of years teaching in the DOE:</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Female</td>
<td>18. 1-2 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Male</td>
<td>19. 3-10 yrs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. What is your age in years? (Optional)</td>
<td>20. over 10 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 21-30 yrs.</td>
<td>8. Highest academic degree achieved:</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. 31-40 yrs.</td>
<td>21. High School Graduate</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. 41-50 yrs.</td>
<td>22. Associate Degree</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. 51-60 yrs.</td>
<td>23. Baccalaureate Degree</td>
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<td>7. 61 yrs. and over</td>
<td>24. Master of Education</td>
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<td>4. What is the nature of your teaching position?</td>
<td>25. Post Graduate Degree</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Full-time Teacher</td>
<td>9. Number of years of teaching experience in the Philippines before joining the DOE:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Half-time Teacher</td>
<td>26. 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Part-time Teacher</td>
<td>27. 1 - 2 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Which program do you teach?</td>
<td>28. 3 - 10 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Regular Education</td>
<td>29. over 10 yrs.</td>
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<td>12. ESLL</td>
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<td>13. Special Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Title I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Other, please specify:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. What grade level(s) do you teach?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Elementary (Grades K-6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Secondary (Grades 7-12)</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey.
Appendix C

Reliability of the Socialization Survey Instrument

Table C1

Data Set

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<th>Item</th>
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### Table C2

**Pearson’s Correlations**

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**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**

### Table C3

**Spearman’s Correlations**

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**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**
## Appendix D

Variable Rank by Teacher Positions

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<th>Variable</th>
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<th>Half time</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher induction</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peer support and acceptance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance expectations, evaluation, and feedback</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional support and development</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parent and student support</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Workplace commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Commitment to student learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professional and personal efficacy</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix E
Institutional Review Board Permission

MEMORANDUM

October 1, 2002

TO: Maria Rosa V. Flores
Principal Investigator
Department of Education Administration

FROM: William H. Dandle
Executive Secretary

SUBJECT: CHS #11972: "The Road to Socialization: A Descriptive Study of the Filipino Immigrant Teachers’ Search for Their Place in the Hawaii Department of Education"

Your project identified above was reviewed and has been designated to be exempt from Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) regulations, 45 CFR Part 46. Specifically, the authority for this exemption is section 46.101(b)(2). Your certificate of exemption (Optional Form 310) is enclosed. This certificate is your record of CHS review of this study and will be effective as of the date shown on the certificate.

An exempt status signifies that you will not be required to submit renewal applications for full Committee review as long as that portion of your project involving human subjects remain unchanged. If, during the course of your project, you intend to make changes which may significantly affect the human subjects involved, you should contact this office for guidance prior to implementing these changes.

Any unanticipated problems related to your use of human subjects in this project must be promptly reported to the CHS through this office. This is required so that the CHS can institute and update protective measures for human subjects as may be necessary. In addition, under the University’s Assurance with the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, the University must report certain situations to the federal government. Examples of these reportable situations include deaths, injuries, adverse reactions or unforeseen risks to human subjects. These reports must be made regardless of the source funding or exempt status of your project.

University policy requires you to maintain as an essential part of your project records, any documents pertaining to the use of human subjects in your research. This includes any information or materials conveyed to, and received from, the subjects, as well as any executed consent forms, data and analysis results. These records must be maintained for at least three years after project completion or termination.

If this is a funded project, you should be aware that these records are subject to inspection and review by authorized representatives of the University, State and Federal governments.

Please notify this office when your project is completed. We may ask that you provide information regarding your experiences with human subjects and with the CHS review process. Upon notification, we will close our files pertaining to your project. Any subsequent reactivation of the project will require a new CHS application.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or require assistance. I will be happy to assist you in any way I can.

Thank you for your cooperation and efforts throughout this review process. I wish you success in this endeavor.

Enclosure
Protection of Human Subjects
Assurance Identification/IRB Certification/Declaration of Exemption
(Common Rule)

Institutions must have an assurance of compliance that applies to the research to be conducted and should submit certification of IRB review and approval with each application or proposal unless otherwise specified by the Department or Agency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Request Type</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Name of Federal Department or Agency and, if known, Application or Proposal Identification No.</th>
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<td>[X] GRANT</td>
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<tr>
<td>[ ] CONTINUATION</td>
<td>[X] CONTRACT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ] EXEMPTION</td>
<td>[X] FELLOWSHIP</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>[X] OTHER</td>
<td>[X] COOPERATIVE AGREEMENT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. Request Type:

1. Request Type: [X] ORIGINAL
2. Type of Institution: [X] GRANT
3. Name of Federal Department or Agency and, if known, Application or Proposal Identification No.

II. GRANT

III. ORIG

IV. GRANT

V. CONTRACT

VI. FELLOWSHIP

VII. EXEMPTION

VIII. OTHER

IX. COOPERATIVE AGREEMENT

IV. A. Assumptions of human subjects involved, but this activity qualifies for exemption under Section 101(b), paragraph _____

5. Exemption Status: Human subjects are involved, but this activity qualifies for exemption under Section 101(b), paragraph.

6. Assurance Status of this Project (Respond to one of the following)

[X] This Assurance, on file with Department of Health and Human Services, covers this activity:
Assurance Identification No. 20-1717
Expiration date: October 31, 2002
IRB Registration No. 01

[ ] This Assurance, on file with, (agency/ organization)
Assurance No.
Expiration date
IRB Registration Identification No. (If applicable)

[X] No assurance has been filed for this institution. This institution declares that it will provide an Assurance and Certification of IRB review and approval upon request.

[X] Exemption Status: Human subjects are involved, but this activity qualifies for exemption under Section 101(b), paragraph _____

7. Certification of IRB Review (Respond to one of the following if you have an Assurance on file)

[X] This activity has been reviewed and approved by the IRB in accordance with the Common Rule and any other governing regulations.

by: [ ] Full IRB Review on (date of IRB meeting)
or [ ] Expedited Review on (date)

[X] If less than one year approval, provide expiration date

[X] This activity involves multiple projects, some of which have not been reviewed. The IRB has granted approval on condition that all projects covered by the Common Rule will be reviewed and approved before they are initiated and that appropriate further certification will be submitted.

8. Comments

9. The official signing below certifies that the information provided above is correct and that, as required, future reviews will be performed until study closure and certification will be provided.

10. Name and Address of Institution

University of Hawaii at Manoa
Office of the Chancellor
2444 Dole Street, Benham Hall
Honolulu, HI 96822

11. Phone No. (with area code) (808) 956-5007

12. Fax No. (with area code) (808) 334-3594

13. Email: dean@hawaii.edu

14. Name of Official

William H. Davis

15. Title

Compliance Officer

16. Signature

17. Date

October 1, 2002

Approved by IRB

18. Authorized for Local Reproduction

19. Sponsored by IRB

Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average less than an hour per response. As an agency, we are required to report to Congress the information it collects on a currently valid OMB control number. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of the collection of information, including suggestions for reducing the burden to Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs, 314, Washington, DC 20503. Do not return this completed form to this address.
References


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