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Teacher education in an era of teacher surplus.

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TEACHER EDUCATION IN AN ERA OF

TEACHER SURPLUS

A Dissertation Presented

By

Michael Minor

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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February   1975

Education

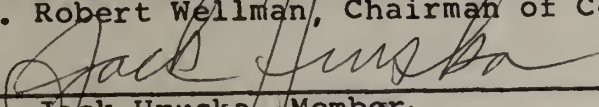TEACHER EDUCATION IN AN ERA OF

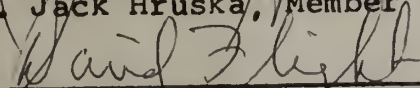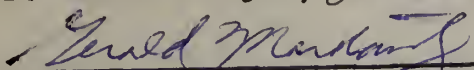TEACHER SURPLUS

A Dissertation

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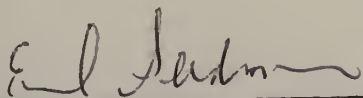Approved as to style and content by:

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February   1975

TEACHER EDUCATION IN AN ERA OF

TEACHER SURPLUS

(February 1975)

Michael Minor, B. A. Earlham College

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Directed by: Dr. Robert Wellman

Using the form of projected analysis, this study
begins with five clearly stated assumptions and develops
a theoretical model of five interrelating elements in
an in-depth teacher education program. It is assumed
that education is necessary in our modern society. The
format of schooling may be quite different but education
is necessary in our modern society. The format of school-
ing may be quite different but education will take place
within a structural boundry called a school. Teachers
will be part of the educational process. It is possible
to educate better teachers. Through an analysis of the
task, universities can become better at the training
of teachers.

Within the context of the modern economic, polit-
ical, and social environment, certain constraints and
liberations are developing around institutions which
train teachers. The five assumptions indicate a direction

which can be taken in this new environment. We have a
surplus of people who qualify for teaching certification.
We do not have a surplus of teachers with the highly
developed skills and cognitive abilities needed in present
classrooms and needed to fill new positions as schools
enlarge their view of education.

Pressure is off universities to produce large
numbers of certificated teachers. Now they can concen-
trate on the in-depth programs which until now have been
too slow or too expensive. I see five major, interrelat-
ed elements which form the main structure of this model.

The first of these elements is the selection
process. It has as its main goal finding people with
diverse backgrounds. People with diverse backgrounds
can only be brought into teaching if we actively seek
them. We will have to change the structure of some pro-
grams to provide the multiple entry and exit availability
to attract some of these people. These students will
also enrich teacher training programs while they
are students.

Theory and practice in teacher training cannot
be separated. Element number two calls for a multipli-
city of theoretical and practical experiences of varying
durations, interspaced with one another. This integra-
tion, in the John Dewey mode, would allow pre-teachers
to collect data and to use the time and support of peers

and professors at the university to gain the valuable insight that analysis can provide.

One way to develop this data collection and analysis is to unify programs in pre-service education, in-service education and curriculum. This formulation would allow pre-service teachers to see their cooperating teachers develop the curriculum that they will be asked to use in the classroom. It would allow in-service teachers to see their interns function in the theoretical mode. They can learn from one another while working on a real mutual task.

The fourth element is helping the pre-teacher to develop skills in self supervision. Supervision in the schools is at a minimum. Where it does exist it is directed toward evaluation. The young teacher needs some type of supervision which helps him develop his teaching skills. Self supervision is productive for this and also for gathering the data needed for group analysis.

The last of the five elements is the development of a support group mechanism for the pre-service and first or second year teacher. No matter what the level of skill and analysis developed during a teacher training program, they become subject to the socialization process during the first experiences on the job. This process can be beneficial or non-beneficial. It is important to provide a way to maximize the possible benefit.

Throughout the study, the five elements are dealt with in terms of six main criteria. They are diversity of population and thought, teacher as thinker, teaching and real world experience, university involvement, self knowledge, and positive regard. The conclusion indicates that as additional elements of an in-depth program are developed, they should relate to the same six criteria.

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PREFACE

RELATION OF FORM AND CONTENT OF THE STUDY

From the classic 1939 <u>The Saber-Tooth Curriculum</u>
by J. Abner Peddiwell, through <u>Th- American High School
Today</u> by James B. Conant, <u>Teaching as a Subversive Activ-
ity</u> by Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, and <u>Crisis
in the Classroom</u> by Charles E. Silberman, runs an assult
on modern schools. These men and other 'romantic critics'
of education such as Coleman, Goodman, Jencks, Riesman,
and many others have spent much effort in condemnation
of current educational efforts.

From another perspective, we have a body of educa-
tional theory which has been developed and in some cases
implemented. It seems to me that we need to combine
these two bodies of data to create a projective analysis
of problems in today's schools. This analysis should do
more than condmen. It should create a model for pro-
ductive change.

One of the most important areas of this change
is that of teacher education. My background as a teacher,
department chairman, and teacher educator leads me to
this task. To the task I bring many of the concern of
the 'romantic critics' and some of the perceptions and

techniques of the educational theortist. The result is, I think, the kind of productive model needed to produce change.

This study cannot be inductive and cover the material indicated. Many assumptions are made without complete data. Assumptions are stated as such (in the section on Specific In-Depth Approaches). This model makes the assumption that the job market will continue to close. A study could be done that would document this. The willingness of the University to undertake educating a new teacher in the new mode, is another problem which can only be tested as we try to implement the proposals contained in this paper. In developing this model I assume that the task is possible. In fact this may not be the case. It's impossible to test this assumption until we try it. We do not know that univerities will allow their colleges of education to reduce the number of students they handle as they have been funded at a certain level to handle a certain number of students. We must go forward and test all these assumptions within the total model.

We can teach teacher to be better teachers. Many have argued this point. That it is possible is almost an article of faith. If it is not true, then we all ought to get out of the business now. If an in-depth

program can't do it, I doubt that any program can. I
assume that there will always be some kind of school.
School buildings may look different, teachers may look
different, but we'll still have schools in some form.
This assumption is open to a lot of scrutiny. In order
to get on with the paper I state it as an assumption.
We can teach our teachers to teach better and they will
be teaching within a school.

To the question "Is education necessary?", I
answer "yes." It is true that vocationally, we are go-
ing to need fewer highly educated people, and more
people to push buttons in our technological society.
But with the rise in leisure time we are still going to
need a more highly educated population. People will need
to feel some sense of worth within the structure of the
vastly reduced work demand. They need to be taught to
be self sufficient and productive in off hours.

One or more of these assumptions can be challeng-
ed on a number of counts. There is a lack of data. Where
research has been done, it is not conclusive. In other
cases the research hasn't been done at all. This is not
a narrow focussed inductive study. It is a theoretical
model. The available data will be explained in terms of
an overall structure that we can change the present
circumstance.

Assumptions need to be stated to get on with the argument. Studies can be done to show the assumptions are true. The assumptions I have made are warranted on the basis of the limited data available. The patterns that are beginning to emerge in the society show this. None of the specific research subjects will generate enough interest for research unless somebody can demonstrate in an overall pattern that the specific research subjects are indeed necessary. This study looks at the large picture. To make it complete, others will have to develop the research to test out the hypothesis and show that the conclusions are valid. Now a holistic view is necessary. The corroborative data must come later.

What is this paper if it is not a tight empirical study? It is a projective analysis, a model. It attempts to analyze the data now at hand. It uses the data we have, enven though it may be faulty in some ways to develop a theoretical framework. It takes that theoretical framework and asks, what may grow out of it? It is analytical, and it is projective. A productive model will predict a new hypothesis to be examined. Implementation is necessary before the hypothesis can be tested. The study takes step 1, the analysis, and step 2, the projection. It would be beyond the scope of this document to do more. Once the total structure is known further research can

take place.

The projection is that there is a need for change in teacher education programs. The direction of this change should be to in-depth programs which relate the theoretical and the practical modes of operation. The beginnings of a change in the job market provide the resources for trying out this new organization.

The projection has its roots in given assumptions. It grows logically out of those assumptions. The particular elements projected are themselves arguable. The body of the dissertation will be that argument. It will argue for specific improvements, show how they form a new view, and show how this view relates to the specific attributes that I want teachers to have. That is the purpose of the projection. That is the model which will allow the testing of these hypothesis after the new elements are set up.

The specific elements listed have specific ends. Whether they will meet those ends can be argued. The argument, the rationale, the relationship between the specific in-depth approaches and the expected ends are the substance of this dissertation. This is the first step of an inductive study. It arrives at a defensible hypothesis. It seeks to do no more. The hypothesis it-self has a valuable function within the structure of

learning at this time. It shows the way to further re-
search. Research is most productive within a total
context.

There are many studies being done, within the
University of Massachusetts, and in other places, in
selection process. Some of the work has been done by
Dr. Horace Reed in The University of Massachusetts
School of Education TPPC program. Other schools are
working on the concept of teaching centers. They have
not integrated that with curriculum development, but
I feel sure that they will. The University of Nebraska
is working on a proposal for in-school teacher education.
This dissertation will make no attempt to repeat that
data. That can be found separately. This paper will
show how these elements will fit into a total picture.

This overview must take place before all of the
evidence is in. Some of the data is uninteresting and
nobody will see its importance to the total picture and
collect it unless they see an overview. Some of the
elements predicted by the overview must be shown to work.
Once this is done, there will be many people who will
want to research particular elemements.

A theoretical model is productive only if the
hypotheses gleaned from it are productive. This paper
sets up a theoretical framework. It uses that theoreti-

cal framework to predict the strengths of certain elements
of the program. It develops certain hypotheses and
certain methods of operation for the future, seeking to
take arguments strong enough that schools will set up
some or all of the elements called for. If that can
be done, then those hypotheses can be tested by testing
the structure that is produced. Some of it has been done.
This thesis utilizes some of the ides in the teacher
education programs that I've been involved with. There
has not yet been enough data generated for an exhaustive
study. We need a total picture within which to do this
work.

What I'm calling for is a specific innovation
based on a specific idea of what will be produced. The
model proceeds on the basis of data though that data base
is small and not scientifically acceptable. This model
should predict the availability of certain data. Then
we can go test and find if there is support for my model,
my hypotheses and my conclusions.

The total picture is often more than the sum of
its component parts. A total statement should be made
to help reexamine the parts. The parts alone may be seen
in a number of different models. That the sun crosses
the sky from east to west, is a fact in the geocentric
solar system and in the heliocentric solar system. It
is only within the total model that we see the importance

of the rotation of the earth to that fact. Though the
picture painted here is too large to be tested in total,
it forms a valuable functioning part of educational
research.

This projective analysis of the components of
an in-depth teacher education program is a working model.
It proceeds on the basis of warranted assumptions. It
uses research data where available. It uses reason
based on stated assumptions where data is not available.
It is not a theory to be stated and forgotten. The
elements it projects are meant to be tried in the field.
Some of these elements have been incorporated in teacher
education programs with which I have been involved.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Whereas, five or six years ago almost everyone
graduating from a teacher education program could find
employment; at the present time there is a scarcity of
jobs for teachers. For new teachers, finding employ-
ment in the urban areas, in the eastern United States
are and on the west coast is almost impossible.[1] Only
in rural areas and in the midwestern areas of the United
States are jobs still readily available. This circum-
stance is not a temporary one, but derives from three
or four trends in the United States at the present time.

We have today a lower birth rate and a general
leveling of demand on schools.[2] In certain areas new
schools are still being built and populations are in-
creasing, but this is a leveling trend. We have what I
call the closing of the school frontier. In the United
States the education frontier is closing just as the land
frontier pattern closed in Turner's thesis in the 1890's.
The closing of the education frontier is producing a

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[1]"Annual Education Review:" NEW YORK TIMES, Jan.
16, 1974, p. 64.

[2]Ibid., p. 57.

major change in developmental patterns. We are moving toward a stablized economy. Growth will come at a much slower rate. Fewer people are demanding the services of schools.

For a long time there has been a race between the growing population and the production of teachers. Schools of teacher education started well back in this race. New population centers, new schools, and new programs and a head start and were developing at a much hihger rate than teachers could be trained. The schools geared up for this task by developing very minimal teacher education programs. They were of the one from column A, two from column B vaiety. The family dinner at the local Chinese restaurant was seen as sufficient for the training of teachers. A certain number of credits and a certain number of hours with certain course descriptions was all that was necessary to be considered a teacher.[3] That mechanism has succeeded in producing more than the needed number of teachers. Because of demand, we concentrated on numbers and not quality.

Contributing to this overabundance of teachers, is the restriction on funds in the current economic situation. With increasing unemployment and inflation

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[3]Lawrence Cremin, THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE SCHOOL, New York: Vintage 1969, p. 433.

we find that people are unwilling to pay taxes to support schools at continually higher and higher levels. School systems seem to be interested in maintaining the status quo rather than starting new programs and funding new ideas. Schools are not expanding their services at a rate which can absorb large numbers of teachers.

There is also a long term trend to reduced taxpayer support. This grows from many factors. The first is a society wide disappointment with the effect of schools. Going to school doesn't guarantee a better job. School doesn't seem to provide the better life that it once promised to a large portion of the society.[4] People are beginning to realize that school doesn't do this automatically. The average taxpayer wonders why he should pay more for schools which offer less promise for advancement than the school he attended in a more benign economic era.

There is a taxpayers' revolt. Most tax money for schools comes out of town property taxes. Those taxes have soared in the last ten to fifteen years. Taxpayers want to know what is being done with their money. This is one of the reasons for the accountability move-

[4]Christopher Jencks, et. al., INEQUALITY: A REASSESSMENT, New York: Basic Books, 1972, and Colin Greer, THE GREAT SCHOOL LEGEND, New York: Basic Books, 1972.

ment. The taxpayer is trying to control where and how his money is spent. Because of the disappearance of the American myth of education,[5] the terms of that accountability have changed. We now look to schools to keep a child happy and provide him some opportunity for the learning of skills necessary for employment. New programs in vocational areas have money. Programs in purely academic areas are not seen as being productive.

The Accountability Movement

There are many roots to the accountability movement, but part of it is a response to the demands of taxpayers. Taxpayers have a right to know what is happening with their money. Town taxes are one of the few taxes that can be voted on. There is no taxpayer vote on national income tax, state tax, or sales tax. So the taxpayer tends to have a much more direct concern with how his school tax money is spent. He may as, 'does my money benefit me or someone else?' The argument that each member of a society is responsible for the education of the members of that society, may hold very little for

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[5] Ivan Illich, "After Deschooling, What?" in DESCHOOLING SOCIETY, p. 5., also Herbert Gintis, "Tward a Political Economy of Education: A Radical Critique of Ivan Illich's "Deschooling Society," Ibid., pp. 61-2, and Joel Spring, EDUCATIONAND THE RISE OF THE CORPORATE STATE, Boston: Beacon Press, 1972.

today's taxpayer. Especially if his parents were only paying real estate taxes of two or three hundred dollars when he went to school and the education of the children of the town now requires real estate taxes of a thousand dollars or more.

The pay scale of the teachers is also an issue with taxpayers. In many small town teachers' salaries represent 70 to 80 percent of the total school budget. "Should a teacher make more money than I make myself?' is a question often asked. The way in which a town taxpayer views teachers and their responsibility to the community has a lot to do with what they are willing to pay those teachers. Taxpayers are demanding more benefits for their tax dollars. This new more expensive school system does not seem to provide better jobs for their children. They are asking, where is the good value for the money they put in.

Consequently there is a movement toward community control of content and teaching method. Parents are beginning to demand some responsibility for the education of their children.[6] The feeling of power that this conveys to the individual parents is important for all

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[6]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 433.

cultural sub-groups.[7] These are not only those groups easily identified by race. There are other groups which are self-identified - store keepers, working class populations, bowler in the same league. These are the groups that feel the need to band together to control what is happening to their childr... in school. Power, for them, is a feeling of control over their environment and the environment of their children. These individuals are asking the same kinds of questions that are being asked about teachers throughout by all in the field of education. The questions are the same as those of universities, state boards of certification, individual school administrators, and the children themselves.

Important among these questions is, "Are these the best teachers that my money can buy?" The lack of hard-nosed methods of evaluating teacher competencies and the lack of high level teacher competencies to be evaluated makes answer to these questions fall in the realm of a hit or miss situation. The parent and the school administrator face the same problem in trying to select a new teacher. A very minimal list of requirements provide the only basis for decision. The parent

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[7]Michael B. Katz, "The Emergence of Bureaucracy In Urban Education: The Boston Case, 1860-1885," THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION, VII, 2 & 3. Summer, Fall, 1968. pp. 155-185, 319-355.

must look for commitment, acquiescence to the ideas of
the community, and the ability to get along with the
children. These qualities are very hard to measure.
In addition, the parent is looking at the program that
is being run in the schools and asking, "Is it good for
my children?" This can be answered only through an in-
depth understanding of the program. Parents need to get
such an understanding through highly developed teachers
who are able to involve parents in their day-to-day school
program.

The lack of tools for making these judgments has
necessitated another approach. Mechanisms of accounta-
bility have been developed. These mechanisms are based
on the minimum philosophy. They do not provide great
teachers. The concept of behavioral objectives may let
the community know that a teacher has some idea that
there is a relationship between what he does in class
on a day-to-day basis and some overall developmental
patterns. The teacher proof curriculums that are being
devised are another way the towns hope to protect them-
selves from teachers who jump all over the lot in trying
to find something to interest their students. Some towns
may feel that a nicely wrapped cellophane package curric-
ulum, that is well printed and well presented, guarantees
their children a good education. Teaching machines may
also guarantee this. Paying only for tested learning is

attractive. Parents, like educators, have not yet become
sophisticated in distinguishing tested learning from real
learning.

How Do We Choose a Teacher?

The problem of finding good teachers is compli-
cated by the manner in which we choose which teachers we
should hire. Most teacher credentials look alike. State
certification requirements are minimal. Certification
does not indicate that a person has a real interest in
education. He may be trying to assure himself of a job
in a scarce job market. University requirements are not
a better indicator. The list of courses is still in the
format of one from column A, and two from column B. The
only additional information available to the potential
employer is the recommendation form. Almost anybody can
find somebody to give him a good recommendation. Poten-
tial employers are left with very little information on
which to make a choice. They use the interview as a se-
lection technique. The interview is, by its nature, a
process of the interviewer picking somebody very much like
himself. He listens for ideas that agree with him. He
looks for logic of presentation that he can understand.
In some cases familiar ethnic or racial background is
important. If the interviewee, looks a lot like the

interviewer, he'll probably get the job.[8] This leads to
a lack of diversity in the staff of the schools. The
only other tool available to the interviewer is the follow-
ing question: "Who do you know?" An applicant is more
likely to get the job if he knows somebody in the area
or if he has a relative who is on a school board or in
some position of power. If he is from the particular
area, people know him and therefore have some idea of
the kind of person he is. This makes sense to the inter-
viewer if there is no other data. One good way to get
a job in a particular town is to student teach there.
Student teaching adds some professionsl data to the
application form, state certification, courses taken,
and a recommendation as the basis of a decision. At
lease this is the beginning of the professional evaluation
of capabilities.

The problem is that it is very hard to judge
whether one person is really a better teacher than another
unless we set up some criteria for good teaching. We
can't set up criteria for good teaching if we don't know
what good teaching is. In this vacuum, school adminis-
trators really do have to "go it blind." They have no
hard knowledge basis for making discriminations between

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[8]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. p. 433.

the teacher and another.

This problem is also seen in the master's-bachelor's bind. In the view of many school administrators and perhaps in truth there is no difference in ability between the person who has achieved state certification through a bachelor's degree program and the person who has achieved state certification through a master's degree program. It may be unfair to ask a school administrator to make that differentiation. We have not set up criteria on which he can make the judgment. Since most pay scales indicate a higher pay for a master's degree, the administrator cannot make a differentiation based on qualifications. He has no way of judging them. A primary concern is how much he has to pay the individual. If there are a multiple number of positions to be filled, an administrator is usually given a block amount of money. He is apt to hire a number of people on the bottom of the salary scale so he can hire one good, experienced, and well known quantity with the extra money. This process means that the best teachers are pirated from school system to school system and little distinction is made among new and developing young teachers.

This method of hiring is not as irrational as it seems. A school administrator must consider the following factors in the development of the teacher. He must consider the length of service that that teacher will

give him. This has changed greatly in the present society with its high mobility. He also must consider the time that he puts into the development of a teacher. Five years getting a teacher to work productively in his system is too long if he knows that a teacher is apt to leave after that five years and before the system gets the benefit of all that input. Many of the elements stated above do make sense in the selection of the teacher. A hometown person may care more and want to stay. He may see his work as being a service to his community. There is also a tendency to support one's own. Personal inter-action provides the basis for mutual respect.

This selection process may limit the teacher's effectiveness. An individual who stays in the town he grew up in, may be limited by his lack of diversity in experience. His students may not get the diversity of a teacher from another state or another area or another experience. A new teacher who decides to leave after a couple of years has learned his task, fit his teaching pattern to a specific situation, and now must accomodate himself again. He may have a change at the point where he is becoming powerful in one situation. He may lose that power in order to adapt to a new job and a new situation.

The school administrator must also contend with

teacher drop-outs. Many young teachers become frustrat-
ed with the system and decide to drop out and try some-
thing else. They feel that they will always have teach-
ing to fall back on. This is a fallacy in our present
economic situation. Often it is the good and exciting
young teacher who becomes extremely frustrated with the
system and drops out. This dropping out may not be caused
by problems within the system. The new teacher has not
developed the theoretical understanding to produce need-
ed changes. The administrator can only look with regret
at the loss of such a teacher. He must now find some-
body else who may or may not be good.

How do we Train Teachers?

Another aspect of the problem is the entrench-
ment of the various systems related to teacher education.
Vested interests have created the accreditation and
teacher education procedure.[9] One of the best examples
of the role of the university in this is the historical
inclusion of foundations as an important part in the
teacher education process.

The presures of the restricted job market are
beginning to be felt by institutions of teacher education.

9Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. p. 43.

Schools of education will not now grow as rapidly as they did during the era of teacher scarcity.[10] This has led to the development of certain piecemeal alterations of the system designed in an effort to keep it going. The research, at the university level into accountability mechanisms is an example of this approach. What is lacking is an overall view of what is happening to education. The stick-ons and add-ons apply themselves to specific problems in the current fuctioning of the schools. Because they are of transitory nature they create more problems later on. Schools of education are fighting for their lives and livelihood and so seem unwilling to take a larger view. They are afraid that the larger view would do them out of a job. This is not necessarily so.

Other innovations try to give new life to schools of education. They suffer from many of the same problems that the stick-on solutions to problems have. They tend to be piecemeal in nature and developed in the old patterns of teacher education. The old patterns will not work given the new pressures on teachers. Innovations need to be based on an in-depth understanding or they become the same old charm to be waved in front of evil spirits.

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[10]David B. Tyack, Ed., TURNING POINTS IN AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY, Waltham, Ma., Blaisdell, 1967.

Only with a theoretical understanding of a particular innovation and its effectiveness in a particular circumstance can that innovation be applied generally. In that way the innovation can be changed to meet new circumstances.

Professional organizations have been talking about professional competencies for years. These are organized to protect those already in the profession. Most of their effort has been in the area of improving conditions; conditions such as time on the job, pay, etc. Professional development of the teachers already on the job has gotten short shrift.[11] While this is understandable it leaves a vacuum in the education of teachers.

Benefits of the Situation

There are a number of benefits caused by this situation. They are liberating to the extent that they form the base for my projected in-depth teacher education program. A lot of examination of teacher education is taking place because of the pressure put on the system by the lack of jobs, the problem of evaluation of

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[11]Robert J. Baum, TEACHERS AND POWER, THE STORY OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS, New York: Simon and Schuster, 1972.

skills, and the new accountability mechanisms being developed.[12] It's true that most of the examination is of the patch-it-up-and-try-and-save-it variety. Most of the work being done, is still seen as saving the old ship. But, through this mechanism we may be able to stage a bloodless revolution. It is a revolution that is indeed necessary. We must break away from the historical pattern of teacher education. The old pattern has always been inadequate. In the catch-up game of producing a large number of teachers, it seemed necessary. Now it is not. Integration of various component parts of teaching ability and their roles in making a teacher with high level of competence produces better teachers.

In order to succeed, given the entrenchment of the various power structures within the states and the universities, the revolution must be a bloodless one. We must call it an evolution, even though we know that that is not the case. Some of the new elements which are starting to develop are of an integrative nature. Learning centers in schools are a good example. A learning center could integrate on-site theoretical work and practical work. It could also integrate the pre-and in-service experience of teachers. The university

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[12]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 414.

community and the school community would have much more interplay. The level of the in-service work must be greatly increased. The new in-service work will be a joint venture between schools and universities.

We are beginning to see the need for more than one practical or practice experience for new teachers.[13] New teachers need a chance to do, and then analyze, and then do, following a pattern they've decided might be more productive. They must then analyze that pattern and decide whether it really was more productive. Teachers need to know how to solve problems and to solve them by using critical thinking skills.[14]

Some of this is beginning to happen in an evolutionary way in our universities. There is a recognition that there are no gimmicks to solve all of the problems of the educational world. Individual innovations may work or may not work, but cannot be communicated, or improved on without a theoretical understanding of what makes them tick. Trying something just because it sounds good is starting to go out of favor. We now try things that we predict might work and give the reasons that

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[13]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 383.

[14]John Holt, HOW CHILDREN FAIL, New York, Dell. 1964. p. 139.

they might work. An analysis of our results leads to improvements on our innovations. This is a great step forward in education. Professors are beginning to look to the schools as an environment for their own problem solving abilities, their own critical thinking. In order that innovations really lead to greater and greater understanding of the process of education, offshoots need to grow out of a whole picture. A view of what the total is and how the specific innovation might help to meet that goal is necessary.[15]

We now have the full resources of schools of education to work with. Before there was a tremendous pressure on schools of education to put out more and more teachers. Schools of education couldn't afford the in-depth teacher education program. It was too expensive per teacher produced. Under the old system we almost had to institute the column A, column B choice method. Now that we need to produce fewer teachers we can use the extra resources that are in the schools for the in-depth training of those teachers. We have the resources to do the job we should have been doing all along. It's not that we have new resources, it's just that the resources we have need to be spread less thinly.

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[15]Philip W. Jackson, THE TEACHER AND THE MACHINE, Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1968.

We should be willing to take the stand and say it is
immoral to be training teachers at the rate we have been.
Most of the people coming out of our programs can't get
jobs.

As we curtail our enrollments and show the new
role the university will take while handling fewer stu-
dents, we can probably keep most of the resources we al-
ready have. It takes state legislatures and other groups
to cut back. We can show the need for the resources to
be maintained and used in a different way. While it is
true that we have a surplus of teachers right now, we do
not have a surplus of highly qualified teachers with
specific high level competencies in specific teaching
areas. The resources of colleges and universities no
longer need to be stretched to produce a large number of
teachers, we must produce only good teachers.

Teacher educators have the opportunity to exercise
as historic role in forming certification requirements.[16]
Now we have the chance to set up new certification re-
quirements based on in-depth teacher education programs.
We can raise the level of requirements needed for educa-
tion programs. We can raise the level of requirements
needed for certification. We can talk about diversity

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[16]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM,
New York: Random House, 1970. p. 428.

in educational requirements and experiences. We can
talk about different competencies and different types
of certifications for the different types of schools in
our society. We can take this lead if we seize it now.

At the same time we can help the educational
association and union move along its professional certif-
ication route. A new view to linking pre- and in-service
educational opportunities will help the educational
association to better their members, not just protect
them. The in-service potential of an in-depth teacher
education program can help teachers already in the field
to increase their level of skills to match and exceed
the skills of those leaving the university now.

One of the main cries against the professional
educators of the universities has been that most of them
have not been in the schools for too long a time. They
don't know what it's 'really like' out there. In some
cases this is true. In many cases it's a way of dis-
counting what the professors have to say about schools.
With our new in-depth program, professors can have the
time and take the time to get into the schools. They
can re-integrate theory and practice. They will have the
credibility that comes to having been in elementary or
secondary school classrooms.

One of the most important things about this
opportunity to be in classrooms, is that they will be

able to supervise the students that they have theoretical discussions with back at the university. This supervision will allow them to see what gaps may have developed in the students' programs. It will allow them to plan their teaching based on the input that the students are getting in school every day. School systems and universities can develop programs which produce teachers with the specific competencies needed by that system. Since they will be in the school on a day to day basis, professors will be able to talk to administrators and teachers and talk about the kind of school that those interested parties would like to develop. Through this interaction they will have a better idea of what the schools need. In some cases they will develop formal ways of planning teacher education programs to relate to specific systems.

When we had a large number of teachers to produce in a short time we could be satisfied with minimum competencies. We could feel that as long as we had people in the schools who knew a little bit about teaching, that was better than nobody in the schools at all. Thus, there was a reason to have the traditional non-integrated approach. Now that we have the teacher surplus we can no longer continue with the same hit-or-miss teacher education procedures. At one time it seemed reasonable

that everybody would need a course in curriculum develop-
ment, methods, child psychology, foundations and student
teaching. No longer can it be said that these individu-
al elements make up the whole. The total picture is im-
portant. We need to re-integrate the disciplines we have
set up. Classroom happenings do not fall into one dis-
cipline or another discipline. The teacher must be able
to react in a holistic way. He must be able to see the
theory elements of a stiuation; the curriculum elements
of a situation. He must have practice in using those
elements in an integrated way.

This integration will open up new areas for study,
as it has done in the liberal arts. The field of bio-
chemistry alone. The field of folklore has implications
in the social sciences, in history, in language, and in
literature. Both of those fields produce new insights
into the development of certain thinking and reasoning.
The original separation was done for good purposes. The
process is incomplete unless we re-integrate and study
the relationships as well as the differences. Only in
studying the samenesses and the differences and the inter-
dependencies of the disciplines can we really understand
the full nature of the environment in which we live and
work.

Thus, the realization of the limitations of the

traditional, fragmented approach to teacher education,
in a time when we need better teachers, rather than more,
leads us to consideration of a new model for a teacher
education program.

The Need for In-depth Approaches

Given the problem, and the large number of resources available we must try and decide in which direction
the solution may lie. My view is that it is necessary
to develop an in-depth teacher education program. The
following section will explain why I see an in-depth
program as being a very important solution.

The population. The need for an in-depth program
is already evident to many people and groups of people
wanting to become teachers. In the past there was a
large population of people who saw teaching as something
to fall back on. These people would take the normal 18
credits, or the normal column A, column B approach with
no real interest in becoming teachers. They felt that
if they couldn't make it as a scientist, or an historian,
or a writer, they could always take a job as a teacher.
During the mid and late 60's there were a number of young
men who became teachers as a way of getting out of the
draft. Women who saw their main function in life as
getting married shortly after college and raising a family

have historically been interested in teaching. There has been a large group who have come into teaching feeling that they didn't need too much training in teaching because they knew a specific subject field. Many unemployed engineers and scientists tried to get jobs as college and high school teachers. This population is becoming much smaller. The surplus of "fall back" jobs just doesn't exist anymore.

There is some loss to the teaching professions, because the groups mentioned don't come into teaching. Many coming by these routes have stayed to embrace the profession. Some excellent teachers came into teaching to escape the draft. Often, women who thought they would be getting married very quickly have gained a larger view about teaching. This loss is to be lamented. However, there are many groups filling the gaps.

We are gaining a number of new populations in teacher education programs. These populations come to teaching as an affirmative gesture. They mean to stay in education.

Some coming into teaching are starting a second career. They want a profession in which they can view their life in terms of service to the community. For the most part, these people have been those who have done very well financially and no longer need the large income. One of these people who entered a teaching pro-

gram at the University of Massachusetts was an ex-school board member. He had been a chairman of a school board for fifteen years. He felt he needed to be a teacher to be a good board member. His managerial skills were of great import in his teacher education program. He was able to organize classrooms very well. He had a lot of trouble psychologizing the material so that his students could understand it. No doubt a standard teacher education program would have been no problem for him. He could have easily mastered the courses. This would have wasted both his particular talent,managerial skills, and would not have pointed up his weaknesses. He could have organized his class so well that it would have looked good. Only in an in-depth program could he come to grips with the problem of the difference between logical organization and the way children learn. This man is now teaching and is an important addition to the profession.

Some of the new teachers are those people who have not found the jobs for which they originally set out to train satisfying. In one case, a person who trained for years as a mechanical engineer, and had worked for ten years, gave up a job in the $25,000 to $35,000 category because he felt he no longer needed income at that level. He and his wife sat down (they had been told that they could have no children) and decided that there was no need

for him to work as hard as he had been at an unrewarding job. He quit his job, took a year off, and went into a Master-of Arts in teaching program. He enjoyed teaching greatly even though his starting salary as a teacher, including the Master's degree and the credit that was given him by the school system for his industrial experience, was only $8,000 dollars. The end to this story is familiar. He and his wife then had a child. Teaching had come to mean so much to him that he decided to stay in it. He is now running a teacher education program in Vermont.

This category also includes poeple who have gone through much schooling only to find that the goals set for them are not the goals they value. A good example is a student who quit in the middle of law school and went into a teacher education program. This type of person can be of great benefit to the profession. These people have left other fields of endeavor because they found that they were not functioning in a way they were happy with. They will leave teaching if they have the same problem. They need to know that they have chosen something as a vocation that they can do well in. They need to develop the skills to do it well.

The divorced woman has particular needs when she is deciding to become a teacher. She may have a family and the experience of raising children to add to her

educational background. She has decided to become self
supporting at an age at which it is difficult to start
in most professions. She may be able to start in educa-
tion, but in the present job market she may have trouble
getting a job because of community need for continued
commitment and length of time of service. She cannot
get a job in that community unless she has highly develop-
ed teaching skills. She needs an in-depth program. She
may be head and shoulders above those who are coming
into the profession as their first go-round in their
working life. This woman has the advantage of having
the experience and the background of having raised child-
ren. She needs to couple this practical knowledge with
a hard nosed intellectual approach to teaching. This
program can help her integrate her total experience with
her new profession.

These groups need to have depth in their training.
They must be able to integrate their education courses.
They are people who have made a conscious effort to move
away from something expected, something acceptable to
the society. They move toward teaching later in life.
They need in-depth programs so that they will be able to
teach well. Teaching would not have lured them from
financially satisfying careers, if they had not decided
that they wanted to be good teachers. One of these
students said this best when he told instructors in a

teacher preparation program - "I'm willing to give you people my full time and my full commitment while I'm in your program, but I'd better learn something about teaching." He let it trail off, but the implication was clear, 'Iwant to learn to be a good teacher, or I will not be a teacher at all.'

The 20 to 21 year old college junior and seniors who are coming into teaching now are also different. They are examining alternative life styles. Many of them have dropped out of school for a length of time. They have come back to college with specific goals in mind. They feel that work must be meaningful. Going into a job just because it is financially remunerative is not satisfying. They want unity in their life. Work is part of life, and they want it to be meaningful. Their work must relate to human beings. They are led to teaching because it involves that essential interaction between human beings.

Many of them remember bad experiences in school. The school situation was one which did not integrate their total life. It tended to be forced on them by their parents or by the society. They may have dropped out and gained particualr educational views. They come back to school with a lot of trepidation. Some want to go back and do better for their students than was done for them. Others want to be able to bring the skills of the teacher

to their life styles, either in alternative schools -
completely outside the public domain, or to be able to
teach   their own children. They need to be able to teach
well. If they are working in an alternative school,
creating their curriculum without the normal pressures,
but also without the normal support of the public school,
they need to understand what goes into making a curricu-
lum. If they are going back into the public schools and
want to be able to do better than was done for them, they
will be fighting the socializing pressure which makes new
teachers look like old teachers. They need to be able
to hold onto their principles and understand the theory
behind them. If they want to teach their own children
and be self-sufficient they need to be able to distin-
quish between the role of parent and the role of teacher.

This group is extremely exciting to work with and
has much potential. But it is easily led by gimmicks
and profits. They tend to look for universal answers to
very difficult questions. They may jump on the band
wagon of a particular religious sect, or a particular
way of looking at the world, or a particular manipulation.
An in-depth program will give these people the tools to
solve the problems they will be facing. It allows them
to become critical thinkers. They can evaluate, and
judge, and be able to use the best part of any idea,
and discard the worst parts of any version of the 'word,'

that is presented to them.

    <u>The university</u>. The realization that an in-depth teacher education program is needed is slow in coming in the university. But people in the university are becoming aware that for financial and also theoretical reasons such a program is indeed necessary. There are presures on university schools of education to develop teacher education programs that produce better teachers. The piecemeal approach to this is not working. Funding institutions will fund only schools of education that do a better job. They tend to move to teaching machines, or new curriculum projects, or the like. In many cases they already have. There are pressures on schools of education (as on the whole university system) by students, to produce a meaningful educational course for them.

    Accountability of the school of education to the state or the area which it serves should be considered. Questions from taxpayers in the state have two forms. The first is: 'How do my children benefit from your school of education?' In the past when there was pressure on schools of education to accept more and more students, the answer to the question was, we help you by producing a thousand teachers a year. Your sons and daughters can become teachers in our schools. Now when people trained to be teachers can't get jobs, that answer is not appropriate. We need to be able to say that the teachers we

are producing are of such a quality that they are getting the few jobs available. Then, the question concerns the children who go to the schools in the state or in the area affected by the teachers we put out. Are your people good teachers? Are my children benefitted by the teachers who come from your school of education? There is a pressure on schools of education to put out a quality teacher - a teacher who can do much more than meet state certification requirements. In this way, the parent can see a direct pay-off in improved education for their children for the tax money put into the university schools of education.

In addition there is an accountability movement on the part of the students who come to the university. Students want to be good teachers. They ask, "Will we have the ability to go out and do something worthwhile? Can we develop our skills?" They realize that if they are not good, they will not get jobs in the present tight job market. 'Can we get jobs?' is a big question for many students in college. Fewer students more fully pre-pared will have a better chance of getting the fewer jobs out in the society. Schools of education need to assure that the students is produces have a high level of competence in specific critical teaching areas. School systems who want good people will hire those with these skills.

We are haunted here, again, by the problem of the
teacher dropouts who have become teachers, taught for a
couple of years, and then dropped out to do something
else because they find it very difficult to function in
the environment of the schools. They may feel that they
do not have power in their environment. What they have
learned does not earn the community regard that they
expected. They may have entered the school seeing them-
selves as people who are going to change the environment.
They find they do not have the necessary tools. They
don't have the critical skills to hold on to their beliefs
and show that these can work. The job they thought they
could do is beyond their capabilities. They will either
adopt the teaching techniques and philosophies of those
people already teaching in the schools or they will drop
out. Somebody who views himself in terms of changing
the status quo, of making schools better than they were
before, can easily be frustrated by feeling powerless.

If we produced all great teachers starting tomor-
row; if everyone who graduated from one of our programs
was the best teacher in the world, after a very few years,
those people in the schools would look very much like
traditional teachers who are out there now. We are not
now providing our student the self view and the theoreti-
cal strengths to preserve that self view, that we need
to provide. If they don't know how to make something

that does not work better so that it will work next time, they will fail at any attempt at change. The teachers' room advise will take over. They'll get advice like, 'Don't smile until Christmas. Keep a heavy hand on the class. Don't allow any choices.' Because the schools and children in the schools have been geared to this approach for years, they may be slightly more successful with these methods of operation than they had been with their radical or innovative ideas. This success is a reinforcement for the methods of the older teachers. Our students come back and say, 'Nothing you taught us had any value. Now I really know what it's really like out there.' What they really know is that they tried something and it didn't work, so they tried something else. They don't have the theoretical strength or background to figure out why something didn't work and develop a better method out of it.[17] A successful in-depth program would provide the new teacher with a bulwark against frustration.

Frustration is also felt by those who work in teacher education. Many find that they can't seem to be able to get students interested in the piecemeal approach that they have been using. Foundations professors,

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[17] John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education," Cited in Silberman, p. 459-60.

methods professors, curriculum development professors, educational psychology professors, all find that the students they have in their classrooms are unable to integrate the material being taught with real world experiences. They haven't been out in the schools yet. The only time they have been in schools has been as students and they now need a different view of school interactions. The students of these professors will never be able to integrate the material being presented to them if they don't have a chance to go into the classroom, work with children, and see the ways in which the theories operate. In our present system, students take their theoretical work, then they go out and student teach and then, if they can find a job, they become teachers.[18] Their view of their education often is, "oh yeah, I took that course. It wasn't any good. None of that theoretical stuff is any good because those people have never been in the classroom." This is only partially true. One reason that the "stuff isn't any good" is that the students had not had the experience to be able to hear what the professors were saying originally. When they go and try to integrate it, they can't remember enough of what was said. They need to hear the theory, go try

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[18]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 461.

it out in the classroom, come back and discuss how that theory relates to classroom activity, go try it again, come back again and discuss some more. They should go through this process over and over, until they have a solid theoretical view of what is going on in the class-room and how it relates to the day-to-day work. Until this is done, we will always hear the comment, "Well, that class had nothing to do with what teaching really is." We will always have the frustrated professor who can't seem to get the interest of his students even though he's introducing material he knows is important.

A totally different view of in-service education must be developed. It's obvious that if we were able to develop great teachers starting tomorrow, and if they were not socialized by the teachers' room process in the schools, it would still take forty years for us to change the schools entirely. It would take forty years because it would take that time for all the teachers now in the schools to retire. Even in the ideal situation, we would have to go into classrooms and work with people who are already teaching if we are to shorten the forty year wait. A later section will present the form which this in-service program can take. It cannot be the old in-service program. It must deal in new ways with the problems raised.

The in-service dilemma is seen in the problem

of curriculum. Schools and school systems have been moving toward the cellophane-enclosed, teacher proof curriculum for years. Although these curriculums look glorious, schools are finding that they just don't work. There is really no such thing as a teacher-proof curriculum. The best curriculum can be ruined by a teacher who really doesn't understand the theory behind a particular method. An example of this is the experience I had with a fifth grade teacher who was teaching mathematics. Over a long period of time I explained the notion of a place value box and how it relates to the idea of positional notation in our number system. I showed her how to make a place value box and how to use it. She listened carefully and decided that it would be a good thing for her to do with some of her students. I came back two weeks later and looked at the place value box. She had ordered the values in the boxes incorrectly. Instead of putting the ones area on the right, the tens to the left of that and the hundreds to the left of that, she had reversed them. This is not the positional notation of our system. Although it seems to be a minor problem, it makes the translation from the box to written number very hard for a student. In addition, she had completely forgotten the idea of grouping ten ones together, putting a rubber band around them and making them one ten. Instead she had said, "when you get ten

ones you take them out and we'll take a card of another color and call it one ten." This error makes a ten seem completely different from ten ones. When it came time for subtracting or adding the students couldn't regroup, that is take the rubber band on or off, and know they were dealing with a translation. They still had to make the exact theoretical leap that the place value box was designed to demonstrate. The place value box was less than worthless because of the amount of time that was put into it. I have seen the place value box work in a number of situations and it is a good method. It speaks directly to the nature of our number system. It can be misused by some teachers.

By trying to teacher proof classroom material, we do away with the greatest benefit a teacher can bring to a classroom. That benefit can only be derived from the personal interests and strengths of the individual teacher. Each individual teacher has his own way of looking at the world, his own way of organizing the data, his own interests and his own strengths. To give every teacher the same externally developed curriculum is to negate the value of their individual life experiences. Students do not need to be protected from the life experiences of teachers. Teachers need to learn how to

integrate those experiences with curriculum.[19]

In order for the teacher to truly understand any particular curriculum package he must have worked through it for himself. No matter how much a teacher tries to work through a curriculum package developed by somebody else, it is still foreign. It doesn't grow out of the teacher's experience. It may be beyond his knowledge in certain areas. Teachers must develop their own curriculum in order to be able to handle student questions in the classroom. Depth can only come from personal knowledge. A teacher handling his own material is much more able to say, "I don't know." He is at least confident of his knowlege in the field. He is more apt to say to a student, 'Maybe we can find that out together.' He is working with material that he has some interest for in himself. He may present the material in a way that is alive and stimulating. We must teach our teachers to be able to develop curriculum both in our pre-service programs and in our in-service programs.

A professional educator should be able to do better than act as a baby-sitting service for the society. He should be able to handle child development analysis better than the parent. There should be a difference in

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[19]John Holt, THE UNDERACHIEVING SCHOOL, New York: Dell, 1969. pp. 200-1.

training between the professional educator and the parent. The theoretical analysis of the needs of a specific child is an important one of these areas. The educator should be able to recognize learning disabilities that develop in a large proportion of the students in our classrooms. A teacher should be able to recognize these, diagnose them prescribe action to be taken within the program of an individual classroom.

In addition, a teacher who is a true professional should be an expert in self supervision. He should be able to analyze problems in his classroom and decide what needs to be done, both for individual students, and in terms of group development. He should be able to develop a classroom atmosphere from a theoretical base which meets individual needs of each child in that room. We are only beginning to see that that capability is necessary. We have the facilities for developing that kind of teacher. The pressure to produce large numbers of teachers is off.

In sum, in order for us to develop a truly strong educational system, we must develop teachers who have an in-depth theoretical practical understanding of the total classroom interaction. This cannot be done in the old column A, column B mode. We must chage the mode to an in-depth program. Through this in-depth program teachers will begin to understand the theory and the related practice of what schools can be about.

CHAPTER II

SELECTION

The first major element to consider in develop-
ing an in-depth teacher education program is that of
selection. In the past, schools of education have tend-
ed to accept all people who applied to teacher education
programs. This can happen no longer. The job market is
closing. Fewer people are entering teacher training
programs because there is no certainty in the job market.
There is neither the initial employment availability as
there has been in the past, nor is education a good back-
up for people who are actually seeking professional train-
ing in other areas. Reasons for this have been discussed
in Chapter I.

In addition schools of education themsleves are
realizing that they cannot take everybody who applies
anymore. They are beginning to realize that it is
immoral to pretend to be training the teachers of the
future in large numbers when jobs for very few of these
exist. At the University of Massachusetts about a
thousand new teachers a year have graduated during the
past four or five years. The School of Education is
beginning to realize that it is unfair to promise people

employment, (which a teacher training program implicitly does), when now only about one fourth of those people are getting jobs. In the Amherst community it is common to find graduates of teacher preparation programs working as sales clerks, or grocery clerks or waitresses in restaurants. They may still wish to teach, but these are the only jobs they can find. The job market puts pressure both on individuals who have thought about becoming teachers and on institutions which realize that they can now no longer have a scattered approach in the selection of their teachers, but must become more and more specific and exacting in their requirements for who shall enter teacher training programs.

Since we can now select fewer people than we have in the past for the strength we need to have a new view of what selection should be about. We need to find the best that are in the field of potential teachers. This section will discuss some items of selection in the past and some new views of selection.

Are Teachers Born or Made?

The first issue that we have to deal with in this area is that of training versus talent in teaching. This argument has proceeded at length for all the time that we have had teaching training programs. Many educators feel that teachers are naturals who really know what

they are doing before they come into a teacher training program and that we do very little for them. I assume that this is not the case; that teachers can be trained; that teachers can learn skills that make them better teachers. We may agree that certain people because of their life experiences have an edge in terms of being able to handle classrooms, deal with intellectual material, and in general fill the role of teacher. But this type of background is not essential to becoming a good teacher nor is it sufficient in itself. If the student comes to us with this type of background, there is still much that he needs to learn. If he does not have this type background when he starts, there are many things that we can teach him which will compensate extremely well and may in fact make him the better teacher.

> It would be flying in the face of all observation and experience, to deny that many of the best teachers have come up to their present condition with no other helps than the gifts of nature and opportunity; but this important fact no more proves the inutility of training than the success of Washington and Franklin and Lincoln prove the inutility of a collegiate education. We must, in judging of every subject of this kind, eliminate the exceptional examples of genius, and form our opinion from results on the great uninspired masses of mankind.[1]

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[1]Charles Kendall Adams, "The Teaching of Pedagogy in Colleges and Universities," in TEACHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA, Merle L. Borrowman, Ed. New York: Teachers College Press. 1965. pp. 87-88.

Part of this is a statment of faith, a paper of
this scope cannot seek to prove that good teachers are
in fact trained and not naturals. But I cannot believe
that we have been running teacher education programs in
the United States for as long as we have with the idea
that we are just brushing up the skills of the natural
teachers who exist around us. I take it as an article
of faith that in fact I have a substantial effect on the
eventual teaching postures and skill and commitment of
my teacher preparation students. Teacher training is
not a laying on of hands, it is a hard nosed, highly in-
tellectual process, taking a person with a certain back-
ground, with certain skills, and developing that back-
ground and those skills plus new skills into the tools
of a highly qualified teacher.

The reason that this process has to take place
is that "natural" knowledge is, shall we say, intuition.
We do not know in a cognitive way where it comes from,
how it is to be applied in specific situations. So as
situations look very common and we can remember what
somebody else did in another situation or what we did
in another situation that works we can operate. When
situations begin to look different or when we don't
fully understand all the elements we get into trouble.
Natural knowledge or intuition is undifferentiated
knowledge, it is unorganized, it needs to be cognitively

understood and organized to be applicable to new situations.[2] The so called natural teacher does have an advantage if he sees his natural ability as a background which he can learn to understand in a cognitive way and learn to direct to the problems of teaching. His natural ability becomes a deficit if he doesn't learn the cognitive aspects of what he can do by the seat of his pants.

On the other hand lack of specific kinds of experiences relating to kids such as working in camp situations or raising younger siblings in a family does not indicate that the technical skills cannot be learned by that individual. When the technical skills are learned, they can provide the avenue by which the individual can integrate other seemingly non-related intuitive understanding with the process of teaching. Whereas natural skills can either be beneficial or detrimental depending how they are handled in a teacher education program, somebody who comes to teaching without the natural skills, can be taught technical skills that he needs to know and the way in which to bring whatever experience he does have to bear in the problems at hand. Therefore, the initial advantage of the natural teacher over the teacher who does not have the so called natural

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[2]Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, TEACHING AS A SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITY, N.Y., Dell, 1969. p. 18-19.

experiences is not likely to leave a gap between the two in a good teacher training program. That is to say, a teacher training program which is organized along cognitive hard knowledge lines.

A "natural" teacher without technical skills will eventually fall on hard times in teaching. Specific and technical skills need to be learned by all teachers. We need not, nor should we, try to limit our selected population to those people who show previous natural ability. In many cases those people who show natural ability go on to become very good teachers. But we limit our population inappropriately by taking only those people who because of their cultural, economic, or social background have found chances to have those experiences which give the appearance of natural ability. Limiting our population in this way is counter-productive to developing a core of good teachers, because one of the elements of that core is diversity.[3]

Cultural Diversity

Cultural diversity in a teacher education program is of paramount importance in developing the skills and abilities of teachers to their fullest. We need to be

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[3]Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, TEACHING AS A SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITY, N.Y., Dell, 1969. p. 18-19.

aware of the importance of diversity when instituting selection procedures. There is a tendency when accepting people into a teacher education program to lean heavily toward those who are most like ourselves. We must keep the goal of cultural diversity before us to balance against this selection limitation.[4]

Students who come to us and say the right words, talk the right theory, say they are supportive of children, seem to be the most attractive candidates. We say, "Hey, that person is like me and I am a good teacher, so that person will probably be a good teacher." A different approach is necessary. Most of us teach like some ideal or realized teacher in our past. This is not necessarily productive. It is mimicking without reason. We need to develop reason in teachers with which they can develop their own styles. With diversity, we have a number of different people who will start from different points, who organize their data in different ways. These teachers will not end up like any person that we know.

When a group of teachers or pre-teachers of diverse background get together and discuss problems they have seen in a classroom and have solutions that come out of

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[4]RACISM AND AMERICAN EDUCATION, New york, Harper Celophon Book, 1970. p. 123.

very different cultural backgrounds, the ideas of each of the teachers are challenged.[5] The pat solution will not be seen as pat for everybody. This is good because these solutions will probably not work for them in all situations because if they do not understand the theory behind a proposed solution and sc ₂ of its probable consequences, they may find it causing them more problems than the original situation that needed solution. A diverse teacher training program provides challenges to the pat solutions from the very beginning. And in addition these challenges don't have to come from the instructor, they come from the potential teachers. And this type of peer challenge is most important.

Interaction between individuals with diverse backgrounds and theories, both strengthens and broadens the different positions. It is this interaction which becomes very powerful in a teacher training program. Potential teachers will not need to wait until they find the classroom situation in which their pat answer will not work in order to develop a new one. Their ideas will be challenged from the beginning. Teacher education should produce a great deal of discussion among students on issues such as discipline, grading, degrees of structure

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[5]RACISM AND AMERICAN EDUCATION, New York, Harper Celophon Book, 1970. p. 123-7.

in the classroom, testing, and social interaction. If
these seminars are populated by people with only like ex-
periences they can be dull and self-serving. If they are
populated by people with widely divergent experience they
can be extremely exciting and distrubing and develop
skills that will go far beyond those of many entering
the teaching profession for the first time.

Cultural diversity works within the classrooms
that the students in these programs will eventually run
by enriching the environment and providing variety of
adult role models. In their schooling children meet a
large number of teachers, but one problem is that most
of the teachers they find are a very similar group. They
may see teachers as being a succession of different people,
but the same personality. And this is to be understood.
Teachers after all are those people who were studious
enough to complete high school, go on to college, develop
enough skills to be certified teachers and then go back
and teach. They are a similar group because their goals
and expectations have been the same. In addition, most
of them have had similar limitations on their lives. If
they follow the normal pattern, they have not done much
outside of summer jobs in the way of out of school work.
They have not experienced being poor. They have not ex-
perienced not being able to read and not being able to do

well in school. They have not experienced flunking out of school. They have not experienced a number of circumstances which the students they teach may be experiencing, may be seeing as their future, or may be involved in in some way through relatives or other people in their lives.

This lack of real world experience is also evident within the classroom environment. Students see only those problems which the teacher has been successful with before being dealt with. Among these are, doing well in school, getting the homework done, getting good grades. It is important for the teacher to be able to deal with experiences which are foreign to his own life-style.

> They were really illiterates, however, in the areas
> of social science that were relevant to their jobs
> ...Our teachers, in very fundamental areas in which
> they are to function, are ill-prepared, no different
> than the general population, in their knowledge, not
> to mention their attitudes.[6]

One example of the interaction of different backgrounds in the classroom is a teacher, who was explaining to a seventh grade class, the concept of a cluster. He was talking about a cluster in school, a group of people who get together to work on a specific problem. The

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[6]RACISM AND AMERICAN EDUCATION, New York, Harper Celophon Book, 1970. p. 52.

students couldn't understand this too well, but one of them remembered the word from his own experience. He came from a farm working family, whose parents picked grapes, and he asked, "Is that like a grape cluster?" The teacher hadn't thought of this before, so he stopped for a second, and then he said, "Yes, it's just like a grape cluster. A grape cluster has a lot of grapes all in one little bunch, and they are together because they have some similarities. They're all the same kinds of grapes, and they all grow in the same area, on the same plant, on the same stem, and that is what our cluster in school is going to be like. It's going to be a group of people, who work in the same area of the school, who have the same classrooms, and who are all of the same kind, that is to say they have the same problems working in school and so they will work together as a cluster." This was something the student could understand. It was an analogy which made sense to him from his experience, but it was not an analogy which would have been available to the teacher unless the student had brought it up. We need to ask how many of those analogies, how many of those ways of tying up an idea with real world experiences are lost because a teacher does not have a background more similar to his students.

We cannot develop each teacher to have only similarities to his own students, but we can develop a

diverse population within our schools so that students going to school will at some time in their educational life come across somebody who has similar experiences. This becomes an educational strength for that teacher and it also gives the student more strength with other teachers. Where he does not see any personal similarity, at least he may see teachers as individuals and not as a group of people who may be very different from him, who may be out to get him.

There is a need for cultural diversity in the teaching population to help proliferate adult role models for students in their classroom experiences. For a long time we have recognized the need for both men and women teaching at all levels in schools. Students need to see both men and women acting in different ways in the classrooms at all levels. This is why there has recently been a push to have more male elementary teachers and female secondary school teachers. With this balance of role models, both boys and girls can identify themselves and model themselves after adults of both sexes. But this issue goes far beyond maleness or femaleness as it applies to classroom role models. Often, it is the so called outside interest of a particular teacher which firms up the link between that teacher and a specific student. In my experience, contact with some students through shared interests in automobile repair was often

the basis of a vlauable teaching relationship. This link-up became a powerful inducement for those students to learn some of the academic things which went on in the classroom if they could be couched in terms of our shared outside interests.

> It does occur to me that there are very few secondary schools in the United States where this kind of discussion could have taken place. The resources among the teachers in those schools are inadequate to sustain such a discussion...It's something the schools need to adjust to in some fashion or other. And I suspect that the practical methods of reaching in this direction first of all have to do with major changes in teacher training and that such discussions as this need very much to be a part - much more in the United States - of teacher training activities.[7]

But each individual's interests are limited by their culture, cultural background and experiences. He cannot be a role model for everybody who's going to be in a given classroom and shouldn't try to. We need not try to teach one teacher to be a role model for all students. If we produce a diverse teaching population of people who have many different kinds of backgrounds, then somewhere in our schools our students will be able to find someone to model themselves after. This type of modelling has been shown to be extremely effective, and extremely important for youngsters in their classroom development. We cannot hope to determine what kinds of models

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[7]RACISM AND AMERICAN EDUCATION, New York, Harper Celophon Book, 1970. p. 81.

we need and then pick people to develop those kinds of models, but we can select potential teachers from a diversity of populations and put them in classrooms and allow their diversity to be attractive to their students. People are basically interesting, and we should allow them to develop their interesting qualities. We should not take all their interesting qualities and level them in trying to produce teachers who are all the same.

Another aspect of this, is that teachers who are trained in a diverse group, containing people of different ages, different cultural background, different economic background, different social backgrounds are more apt to encourage the development of individual life goals and expectations among their students.[8] These teachers open their perspectives of what a successful person can be. They see individual life goals or expectations as being developed from a broader range, and therefore, they are less likely to try to impose their own personal life goals and expectation upon their students.

Cultural diversity in the teaching population is also important in that this diversity can provide truly new perspectives on educational problems which we have

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[8]John Holt, <u>WHAT DO I DO ON MONDAY</u>, New York, Dell, 1970. p. 76.

faced for a long time. In many cases in the past it has been the different background and orientation of a person coming to a new field which has solved the problem that has been stumping people for a long time. And after the solution of the problem people say "Oh, yeh, that was simple. Anybody with that background could have seen that way of doing it." One of the best examples of this is the mathematics of rotation in AC motors. It's a very interesting field that rests on imaginary numbers and multiplication by impaginary numbers. Before the matematics of imaginary numbers was applied to magnetic field and rotation in electical motors the problems were extremely difficult and complex. But with the addition of the idea of the square root of minus 1(i) as a way of dealing with another dimension, we developed a simple way of handling these magnetic fields and handling rotating motors. It was the diversity of the population approaching the problem of rotation in electric motors that developed that simple solution to a problem that used to drive engineers crazy.

For all of these reasons, we need a culturally diverse population in our classrooms.

How to Attract a Diverse Group

This population will need some changes in the structure of the program. They will not be coming

through teacher education programs in the same way that
our culturally homogeneous groups have come through in
the past. The average pre-teaching student of the old
system came straight through high school to college,
decided fairly early on that he wanted to become an
education major and stayed with it all the way through
to become a teacher. We encouraged this. We liked to
see these people come through because we felt that they
had had a long term commitment to teaching. They had
that long term commitment because their cultural back-
ground directed them to it. They were following social
pressures and not their own personal commitment. How-
ever, the people that we are looking for now, the people
with the cultural background different from that homo-
geneous group, tend to come through in different ways,
and therefore, the structure of the program must be one
which allows them to enter from their own position and
their own timing.

This new population has different needs in terms
of the time, the scope, and the sequence of the teacher
education program. The first of these needs is multiple
entry and exit points.[9] The concept that after four
years a teacher training program will have produced a

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[9] Paul Goodman, COMPULSORY MIS-EDUCATION AND THE
COMMUNITY OF SCHOLARS, New York, Vintage, 1964. pp. 302-3.

teacher negates the principle of individual develop-
ment and individual needs. Some people don't need that
much time in their teacher education program. They know
that they want to become a teacher. They can become good
starting teachers with very little work. Others who might
bring tremendous benefits to clas: ooms also have problems
that require a lot of work. They may need five or six
years of on again and off again teacher education pro.-
grams combined with other experiences to bring their full
talent to the fore. We have tended to say that we cannot
afford the time that these people need. If we take a
look at these people, we may expect to find some that
will enrich the teaching profession.

There are, of course, realistic time limitations.
We cannot set up programs which cater specifically to
people who need a lot of work in teacher education. The
frustration level will be very high here. Part of these
people will drop out. If we design our programs with
multiple entry and exit points, people who have an interest
and a concern will be able to become teachers. Some
very good teachers come out of on-again-off-again-let-me-
find-out-about-myself-first type of teacher education
programs. In the past they have had to go outside of
the systems. But we can build programs that will allow
them this entry and exit availability.

One of the strengths of this entry and exit avail-

ability is that it can allow for experiences outside of
teaching and incorporate them into the program. In
other words, the teacher need not concern himself only
with his theoretical training while he is at the univer-
sity, he can develop practical field experiences within
the field of teaching, or in a related field. For example
a potential science teacher might work as a scientist
in the field or as a lab assistant on an expedition.

These work experiences need not be controlled to
the extent that they have been in the past if we allow
a multiple entry and exit. Who is to say before some-
body sets out in a work experience what the actual relation-
ship between that work experience and the pre-teacher's
professional goals will be. Nobody. What we must do is
redefine the program so that within a program we can in-
clude what up to now has been called dropping out and
coming back to school.

Within a teacher education program we should set
up structure which allow students to leave school and
re-enter not only with no loss of credit, but quite the
contrary, a situation in which they can come back and
say, "I've done thus and so and I think it works in this
way and I want credit for that." Allowing that is one
of the ways to enccurage cultural diversity within our
teaching population.

High Risk Students

With the development of this structure we will begin to see a new student population within our programs. This is the population which I will call the high risk student.[10] It would seem logical in selecting teachers in a new and limited program to shy away from high risk students. It would seem logical that with limited position availability the program would want those people that have the most potential for success in our classrooms. However, high risk students bring a lot of benefits with them into the classroom, and the benfits may outweigh the risks.

Steering away from the high risk students has served the needs of people who are running the teacher education program if not the student population of the schools that the teacher education program serve. Evaluations of programs proceed from the base of how many people the program took in, graduated from the program, how many of these people got jobs and how many are teaching after one year or more. Evaluating the strengths of a program in this manner may have limited the type of the growth

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[10]A high risk student is one who by the standard evaluation methods seems to have a poor chance of completing a specific program or of completing it at a level which would lead to success in employment.

available to certain students.

Some people coming into education are hesitant about giving up some of their personal power, of decision in order to join a program without reservation. During the screening process for admission to the program tend to talk about a multiplicity of i terests. They are unsure of what they want from their lives. They may have done a lot of other things, and they talk about their ability to go back to these things. We have tended to stay away from these people as a group. According to the standard evaluation procedures, if these people are accepted and later drop out there is a blot on the program's record. This does not have to be the case. What does it really mean to the student and to the program if a high risk student drops out? The student has added an element to his education and has decided to integrate it in a way that is not exactly the way we planned. We recognize that we do not have the final say in what way a particular piece of information or particular view of the world is to be integrated. The student who takes part in a program and later decides not to become a teacher has not lost anything. He has widened his horizons. The program's loss may be a significant gain to him. It may also be a significant gain to education. A student who realizes that he can't do some kinds of things in some kinds of schools may re-

direct himself to something that he can do. We should
allow the interchange between high risk students and
other students in the class. It may widen horizons for
both. We are broadening our program by including people
who have a view that is significantly different from ours.
This can only be seen as a gain.

The gains of having a high risk student complete
a program are enormous. This person is apt to be a
teacher who is looked to for new ideas. Student teachers
may be benefited by watching him. He tends to be the
kind of teacher who is exciting to children, who helps
the school system, and who gives drive to the educa-
tional process, because he brings his diverse background
to the school system. This diversity is paramount. Each
individual has his unique strengths. The self view of
the high risk student allows him to say, "I am unique,
I can be a teacher in my own style, my own mode." Whether
he drops out or stays in the high risk student is import-
ant in the teaching population.

One of the reasons that a high risk student is
indeed high risk, is that he is treading on new ground.
He is not becoming a teacher because that is a cultural
imperative for him. He is becoming a teacher out of his
own personal goal. Society is not pressuring him to be-
come something extremely different. These individuals
need support along there chosen paths. This is one of

the reasons that the drop-out rate among these people are so high. They do not have the support mechanism built into their day-to-day interactions to keep them in the program. They are more likely to hear something like, "Oh why are you going to college? That's a waste of time," or "Why are you trying to be a teacher? You could be an engineer, or you could be a lawyer, or you could be a doctor." These people need support in their choices. All of teaching will benefit from having these people in education.

> preparing to become a teacher is like preparing to become a poet. The preparation begins in a decision to become something, a commitment made about one's own life and the purpose of it.[11]

One of the benefits is that a person who is successful at countering social pressures with his own goals provides a model of a powerful person who can be effective in a hostile environment. He may be coming into a teacher education program without the credentials that will normally help him to succeed. If he is successful against those odds he provides others in the program and eventually his students with a good role model for a self actualizing person. He knows what he wants to do

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[11]Harold Taylor, THE WORLD AND THE AMERICAN TEACHER, Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1968.

and can oppose those forces in his environment which keep him from getting the job done. That is another reason that it is worth our while to give support to the high risk student.

Characteristcs of Diverse Population

There are four characteristics which we can look for in evaluating members of these diverse populations for selection purposes. These include return to the University after an interruption of their schooling, excellence in a field other than education, experience in another occupation and personalised communications skill.

Interuption of Education

It is very hard to find a student at any educational level in our society today who says he is going to school because he wants to. He may say he likes school, but when we question him a little bit more closely, it turns out that school is something that is expected by his parents or will help him get a job or has some other end beyond the enrichment of himself as a person. As long as this position is taken by students, school has two purposes, and one of them does not serve the student. When he finds this out, he is apt to drop out of school and that is a very important step.

If that individual returns to school and decides to take up something new, he is much more apt to be doing it because of his own goals and desires, rather than the pressures put on him by his parents, his peers, or the society he lives in. This type of starting point is close to essential for someone preparing to be a teacher. Without this background the individual who is becoming a teacher will put the same pressures on his own students to go to school, get a good job, to move up in social or economic ways, and that may not be productive for anybody.

Excellence Outside of Education

A second criteria for selection, is excellence in a field other than education.[12] One of the things that we find out again and again about children is that they are very much attracted to people who can really do something well. Skill is important to students. They like to think that they are doing something with somebody who really knows how to do it. There is the saw about those who can do and those who can't teach and those who can't teach, teach teachers. That bit of wisdom is outmoded. It is important for teachers to do something

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[12]Merle Borrowman, TEACHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA, p. 45-6.

so well that they provide a model of the ability level that students can aspire to. We need people who have a high level of skills and those skills need to be outside the area of the pedagogy of communicating the skills. They need to be in the real area itself. Tremendous student respect derives from that.

Excellence is important in producing both a process and a content effect of high interest. People who are really good at something, didn't get that way without a very high interest in that. They had to practice a musical instrument, learn a skill, learn a trade, and this high interest is itself a learning experience. Students can see that somebody is really excited about something and they gravitate toward that, and this is the process effect of that high interest. We all know from our personal experiences how exciting it is to meet somebody who's really excited by something that he does. He may even talk about it too much, but we don't begrudge him that, because the excitment is real and we can see the importance to him of what he is doing.

There is also a content effect of that high interest in that one or more of the students in that teachers classroom may also take on that interest. They become interested because they identify with the teacher and his interst. They are curious to see what this high

Second Occupation

An important part of this selection process is the incorporation of second occupation people into the teaching profession. These are not the people who use education as a backup for what they see as their first occupation. These are people who have done another job for a period of time and realized that it doesn't meet their needs as human beings and have decided at that point to come into education. They may have followed social pressures to a specific career, worked at it for a while, and then re-evaluated that career. They have decided to become teachers. In some cases we have given salary credits to people with experience in business and industry. That is probably a good idea, but it's not all that we should do to attract these people. Teachers with a background in another vocation bring diversity of experience which will be extremely productive in a class-room. They may help somebody into their original pro-fession who will indeed be happy there. They may bring the excitement that they originally thought would be in that profession to the classroom and do things they wish had been done in their original job. Among my students have been industrialists, lawyers, pre-doctors, and pre-dentists, all of whom have become extremely excited about teaching because it more nearly met their expectations

about what they wanted to do with their lives.

Communication Skills

Evidence of a personalized communication skill is important. This is not simply the technical skills of language communication, being able to speak in front of a group, or being able to discourse on a subject. Those can be taught. The skills at issue are the skills of organization. A good carpenter may not be extremely fluent in the English language, but he may know his field so well that through that knowledge he is able to select which pieces of information and which ways of discussing that information are most productive for the learner in each stage. If a person has that ability, I feel sure that within teacher education programs we can give him those technical skills of being able to communicate that in a teaching situation. What is much harder to teach, and what we need to see some evidence of in the people that we select in that initial step: the organizing step. Does he know what's essential about his own skill? Does he know it well enough to isolate it and be able to communicate it? If he knows that, then he can become the kind of innovative, curriculum writing self-organizing, and self-directive teacher that we expect all of the teachers of the high level teacher education program to become.

As an example of this I can describe a carpenter with whom I once worked. It was one of the best experiences in my life. Although he was not a good teacher in the sense of being able to discourse at length about what he wanted done, he was able to show at a specific instance exactly how to do something so that all of a sudden it became easy. As a novice to the field, I was time and time again using my strength to try and overcome a problem which really needed a technical skill. Without a word this carpenter could come over and show me what needed to be done so that the next time that situation arose I could handle it in that same productive way. He helped me to see where skill fits in and were it works better than strength.

Age Limitation

A caution here is also necessary. We should not limit ourselves to considering a normal age for people coming into teacher education programs. Many of the experiences that we require take time. Age need not limit our selection of these people. The experiences they bring, more than outweight the possibility that they may only teach for ten years or so before they retire.

In selection of students for the teacher education model being developed here, we will have a commitment to cultural diversity. This will provide us with

students with varied backgrounds and experiences. The following chapters will describe elements of the program itself.

Specific Techniques

I have deliberately not described specific selection procedures in this chapter. There are batteries of tests to be administered and a multiplicity of interview techniques which can be used. I have not discussed them here because they have not been designed with the goals I have listed in mind. Specific techniques must be designed with the goals well in hand.[14]

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[14]George S. Counts, "Break the Teacher Training Lockstep," in TEACHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA, Ed. Merle L. Borrowman (New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), p. 221.

CHAPTER III

THE INTEGRATED PROGRAM: THEORY - PRACTICE

In his books, including <u>Democracy and Education</u>,
<u>How We Think</u>, and <u>Experience and Education</u>, and his lec-
ture "The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education,"
John Dewey speaks about the relationship between theory
and practice in the teaching-learning environment. With-
in teacher education programs, educational theories deal
at length with the why and the how of the integrated
program in the classroom. Still, this integration has
been missing in the development of teacher education
programs themselves. There is a historical reason for
this lack. But the historical environment has changed.
This chapter is an attempt to make a working model for
a teacher education program out of the Dewey principle.

During the bulk of the educational history of the
United States, institutions of teacher education have
been playing a catch up game. Schools were established,
and people placed in teaching positions in them long
before there was any formalized training for teachers.
Often it was a relative of a school board member or in
some cases a local ne'er-do-well who was placed in the
instructional role. Teaching was seen as a socially
important function, but one which required very little

training and which was mainly aimed at keeping local
residents on the straight and narrow. As a result of
this outlook on the role of teacher, salaries were very
low and would only appeal to those people who could find
absolutely nothing better.

The tradition of the spinster school teacher grew
out of this cultural background. School teaching was a
job that a woman who was unmarried could take. She was
able to earn a living in a completely lady like way.
She could take responsibility for children and yet still
be in a position in the society properly held by unmarried
women. This background tended to disuade many good people
from becoming school teachers. The social status attach-
ed to the job was high, but the social stigma was also
very high. There was value in being a good school teacher,
but it meant being isolated from the rest of the community.
This coupled with the low remuneration tended to attract
only a certain group of people to becoming teachers. And
this group may not have been the best suited to this job.

One of the problems with this group is that they
had no practical knowledge, no background in child develop-
ment. Most of them had no families of their own because
they would not be able to support them on their teaching
salaries. Also, they did not have formal training in
child development or child rearing. They may have had

academic backgrounds, but their formal training in the pedagogy, the communication of that background, was very limited. For these reasons, schools of professional training in education became necessary, and with the population expanding rapidly they became necessary on a large scale very quickly.

The best way to start this huge undertaking seemed.to be to develop a minimum requirement program. This program seemed best because it needed the least administration and seemed most efficient in terms of giving a large number of people a smattering of the kinds of background that they needed. Thus for both pre- and in-service education during this period of tremendous need for professionally trained teachers the Chinese restaurant method of education was developed. All a prospective teacher needed to take was a certain number of courses with certain course titles in the areas of child development, methods, curriculum theory, student teaching, and perhaps philosophy or hisory of education. This column A, column B approach was echoed in state certification requirements throughout the country.[1] The state certification requirements were of the same form as the courses being offered by the normal schools, the

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[1]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 473.

colleges, and the universities. This, of course was not a coincidence. The professors and teachers of the colleges and universities were instrumental in setting up the various requirements for state certification. In these requirements we can see the effects of the universities making sure that their specialties would always be part of the training of certifiable teachers. These requirements were less oriented to the needs of those teachers and the students who they would eventually teach them to the interests of the universities who were setting up the requirements.[2] This course title approach was efficient and therefore good for the university. The minimum requirment approach for certification was easy to judge, especially when the universities provided courses with the exact same titles that were written in to the state requirements.

This system has continued to the present time. We still see certification requirements on the piecemeal, course name basis. University requirments remain closely related to those certification requirements which are in turn closely related to the special needs of specific groups within the university.

As state supervision of public schooling took hold

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[2]James Conant, THE EDUCATION OF AMERICAN TEACHERS, New York: McGraw Hill, 1963. p. 62-8.

in the 1830's and after, the newly emerging state
education departments began taking over the certi-
fication function. The growth of state licensing
paralleled the rapid expansion of public schools
and the creation of public normal schools to train
teachers for them. Since most of the public normal
schools were operated by, or under the supervision
of, the state education departments, the departments
tended to accept completion of the normal school
course of study as a basis for certification, with
teachers receiving their education elsewhere being
required to pass an examination. As a result, the
normal school emphasis on technical training in how
to teach carried over into state certification re-
quirements.[3]

The system has continued for so long that we now tend to

accept it as a given standard and try to do the best we

can in teacher education within that limited structure.

(See Appendix A on example of certification requirements).

With the present crunch in the job market for teachers

and the present realization that we need train many

fewer teachers, we are now given the opportunity to

change that whole structure to one better suited to the

training of teachers and the needs of the students that

they will teach. As the old structure was developed in

response to the needs of the society, so will the new one.

The Integration of Education Courses

This new structure I am proposing for teacher educa-

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[3]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York:
Random House, 1970. p.433, and James Conant, THE EDUCATION
OF AMERICAN TEACHERS, New York: McGraw Hill, 1963. p.23.

tion can be called the integrated program. The specific

items which have historically become the basics of teacher

education remain important and should not be thrown out.

The main element that has been missing in the training

of teachers through the traditional approach has been

integration of theory, methods and curriculum.

> The educationsts' outspoken ecleticism and empiricism
> and their failure to develop any conceptual apparatus
> --their failure even to develop any criteria by which
> the mounds of data they collected could be organized
> --made it impossible for them to develop any coherent
> conception of what education was all about.[4]

This integration is not a minor point. While these ele-

ments have been studied in depth in most teacher educa-

tion programs, integration of these areas has been lack-

ing and this has led to a piecemeal understanding of

classroom interation. I can think of many instances in

which misapplied method has led to a tremendous confusion

in the learning of a specif piece of curriculum,[5] of

disciplinary action misunderstood in its theoretical

application has led to an increasing discipline problem

rather than a resolution. With an in-depth understand-

ing of these elements and their integrstion many class-

room problems could be dealt with more efficiently, and

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[4]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. p. 428.

[5]Ibid., p. 416.

more easily to the betterment of the entire learning situation.

Education is a whole process. The individual subject area within education is just one way of looking at the process. We have short changed our teacher education students in the past by giving them a limited view. We have not allowed them to see a whole picture. We, in teacher education need to be able to present that overview. This need forms the basis for this in-depth approach.

The Logical and Psychological

One of the best examples of integration of the theoretical view with practical curriculum work can be seen in Dewey's discussion of the differences and similarities between the logical and psychological in learning. Historically, one position of teacher educators has been that if a man knew his subject well enough he would be able to teach it quite easily. Dewey's article shows that this is not the case. A man who knows his subject very well has been able to absorb it in both an intuitive and cognitive way then and then put it in its logical form. Since his end point is knowing it in a logical form, his tendency is to teach it in that same form. He ignores the fact that he had to learn it in a different sequence. Because he can see the structure of

all of the elements and how they fit together from his teaching vantage point, he attempts to teach it in that way, concentrating on specific elements as they need to be developed to relate to other elements. A good example of this is the teaching of mathematics. What the well trained academician does not know, that the well train- ed pedagogue does is that learning patterns are different from the logical patterns of the development of the spec- ific subject matter. Learning patterns are governed by the psychological imputs and needs of the individual, not by the logical orientation of the subject matter.[6]

Calculus was used for many years before there was a logical derivation and rationale for its function. It was only after almost a century of use that a histor- ically distant mathemetician was able to produce a theory which explained this function. Now most calculus texts try to teach calculus from the point of view of the theo- retical definition of its function. Yet the average stu- ents coming to calculus isn't interested in the ration- ale, he wants to see it work first and will later be able to handle the rationale. This is a very good example of why pedagogy and high academic knowledge are not neces-

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[6]Charles Silberman, CRISIS IN THE CLASSROOM, New York, Random House, 1970. p. 442.

sarily the same thing.

> Though (may be) looked at from two different points
> of view. ...We call them product and process; logi-
> cal form and existent, or psychological, process.
> They may also be termed the historical, or chrono-
> logical, and the timeless. Forms are constant;
> thinking takes time. It is evident that education
> is primarily concerned with thinking as it actually
> takes place in individual human beings. It is con-
> cerned to create attitudes favorable to effective
> thought, and it has to select and arrange subject
> matter and the activities dealing with subject matter
> so as to promote these attitudes.[7]

This understanding of the relationship of the
logical and the psychological has many implications for
the way we organize our classrooms. The prevailing mode
in classrooms today is for the teachers to take the sub-
ject matter, separate its elements, and then teach each
element separately. They know that these elements make up
the whole picture. Logically it makes sense to teach to
individual elements. It is easier to teach this way,
but for the individual making the information his own
the process becomes much harder. By making the process
of teaching teachers logical, the people who have design-
ed teacher education programs have made much of the
material unavailable to students. We must psychologize
our teacher education program just as we must psycholo-
gize the classroom that our graduates will be running.

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[7]John Dewey, HOW WE THINK, Boston: D. C. Heath.
1933. p. 73.

We cannot expect people who go through logically develop=
ed teacher education programs to then change directions
and understand the psychological needs of their own
students.[8] We must provide a whole picture and let
lgocial derivation follow just as we must teach our
teachers to do that when they are running their own
classes.

Learning and Integrated Process

The first learning to be gained by Dewey's dis-
cussions of the logical and psychological is that we
must teach our teachers and ourselves that learning does
not take place in a piecemeal way. Learning is an inte-
grated process. Specific learnings occur within a gen-
eral context, and people can only remember specific learn-
ings and make them their own and be able to build on
them if they can place those specific learnings with-
in the larger context of a total structure. Thus we can-
not teach piecemeal. We must provide a view of the total
structure. We need to allow the individual to inte-
grate the specific learnings within that total structure
and then project back out what new specific elements he

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[8]John Dewey, HOW WE THINK, Boston: D. C. Heath.
1933. pp. 73-84.

must have in order to develop his skills.[9] If we can do this on the teacher education level, then our teachers will be able to do it within their classrooms. This approach means that our traditional education courses have to be taught in a somewhat different way.

An example of the integrated approach is something that I call theoretical methods. Many methods courses use the "what if" or case study approach. Teacher preparation students are given the description of a situation. They look at it, decide what they should do, answer questions and discuss different solutions. This approach has its place, but it needs to be put in a larger context.

> Some courses focus entirely on the "how to" of teaching, presenting a grab-bag of rules of thumb, unrelated to one another or to any conception of teaching. Still other courses are glorified bull sessions in which teacher and student exchange anecdotes. Rarely do any of the courses make any effort to relate the discussion of teaching methods to what the students may have learned in their work in psychology, philosophy, or anything else. More often than not, the professors teaching the courses contradict their own dicta -- for example, delivering long, dry lectures on the importance of not lecturing. Indeed, there can be no greater demonstration of the irrelevance of most methods courses than the way the methods professors teach.[10]

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[9]John Dewey, HOW TO THINK, Boston: D. C. Heath. 1933. pp. 165-166.

[10]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 433.

Even if ten thousand case study methods were developed in a normal three credit course, it is a certainty that during the first week of teaching something would happen which the new teacher would not be able to identify with one of those ten thousand individual methods. He would be placed in the position of having to reason it out without ever having been taught to reason in that way. A theoretical methods course would not have this limitation.

There are a number of hard methods questions that can be dealt with in greater depth in this integrated course model. The whole problem of discipline and the problem of homework can be dealth with in this way. Discipline can be seen as an interplay between the power of the teacher and power of the student. Consideration of the ramifications of the growing power of the student and his needs for such growth can change the whole understanding of the interaction in a specific classroom situation. Homework can become an area in which a student begins to see his ability to affect his environment, if the teacher is able to see the situation in that way. What a teacher should say in a general situation can be related to a specific situation and a specific child if a teacher has a way of viewing that situation which is holistic rather than piecemeal.

To illustrate this more clearly let us take a look at the issue of classroom discipline. My position is that discipline really needs to be handled in three ways in teacher education. The first of these is the situational approach. Examples always provide the basis for more theoretical understanding which may come later, but we must not stop at examples. We must take the examples and use them to show how a theoretical base would be more productive. We can help our preteachers go beyond the state of "what should I do if" toward developing the principle from which he can answer his own "what if" questions.

The second approach to discipline is to discuss longer range counsequences which might come in to play given one response or another in a specific situation. In this context for example we can discuss what happens if a teacher is continually forced to send students outside of his classroom when discipline problems get to be too great. What happens to a teacher when he must repeatedly turn to the vice-principal for discipline? This is a context within which a lot of "what if" questions can be dealt with. Teachers can discuss and make decisions on their own if they know the broad consequences of various kinds of classroom action. In this context there can be a number of semi-formulas. They are not the formulas "if X happens you do Y," but formulas such as,

"if X happens, consider the A's, B's, and C's behind that before you do an X, a Y, or a Z." Thus in a discussion of discipline we might consider loss of teacher power when always sending students out of the classroom. General principles can be discussed and applied in specific categories. Potential teachers may learn to allow a student a way out of a confrontation so that he need not look like a fool in front of his peers. Teachers who recognize that students will never voluntarily lose face in front of their peers will provide escape routes. This is the general principle of devising a solution to a confrontation whereby the teacher can control the classroom and the student can back out gracefully. The specifics vary. Sometimes the solution is a softer classroom manner; sometimes it is the teacher saying to a student, "Why don't you just go out in the hall until you decide what you're going to do about that?" This view of classroom discipline problems implies understood principles. They are rote learnings, but they are not individual and piecemeal. They deal with categories, rather than individual situations.

A third, and in the long run, the most productive way of dealing with issues of discipline is to understand classroom interaction in terms of the dynamics of human development within that situation. Often discipline

problems arise because students are in the process of
establishing their own view and self-style within a
classroom. This in fact is what school is about. Stu-
dents become powerful in their environment. That is to
say that they begin to be able to control what happens to
them on a day-to-day basis. This personal control should
be the end and the direction of all teacher-imposed order
in the classroom. Therefore, the teacher must act from
a theoretical understanding of the growth that is taking
place including an analysis of all of the elements of
that growth. This teacher should be able to develop
structure and classroom situations in which he can provide
for that growth, not inhibit it. He should be able to
make adjustments in the classroom structures as the stu-
dents begin to be more and more effective in governing
their own lives. Without a theoretical understanding of
human development and power needs, a teacher will find it
very difficult to provide the kinds of activities and
situations which stimulate the desired growth.

> The conceptions of situation and of interaction are
> inseparable from each other. An experience is always
> what it is because of a transaction taking place be-
> tween an individual and what, at the time, constitutes
> his environment.[11]

Without this background, a teacher will not be as effective

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[11]John Dewey, EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION, New York,
Macmillan. 1951. p. 41.

as he needs to be. Discipline on all of these three levels is important in itself and also in its integration with curriculum, classroom management, methods, and the whole gamut of classroom interaction.

The uses and abuses of homework are a good example of this kind of theoretical view and its relationship to the practical day-to-day occurences in the classroom that I am talking about. Many new teachers become extremely disappointed when their students don't hand them all the work assigned or requested of them. I find this understandable. Most new teachers came through school doing everthing that was expected of them. That's how they got through high school, and college, and became teachers. They're accustomed to doing what's expected of them. In most cases they were not friends with or in contact with fellow students who weren't doing the homework when they were. They were in a different group. It shocks them and disappoints them and they see it as a personal threat when their students don't do classwork and homework that has been assigned. While this view is understandable, it needs to be modified in order for the teacher to be effective with students. When homework becomes a battle of wills between teachers and students, the teacher becomes punitive in order to get that work in. He must say, "Do this or else I'll fail you, or I'll do something else

that you won't like." As long as this structure is in effect, the teacher may seem to be winning the battle. He can control the flow of homework coming in. But in the long run he gets slip-shod work in terms of real student input in it. An understanding of this situation might lead a teacher to develop a different way of handling homework as follows.

We all know that there are many times when we do not wish to do an assignment which we are supposed to do. If we can understand this and recognize it as a human situation then we can provide an outlet for this human reaction in our students. Thus they wont be put in the position of rebelling aginst inflexible expectations. We do not have to confront them on this issue. In my own classroom, I allowed each student three homework cuts per marking period. These homework cuts, could only be used on short assignments and did not come into account on long, multi-evening or multi-week assignments. I told them these cuts were entirely at the discretion of the student. He could use them at any point within the marking period, including the first three days. I didn't want to hear any of the excuses or reasons he did not do the homework as I did not want to be put in the position of judging somebody's excuse for validity, honesty, or original creativity. But after those three

cuts were taken, he would get no more and marks would in fact be taken off if home work wasn't handed in. In my view, what was happening in this classroom was that students then had some control over their environment. They could decide not to do a day's homework. They could decide not to do the first three. They could save them all for the end in case they really didn't want to do one later, but they could also use them in making personal choices when it came down to whether they wanted to go out and play basketball or stay in the house and do homework. Those choices made them more powerful as individuals. Those choices allowed them to be in control of their environment and those choices had their own consequences. The consequences were that if a student used all of his non-homeworks frivolously he might end up in a situation where he really had to do something else and didn't have the homework leeway. The person responsible for that was the student himself not the teacher. The student was responsible for his condition.

This is an example of the interplay between theory and day-to-day occurences in the classroom. It was my purpose in setting homework standards in the manner described above to create exactly those decision making situations that in fact evolved for the students. It was my understanding of the growth involved in hav-

ing to make decisions and abide by their consequences that led me to handle homework in this way. I found it extremely productive. There are many instances which go far beyond the institution of discipline, or the institution of homework in which a theoretical under- standing of those day-to-day occurances is the most important tool that a teacher can have. It is the role of the teacher training program to provide that under- standing. With that understanding a teacher becomes more powerful.

The Integration of Theoretical and Practical

Experiences in the Training of Teachers

But finding the material for learning within experi- ence is only the first step. The next step is the progressive development of what is already experienc- ed into a fuller and richer and also more organized form, a form that gradually approximates that in which subject-matter is presented to the skilled, mature person.[12]

One of the best ways to help pre-teachers gain this understanding of the relationship between education- al theory and the practical day-to-day occurances is an integration of the theoretical and the practical experi- ences in their teacher training program. Historically this integration has not taken place. Most programs have

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[12]John Dewey, EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION, New York, Macmillan, 1951. p. 87.

required that all of the theoretical components be completed before student teaching is undertaken. The reasons for this are many. The first is the legal problem. In many cases student teaching experiences were situations in which a young pre-teacher would be thrown into a classroom and the teacher in that classroom would for some reason not be there. The student teacher had to sink or swim on his own. There was no support, no slow buildup, and no guidance. Because of this, the student teacher had to be essentially equivalent to the teacher he was replacing. Thus, the minimum state certification requirements in terms of the course work had to be fulfilled. In many cases student teachers were brought into school systems where they were not actually working with specific teachers. What they were doing was taking the place of teachers who were no longer in the system or had moved on to other jobs. They got minimal supervision, did the job of the teacher and provided that school system with a teacher without having to pay for one for one year or so. Often, then, this teacher would become a teacher in that system and the experience was sort of an apprenticeship than a student teaching situation.

> Students receive incredibly little feedback on their
> performance, for supervision tends to be sporadic and
> perfunctory. More important, the target is
> usually hidden from the students' view; they, their
> supervisors, and the teachers in whose classrooms
> they practice usually have no conception of education

from which to criticize and evaluate their teaching.[13]

Given the present state of the teaching popula-
tion in the United States, jobs and student teaching place-
ment like this are no longer available. It is very rare
that a school system can put a student teacher in a teach-
ing position with the reasoning that he is a temporary
or an emergency person to fill the position. There are
many certified teachers around looking for jobs, and so
the chances for a student teacher getting this job is
extremely small. School systems no longer have the
excuse of scarcity as they had in the past.

This is just as well. The old sink or swim
method of student teaching in-service training never was
very good. What happened in that situation was that
student teachers had to make all of the same mistakes
that other teachers had made before them, but they had
no way of knowing about those mistakes ahead of time be-
cause there was nobody around to warn them.

> The student adjusts his actual methods of teaching,
> not to the principles which he is acquiring, but to
> what he sees succeed and fail in an empirical way
> from moment to moment; what he sees other teachers
> doing who are more experienced and successful in
> keeping order than he is; and to the injunctions and
> directions given him by others. In this way the
> controlling habits of the teacher get fixed with

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[13]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. p. 451.

comparatively little reference to principles in the
psychology, logic, and history of education...Here
we have the explanation, in considerable part at
least, of the dualism, the unconscious duplicity,
which is one of the chief evils of the teaching
profession. There is an enthusiastic devotion to
certain principles of lofty theory in the abstract
--principles of self-activity, self-control, intellec-
tual and moral--and there is a school practice taking
little heed of the official pedagogic creed. Theory
and practice do not grow together out of and into the
teacher's personal experience.[14]

There is a benefit to be gained from the fact that these

student teaching placements don't exist this way. The

benefit is that we can now require more of the student

teaching placements than we have in the past. We can use

the student teaching placement to better practical ends.

It is also no longer necessary for the people

going out to their practical experiences to have complet-

ed all or even a major portion of their theoretical ex-

periences at the university. The people we are sending

out will not be taking over classrooms, they will be

working within the framework of some other teacher's

class, so if they run into problems that need more

theoretical work, they can turn to the teacher for a short

term solution or as a long term solution go back to the

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[14]John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice
in Education," National Society for the Scientific Study
of Education, THE RELATION OF THEORY TO PRACTICE IN THE
EDUCATION OF TEACHERS, Third Yearbook, Part I, Bloomington,
Ill.: Public School Pub. Co., 1904 (reprinted in M. L.
Borrowman, Ed., Teacher Education in America)

university and work on their program some more. This
gives us the opportunity for some real integration be-
tween the theoretical work at the university and the
practical work in the field.

> 'Begin with the concrete' signifies that we should,
> at the outset of any new experience in learning,
> make much of what is already familiar, and if possible
> connect the new topics and principles with the pursuit
> of an end in some active occupation.[15]

Another contemporary advantage is the new concept
of diversified staffing which is taking place in many
schools throughout the country. Staff members are not
all teachers. They are recognized as having different
ability levels and different training. Therefore, they
come into schools to work at their own level and are
not expected to do jobs that somebody at a higher level
would be able to do. This concept of diversified staff-
ing can work very well also in the training of teachers.
We can have pre-teachers going into schools in roles
other than teachers, working at their level, learning
some things about schools and children, and then coming
back for the additional training that they need to become
teachers. This fits in with the diversified staffing
model and can be of value both to the pre-teachers and
to the school systems which employ them in a diversi-

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[15]John Dewey, HOW WE THINK, Boston: D. C. Heath, 1933.
p. 224.

fied staff mode.

The Facilitating Structure

There are two main structural elements to integrating the theoretical and practical experiences of teacher training. The first is that there should be more than one theoretical and more than one practical experience. It will be necessary for individual programs to figure out the specific number of each of the types of experiences, but I would propose something along the lines of the following model. The second element that comes into play is that these experiences should be of varying lengths. Different kinds of learnings will take place in each experience within its relationship to the pre-teacher at that point in his development. Therefore, since different things are to be learned, different amounts of time will be needed to learn them.

> It is also essential that the new objects and events be related intellectually to those of earlier experiences, and this means that there be some advance made in conscious articulation of facts and ideas. it thus becomes the office of the educator to select these things within the range of existing experience that have the promise and potentiality of presenting new problems which by stimulating new ways of observation and judgment will expand the area of further experience.[16]

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[16]John Dewey, EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION, New York, Macmillan, 1951. p. 90.

The following model demonstrates how this might work.

The first practical experience can be tutoring, a one on one, or one on two working relationship with children. This experience would give the potential teacher experience in trying to communicate knowledge and viewing himself as a teacher. A short internship would be another practical experience. In a number of two or three week experiences the teacher could watch students work in the field. This would not be the typical observation of one or two days, but would be a chance for the new teacher to become an aide or an assistant teacher and see how specific curriculum items might or might not work. Later in these short internships the teacher would be able to write his own curriculum. Two or three weeks would allow him the opportunity to go through a whole unit. He would gain experience developing the structure and content of one such unit. At this point the student would have the usual long internship. The long internship is important. One of the hardest things about teaching is the knowledge of what its like having to put together an interesting and exciting lesson for your students from day-to-day. The one term or sixteen week internship is an important one. It can only be productive after the day-to-day problems are handled in the structure which allows the pre-teacher to look at what he is doing and allows him the opportunity to step back

and see if he wants to change any of his approaches.

It is also extremely important to look at the first year of teaching as part of the teacher preparation program. A structure should be developed in the schools to support our people through this period. New problems arise. Teachers must set their own classroom structures, communicate their own expectations and in general organize their ways of life around teaching during this period. A lot of growth takes place. I would like this growth to be in terms of a theoretical understanding of what is actually happening and not just learning how to get through today and on to tomorrow. This first year of work should be considered part of the practical experience in the preparation of a teacher.

Tutoring

Let us develop each of these elements furher in terms of the role each will play in development of the new teacher. The first element that I have suggested is the element of tutoring. This tutorial program would serve a multiplicity of ends. The first is a self selection process. Most people who decide to be teachers do it sometime in their late high school or early college career. In many cases they remember only very faintly what school teachers are like. They have a picture in their head of what teaching will be like, but they

have no real practical experience. In addition the ex-
perience they have had with teaching is from the student's
point of view. The perceptions gained in this way may
be very different from the reality of being a teacher.
The tutorial experience should provide a chance to test
what it feels like to be a teacher working with students
and being respoinsible for a learning situation; respons-
ible both to themselves and their students. At this time
they can check out whether their picture of what its
like to be a teacher is at all close to reality. Being
a tutor is not the same as being a classroom teacher,
but its a lot closer to being a classroom teacher than
sitting in a dorm room thinking about being a teacher.
This type of checkout is important and if the checkout
doesn't work, the student should be allowed to select
himself out of a teacher preparation program with no
qualms about his academic career.

During a tutorial program, the pre-teacher also
gets to test out his strengths and weaknesses in the
areas that he might like to teach. Its important to
get an early start if there is a deficiency in some
subject matter area, because an in-depth teacher educa-
tion program will take so much of the student's college
time that he must get a running start on whatever academ-
ic preparation may be necessary to develop those skills

to the level that he wants. Some communications, or
language difficulties may also turn up at this point.
Giving the student plenty of time to take remedial action
in areas of communication, written language or speach.
By giving him the opportunity to view his own needs, we
are allowing the pre-teacher to become a powerful element
in the design and structure of his teacher education
program. This is important not only to produce a good
teacher education program, but also in order to produce
a person who feels powerful in his situation. This
power is an important resource for a teacher in our schools
today.

A third function of this tutorial experience is
the opportunity it provides these students to have
theoretical discussions about what they are doing in the
field. As part of the tutorial experience there should
be a weekly seminar in which all of the people who are
in tutoring could get together and talk about their ex-
periences. The teacher of this seminar would try to in-
tegrate the practical day-to-day experiences that the
pre-teachers bring to the seminar with some theoretical
framework that might explain what's happening or help
students to solve their own problems in the field. This
is the first link-up of theory and practice.

Short Internships

The second practical experience is the series of two or three short internships. These would function in an entirely different way and, a number of different goals could be accomplished during this period. In the teacher education programs that I have worked in I have seen that observation can be a very beneficial tool to the pre-teacher if it is handled in a highly organized way. It is not beneficial to send a pre-teacher out into the schools for a couple of days, ask them to see what they see and then come back. Rather they must go to their observations equipped with some specific tasks to do, and some specific skills with which to do these jobs. This type of observation takes more time than just going into a classroom for one or two days and getting the feel for what goes on. Most pre-teachers can get that feel within ten minutes and will then sit around being bored for the rest of the observation time. They have not been trained to be acute in their judgments of spec-ific situations. It is my view that they must have train-ing in a theoretical framework before they go out into the schools. They can then spend a two to three week internship just in observation with the purpose of using their new skills to analyze the classroom and predict what may or may not be necessary in that classroom. After this

analysis takes place they must be able to try out the products of the analysis in terms of action that they can take. That is why a second two to three week internship is necessary later. To this end the pre-teacher needs specific training in both verbal communication and non-verbal communication. Within the area of verbal communication we can train the pre-teacher at this stage in two basic areas. The first area is that of Flander's Verbal Interaction Analysis. Flander's analysis is used by supervisors or administrative personnel in dealing with teachers in the classroom. It is useful in this context, but its usefulness is not limited to that context. We can train pre-teachers in a modified Flanders' technique so that they can begin to be self supervising and analytical of their situation. As I will explain in a later chapter, I believe that it is necessary for each teacher to be able to analyze his condition, figure out what's going right, and what's going wrong, and change what's going wrong. At this point in the program I think it is profitable to have an introduction to this type of analysis for the pre-teacher.

In addition to that the pre-teacher should begin to examine his questioning techniques and patterns in the classroom. One way he can do this during the observation internship, is to make notations of every question

that is asked by the teacher or by the student in a class-
room. This compilation should be verbatim and will allow
the pre-teacher to analyze at his leisure both the
question pattern and the responses. In that way he can
learn the relationship between questions and the responses
that they elicit and start to improve his teaching tech-
nique. This compilation can later become the data neces-
sary for an in-depth approach to the study of questioning
techniques in the classroom.

In the non-verbal area, I propose as part of the
preparatory seminar to the two to three week initial
internship, a thorough analysis of role behavior in class-
room including some simulation games in role analysis,
where various members of the pre-teacher group would
play prototypes of different kinds of students they might
meet while in this initial internship. One limitation
of this type of role playing is that the students will
have very little data with which to fill out the roles
they are to play. However, this will help them to focus
on problems in the classroom and it will give them the
basic orientation that they need to go out to view the
students. Later in additional role playings they can use
data from the children they see or perhaps play the role
of specific students that they see in the classroom in
their observations.

In addition to that, the pre-teachers need to be

made aware of the kinds of non-verbal communication that go on in a classroom. This can be done by having a number of situations in which there are people in the pre-teacher group doing observation at the preparatory seminar outside of hearing range. Analysis of non-verbal communication is a very important item in the pre-teachers handbook. As he is involved in the classroom as an observer he needs all the tools that he can develop to analyze what's really going on. He needs to see what certain kinds of teacher responses do to children. He needs to see what kinds of curriculum items change the way the children are operating. He also needs to see and analyze changes in student activity as they move from one classroom to another. Expertise in non-verbal communications skills will effect all of these observations.

In the second of these short two to three internships, the pre-teacher becomes a planning partner with the supervising teacher. In this way he should come to understand the supervising teacher's purpose in using particular classroom items and become involved in the leg work necessary to actually implement these items. It is valuable for the pre-teacher to gain this orientation before the long internship program, because at this point he is just finding his way along and needs time to sit back and analyze specific curriculum items. In

a long term internship program the intern would not have
this time because he would need to keep producing curric-
ulum for each new day. In this system the pre-teacher
could take on of analyzing the implications and the
directions a particular item might take.

Part of this analysis would grow out of seeing
the teacher implement the particular curriculum items
that had been discussed in theoretical format before.
Part of that looking at the implementation would be to
watch how the students react in order to make his own
determinations about what improvements might be made.
He should bring those points back to the teacher for
further discussions. During this period the supervising
teacher would be almost totally im charge of the class-
room and the intern would only be responsible for some
specific leg work which might be needed in some curricu-
lum items.

In the third of these short internships these
roles would be reversed. The intern would take over
part or all of one of the teacher's classes and the
teacher would take the intern's role of doing leg work
on some items. This is still different from the long
internship, because the intern can limit himself to do-
ing just as much as he is fully able to cope with. He
need not push himself more. The classroom teacher is
present for whatever back-up is needed. During this

period the intern gets a chance to get his feet wet without having to bear the whole burden of the teaching program.

This reduced load allows the intern to analyze in depth everything that is happening in the classroom and to bring his questions and problems back to his theoretical base, the university. At this point the intern will still have a lot of specifc, highly organized questions about the very little bit that he's doing. He will have time for these because he is not bowled over by the total workload of the long internship.

Theoretical Discussion

At the same time that these two to three week short internships are taking place there would be an ongoing seminar at the university to deal with problems and questions arising from this situation. During these seminars students could talk about problems they are having and trade off solutions with one another. In my experience this is a lot more powerful than the professor at the university trying to have the last word on everything that needs to be done in a classroom. When preteachers can find their own answers and trade them among one another they begin to feel that they can solve their problems themselves and do not need somebody with all the answers to tell them what to do. This feeling of self-

sufficiency can become very important when these people
are actually teaching because they will see problems
as being solvable rather than as mysteries which they
needed to be guided through by some higher force.

Long Internship

With this background, the normal long intern-
ship of sixteen weeks could take on a much different
role than it has traditionally had in the past. The
initial questions that most interns have about the struc-
ture of a school and what specifically they need to be
doing in every minute of the day will be much easier to
solve because the interns will have some experience in
that area. In the proposed four week initial period of
this long internship the teacher and the intern would
work closely together to set up a structure so that the
intern knows what is expected of him and what he can
generally do in any given situation. After that time the
teacher should gradually remove himself from the class-
room so that the intern, now with his strong background,
can take the responsiblity of a total class and a total
program. By the end of the first eight weeks the intern
should be dealing totally with at least half of the teach-
er's load. By the end of twelve weeks he should be tak-
ing the teacher's whole load except for various classroom
participation in the case of team teaching. For the last

four weeks of the internship the intern will be in all
cases the teacher of that classroom.

This is not to say that the cooperating or super-
vising teacher has no responsibility for that classroom.
Since he will be responsible after the intern leaves and
must continue teaching the class, he must be aware of
the curriculum and have some guidance and some control
over it. In addition he should add the value of his back-
ground knowledge in supervision of that student teacher.
He may suggest a curriculum idea, help the teacher work
it through, watch him while he works with it, and then
analyze the results and predict or recommend directions
for future work. Cooperating teachers will come to expect
to work much harder when they have a student teacher than
they would work if they were running the classroom for
themselves. This has always been a goal of a good student
teaching program. That's why we've given tuition reim-
bursements for cooperating teachers or paid them. But in
the past cooperating teacher have been willing to leave
the student teacher cold in the classroom. This cannot
be acceptable if we are to have truly valuable student
teaching situations.

It is important to set up these expectations with the
cooperating teacher before the intern is placed. The
intern, the cooperating teacher, and the supervisor all
need to know what is expected of them. When these

expectations are made clear everybody can fulfill his own role and the internship can be as important and useful to the pre-teacher as it should be.

On-Site Seminar

The long internship cannot stand alone as the sole support for a student during that period. While he is involved in the student teaching he should also be involved in a theoretical seminar, preferable on-site which would allow him to reintegrate the practical knowledge which he gains every day in the classroom with the theoretical knowledge which he has gleaned over a period of time at the university in his past training. I will deal at length with a profitable format for this seminar in the next section of this dissertation. For now, suffice it to say that it would be beneficial if the pre-teacher and his cooperating teacher could take part in this seminar on-site under the direction of the student teaching supervisor.

It is important that this seminar be seen as part of the long internship because in many cases the student finds he is very much isolated from the university during his sixteen week tenure in the school system. For perhaps the first time in his life he is without that prop, the school, which he may have come to rely on. During this

period he needs as much familiarity and as much support as he can get in what may tend to be a stress situation for him. There are enough problems within an internship that we should do away with as much of the uncertainty and unfamilarity on the part of the student teacher as we can.

First Year of Teaching

Many of these elements are also to be found in the first year of teaching. There is the same newness of the situation and the same general alienation from the new culture that the teacher finds himself in. For all of these reasons, it is important to view the first year of teaching as another practical experience in the training of the teacher. We cannot abandon our teacher after he has completed the program. In fact the program should not be seen as complete until a teacher has gone through his first year of teaching. We need to build in structures which tie the student back to the university during his first year so that he can continue to integrate the practical experiences of his day-to-day existence with the theory that he has learned at the university. This semi-final integration can be one of the most productive things that a student can have available to him. I believe, that we should add to all of our teacher education programs a fifth year, not necessarily

leading to a masters degree, not involved with additional
theoretical training, but concerned with an in-depth in-
tegrated approach to the relationship of the practical
and the theoretical. We should give that teacher a
semi-last time to integrate what he sees every day with
what he learned at the university. With this type of
background, teachers would stop coming back to university
professors to say, "Gee, I really liked your class, but
its not really the way it is out there." They would stop
complaining to university professors about their ivory
tower approach to the real world of teaching and its
problems.

A New Look At Theory

This set-up of multiple, different length prac-
tical experiences can be very effective in liberating the
theoretical course work provided at the university. Theo-
retical courses need no longer pretend that they are
everything that there is in the training of a teacher.
They can be what they are, new theoretical experiences.
In addition they can use the data collected by the stu-
dents themselves and therefore be less susceptible to data
collection errors or interpretation errors in developing
theory. The basis of our new theoretical courses will
not come out of books, although it may be indicated in

books. We can use the data the students collect in
their field work and derive theory from that ground.
The theories will certainly be the same as those extab-
lished with old data. But, because they will have been
derived afresh they will take on a new meaning to the
student.

> Once more, it is part of the educator's responsibil-
> ity to see equally to two things: First, that the
> problem grows out of the conditions of the experience
> being had in the present, and that it is within the
> range of the capacity of students; and, secondly,
> that it is such that it arouses in the learner an
> active quest for information and for production of
> new ideas. The new facts and new ideas thus obtain-
> ed become the ground for further experiences in which
> new problems are presented. The process is a contin-
> uous spiral.[17]

Let us examine some of the traditional courses
at the university and see how they will benefit from
this new full interplay between theoretical and practical
experience in the training of teachers. I believe that
they will become stronger in theory and more integrated
as they are able to play off theory against the practical
reality that the student can observe and experience for
himself.

Child Development

Child development has for a long time been an

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[17]John Dewey, EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION, New York,
Macmillan, 1951. pp. 96-97.

isolated item in the training of teachers at the university level. It is an extremely important item, but let's see how it could benefit from this new system. Many child development courses rely on statistical data in discussion of certain tremds or certain frameworks for understanding developmental problems. This statistical data, while valuable, is limited in many ways. It is limited in that it does not speak to the needs of a specific child and how the teacher might deal with that child within the classroom structure. Another limitation is that it does not do the model building necessary to see certain developmental stages fit together. Piaget for instance does not pretend that he uses statistical data. He uses individual observation techniques and then generalizes, although perhaps incorrectly, a total pattern which helps him view the child as a whole person going through a number of developmental stages.

The specific data gleaned by pre-teachers in their practical experiences can be brought to bear on the child development course within the structure of the university.[18] The pre-teacher will have real knowledge gained by himself in real classroom situations. Because

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[18] Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. pp. 489, 494.

of that, he will be able to recognize the various charac-
teristics that are discussed in child development courses.
He may say, "Oh yes, I saw John do something like that
last week," or "Mary did something a little bit different,
but maybe it's related to the same issue." From this
background he begins to make connections which will serve
him well in his own classroom, When the pre-teacher be-
comes a classroom teacher, he is no longer concerned with
what the mass of people do. He is concerned with how to
deal with an individual student. So whereas he may know
the theories of the mass of people, they only become pro-
ductive for him when he is able to apply them to a speci-
fic person, in a specific situation. Using his own data
to work out child development theories, he will have al-
ready started to make the connections which he will need
in that endeavor.

Learning theory and curriculum theory are two
more areas that are well served by this type of arrange-
ment. In the long run, a classroom teacher does not
really need to be an expert on either learning theory or
curriculum theory. He does need to be able to operate
from a strong theoretical base in his classroom. In order
to operate from this theoretical base the teacher needs
know the theories, but he must know them in a context
other than the practical vacuum of the university. The
classroom teacher must be able to integrate his theoret-

cal framework with his day-to-day experiences in the class-
room. He must be able to say, "This is what I want to
do. Theory tells me that I can do it best this way.
Theory tells me that my students can learn it best in
this way. But I have certain additional data in the
classroom which allows me to deal with a specific stu-
dent, in a specific situation, with a specific curriculum
appropriate to the environment that I'm working in."

The theoretical courses need people teaching
them who can say. "There is the theory, now what's your
data from the classroom. Let me show you how in fact
both the theory and the classroom data indicate the same
thing." It is in this way of seeing learning theory and
curriculum theory in the classroom that the true strength
of each of those theories applied to real situations can
finally be uncovered.

Learning Disabilities

Another area of increasing importance in our
schools is the area of learning disabilities. This is
an area where we have traditionally done very little on
the teaching level in the classroom because we have not
had the tool that this organization provides. By their
very natures, learning disabilities need to be viewed on
an individual basis. The individual teacher must be able

to analyze the specific learning disability of a student
in his classroom and handle it in the most productive
manner. We do not have the money to provide thorough
testing for those people in the society, (and I believe
the number is very large) who while seeming to function
extremely well within the normal social pattern may have
one or two minor learning disabilities. Our teacher
needs to be able to be extremely perceptive as to what
these disabilities are and ways that specific students
can learn to compensate for them. This is the job of
the classroom teacher. It is becoming more and more the
job of the classroom teacher as laws throughout the country
are being written, including Massachusetts Chapter 766,
requiring learning disabilities to be handled in the
conventional classroom.

The very nature of learning disabilities makes
it imperative that the pre-teacher have some practice
in collecting his own data about them. A theoretical
discussion at the university level is not sufficient
alone because one of the most important things, about
learning disabilities is recognizing them. Pre-teachers
need practice in recognizing them. That is why our special
education teacher education programs in the past have
placed such high emphasis on the internship. Within the
teacher education program that I am proposing, that high

level of intern experience coupled with a good theory
discussion can allow the same kind of development.

At the present time the average teacher knows
much the same as the average parent about learning
disabilities. Both the parent and the teacher tend to
go it blind, but the parent has a lot more time with the
individual child, so he may come up with some perceptions
about that child in the long run which the teacher can
not. The parent in fact knows more about the child.
However, if the teacher is trained to pick up those
clues of classroom behavior which indicate specific
learning problems, that teacher can become much more
efficient at diagnosing and treating specif learning
disabilities. I believe that courses in learning dis-
abilities at the university level can be greatly benefit-
ed by this approach of having a number of practical
experiences. With this an individual pre-teacher can
say in his university seminar, "Today in school I saw
this behavior. Is that indicative of some learning
disability?" At that point the university teacher can
say that, "It may indicate this and it may indicate that.
Why don't you go back to school and look for this specific
kind of data, which will tell you which of these it is?"
And the student can go, make his analysis, come back to
the classroom, and ask the university professor, "Ok, it's

this. What should I do?" Thus he becomes analytical
in his own right which makes for a much stronger teacher.

Foundations

Another real strength for the theoretical end of
the program which grows out of this interplay is the
opportunity for an extensive, logical, and organized theo-
retical construct being developed within the foundations
course. Historically foundations have not been very
effective in the training of teachers because pre-teach-
ers have found it very difficult to understand the theory
without classroom experience. When they get into the
classroom, the theories don't seem to apply because they
haven't seen the relationship between the theory and the
data in the classroom. They give up and they say "That
was a lot of theoretical hogwash," even though it prob-
ably was not. When they were taking the theoretical
course they were not prepared for the kinds of questions
which they needed to ask. When they got to the classroom,
they wern't familiar enough with the theory to be able
to apply it in the new context. With the approach to
teacher education that I am proposing, pre-teachers will
be developing their theory at the same time, or in an
interchangeable time with when they are using the theory
and collecting data from the classroom. This conjunction

will allow them to develop a better theory in more depth.[19]

A good example of this would be to do some in-depth work with Bloom's Taxonomy as part of the general theoretical background in a foundations class. The theoretical formulations of learning broken down into cognitive, affective, and psycomotive domains, is ust a theory when isolated in a university lecture or discussion. The idea is attractive, and seems to make some nice differentiations between types of learnings that are going on, but it remains just theory. One of the advantages of being able to go back and analyze exactly what is happening in the classroom is the possibility of taking a good theoretical model like Bloom's Taxonomy into the classrooms and to see where the material being taught fits. What part of it is cognitive, dealing mainly with hard facts, curriculum information kinds of things. What parts of this are affective, dealing with inter-personal relationships in the classroom, and how those cognitive facts are learned? What parts are psyhco-motive? Maybe a gym class? Maybe a typing class? That kind of theoretical framework can be very powerful if the student can bring the formulation back to the classroom with him and test it out.

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[19]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 442.

In addition to finding out how powerful it is the student will find something else which I think is even more important. He'll find that the theory, while powerful because it separates the items down into its various categories, also is misleading, because learning doesn't take place only in a cognitive area during period A and only in an affective area during period B and only in a psycho-motor area during period C. All of those kinds of learnings are going on all the time, and the realization that that is the case is probably the most powerful understanding students can gain viewing Bloom's Taxonomy. Using this classroom data the student can return to the university and say, "I saw those three elements in this activity and I saw them balanced a little bit differently in this activity. How come the separation?" Then they can come to a true understanding that the theoretical framework is an aid to understanding, but doesn't take the place of whole concepts. That is why this particular approach is extremely powerful.

Self Selection

This inter-play of varied experiences has an additional advantage that we haven't considered yet. But preparing the student teacher in a number of differenct, yet inter-related experiences it gives each individual

a good opportunity at self selection. He can find which
elements of the teacher education program seem to suit
his needs. If there are some that don't suit his needs,
he can select himself either out of the occupation of
teaching or out of one kind of teaching. For instance,
he may find that certain aspects of public school teach-
ing are not to his liking. In which case he may want to
find an alternative school to work in. He may find that
his emphasis, is not the emphasis of the particular type
of student teaching experience that he has at his first
short internship. He then has a chance to try another
short internship at a different kind of school and see
that if he enjoys and succeeds at working there. In
short, the student is not limited by the program to be-
coming one kind of teacher in one kind of situation. As
I have discussed in the selection chapter this is the
most important kind of selection. Choosing what you like
doing and what you're really good at.

Within this program a teacher is not forced to
make a final decision about teaching and what kind of
teacher he wants to be when he comes into the program.
He can try one sitation out and then he can try some-
thing else. He can see were his strengths lie and be
able to self select himself into one area or anotheraccord-
ingly. Because of this, he knows at each level what he's

getting into and can structure his experience for the
most personal power. He continually makes choices about
his training situations and eventually about his pro-
fessional teaching situation. There are many options for
pre-teachers: getting in or getting out; changing from
elementary to secondary; this subject or that subject.
All of these are elements of choice that should be avail-
able to a teacher in an in-depth teacher education program.

This discussion should demonstrate that integra-
tion of theoretical and practical experiences in the
training of teachers is beneficial in both the theoret-
ical and practical mode. Both areas benefit from this
kind of integration. Another benefit emerges in an over-
view of this approach and that is an increased ability
to make connections. We may in the past have trained
extremely good practical classroom teachers, and we may
in the past have trained extremely good theoretical univ-
ersity people. If we have, I think it was a coincidence
and not really by our doing. What this program does is
train people who are not only well grounded in both, but
who have an ability to make connections, pull things
together, and synthesize ideas which will stand them in
the best stead in the years to come as teachers. They
need not rely on seat of the pants ideas, or on theoret-
ical understandings which they can't implement in practi-
cal day-to-day classroom life. They can make a synthesis

which allows them to be more productive in both realms.
That is the basic strength of the integration of theoret-
ical and practical experiences in teacher training programs.

The inter-play of theory and practice is the
essential point of this discussion. The structure which
I have developed here is one design for allowing that
interplay to develop to its fullest. This interplay be-
bween theory, methods, and curriculae is extremely import-
ant for the development of teachers who can teach in the
real world sitations that they come upon.

These people will not only be theoreticians. They
will be able to integrate their knowledge and to apply it
to good teaching in real school situations.

A teacher going through the integrated program
that I have described is able because of his own skills
to become a problem solver both within his own teacher ed-
ucation program and when it comes to designing and operat-
ing in a classroom that he may run years later. This
problem solving ability comes from being able to inte-
grate the theory and practical experiences that he has
had. The practical experiences form a particular kind of
informational base for the decisions to be made. The
theory is the structure on which that information can
be hung to see how it fits together and what other in-
formation which may need to be found. The integration

of the two allows a teacher to truly control his class-
room and his condition and that to me is the essential
element of teaching.

CHAPTER IV

UNITY OF PRE- AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING
AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

On-Site Seminar

In the last chapter I introduced the necessity
of an on-site seminar for pre-teachers during their
long internship. As important as that idea is for the
growth and the integration of theoretical and practical
skills, I believe that the seminar becomes even more
important when seen in a larger context. As part of the
on-site seminar we can include in-service teachers. I
would like this group of in- and pre-serivce teachers to
work together in the general area of curriculum develop-
ment.

There are a number of reasons this structure is
necessary. One of the most important of these is the
development of the personal relationship between pre-
service teachers and in-service teachers during the
internship period. This relationship is one of the most
important and most powerful elements of the teacher
education program. If the pre-service teachers have not
found a teaching model in their own educational back-
ground they are almost sure to find one among their
cooperating teachers. Even if they have found such a

model in their past they will modify it and clarify
their perception during this period. Because of this it
is important that the working relationship between these
parties be as good as possible. We have many experiences
which indicate that this has not been the standard and
I believe that this dual membership on-site seminar can
help alleviate many of those problems.

In-service teachers tend to see student teachers
as not being on the same level as they are.

> Many students, too, are troubled by supervising
> teachers' tendency to treat them as menial aides
> rather than as mature teachers-to-be; and many stud-
> ents are distressed when they find themselves less
> knowledgeable than their own students in some areas,
> fearing that they will lose status in the children's
> eyes as a consequence.[1]

They wory that these pre-teachers will never make it.
In their panic they try to hammer in the skills that
they think the pre-teachers need. Even very good teach-
ers who know the theory of what they're doing don't know
it on the level that is needed or learnable by the pre-
teachers. The unity of pre- and in-service education
that I am proposing will help overcome this problem. In
the joint, on-site seminar, in-service teachers will be-
gin to see problems in the education of the teacher as

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[1]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. p. 496.

this process will be going on within their view.

Respect for the competence of the pre-teacher is very important in his development. The classroom teacher has a right to feel nervous. After all, after the pre-service teacher leaves, the classroom teacher is still responsible for the progress of the class. If the pre-service teacher is working in a fall term, the in-service teacher will still have to take over the class, re-establish his own discipline, and his own structures for the long spring term ahead. His concern is understandable. In order that he be able to relax a little bit in this situation he must see the pre-teacher as a truly competent person. But the nature of the situation is such that the pre-teacher probably will not appear to be competent in the beginning. The pre-teacher has very little practical theoretical background, but the application of this takes some time to develop. Therefore, he must continually ask the in-service teacher, "Should I do this this way? Will this work? What will happen if I try this?" and the initial role of the in-service teacher is that of a guiding light in a classroom.

This initial relationship, while valuable, sometimes stagnates at this point. Even though the intern may soon be integrating his theoretical background with the practical experience that he has in the classroom at a much higher level, the cooperating teacher may remain

nervous about the intern's abilities. That is why this
on-site class is an important forum for the pre-service
teacher. In this on-site class, the pre-teacher is able
to operate in exactly that realm in which he has had the
most success in the past. In fact he may be more success-
ful in that realm than the in-service teacher. Because
he has just come out of the theoretical background, he
has a much closer relationship with the material and he
has had recent practice in making connections between
theoretical constructs and classroom activity. When the
in-service teacher begins to share this insight into why
the things that are happening in his classroom are happen-
ing, he can only gain respect for this intern.

The University in the Field

An additional aspect of this development would
be for the instructor of the on-site seminar to be one
of the professors involved with the pre-teacher's pro-
gram back at the university. This, has two major attri-
butes which lend themselves to the strengthening of the
program. The first is, that the instructor from the
university will be familiar to the interns, they will be
aware of his thinking patterns and the way he handles
certain situations. With this head start in understand-
ing the instructor's approach, they will be able to quick-
ly organize constructs and show how they work in a class-

room environment. In that case the pre-teachers become the connecting link between the university and the school. This makes them powerful. They are the translators, or the interpretors in the new seminar. They have an initial status within that seminar which goes beyond the status which they enjoy in the school.

The second strength is that the university people will be seen as being practioners as well as theoreticians. For a long time there has been an artificial gap between the university people who work in the ivory towers and never see real classroom problems and teachers in the schools.

> Faculties of education will have to do more than that. The remaking of American education requires, and will not be possible without, a new kind of relationship between colleges and universities, on the one side, and public schools, on the other. While the schools cannot be transformed unless colleges and universities turn out a new breed of teacher educated to think about purpose, the universities will be unable to do this unless they, working with the schools, create classrooms that afford their students live models of what teaching can and should be. At the moment, painfully few such classrooms exist, and painfully few schools of education are trying to create them.[2]

This gap gets in the way of both the universities and teachers in the schools, because they each reject the

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[2]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 473.

other's knowledge rather than building on it. If our
theoretical people were involved in on-site work also,
they would become much better theoreticians. If all of
our in-classroom teachers had some theoretical continuing
organizations to work with, they would become much better
classroom teachers.[3]

One of the outcomes of this program is greater
integration of the university with the school. Many of
the complaints of the teachers on-site, both pre- and in-
service, have been that people at the university don't
know what they're talking about; that they haven't been
in schools for years. What is really being said is that
the people at the university have not been able to inte-
grate the theoretical and practical, which is what we're
asking teachers to do within this program. By bringing
the university resources to specific school systems, we
provide an opportunity for this integration to take place.
The schools can also affect the policy of the universities
in the training of teachers by bringing their needs out
in this forum. This interchange will strengthen both
institutions.

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[3]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM,
New York: Random House, 1970. p. 279.

In-Service Teacher Development

The on-site seminar can also be extemely bene-
ficial for the self-image of in-service teachers. He
can gain power and the respect of the pre-teacher if
the course is properly taught. It is extremely important
that the teacher of the on-site seminar be able to support
and build upon what both the pre- and in-service teachers
are saying. Attention to what the in-service teacher has
to say, gives the pre-teacher an opportunity to see the
theoretical roots of the practical day-to-day things
that the in-service teacher has been doing all along.
The in-service teacher gains the opportunity to develop
his thinking skills and continue his teacher training at
a very high level. He can start to take a look at his
practical day-to-day techniques and discover a theoretical
construct under which they are subsumed. This theoretical
organization of practical day-to-day things is a continua-
tion of the teacher education process which must take
part in order for teachers to continue to develop their
skills.

Although many teacher will be resistant to going
"back to school," there are some inducements to them to
become involved in this class. In school systems where
there is a teacher center approach it can be a mandate
for having a student teacher that the cooperating teacher

take part in the class. In other situations where there
is not this well organized format, the attraction of
some free or very inexpensive credits which lean toward
the salary promotion is not to be denied. In addition
to that, many states require continued education in order
to secure or maintain a permanent teacher's license.
These courses can be designed in such a way that they
meet these requirements. In these cases, teachers will
also want to take the course.

> I have no doubt that school boards should endeavor
> to stimulate the kind of in-service education that
> is not tied to course credits, but is a group attack
> on a matter of mutual concern. Professors of both
> education and academic subjects should be brought in
> at the taxpayers expense.[4]

An important inducement to become involved in the
course comes with the addition of what I consider the
essential third element. That element is curriculum
development. The addition of curriculum development is
extremely attractive to the in-service teacher, beacuse
it allows him to do his classroom preparation, which he
must do anyway, and receive credit for it. Classroom
teachers, like most of us, like to do things the easiest
way we can, and they will appreciate the opportunity to
kill two birds with one stone. But the value of adding

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[4]James Conant, EDUCATION OF THE AMERICAN TEACHER,
New York: McGraw Hill, 1963. pp. 206-7.

curriculum development to this seminar approach goes
far beyond this additional attraction to the in-service
teacher.

The process-oriented goal of getting the pre- and
in-service teacher to get to like one another is very
important in terms of the development of a valuable
relationship between those two people. However, this
process goal is not enough. Real strength and under-
standing and support for one another grows out of using
the process in a specific task. Strictly process-orient-
ed seminars almost always break down and become social
gabfests. But, in a task orientated seminar two groups
of people who are thrown together to work on that
task (a task which is basic to their functioning the
next day or the next week) sooner or later begin to rely
on and support one another in this endeavor.

Curriculum development. Curriculum development
is the ideal area for this endeavor. The reason for
this is that "What do I do Monday?" (see footnote) is
a problem that affects both groups of people involved
in the class. They both see it as an issue which is their
meat and potatoes as they face it the next day. If they
can begin to respect one another in the development of
this curriculum, they begin to understand what it takes
to be a classroom teacher, and they begin to respect the

skills that each brings to that endeavor.

In addition, the material that they develop to-
gether is co-owned. The pre-teacher will know what the
cooperative teacher has in mind when he initiates an
activity in class that they have discussed in the
seminar. This format allows the teacher and pre-teacher
to build upon each other's work rather than taking isolat-
ed pot shots at the class. The students will not suffer
a piecemeal approach.

This process also allows each individual's
strengths to develop. The pre-teacher has his ideas,
and his own abilities, and he'll want to bring these to
the clasroom. The in-service teacher also has abilities.
In the past pre-teachers were seldom allowed to bring
their own interest into the curriculum development. The
teacher was in charge. Now the two can develop their
curriculum together. Both sets of strengths will become
apparant. The teaching situation and the growth of the
two individuals will be greater because of this.

The skills growth in each group is great in this
construct. The pre-teacher gets a supervised program in
curriculum development and the supervision is not the
traditional classroom teacher saying, "No you can't do
that," or "Yes you can do that" A good seminar teacher
will be able to build on the ideas of the pre-teacher

and also say, "Wait a second. Have you considered this as an element? Because you might find conflict. Things may not work." This kind of integration of the theoretical and the practical will allow the pre-teacher to develop his skills much more fully. We don't run the risk of losing an extremely productive approach just because the ideas are not explored in depth.

> The advisor's role is not supposed to end, however, with bringing the student to some understanding of the specific situation at hand, nor even with leading the student on to a deeper understanding of her own reactions. Rather, the advisor is expected to use the experience and the understanding that has come from it to deepen the student's understanding of the nature of teaching in general and of her own teaching patterns in particular.[5]

A potentially good idea that the pre-teacher suggests but which the in-service teacher has never heard of can be given more validity by the interaction between the seminar teacher, the in-service teacher, and pre-teacher. This validation is extremely important. Many good curriculum ideas have gone down the drain when a pre-teacher presented them to a cooperating teacher who said, "Gee I don't know if that will work, you better not try it because we may get into trouble." With the encouragement of the university personnel that in-service teacher may be encouraged to try things that he wouldn't have

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[5]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 497.

tried before. If they are successful, he may incorporate them into his own teaching and therefore, those items will be taught not only to the pre-teacher but also to the in-service teacher.

The in-service teacher also gain a lot from this interaction. Many in-service teachers have become masters at making things work in their classroom with very little idea of why they work. This seminar becomes a format within which the in-service teacher can develop a cognitive understanding of why some things work and why others don't. With this cognitive level understanding he becomes a predictor. He can understand why things work and make them better. He can understand what elements in something cause it not to work and learn how to change just those elements so that he might use a potentially good curriculum idea in a slightly different way and get all of the strengths from it in his classroom.

Both pre- and in-service teachers gain power over their environment by being in control of what happens in their classrooms. Pre-teachers can learn the processees and see their teachers at work in a creative ways. Teachers can see the pre-teacher and appreciate the skills they bring to the situation. Theory, discussion and analysis are some of these skills. Curriculum that works in the classroom, relates to the students and is co-owned

by both the teacher and the pre-teacher is at the high-
est level of curriculum materials.[6]

The enabling structure. The structure which allows
all of these inter-actions to take place is not a particu-
larly complicated form. But some comments should be made
about it here in order to clarify how the structure re-
lates to the intents listed above.

The course is a curriculum development course,
but from the theory point of view. There are important
reasons for this. First, within any specific school an
on-site course will have a limited number of enrollees
from one subject area. Therefore, to deal with just
the curriculum appropriate to that area would make the
course so small as to be unfunctional in most situations.
Therefore, our curriculum theory course must focus on
development. It should be a course in which various dis-
ciplines can develop specific curriculum, but within a
theoretical framework that subsumes all of them. A partic-
ular type of curriculum could be developed, but in a
number of different specific areas. All of that can
happen in the same class.

Another issue is that most curriculum work done

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[6]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. pp. 485-459.

by teachers in schools is done on a very pragmatic, will-it-work, won't-it-work basis. In order for the pre-teachers to shine with their theoretical background and in order for the in-service teacher to develop the cognitive skills that they need for curriculum writing, we must draw away from the pragmatic day-to-day orientation. We must look to larger issues and see how curriculum can be written using those larger issues as the base. Curriculum development in this context, includes ideas such as behaviorial or specific objectives, scope and sequence state mandated curriculum guides, and department guide-lines. All of these items are part of, but not the total of a curriculum theory class taught as an on-site seminar for pre- and in-service teachers.

Another reason why this must be a curriculum theory class is that while we want to deal with specific curriculum, written by specific teacher and pre-teachers within the class, we don't want to deal with it in such a way that the seminar instructor becomes threatening to either or both of those two groups. Therefore, we must be able to analyze with a certain set of principles what is going on in the curriculum development. If it can be analyzed from princples rather than from specific curriculum deficiencies, we can change people's curriculum habits without attacking them directly. Thus, everybody

moves in one direction, rather than one person being pick-
ed on and set up as an example for the rest of the group.

Why on-site. The course as an on-site course is
an important additional element to this idea. An on-site
course is more difficult for university personnel to get
to, but this generally involves only one person. He may
travel a distance, but he can do this as part of his
normal supervision of pre-teachers. It need not be a
trip just to teach the on-site course. The on-site course
has many benefits in terms of the way the course is used
by the people in the schools.

Just the effort on the part of the university
instructor to get out to the school, even though it may
be a large distance, is appreciated by in-service teach-
ers. They tend to have less contact with the university
than they would like. So, when a university instructor
makes special effort to come teach a school class on-site,
he has a lot of support from the very beginning.

In addition, although the instructor may have to
go a long distance, there will be much less travel by a
large number of class members. It is a lot easier for
one person to travel three hundred miles than for thirty
people to travel 40, 50 or 60 miles each. This, taken
together with the fact that these classes will probably
be held after school when the teachers and pre-teachers

will have been working all day, is a powerful rationale for the university sending an instructor to the site rather than having all of the people come to the university. We all have had experiences with the fact that after a full day of teaching, teachers are not really prepared to sit in a classroom for another two to three hours. If we can make their load as small as possible by letting them do as little traveling as possible we will get more life and more response from our teachers on-site.

There are, of course, problems with the after school format. Teachers are tired, and problems may have come up during the day which require their after school attention. In most cases the class does not start until three or three-thirty, is not over until five-thirty or six and therefore, just about wipes out a teacher's preparation time that day. These are grave limitations. But, since we are working in an area that is closely akin to what classroom preparation for the next day would have been anyway, we can get people involved in getting that preparation in another format.

An additional advantage of the on-site course is that the teachers and pre-teachers feel at home and per-haps more secure. They know the system, they know the school people, and they are more apt to come up with their

own ideas, and to feel secure having those ideas challeng-
ed than they would in a university classroom.

The strengths of the on-site aspect are many and
important. More will develop in the actual practice of
the course. I think it is important to understand that
this structure should not be enla_ged to include the
standard gripe session that interns like to have with
their supervisor when he gets out to the schools. Out-
comes of this gripe session can be brought into the
curriculum development class, if they are worked into
problems that can be raised for the class to work on.
But the specific gripes themselves can be extremely threat-
ening to cooperating teachers and therefore the gripe
sessions should be something that happens apart from the
curriculum development course. Interns do need a time
to talk about the issues that are bothering them about
working in the schools, and I think that for mutual support
they should be able to talk about these issues with other
interns. But I stress that it is extremely important not
to have these gripes become part of the curriculum develop-
ment course. To let that happen is to create many prob-
lems in that curriculum course that may undo many of the
benefits which are listed above.

An example (see appendix). During the spring 1974
school year, I was able to run one of these on-site curri-

culum development courses as a graduate student at the University of Massachusetts. I believe a discussion of that class here will give an idea of how this type of structure can work.

The class was made up of three student interns, their five cooperating teachers, plus an additional five teachers in the same general subject field, from the surrounding area. While it was called an on-site course, it was only on-site for seven of the sixteen people enrolled. The others had to travel distances of up to 35 miles. The site itself, Dartmouth, Massachusetts was a 150 miles from the University of Massachusetts campus. The general area was Distributive Education, although there were a number of teachers from other cooperative fields and administrators in cooperative, vocational and academic fields involved in the program. An on-going note taking and distribution process was developed for the benefit both of the members of the class in their understanding of what was going on and myself in providing some continuity between the widely spaced units. I have included (Appendix A) some of the notes from these classes. The class met 8 times on-site, plus a two day workshop held as part of the state Distributive Education Program. I will try to give a brief outline of the content and the direction of the course and explain in some

detail how it functioned and how the goals were met.

The first class was issue oriented. In order to acquaint the class with my approach to issues of curriculum development, I used the article, "The Child and Curriculum" by John Dewey as the core of a small 30 or forty minute lecture. In that lecture I argued that the dichotomy set up between the child on one hand and the curriculum on the other was in Dewey's mind and in my mind a false dichotomy. All teachers are interested in the development of the child. Where they differ is on what means lead in the most efficient way to that end. The "child oriented" people are in favor of letting the child define what goes on in the classroom, and the curriculum oriented people have a specific curriculum that they feel will be best for the child. But, in the long run, the goal in the minds of the teachers is the same. This mini-lecture led to a discussion of what do you do while calling yourself a teacher. This discussion was extremely productive in terms of getting people to say who they were and what they thought of as they functioned as a teacher. It was this confidence building process which I was most concerned with when I developed a lecture that supported teachers in a wide spectrum of roles.

Toward the end of the first meeting I came to a statement of the goals of the course which was taken

down in the notes as follows: "This course will concen-
trate on curriculum development in order to provide a
vehicle for interaction among teachers, administrators,
and the university so that teachers can analyze their own
and others' teaching styles or design a curriculum each
can use later in his class; admir strators can gain a
better understanding of current classroom problems,
student needs, and perhaps some insight as to their roles
as administrative aides in the children's educational
progress, and finally that the university can begin to
sound out the practicalities of teacher training or re-
training programs based upon the effective (emotional or
additudinal) aspects of teaching the curriculum of the
child."

In order to insure classroom participation from
a large number of people I made an assignment in closing
the course for that day. The assignment was that each
teacher should bring in some curriculum unit or activity
which had been successful in their own classes. The
activity should be brought in such a form that they can
explain it and the reason for doing it to our class.

In later classes a number of curriculum units were
presented to the whole class and then analyzed and taken
aprát and discussed in all of their various aspects.
Some of these curriculum units were presented by me and

came from my own background of teaching. A larger number came from teachers in the class. The framework that we used was a two part analysis as follows.

First we dealt with five facets of each lesson to be analyzed as follows. The first was the concept of the lesson. The second was, what was the vehicle for dealing with that concept? The vehicle might be closely related to method which was the third item. Under method we dealt with what technique was used and was that technique effective in the given context? The fourth item was the product. Was anything written down, or produced by the student? Was that of value? Was it useful in some way to either the disucssion, the process or to the student when the process was finished? The fifth item was ability. Did the student develop a skill by the time he left the room after that period that he didn't have when he came in, was that skill of use in other areas besides the specific lesson taught?

The second way of dealing with that lesson was to ask five questions which relate to the success or failure of the lesson. The first was, "Does this lesson belong in the specific field that we're talking about? Why or why not?" This was hotly contested from item to item, with people taking different sides in various times on various lessons. The second question was, "Can

the students handle it? Is the lesson in a developmental perspective, so that students know that they have the skills with which to deal with the problem? Or is this lesson somehow out of sequence?" The third was, "Where skills developed or was behavior altered in some way in those taking part in this lesson? The fourth question was "Does the product show what the lesson was really about? In other words, was the product a result of the actual activity the students took part in? Was it something of some real value to the students? Or was it a teacher trip? Something that the teacher was making his students just do out of his power base as teacher?" And the fifth question was, "How do we use the ability that was developed in other areas?"

As you can see two sections are closely related. The first deals with the techniques of developing the lesson and the second with the relationship of those techniques to the students. This two pronged approach was extremely productive in the analysis of some lessons which seemed to be entirely out of the teachers head having very little to do with the students. It was also quite effective with those lessons which seemed to be extremely classroom oriented and did not seem to go from one place to another in terms of abilities or skills developed.

During the second and third meetings we discussed

lessons I had presented from all of the perspectives
mentioned above. These discussions became fairly heat-
ed, especially on the issues raised in second form of
analysis. I was happy with this development, as it seems
to me that asking questions like this and then taking
and defending a position on the answers is a way to open
up views of exactly the cognitive understandings of what
it takes to make a lesson or unit that is important for
teachers. In subsequent classes people came well pre-
pared to defend or support their lesson in terms of the
areas listed. I found this and the discussion very pro-
ductive.

There seemed to be a fiarly well-defined split
in the class between process oriented and product orient-
ed teachers. It was my endeavor for a large part of the
class to show these people that they were really not as
far apart as they thought they were. The relationship
between the process and the product naturally became an
important element in all the devising of curriculum that
took place in the classroom.

As can be seen from the attached notes, there
was no real closure to the class, but I was not particu-
larly concerned about closure. What I was interested in,
was the development of thinking processes, analytical and
creative techniques for the writing of curriculum in both

the pre-teachers and the in-service teachers. This development was the important goal and I feel that it was attained in that course. In the next few paragraphs I will analyze some of the interactions and how they were productive.

Benefits of the class. My view of the benefits of this particular class is organized in four basic areas. The four areas show the real strength of the type of integrated, multi-group, multi-subject matter course that I have been discussing. The first of these areas is the personal inter-action and respect which developed among the participants.

As I indicated before, there are basically four groups within the seminar. The first of these is the intern. His allegiance is a split between the university within which he is still getting his degree, and the school system. Interns are the youngest population for the most part. They tend to be inexperienced and they spend a lot of time asking for help. The second group is the classroom teacher. These classroom teachers fall into two categories. The first category is cooperating teachers. They have specific contact with one of the interns, and they are aware of the problems of interns, but there is still a gap which separates them. They are the master teachers, and the interns are the novices.

The other group of teachers are those who don't have any real tie with the university or the intern. These people have a lot of the same day-to-day classroom problems that the cooperative teachers have, but they don't have the same view of the interns. In the case of the class which I taught, there were varying degrees of separation between the teachers and the intern. However, that separation was lessened as the class went on. I will discuss that further later. The third group involved in this class were school administrators. They worked in the same general area that the teachers were teaching in, but their problems were problems of organization, not necessarily curriculum, and problems of the strucutre of the particular area, distributive education, within the total school picture. Their problems were different and there also tended to be a gap between these people and the classroom teachers. There was an even greater gap between these people and the interns. The fourth entity in the classroom was myself, the university instructor. They only saw me an average of once every other week for a three hour period, and therefore, they tended to view me as an outside person. Still, I had a lot of credibility from the point of view that I was coming a long distance to teach them this course at a very nominal charge to them and they appreciated that.

Over the period of the course, the lines dividing this population started to break down. The lines, as I see them, are a normal occurence in the relationships among the various groups in the normal classroom or working day situation. Those are structures that are almost mandated by the organization of t.e school, but by breaking across these lines within the class everyone gained important support. One of the interesting elements that came out was the general respect on the part of the administrators for what was going on in the classroom. Most of them have very little contact with the specific day-to-day classroom interaction. When classroom teachers brought in specific curriculum elements, time and time again the assistant principal would say, "Gee, I really like that, I really think that's an important thing for kids to be doing. Can I come up and see them?" The classroom teachers were flattered by this attention, and they invited him. Toward the end of the class it was almost a weekly occurrance for that administrator to go into the classrooom, and see exactly what was going on. This kind of support was extremely important to the classroom teachers who felt very isolated. The recognition and respect also went the other way. The classroom teachers now felt that they had the ear and a sympathetic ear from an administrator. They realized that the administrator was

looking at their work with some positive regard and so
they did not feel at all strange in saying, "Now, to go
in this direction I need one of these things." They felt
that there was a genuine interaction, and a helping re-
lationship between these two previously estranged groups.
This kind of interaction was extremely important for both
of the groups involved.

Supportive atmosphere. The interaction between
interns and regular classroom teachers was even better
than I could have hoped for. It became apparent almost
immediately that the interns felt so comfortable in this
quasi university atmosphere of our after school class,
that they could speak a lot more freely when they were
able to in the usual day-to-day-what-are-we-going-to-do-
next-period kind of conversation, that they normally had
with the cooperating teachers. In those conversations,
the cooperating teacher would tell the intern what was
going to be done and then the intern would do it. It
was a one way communication. In the classroom the interns
felt comfortable enough that they were able to spin out
ideas, the cooperating teachers would say, "Hey, I hadn't
thought of that," or "I thought of it and I tried it and
it didn't work." There was a real interaction based on
the strengths of both groups.

One of the best examples of this was the fact that

the note taker in the class, the person who organized
the notes that are in Appendix A, was a student from the
university. His ability to synthesize what was said in
the class in two or three short pages every week was of
real value to the teachers who didn't have to take notes
because it was done for them. It also helped the teach-
ers clarify what was being done and they gained real re-
spect for Jim, the student who was taking the notes. This
kind of respect carried over in members of the class giv-
ing extra weight to what Jim had to say in class. Jim
became a translator for the inputs from the other interns,
translating them into language that could be heard and
understood by the cooperating teachers in the classroom.

In addition, the interns, all got to see that the
teachers they were working with, really did have some
reasons, and some thoughts behind what they were doing
in the classroom from day-to-day. One of the biggest
problems about working with interns is that they tend
either to love their cooperating teacher or hate them.
There doesn't seem to be any middle ground. But, this
class profided a format in which they could agree on some
things and not agree on others, and reason with their
cooperating teachers, and have a healthy understanding
of their teaching strengths and weaknesses. This under-
standing helped them to analyze their own teaching when
they were in the classroom, see some problems, and make

relevant adjustments.

The very supportive atmosphere of the class, is seen in its largest aspects in the relationship that these three groups had with me and with my role in the classroom. Because we met in their school, they felt comfortable. Because I had indicated their importance to me by traveling a long distance and being set up and ready for them, and taking that commitment seriously, we had an extremely good relationship. They didn't feel at all circumpsect about calling me down when they thought I was doing something entirely wrong, or when my particular curriculum position seemed way out of line. And I was sure to give them all sorts of support when they did that so that they could continue to develop their own thinking patterns. That was what was important to me. I was very happy with the support I had, and the attendance that I had for that class. The consistently high attendance showed that there was real commitment to the course and a real view of the university component of what was going on being something valuable. This type of relationship is not prevelent in my experience. But I think it is extremely important of the university to play its full role in the education of teachers. The education of teachers is important, not only at the pre-service level, but also at the in-service level. For that in-service

education to go on there must be a high level of respect in the schools for the abilities of the university personnel.

Product or skill. It was not my intention, nor was it the outcome of the course, that we develop specific curriculum content. That was not the direction that the class was meant to take. What we did develop (and this is the second strength of the approach) were problem solving skills and the use and demonstration of a cognitive approach to working with curriculum within the practical context of the school. As a result of this approach the students did not leave the class with a sheaf of papers or a bunch of curriculum gimmicks that they could use when they got back to their classroom. What they did leave with was a way of looking at that classroom interaction, and a way of building curriculum. They also left the course with some practice in doing that. The course was an ongoing structure and people in the class could take an idea, go back to their home classrooms try it out, and bring the result back to us for more classroom discussion. I found this extremely beneficial. The up-to-dateness of the situation allowed teachers to come in and say, "This is happening in my class, what should I do?" We could then sit and discuss what could be done. They went back, tried, it, and could

come and talk about it in lengthy sessions the next week.
This kind of skill in problem solving does not develop
from a teacher in a university classroom saying, "You do
it this way and this kind of thing happens." Rather it
develops when people get to hesitate, to try it out in
a practical situation and come back and ask their peers
for some more help and keep trying it out. This format
was best provided by this class and I believe that it is
an extremely productive format.

Support for thinking. The third productive
element of this classroom is really a combination of the
first two. What occurs after a period of time when this
interaction across social boundaries is combined with
the development of problem solving abilities is that every-
body develops mutual support for the process of thinking
about every day school problems. As we can see reading
Silberman and other critics of the schools, support for
thinking and cognitive interaction on school problems is
very low in schools in the United States today. One of
the reasons that it is low is that we tend to support
the nose to the grindstone, plow-your-way-through-without-
looking-at-the-problem kind of thinking among teachers.
We support it not so much by words, but by the structures
of the schools which abandons teachers to their private
rooms, and private problems with no real opportunity for

interaction. That much needed opportunity was provided by this in-service seminar.

Once structurs are set up to provide the support necessary for this cognitive approach to classroom problems, the effect is on-going. We need not maintain an on-site seminar in order to maintain the kinds of thinking patterns that are needed. What happens is the people begin to view each other in different ways, they begin to see that thinking is allowable in schools, that teachers can think and solve their problems. I think that when those thought provoking kinds of relationships are started they tend to perservere in the same way that the merely social gossip relationships of the teachers room tend to perservere when they are established.

I cannot stress too highly the importance of support for critical thinking among teachers and administrators in the school. Interns in this situation truly benefit because they have not yet had a chance to see what most teacher-teacher, and teacher-administration interactions are like, so they enter their new jobs when they finish their teacher training programs with a much different expectation, and this expectation itself forms a tendency toward interaction in the support needed for critical thinking in new situations. It is a spreading process that develops and on that is extremely important.

I'm sure that over the next couple of years interns will be writing back to their cooperating teachers for help on specific problems as a result of their interactions in this particular course. I'm sure that the relationship that was built up between teachers and administrators in the Dartmouth school will continue because of the program that was developed. And I'm sure that support among the ten teachers who were in the class, will also continue to develop because they have heard each other speak, they have identified those people as thinking people who they can work with. They are in close enough proximity because of the geographical nature of the on-site arrangement that they can coninue to help and aid one another in their future curriculum development.

New horizons. The fourth element of this class was its potential for opening up new areas for further studies by members of the group. This was aided in this specific case by the fact that at the time I was running this course, the University of Massachusetts was developing a curriculum supplement to be distributed to all of the Distributive Education teachers in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. This supplement contains a number of specific curriculum items, but is also geared to a process approach to curriculum. One of the things I tried to do in the course was to show how the particular curriculum

approach that we were using in the classroom related to that supplemental curriculum material. In that way I felt it would be possible for teachers to take the new curriculum material and not use it just as it was given to them, but rather develop the materials using the ideas we had worked with in adapting these new curriculae to their classrooms.

It seems obvious that further study becomes possible only when people see the need for study at all. In the past those teachers had felt that curriculum was something to be shuffled through and study wasn't necessary. Because of the horizons opening up within this class, they begin to see specific things that they can do to open up new curriculum areas. Specific ways to look at the world. One of the things I tried to do in the course, and which seems to have been successful was to take day-to-day experiences and show how a teacher with a view toward integrating these experiences into his classroom could use them and develop them into a full curriculum package. One of the things that I saw many of the class members doing by the end of the class was using these contemporary experiences in the curriculum that they were developing. One of the teachers had had an experience going into a store that was on strike. He had some inter-action with people on the picket line and then with some

of the workers in the store after he crossed the line. This then became the core of a particular lesson. He was able to do this because he began to see the kinds of resources available to someone writing curriculum. Thus it can be seen that the outcome of this type of course goes far beyond the last class and the formal end of the instruction.

Abilities. It is only fair that I use the same evaluation criteria for this particular approach that I used in my curriculum class itself. One of the major items there was what abilities do the students have after leaving the class that they did not have before they came in. I think it would be instructive to take a look at the abilities the students have after leaving the on-site seminar that they didn't have when they first enrolled in it.

The main ability that everybody developed was the ability to see classroom practical issues in cognitive and theoretical terms. As I mentioned above, this particular ability was extremely important for pre-service teachers and in-service teachers, and administrators.

Another outcome of the combination of pre- and in-service education in curriculum development is teacher power and control over the environment. Teachers are not being handed cellophane-wrapped teacher-proof curric-

ulum. They have the ability to develop their own. They

own it, and take responsibility for the strengths and its

weaknessess. Then curriculum can change each day or each

year so that it is related to a particular set of students

and is not limited by the inflexibility that comes with

an outside curriculum. An example of the importance of

this is the story of a teaching collegue of mine in New

Jersey. He came to me one day and talked seriously about

leaving teaching. Teaching had been something that came

from the top of his head, now it came from the tip of his

fingers. What he meant by this was that he had been able

in the past to go into a classroom with an idea and a

structural image of what he wanted to do. He worked

through a class by picking up the students' input and

developing it into curriculum on the spot. He was work-

ing very hard. It was a dynamic, exciting, student-re-

lated curriculum. As the years passed, being very careful

and organized, he collected all of his materials and put

them in file cabinets. He kept his file cabinets ex-

tremely well organized. When he came to me, he had five,

four drawer file cabinets lined up in a row. That is

twenty drawers of curriculum, which he had used over the

years. Now he would come into the class with no real

interest of his own. When his class seemed to be going

in a certain direction, he would mosey over to the file

cabinets, role out the drawer, find the appropriate item, pick it up and hand it to the student involved. He was only relating to the students who had been there before, not to the students who were in the class with him in the present. I was working as his department chairman then, and we discussed the process at length a number of times. Later we got together and had a ritualized burning of one item from each drawer of his file cabinets. It was only twenty pages, but that ritualized burning, allowed him to go back and continue to teach off the top of his head. He didn't have to rely on his files as the source of his total curriculum.

Working on curriculum in a practical and theoretical organization is a growing situation for the intern also. He begins to see his curriculum as a source of power in the future and not something that is imposed on him. He also knows that he can create curriculum. He need not rely on what is presented by the school in text book form. He becomes a productive classroom engineer.

Many young teachers, pre-service and in-service, have a lot of problem with writer's cramp in the initial curriculum formation stages. Curriculum writing is not like writing a book. The writer can't be totally in charge because he has to remember that there will be up-

dating input from students in the classroom. Thus, young
teachers often try to write too complete a plan and fail-
ing in that they give up and do nothing at all. This is
why text book companies have been so successful in mar-
keting curriculum. The teachers need then only to follow
what the text books have to say without having to make
judgments about the validity or the effectiveness of a
particular piece of curriculum. The in-service and pre-
service curriculum writing seminar helps teachers over-
come this initial writer's cramp by giving them aid and
the advice of peers facing the same task. In addition
the individual teachers can have support for the cognitive
process of developing, testing, and updating their own
curriculum.

Writing curriculum for most people suffers from
the fact that it is such an amorphous process. In fact,
in order for curriculum to be good it needs to draw from
a wide range of personal and class owned experiences and
therefore needs to be amorphous. But in the initial
learning stages it needs a structured presentation so
that the young and inexperienced teachers and pre-teachers
can get a handle on how to do their own. This seminar
can help provide that handle.

The seminar also helps reduce the intern's in-
efficiency in dealing with day-to-day curriculum writing

Most interns finish their internship absolutely exhaust-
ed because they spend every evening - five and six hours
- getting the next day's lessons together. In many cases
they will spend that much time preparing only one hour's
worth of lesson. Part of this is understandable and can't
be helped. It grows from the fact that the interns have
so little experience with classroom interaction and that
they don't know which things are important and which are
not, and the limited experience that they have with the
day-to-day requirements of grinding out a curriculum.
This is the first time that interns have that day-to-day
pressure on them, and the seminar can help them to develop
skills for meeting those day-to-day requirements.

My understanding of the above abilities is deriv-
ed from a combination of theory and my experience the one
time I have taught this kind of on-site seminar in curric-
ulum development and theory. I feel that this triumvir-
ate of pre- and in-service education and curriculum devel-
opment is one of the most powerful approaches to develop-
ing teacher competencies in the all important areas of per-
sonal support for cognitive action in school situations
and cognitive approaches to durriculum.

Relationship with Other Elements

This particular element of an in-depth teacher

education program is in some ways more complicated to
view than the other elements discussed in this disserta-
tion. The elements of selection, or of integration of
theory and practice, or of support groups or of self
supervision are easier to deal with because they are high-
ly specific in nature. This element, the in-service
and pre-service curriculum experience is more difficult
because it combines within it many other important ele-
ments. But I think it's important to see this as an
element in its own right even in its complexity because
it is an important preparation for effective day-to-day
classroom activity.

The other elements can be separated and talked
about separately because they can be taught or worked on,
or developed totally within a theoretical context, where-
as, the on-site seminar is developed from a theoretical
model, but carried out in practical context. Thus, some
such seminars will be successful, and others won't be.
A lot of it depends upon the particular makeup of the group
and the particular instructor who is involved in organiz-
ing and running the seminar. Still for the very reason
that we need to talk about the integration of theory and
practice in our teacher education program, we must have
that integration in a real world application of the theo-
retical unity that I've proposed. This is a very diffi-

cult element to implement, and may in fact only be pos-
sible at some times for some people. Yet I think it is
important to try. The reason I have included the notes
of one such class is to indicate that although it is
difficult it is possible and that some very good results
can be achieved. I believe that _ach person or group of
people attempting to run this type of program needs to
sit down and clearly list the important elements and the
relationships of those elements before they begin to
teach the course. Then once they get into the class
they can work out the specifics needed to develop the
strengths that I've discussed here.

It is true that this element of the in-depth
teacher education program is the hardest to develop,
analyze, and explain. It is also one of the most critical
elements because it seeks to integrate all of the other
elements into a real experience in the real world. The
possible ambiquity in some areas must be borne because
out of that ambiquity individual teachers and pre-teach-
ers can learn to process their own skills and to develop
them to the fullest.

CHAPTER V

SELF SUPERVISION

The significance of the concept of self super-
vision goes far beyond its positi⌐n in one teacher educ-
ation program. I believe that it forms the base for any
creative change through cognitive processes for any teach-
er in any classroom in the world. In order for change to
be productive and be more than just change for change's
sake, it must move from analysis of the past and into
certain suitable changes building on the strengths of the
past. Any other kind of change throws out the baby with
the bath water. In other forms of change we do not con-
tinue to develop higher and higher teaching skills, rather
we start again and again and again at the beginning.

This chapter proceeds as the basis of the psycho-
logical assumption that most teachers seek to improve their
ability to do their jobs. While we all can think of
instances in which that was not the goal of a specific
teacher, I believe that generally the assumption holds.

> Many teachers have felt a need to examine the signi-
> ficance of the life they are living and the meaning
> of the work they are doing in the name of scholar-
> ship and education.

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[1]Arthur T. Jersild, WHEN TEACHERS FACE THEMSELVES,
Ney York: Columbia University Press, 1955. p. 4.

in any case the assumption is a productive one because
it projects productive ways of working with teachers who
have this desire. Other teachers will need to be worked
with in other ways.

Part of an inductive process is to gather data
to make new decisions. But in many cases in teaching,
the subjective relationship to that data obscures the
real meaning of it. That is why we need a course in the
technical skills necessary for self superivision. Many
teachers that I have seen continually work on improvement
of the thing they are doing with no particular concept
of why those things work or do not work. They work on
items they subjectively believe will make their lessons
better. In reality they have not been trained well enough
in analysis of classroom interaction to organize their
data effectively.

Second Part Supervisor

Outside supervision has a number of disadvantages.
The first of these is that there is generally a duplicity
of understandings about the role of that outside super-
vision. In most schools in the country supervision is
not for the purpose of improving teaching skills or im-
proving the general classroom situation. It is for the
purpose of evaluation. A building principal or vice-

principal will come into a classroom for the purpose of
seeing whether a specific teacher should be rehired or
given tenure. This function almost annihilates any chance
for that same person having a productive relationship with
the teacher in terms of improving teaching skills.

As the teacher sees the supervisor as the job
threat he is, he is not likely to go to that same person
and say, "Look I'm having trouble in this area. Can you
help me?" In addition the supervisor is not watching
from the perspective of helping the teacher develop his
skills. Supervisors tend to wait so long that they are
put in a position of making an immediate decision and
cannot make decisions based on what kind of teacher a
person will become given two or three years of good help
and supervision in their teaching.

An additional limitation on outside supervision
in the schools is the time availability of the people in-
volved. Even in those very few cases were there is super-
vision which aims at the improvement of teaching, the
people who are in those supervisory roles do not have the
time to deal with one teacher in one area over a long
period of time. They rather tend to become paper pushers
or they slip back into the job evaluation type of super-
vision. They don't help improve teaching skills. In
order for the improvement of teaching skills to be effec-

tively supervised it is necessary for the supervisor to set aside a large block of time to work with one teacher. Within this framework it might be reasonable to expect that a supervisor would work with three or four teachers a term at the most and would spend almost the total part of his time in the classroom, helping each one with specific technical skills and the larger contextual and curriculum skills that a teacher needs to develop. I don't see the possibility of many school systems hiring an individual and paying a full salary, (probably one larger than a teaching salary for somebody with a good deal of teaching experience) for this type of help. They just don't see it as important.

The problems with outside supervision are almost insurmountable. It becomes important to recognize that in analysis of classroom interaction and appropriate changes to be undertaken by the teacher, the teacher must rely almost entirely upon himself.[2] I believe that in order for this to be a possibility all teachers must learn in depth the skills of self supervisions.

Necessary Skills

By the time teachers get into the classrooms it

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[2]Arthur T. Jersild, WHEN TEACHERS FACE THEMSELVES, New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. p. 3.

is probably to late to develop those skills. The first
and second and third year of teaching are so laden with
extra work that the average teacher without the self
supervision skills just plows along in an effort to keep
his head above water. He does not have time to learn
the sometimes painful tehcniques necessary to truly ana-
lyze what is going on in a classroom. This problem can
only be overcome by instruction in self supervision on
the pre-teacher level. This training should be develop-
ed in both theoretical and practical contexts throughout
teacher training and be implemented, not in the first
year of teaching, but in the long internship.

Teaching self supervisory skills in the pre-teach-
ing program is logical. Pre-teachers, because of their
university involvement, are already using analysis to a
larger extent than people who are already in the field.
The analytical techniques can be taught in theory in
university classes, and then practiced, even though the
use of the techniques may at first be uncontrolled and
fumbling, in the classroom setting. The pre-teacher
isn't under the day-to-day pressures full-time teachers
have, so he can practice some techniques which do not
come easily to him. Even so called natural teachers, who
we find in our universities probably do not have self
supervisory skills that they need to have when they get

into a classroom. Early practice in the use of these is essential for them to move their teaching from the intuitive to the cognitive level. People who are not so called natural teachers need the skills even more and in fact they may find it easier to develop the skills because things don't go easily for them at first and even in the initial stages of their training they are looking around for some viable techniques and better approaches.

In teaching these skills early in the teacher education program, we are faced with questions like, "Why is this important?" "Why should we do this?" We are placed in the uncomfortable position of saying, "You will need this. Learn it now and you will see that you will need it later." This is a problem. But it seems to me that we must build up some kinds of credibility with our students so that we can say to them, "Learn this now, you'll really see that it will work. Please bear with it for a while, because you will need these in teaching." At some point all teachers have to make that kind of statement. And I think that this element of teacher education program is so important that I would trade off a little of my credibility to develop these types of skills very early in the program.

> The central task of teacher education, therefore, is to provide teachers with a sense of purpose, or, if you will, with a philosophy of education. This means developing teachers' ability and their desire

to think seriously, deeply, and continuously about
the purposes and consequences of what they do--about
the ways in which their curriculum and teaching
methods, classroom and school organization, testing,
and grading procedures, affect purpose and are affect-
ed by it.[3]

The Payoff

The return payoff can come very early in a teach-
er education class. Given the kind of theoretical, prac-
tical integration that I have proposed in an earlier chap-
ter, the students in our classrooms can use the self super-
vision and classroom supervision skills to bring data from
observation and short internships back to the university
discussions. The specific skills needed for classroom
analysis, and self-analysis are exactly those skills which
allow students to really observe classrooms. In many
teacher education programs that I've seen, interns go out
and sit in the classroom and then after twenty minutes to
an hour say, "I know everthing I need to know about this
classroom. Let's leave." Then they find themselves
sitting in the back of the classroom being bored. By
assigning specifc things to look for and teaching the
skills necessary to systematically observe those things,
we can produce more valuable longer term observation
situations.

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[3]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: RandomHouse, 1970. p. 472.

When our students bring us data in written form, and organized around a few points at a time we can then take that data in the theoretical classroom discussion and organize it into a theory of classroom interaction. This kind of theory building has credibility for our students because they have seen the classrooms themselves. They have seen the data. In fact, they collected it. It's data that they recognize as their own. Knowing the data they can argue that the theory fits the situation or doesn't. They can take part in a discussion and development of a theoretical framework. This is an extremely powerful experience.

As an example, I think of the student that I sent out for classroom observation, who sat in the class for exactly twenty minutes, found that he was yawning, and so decided that he must be tired and went out and spent the rest of the afternoon drinking in the teachers' room. When he returned to our class, I asked him what he had learned by his observation and he said, "Oh, I don't know, there wasn't anything going on, they were just working out of work books." And then he was quite. That kind of data did not provide much for a discussion. It happened that the same pre-teacher wound up interning in the very same classroom. At the end of the year, he came back and he said, "Boy, that workbook situation that

teacher has worked out is really dominating the whole class. I sure would have liked to have seen that a little bit better the first time around." I agreed. I have been in that classroom too. The work book situation that teacher had worked out, so limited the students' self-expression that the classroo was almost completely controlled and teacher oriented though the teacher denied this, arguing that within the work book he was able to allow each student to go at his own rate. This kind of data if it had been collected by that student early on in his observation could have provided the basis for discussions of individualization of instruction, group dynamics, classroom interaction, feelings of power of the individual and more. All of these things could have been well developed if the student had been able to analyze the classroom interaction and not just sit and let it wash over him.

Time and time again I have seen students go out into the classrooms and return to their universities, saying, "Ah, there was nothing going on out there." Then months later when they are in their internships we find them complaining that too much is going on and they don't have time to figure it out. It's true. They have neither the time, nor the tools. The tools needed to be developed when they had the luxury of time to sit and analyze with-

out the responsibility for running a class the next day.

Self-View

Another reason for classroom analysis is for the development of a realistic self-view on the part of the intern; a view of what he will be able to do when he's in the classroom. Pre-teachers who go out and observe classrooms for the first time have an annoying habit of coming to total judgments after a very few observations. They say they either like a teacher, or they don't like a teacher and when asked why, they generally answer by saying, "Well I don't know but he's an ....." and then trailing off. It is important for them to make some judgments about teachers that they come into contact with. This is especially so as some of these judgments will lead later to an internship placement. However, they need to make their judgments on a highly involved and highly developed cognitive level, not from an intuitive base. They see certain things going wrong in a classroom when they are out observing and they say, "Oh, I'd never do that. That's terrible." And they may be right. They may not do exactly what they see a teacher doing that they don't like. But they probably will do a number of other things that are just as bad. It's easy to be a Sunday quarterback and say, "Oh, that didn't work. I'll never do that." It's much harder to be in the situation

and know what you are really doing. Good classroom eval-
uations skills allow the pre-teacher to give the class-
room teacher credit were credit is due. The pre-teacher
skilled in observation can see what the classroom teacher
does well and develop those kinds of skills. He can also
recognize faults, and develop the skills he needs to
avoid committing those kinds of errors himself. It is
most productive for the pre-teacher to say, "That teacher
has some good and some bad about him, and I'm going to
learn the good, and build skills so I don't have to do
the bad." This realistic self-view allows the pre-teacher
to do some developing and some skill building before he
gets in the classroom and that is essential for a good
interning experience.

> The process of gaining knowledge of self and the
> struggle for self-fullfillment and self-acceptance
> is not something an instructor teachers others. It
> is not something he does to or for them. It is some-
> thing in which he himself must be involved.[4]

The development of these skills in the period
before the internship, when the pre-teacher has time and
space to be analytical is important. After the skills
have been tried out and used some at this level, they
begin to become a tool that the pre-teacher can use with-
in his long internship.

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[4]Arthur T. Jersild, WHEN TEACHERS FACE THEMSELVES,
New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. p. 14.

Practice Analysis

This is important because most student teachers
don't get the kind of outside supervision that they need
in that troubled first period of internship when the pre-
teacher is extremely maleable. During this period they
see almost everybody as a threat to them in their new
position as teacher. They have to deal with the students
in their classroom and not be threatened by them, but
they find many ways of not dealing with other adults that
they might come into contact with. The relationship
with the cooperating teacher is often an adversary relation-
ship at first. Interns see their cooperating teachers
as being judgmental and evaluative when they are first
trying to get on their feet in the classroom. This may
or may not be the case. Often cooperating teachers are
jealous of their teaching time and very cognisant of the
fact that after the intern leaves they'll have to take
over, so they want the student teacher to do a job much
like they would do in that classroom at that particular
time. They are very apt to say, "Oh, you shouldn't do
this, or that," on a very pragmatic, not analytical basis.
The cooperating teachers probably do not have those analy-
tical skills that we're talking about. Most teachers in
our society today have not been taught such things. There-
fore, they tend to be very seat of the pants oriented.

They may find the intern is threatening to them if he's successful or that they can lord it over the intern who has just come out of the university if he is not successful after all. This situation, does not provide the kind of supportive analysis that we might like.

Threatening Supervision

Other people in the school system who may be involved in superision of interns also have limitations in trying to bring their analysis to the classroom. In most cases these people are administrative personnel who are also used in the evaluation of the regular teaching population. In many cases an intern may be hoping for a job within a specific school system and therefore, he is apt to feel threatened by the administrative personnel coming into the classroom, even though they may have the analytical skills and want to help the intern.

The university supervisor is seen in the same light. Because of the structures of supervision of interns, the supervisor will probably only get to the school three or four times, if that.[5] (In the cases that I have done supervision, I have been able to get to the school at least ten times.). Some interns see the supervisor as an

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[5]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New York: Random House, 1970. p. 452.

evaluator, somebody whose final responsibility is to give
the grade. In the present job market that grade becomes
very punitive because without an "A" in student teaching,
and a good recommendation from the supervisor the intern
will be unlikely to get a teaching job. Even if the
supervisor sees himself in a helping role and is interest-
ed in the development of skills, he is probably not see-
ing the intern in his true teaching form. The intern will
be putting on an act and keeping a defensive wall between
himself and his supervisor.

For these reasons, most internships have been very
unproductive.[6] The intern goes into the classroom, does
what he was able to do when he went in, and sticks it
out to the end to get his credit. This is not a produc-
tive learning situation. The intern, in doing this closes
out opportunities for analysis and is unable to develop
the kinds of skills that he is going to need to be a
teacher. This is understandable, but it is not accept-
able if we are to develop cognitively oriented, aggresi-
vely analytical school teachers.

In order to overcome these barriers we must pro-
vide interns with the self-analysis skills that I have
been focussing on in this chapter. These skills were

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[6]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. pp. 458-459.

useful when we were talking about bringing data back to
the university classroom. Now they are even more useful
as they seem to be the only viable vehicle for bringing
analysis into the student teaching experience. For the
reasons discussed above, outside supervision just does
not work.

Support for Classroom Analysis

Although self-analysis is extremely important it
does not work well in a vacuum and this is one of the
reasons that I have called for an on-site seminar with
in-service teachers during the internship period. One
of the strengths of self supervision is that it can bring
data into this on-site seminar. Just as earlier pre-
teachers were to provide data for the university classes,
the self supervising intern can bring enough data and
non-subjective evaluation to this on-site seminar to
provide the vehicle for discussion. If the atmosphere
of the on-site seminar is supportive enough to allow him
to bring out his problems and his questions this forum
can become extremely productive, both for the intern and
for the in-service teacher. In this case the intern can
become a model for the in-service teacher in developing
those skills of self supervision. If the analytical
techniques of the seminar are of such a nature that they

are not personally threatening, but rather deal with specific ideas in the context of a theoretical construct there is a good chance that the interns will bring up their problems. They have had experience in doing this in university classrooms, perhaps getting productive answers. When they do this in the on-site seminar context they will get more productive answers. This reinforcement will lead to the use of the same kinds of techniques and the same kinds of discussions throughout their teaching years, and this is the final goal of development of self-supervisory techniques.

There is still a good possibility that the interns will not want to open themselves up in front of their cooperating teachers. Especially if they have a bad personal relationship with those teachers. In addition to the on-site seminar of the last chapter, I also spoke of a gripe session to be held with just the university supervisor and the interns. I believe that in this context there is a good chance that these kinds of problems will come out and it is very important that they come up with sufficient data for dealing with them. When an intern comes into one of these gripe sessions and says, "I had a terrible day. I don't know what happened," there is very little that the university supervisor can do besides to calm him and tell him its all right and

that he'll be able to do much better tomorrow. When
that same intern comes in with the same problem and says,
"I think that my problem is in the area of discipline and
interpersonal relations and I see this happening and I
see this happening and I see this happening, but I don't
know how to put those things together," then the super-
visory teacher, and the other interns can help him to see
exactly what it is and help him develop his analytical
tools in that context.

In fact the support for the interns from each
other is extremely important. This peer support allows
the intern to see that there are people around who can
help him with his specific problem. If he begins to use
those people then he will be able to use them when the
university personnel aren't around. This kind of thing
is extremely important. There is a much greater value
to being helped by peers who are in the same situation
than by somebody from the university who may give out
grand sounding ideas, but doesn't seem to have to go
through it on a day-to-day basis.

In addition the intern's analysis of his own class
can provide the data and hard knowledge for him to provide
his own self-support. Most young teachers even with the
highest level of skills and the best intentions lose a
lot of what they have learned when they enter their first
year of teaching. When something doesn't work they are

often found in teachers rooms, asking older teachers for
advice and direction. This is an important learning pro-
cess, but it can negate a lot of the change that we are
hoping to bring about in the schools. Self-analysis is
a valuable tool for counter-acting the thoughtless rote
learnings that are promulgated in the teachers rooms.
What the older teachers tell the new teacher may not
square with what he knows about his classroom through
his own self supervision. If he comes to fully develop
and rely on those self-supervision techniques he is more
apt to stand by his own analysis than to go along with
someone else's. This is important.

In the next chapter I will talk about support
groups and support from other teachers. If a young teach-
er is lucky enough to develop this kind of support mech-
anism for himself in the school he will be even more pro-
ductive then if he can bring objective data to his group
for their analysis and support. Without data teachers
are in the same position that university supervisors are
in during the internship period. Even the most suppor-
tive of teachers can only say, "There, there it will be
all right," to somebody who says, "Everything's terrible,
I don't know what to do." But if the young teacher can
say, "This happened today and I found that this was the
case and that this was the case and I think I may try
going in this direction, what do you think," then a group

of teachers who have formed a support group and who all have some skills in classroom analysis will be able to help on the basis of that data. In order for that to work the classroom teacher must be able to collect his own data.

Analysis in Student Teaching

These items are important within the internship. We have wated too long if we wait for the first year of teaching to develop resistance to the teachers room and to develop techniques for getting real aid from another teacher. These kinds of techniques must be developed by the intern both in his pre-service training, in his internship, and then hopefully they will carry over when he is a full fledged classroom teacher.

The outcome of this is that the teachers we are preparing in our universities today will be able to analyze their classroom, building on their past strengths and understanding, and doing away with their mistakes. This kind of analysis is of paramount importance if we are ever to truly change the teaching profession.

But it is not an end point goal at all that motivates me to seek to develop these skills early on in the teacher training process. These skills greatly aid in the tremendously trying period of the internship. With

these skills a student can answer the questions, "What's
happening to me? What's going on here?" during that
period in which interns have to fight to find time to
look around and see what is happening to them. This
self-knowledge allows them to change things about their
environment. They can say, "I like this situation, this
is helping me, I don't like that situation for these
reasons, I will either change it, or get out." The power
of this self-knowledge is tremendous. The internship
need no longer be something which is just dont to students,
or which they bear up under to get through the process.
It can become a truly beneficial experience in which they
begin to have the kind of control that teachers need to
have over their environments.[7]

This power is caused by the loss of fear, that
comes of knowing what's happening to them and a gain of
effectiveness in the environment. This loss of fear and
gain of effectiveness also provides the opportunity for
some openness which is not found among most interns. If
the analysis provided by the student for himself agrees
with the analysis of any of the outside factors in his

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[7]Arthur T. Jersild and Eve Allina Lazar in Asso-
ciation with Adele M. Brodkin, THE MEANING OF PSYCHO-
THERAPY IN THE TEACHER'S LIFE AND WORK, New York: Colum-
bia University Press, 1962. p. 7.

internship, that is the cooperating teacher, a building administrator, and/or the university supervisor, that helps the intern to realize that these people are involved in his program in order to help him. This brings an openness which may allow him to try some of their suggestions without the threat that has been implied when suggestions are made to an intern. It seem to me that this is one of the most important gains in the self supervision technique. Earlier in this chapter I indicated that it was the perception on the part of the student teacher of threat from these outside individuals that was important in governing the way he reacted to them. If he has his own tools and begins to feel powerful in his environment because he sees that his tools work, his perception of what these outside forces are doing to him will probably change. Once the perception changes, the student will find that these people have an interest in developing him into the best teacher that he can be. With self supervision the responses and evaluations of the outside supervisors are not completely unknown to the student. He begins to see some correlation with his own analysis and this correlation speaks for the validity of what these people say. If satisfied with this validation he can begin to listen to some specific techniques and to ideas which might alleviate his problems. If these techniques and ideas do in fact help, then he can use self

supervision again to see how they work, and why they work, and adopt the learnings that are important for him. This is a positive outcome.

In summary, I would say that developing the skills of self supervision is extremely important to any teacher and these skills need to be develuped early on in teacher education programs so that they can be brought to bear in the three areas, classroom observation, the internship, and self-view within the internship. It is important to outline some of the elements which would be important in this self supervision process.

The Techniques to be Developed

Flander's. The first of the techniques that I would introduce to pre-teachers would be a modified form of Flander's Verbal Interaction Analysis, it is necessary to make a notation every three, or every five seconds of the type of verbal activity that's taking place in the classroom. It is not possible for a teacher to do this while he is teaching, but I believe that the various categories that are involved in the Flander's analysis are very important if the teacher in training is to develop a comprehensive view of verbal interaction in the class-room.

One of the things that is well demonstrated by

Flander's Anaysis is the interaction between teacher
questions, and teacher verbal statements, and student
verbal statements. We all assume that we know about that
relationship, but I think the Flander's ten points in-
dicate very clearly how that arragement can work. We
can see a difference between a ty ? B or a type 9 question
in terms of the kinds of responses we get and the kind
of thinking that is implied by that type of response.
We can see supportive atmospheres as they are demonstrat-
ed in both verbal and non-verbal interactions and in
general there is a gcod opportunity to see one theoretical
breakdown of the verbal interaction process and see what
is highlighted by that type of breakdown. In the very
practice of distinguishing a type 8 or a type 9 response
and the questions which stimulate those responses on the
part of the students the pre-service teacher begins to
understand the relative differences in those kinds of
actions and the fact that he can distinguish between them
will help him in his own teaching.[8]

As part of the training in the technical skills
in using the Flander's interaction analysis I would have
each student learn all the categories and how to use them
and how to take the notations every 5 seconds. This tech-

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[8]Charles Silberman, CRISES IN THE CLASSROOM, New
York: Random House, 1970. pp. 454-456.

nique can be used initially and practiced in their obser-
vation excursions out into the schools. Later on they
should be able to take this data, break it down into the
data matrices that Flanders describes and use those
matrices to describe the classroom. Then in discussion
they can see whether those matrices do in fact effective-
ly describe the classroom they have observed.

I have noted in using this device that after some
practice it is possible to stop taking the notes and still
have a good sense of the kind of verbal interaction pat-
terns that are established in the classroom. In fact the
language becomes so useful that in classroom discussions
students will say, "Oh, you have a 9-4-5 pattern going
for you." That describes one kind of pattern. It is a
convenient shorthand once everyone in the class knows it.

As skill in the use of this increases, I have seen
many interns begin to talk about their own problems, and
the kinds of problems they have in the classroom in the
same terms. They begin to understand that the Flanders
technique can be of powerful use to them in collecting
data about what went right and what went wrong.

Questions. Another very important technique is
an expansion of the different types of questions that
produce type eight and 9 responses. Pre-teachers would
benefit from a unit on questions and what they really mean

and how they function in a situation. I would break such
a unit down into two parts. Part I is, how do you ask
a question that asks exactly what you mean to ask? This
area is a lot of fun for students to play with initially,
and sometimes it seems to be getting out of hand when the
students start to use the technique on the university
teachers. There is nothing more frustrating than asking
a student, "Do you have the time?", and having the student
answer, "Yes," and walk away, just after you have been
emphasizing being sure you ask what you want to ask. But,
something is learned here. The answer "yes" or "no" to
the question "Do you have the time?" is indeed as valid
or perhaps more valid than giving the time. What operates
here is a verbal pattern that has grown out of a cultural
background. We know that the question "Do you have the
time?" means, "What time is it." For some cultural reasons
long obscured by history or usage it is considered more
polite to ask, "Do you have the time?" However, this
understanding relies upon the cultural milieu in which
it is asked. In many cases teachers find themselves in
a cultural milieu which is quite different from the one
in which they grew up. In this case, questions which they
ask may not have the same meaning to their students that
they think they do. The outcome of this is that student
responses are often seen as being not at all relevant or

in some cases being a wise guy response to a straight
forward question. This is always trouble for the teach-
er and students. In some cases it is indeed a wise guy
response. But often there are subtle misunderstandings
that happen in a classroom because the teachers and the
students aren't speaking the same language. An under-
standing of this difference in language and in what words
mean even within what seems to be a straight forward
context is important if a teacher is to interact verbally
with his students at an efficient level.

A second aspect of questions to be discussed in
the pre-teaching program is the difference between open-
ing or enobling questions and closed or single answer
questions. There are numerous examples of teachers who
ask only closed, single answer questions, and then leave
the classroom thinking students know a lot because they
have been able to give the answers to these questions.
There a whole range of ways of doing this.

The yes or no questions provides an opportunity
for student reponse, but not an opportunity for students
to really use their brains to integrate various facts
from the environment. This type of questions, while seem-
ing to provide interaction is really a lecture technique
and should not be confused with a question and answer
session. This technique has its place, but when it is

confused with a question and answer session it dangerous-
ly over-burdens the classroom balance in terms of lec-
tures. The teacher still brings all of the information
to the classroom.

An example of this is the original socratic meth-
od in which Socrates says to the __ave Meno, "Is it not
true that such and such is the case?",and Meno says, "Yes"
or "No". The form of the question is such that it indi-
cates the answer and encourages a guess at the answer
rather than real knowledge. We don't hear Meno saying,
"It is true that the sum cf the squares of two sides of
a right triangle are equal to the sum of the square of
the hypotenuse." He does not say that. He agrees to it
when Socrates asks it. This is a pedantic rather than
educative technique.

An other type of closed question is one in which
the teacher is seeking a specific answer. This can break
down in two ways. Either the students quess at the speci-
fic answer and the teacher is put in the position of say-
ing, "No, not that. No. No, not that, Yes you're right."
It becomes a guessing game. Or the teacher must give
hints to the specific answer he wants. I recall with amuse-
ment, but with some terrible feelings about teacher pre-
paration in this country, a ninth grade social studies
teacher who I witnessed teaching in the following manner.

She would say, "The basis for all laws in the United States is the_____." And then wait for a student response. If the student response didn't come immediately, she would give the first syllable, "The basis for all laws of the United States is the Con_____, Con_____" and if there was still no student response, she would give the second syllable, "The basis for all laws in the United States is the Consti____, Consti____." Well finally the student would get the answer, Constitution. "Right," she'd say, and go on her merry way. And she felt she had had a productive question and answer session. Really what she was doing was getting the students to say her words for her, which was of no real benefit to them. Teachers need to be aware of that kind of questioning pattern and use it where it is appropriate and not where it is not appropriate.

> They (students) are almost never required to make observations, formulate definitions, or perform any intellectual operations that go beyond repeating what someone else says is true.[9]

Opening or enobling, or higher order questions have a completely different form and it is important for the pre-teacher to analyze the differences in form and in their effect on classroom behavior. An open or enobl-

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[9] Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, TEACHING AS A SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITY, New York: Delta, 1969. pp. 19-20.

ing or higher order question invites the student to use his previous knowledge, integrate it with the data at hand and come out with new formulation which is his own. This process allows him to integrate what he has previously known with what he is learning and to organise it in a form that he will be able to carry with him always. The question and answer interaction patterns in this situation tend to be much different from the others discussed here. In this situation the teacher is no longer put in the position of saying right or wrong, but rather can encourage or adopt or move the answer in a direction that is productive for classroom use and for the use of the other students.

It can be seen that without an understanding of the difference, and without an understanding of the involved nature of the open or enobling or higher order question, the young teacher may tend to stay with the easier to handle closed question. A discussion must take place during the teacher training program to show the pre-teacher how important it is to use higher order questions. Without this discussion the simplest way out for the new teacher is to avoid this type of verbal interaction, because it is difficult, and requires more preparation, and understanding, and more listening on the part of the teacher.

Put-ups.   Another technique to be developed at
the university level before the pre-teacher goes in to
his internship is the use of answers to questions.
Teacher response to student answers is extremely import-
ant if we are to build a valuable verbal interchange in
the classroom. Again, Flanders differentiates teacher
responses in terms of approval both verbal and non-verbal
and how they fuction in a verbal interation pattern. In
classroom analysis and self supervision these techniques
must be brought to an even more acute unterstanding.
Answers to closed questions can be seen as either right or
wrong. But answers to open questions, because they involve
input and integration on the part of the students are
neither right nor wrong as such. The only way they can
be judged is by whether they add to the flow of the class-
room environment.

    With that understanding, people need to be train-
ed in how to do "put-ups" on thier students. Our society
has a tendency to function in a put-down mode. That is
to say a mode in which when an answer or a position or
an idea does not agree with what we had in mind we put
it down in some way. These put-downs can be verbal or
non-verbal. An effective classroom teacher must realize
that responses to open ended questions,while they may
not go in exactly the direction the teacher had in mind,

Non-verbal language. Another set of techniques
to be developed along the same line is the area of other
uses of non-verbal language. These can be taught in a
lot of different ways. One of the things that is left
out of teacher training programs that we hope to get our
teachers to use when they actually get into classrooms
is an approach to role playing activities. These role
playing activities can provide the base for a good under-
standing of non-verbal interaction in classroom communica-
tions. In the past we have set up role playing activi-
ties in which everybody had a specific role which they
demonstrated through language. They would sit around,
and pretend they were somebody else. A good situation
to set up for this, is one in which the members of the
teaching class take roles of students in another class-
room and take on classic role types within that class-
room. But we need to go one step further and indicate
that in many cases they will not have the use of verbal
cues to establish their character. They must use non-
verbal cues to establish their character. They must use
non-verbal kinds to communicate who they are in the sit-
uation that we see happening in classrooms all the time.
As our pre-teachers start to play these parts, they be-
gin to see how much of whats going on in the classroom
is on a non-verbal level. They may be able to begin to

how those verbal and non-verbal actions interact and how
when a teacher is responsive to the non-verbal inter-
actions he can work at a deeper level in the classroom.
As has been noted previously, interns often don't get a
chance to have this kind of affective observation because
they're so busy just on the day-to-day getting through
the material that they don't have time to look for it.
If they have practice in this level of observation be-
fore they become interns, it may become enough easier that
they have time while they are actually teaching.

Another technique which deals with the uses and
abuses of non-verbal language in the classroomis the
technique of sound off supervision. Sound off supervision
can use the techniques of one way mirrors, or the video-
tape player without sound. But it does not need that
kind of mechanical device to work. It can be worked very
well by having the observer of a classroom watch a small
group operate from a distance so great that he cannot
hear the actual words that are said within that group.
He may be able to hear the tone of what is going on. This
type of supervision or observation can often be greatly
effective because the students don't know that they are
being observed and the observer is far enough away that
he is not involved in the process at all. The observer
must pick up all the cues that he can, most of which will

be non-verbal. We can ask students to do this when they are going out to observe in schools, or we can have a sound off observer observe in a class at the university. All of these devices heighten appreciation for all of the data that comes to us in non-verbal ways in the class-room. Developing a high level of skill in this is ex-tremely important. Unfortunately, we don't do that in most teacher education programs at present.

There are many other ways to study effective modes within what seem to be straight subject areas. Assign-ments can be made during initial observation periods to concentrate on one student and to see what non-verbal cues he is giving to a teacher when asked a question or when not called on for a specific response that he's indicated that he knows by raising his hand; what interaction either verbal or non-verbal goes on between him and other students in the classroom, what signals and other overt gestures are not seen by the teacher. All of these can be focuss-ed in the perception of the pre-teacher by specific assignments to look for such particulars when out on ob-servation. This kind of skill development can help the teacher when he is in his own classroom and needs to make these observations on the basis of much less data.

With the use of video tape and the techniques of micro-teaching, we have another perspective on the area of non-verbals. In the past micro-teaching has been used

effectively to teach the technical skills of teaching. However, very little has been done with sound off replays of particular segments focussing on the non-verbal cues given by both the class and the teacher in a classroom situation.

One of the hardest things for most of us to look at is the way we are perceived by others. That is why the first time in front of a video recorder we tend to be extremely embarrassed by what we see on the screen. We can't believe its us we see as we have never seen ourselves before. We also tend to be highly critical. This self critisism can be damaging, but it also can be very beneficial if we see and learn to look at those specific items which we find embarrassing, or non-productive, and then change those items in such a way that we can make ourselves more effective in a particular situation. Teaching in front of a mirror has many of the same virtues. Non-productive and counter-productive, non-verbal techniques can be observed in this way and can be changed to make ourselves more effective teachers.

In addition, non-productive verbal techniques can be dealt with. One of the problems we have,both in our own teaching and in helping somebody else to become a teacher is that our perception of ourselves, and students' perceptions of themselves are often not very close to

what's really going on. I have seen a teacher who has been speaking to fast for so long that he doesn't notice it, say to people who are observing a tape of his, "Do I really talk that fast?" I've watched a teacher who exhibited a multiple questioing pattern which did not allow students to answer one question before the teacher came out with another one, and another one, and another one, say, "I never realized it." This kind of revelation, while seemingly devastating at first to a teacher or preteacher, later becomes extremely productive as he learns to change his verbal pattern to make himself more produtive.

The key here is that the self analysis through the use of all of the techniques available to the teacher allows the teacher to make himself more productive; allows him to change his own way of operating in the environment which in turn makes him more powerful. Self supervision lets him make himself more powerful. This material, if handled in the right way, becomes a part of the teacher or pre-teacher's personality. He does not need to run back to the university to have somebody tell him what is wrong. He becomes the analyzer and the evaluator. He becomes the supervisor. In this way he moves toward being a self-actualizing teacher. All of these techniques must be taught in such a way that the premium is put on

self analysis, not on a university teacher saying, "See,
you do this. - I can tell you that you did that. _ I can
tell you that you did the other thing." I'm not interest-
ed in what the university teacher can see in a specific
performance, I'm interested in what the pre-teacher can
see and understand about what he is doing.

There are a number of other techniques that can
be developed to promote self supervision for the pre-
teacher. I won't discuss them at length here, but I will
list some. They are; the relationship of organization
and structure to the availability of choices among stud-
ents; testing, and its relationship to student attitude
as created by teachers; outside influences, such as weather,
day of the week, vacation proximity, and things happening
in other classrooms as related to classroom interaction.
There are others. It can be seen that all of these items;
all of these techniques are extremely important for a
teacher to develop. But most of our teacher education
programs have not given the teacher the chance to develop,
either the technique, or skills to judge how effective
that technique is in a specific stiuation. We have given
pat answers to very un-pat questions, and what we need
is an approach that gives dynamic answers; answers that
can be used and then changed and analyzed and reworked
to create the most productive teaching situation possible.

It can be seen that the self supervision component
is extremely important within this five pronged teacher
education program. It is important because it ties to-
gether the integration of theory and practice as mention-
ed in chapter 3, and the function of the on-site course
as mentioned in chapter 4. Without the essential element
of self supervision all of the data in both of those sec-
tions must be manufactured by the university personnel
and manufactured data has too little reality in the train-
ing of the pre-teacher.

The powerful effect of this technique can be felt
long after the actual training program itself. It contin-
ues through the internship into the first years of teach-
ing and can be seen as an important component of being
a teacher both in the day-to-day interaction in the class-
room and in the area I will discuss in the next chapter,
the area of support groups among teachers.

CHAPTER VI

SUPPORT GROUPS

The final specific in-depth approach that I will
deal with in this dissertation is the idea of pre- and
in-service support groups. One of the major complaints
from interns and first and second year teachers, is that
they receive very little support for their ideas and
their perspectives from other people in the schools.
This lack of support causes three major problems for them.

Self Doubts

Pre-teachers and young teachers tend to bring a
lot of doubts about their teaching abilities with them
as they come to teaching. Their lack of teaching exper-
ience and the fact for many that they are making a liv-
ing for the first time in their lives combine to make
them very self critical, focussing on their failures in
the classroom and negating those areas in which they are
having successes. In the most benign social setting this
is not at all imporved by support from other teachers
and the social situation in the teachers room. In most
schools where the setting is far from benign, there is
a negative influence on the new teacher's self view and

support fromall the negativism that he can muster. It
is this negative self view which makes the first years
of teaching the hardest.

Peer Support

The second problem is the lack of suuport from
peer groups among new teachers and pre-teachers; the fact
that ideas that are developed by the young teacher aren't
built upon in academic or cognitive exchanges with other
teachers. Young teachers begin to feel isolated in their
dealing with anything that smacks of an intellectual
approach to teaching. Day after day they go home to pre-
pare lessons and plan for following days by themselves be-
cause they feel that they would be laughed at or ridiculed
in some way by their fellow teachers if they showed how
hard they are working to just get through the next day.

> Many of the people interviewed spoke directly of their
> loneliness, while others expressed loneliness indirect-
> ly yet poignantly. Some spoke of the artificial
> nature of many human relationships; of the remoteness
> between people, even people who are supposedly close
> associates; of the barriers of mistrust that keep
> people from expressing their feelings or revealing them-
> selves; of the danger of showing oneself to others as
> one really is; of the danger of being hurt, or looked
> down on, or thought queer if one shows how one feels;
> of the need to keep up a posture and a pretense.[1]

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[1]Arthur T. Jersild, WHEN TEACHERS FACE THEMSELVES,
New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. pp. 65-66.

In this atmosphere the best of ideas can die young because there is no sounding board upon which the young teacher can try out his ideas and find help looking for possible ways of making them better. In the intellectual vacuum which is produced, new ideas however good they are may not work for lack of simple improvements another teacher might have suggested. Once the new idea fails, the young teacher is apt to give up on it entirely never knowing that with one or two small changes it would have been very effective.

Teachers' Room Syndrome

The third problem which grows out of the lack of support for the new and young teacher in a school is the existence in most schools of a large self-perpetuating, negative support group, which I call the teacher's room. Of course, this may not exist only in the teachers' room, and generally exists anywhere that teachers get together to gripe about their situations and about the school.

This support group functions in two main ways in the negative support of teachers. The first of these is the negative role model. The young teachers coming into what ever meeting place the school has sees a group of teachers sitting around, doing very little that has to do with preparing to teach the next hour or the next day.

Most of the converstaions are about the sports pages, or some bit of teacher's room gossip. This is a very negative influence, because the young teacher or the pre-teacher naturally wants to be part of this group, his new collegues, and so he often accepts the framework of the conversation whatever it is.

The second negative influence is potentially much more damaging. Sometimes the young teacher will arrive at the teachers meeting place - the teachers room - after having had a very bad session in his class. This is the point at which he is most vulnerable. He will go to an older teacher and say, "I did this and this happened. What should I do?" This can be the point of the greatest educational damage that I have ever seen. What often happens is that the older teacher with the best intentions in the world will tell the younger teacher, "Look, that junk that they teach you at the university doesn't work. Why don't you try it this way," and direct him to a traditional but unproductive approach. The young teacher takes this information back to the classroom, tries it out, and finds that indeed it does work, not because it is somehow magic or the right way to do things, but because the kids are used to it and they know exactly how to respond since that kind of thing has been happening to them all their school lives. Thus, a good new idea

is lost for the want of one or two small suggestions which would have made it function. The old idea, given at the proper moment functions extremely well. Years of university training can be lost in a couple of months in this process.

> Teachers report a climate of fear of novely and
> jealousy over success with children which lead
> to hoarding of ideas and materials. Most destruc-
> tive of all could be the concern over sharing their
> fears and their inability to ask for all the part-
> icipation of other teachers and adults in the school
> in accomplishing goals for children.[2]

The only protection from these aspects of the lack of support for pre-teachers and young teachers is the building of a group designed to provide that positive support that all people need in their first endeavors at anything. In teaching we have the situations that the people who have been on the job for long periods of time, need to be isolated or retrained to work with young teachers. We need to develop a cadre of better models for young teachers than those that are out there now. If we allow young teachers to continually model themselves after the old teachers who are in the field, we can never produce the teacher who in the long run is any better than those out there already. Since there aren't good role

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[2]Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE LONE-LY TEACHER, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. 10.

at such a high level when he is at the university. For a student among students in a student oriented setting, the university is a very powerful support group. Taking classes together, discussing issues after class on the way to and from meals or in the dorms is exactly the kind of positive regard and positive support which is necessary in learning new things and trying out new ideas and new perspectives. This support is very powerful and should be continued.

It can be seen that this support group breaks down almost as soon as the students go into the schools as interns. In the internship they may be extremely isolated. There are few peers in the building. There may be one or two other interns, but nobody who has contact with the same cooperating teacher and the same class experiences.[4] The cooperating teacher is available to help the intern, but his perception of what is happening in the classroom, and his goals within that classroom are likely to be different from the intern's. Thus, that availability may not be a good support mechanism. The university supervisor also has different goals when he is in the classroom supervising the intern, and he can only be available on a very irregular basis. This support

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[4]Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE LONE-LY TEACHER, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. vi.

mechanism is extremely week.

The intern loses the support mechanisms that he had while a student at the university. There is no shared experience to be discussed on the way to and from class. Perhaps, for the first time in his life the student recognizes the major adjustment that he has to make in changing his life to meet the demands of the working world after life in the university. People in schools do not seem interested or focussed on issues that seemed of paramount importance to students while they were at the university.[5] Analytical and critical thought do not seem to be valued in the outside world.

In addition to this the intern may find that for the first time he is working with somebody in the role of boss that he doesn't get along with. Though he may have worked in various summer, or part time jobs in the past, most of those situations did not have such heavy stress in them because he did not see himself as a professional restaurant busboy, or a professional dishwasher, or a professional truck driver. Now he is in a situation in which he hopes to become a professional teacher, and so criticism or lack of direction from a boss (in this

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[5]Arthur T. Jersild, WHEN TEACHERS FACE THEMSELVES, New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. p. 9.

case the cooperating teacher) can be damaging and painful. It is not so easy in this situation to say, "Oh, that guy doesn't know anything, he's just a boob who got in here somehow." He is in the position that the intern is aspiring to. So the intern must either completely re-evaluate his goals or recognize the validity by virtue of position of what his cooperating teacher is saying.

In addition to all of these pressures, the internship is almost a guaranteed failure situation for the intern. One of the most important things that he must know before starting his internship is exactly what he expects of the students in his class, so that he can be clear in communicating those expectations. It is through this well rounded communication of expectations that a working relationship can develop between the individual in the teaching role and the students. Yet, because the intern has had very little practice in this he cannot really know what it is he expects, what kinds of things he will tolerate in the classroom, and what he won't. He may not know what are valid expectations of kids at the age level he is working with. For these reasons he comes to the classroom without the ability he needs most. It is during the internship that he first develops appropriate expectations. When initially, he cannot communicate what he needs to communicate to his class he has a built in

failure situation, especially laden as it is with problems relating to the self view of the student and his long term goals, that makes the internship such a stressful situation.

To cap this all off, the intern is forced to function in an arena in which he cannot bring his strongest skills to bear. It's like taking a star baseball player to a competition and telling him that he is not allowed to use his hands or arms at all. He must still live up to the reputation of star, but he can't use his most useful tools. The most useful tools that an intern has, are the tools that he has developed at the university; the tools of analyzing and making cognitive judgments; the tools of studenting. When a student comes into his internship, he must give up his role of student and immediately start being a teacher without any practice. Because of the limits of the training of his cooperating teacher he is not apt to be able to use his analyzing skill to good advantage in the classroom at all.

These four problems: lack of peers with the same experiences, stresses in working with the individual teacher; the internship as a failure situation, and being unable to bring analytical strengths to that situation all combine to make the internship a very difficult time. It is a time when any support or any positive regard has a strong

effect. The successful internship of the past has been one in which the intern has in some way been able to secure the regard of the cooperating teacher or of a group of teachers within the school. Securing this regard has often meant selling out some of the ideas and the goals and the skills that have been developed at the university. It must be part of the university's role to develop support mechanisms in which the student can get the positive regard and the support that he needs and also continue to develop those skills which the university has sought to teach. It is only through this kind of support that we can truly say we are teaching people to be good teachers. Otherwise, our students are exactly right when they come back to us and say, "All of that theory doesn't work in the schools. Its only when you get out there and do it that you really know what needs to be done." I disagree with them, but I think the universities have invited that kind of statement by washing their hands of the students when they go out into their internship.

In-Service Seminar for Support

One of the major functions of the on-site pre- and in-service seminar, as mentioned in chapter 4, is the development of exactly the kind of support mechanism that

the intern needs. Because it meets only weekly or bi-weekly, the seminar connot hope to negate the on-going influence of the teacher's room, the cooperating teacher and others communicating their own ideas throughout the schools. But what it can do is to provide a very suppot-tive mode and a lot of positive regard for the teacher so that he can effectively ignore those forces that seem to conteract the university training. It is well established that what seems like a little bit of support given at the right place and at the right time can be powerfully functional. But there must be the understanding that there will continue to be a place for the individual to go for that kind of support. Students do not want to give up the ideas that they have developed through long work at the university. All they need is on-going, regular support for those thinking processes in order to continue to use them, and perhaps to become apostles of those kinds of ideas in hostile places, like the teacher's room.

The on-site pre- and in-service seminar brings this support to bear in four major ways. The first is that it provides a peer support group by getting teachers and interns together in a class. Within this structure students have exactly the kind of support mechanism that they used to have back at the university. They are together on a regular basis in a class situation and even

if that class does not deal with the exact problems they have it does give them an opportunity to discuss them individually with one another. Just getting their problems off their chests to one another and knowing that their peers are having the same kinds of experiences can be very productive. In addition, this physical proximity can facilitate separate gripe sessions either run by the instructor of the seminar or among the students themselves. There can be a more extensive discussion of what is happening to each of them and the opportunity for them to solve some of their own problems through the excahnge of techniques that have worked for some.

If there is an opportunity for the university person to run this kind of gripe session in addition to the on-site seminar he must be sure to run it from the students' agenda, not his own. Within this session he should be able to stimulate students to propose solutions to specific problems. He should demonstrate how the problems are related so that the students may feel less isolated. Pulling together a number of isolated instances and showing how they interrelate lets students see that they are not alone in having certain kinds of problems. This allows an analysis of those problems and possible solutions, and also allows students to see that they can develop their own solutions to their problems working to-

gether with that kind of informal support. This kind of informal support forms a model for the support groups which these students will need to develop later on to help them to survive their first few years of teaching.

In the on-site seminar that I taught from the University of Massachusetts, I found that the commonality of the university background that the students brought with them led to a commonality of experience as interns which was important in the development of support when a group of interns got together. In many cases they found that after the seminar they enjoyed eating supper together and talking about their common problems. In other cases they set up working situations in which they could meet to develop curriculum and generally give support to one another. This is the kind of support group that is most beneficial for young teachers.

> It proved to be difficult to confront individual members with observations as to how they were not attending to what was happening, but less difficult to express and accept when such feedback is based on the foundation of developing relationships in the group.[6]

A second strength of the on-site pre- and in-service seminar is that is allows the interns and the cooperating teachers to get together in a neutral ground

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[6]Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE LONE-LY TEACHER, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. 31.

for the first time. Most of their previous interaction has either been in the cooperating teacher's classroom, or in the planning room, or teachers room all of which is the cooperating teacher's home ground. They also deal with subject matter that is the cooperating teacher's home territory, so the intern finds that he has nothing that he can call his own in any of those situations. During the on-site seminar, both of those individuals are students in the class. The cooperating teacher may still be within his own school system and within his own school building, but he is a student. This is not only an unaccustomed role he is in throughout the school day.

The neutral ground idea is important. In industrial relations we see negotiations taking part between union and management, or between companies in neutral grounds. In international relations the idea of neutrality is important for negotiations to go on. In the on-site seminar the intern can see his cooperating teacher in another role besides a boss or guiding light. This relaxes the atmosphere and allows these people to work together to much better ends.

In addition, the situation allows the intern to act in an area where he has much more experience and skill than when he is working the cooperating teacher's classroom. The skills of analysis and studenting are important

in this environment and the student can bring them to
bear where necessary and demonstrate his competence to
his cooperating teacher. In addition, the knowledge of
the environment and of the practical world are also im-
portant so that the teacher feels that he can bring some-
thing which is of value both to the class and to the in-
tern to the interaction. This environment is one which
is not only conducive to the exchange of ideas, but also
to making the intern and in-service teacher feel good a-
bout what they can do.

Bringing the contributions of each to bear on the
task of curriculum writing creates an environment in which
they can work productively, lend each other support, and
also develop the kinds of inter-personal relationships
which will help them when they are working together on
their own. This situation also establishes a cognitive
dialogue between the intern and the cooperating teacher
so that both within and ouside of the seminar, they can
begin to feel comfortable talking about lessons in terms
of concept, abilities to be developed, overall framework,
theoretical view, practical methods, etc. They should
begin to support one another in taking an aggressive intel-
lectual posture toward their teaching. Where homework
is assigned for these two people to work on together they
can continue that dialogue. The approach they are becom-

ing accustomed to may even begin to spread and with the support of the older established teacher they can start to make some inroads on the negative support generally given in the teacher's room.

> Teachers who are beginning to work in new ways with children need a great many opportunities to talk about their work, both with each other and with people more experienced.[7]

The fourth function of the on-site seminar is to establish a situation in which the intern can talk about the problems that he has been having in his class without getting negative responses from the cooperating teacher. Within this context he can say, "I didn't realize it at first, but I really wanted to communicate an expectation that there be quiet in the classroom while I'm teaching." With proper management from the seminar instructor an acceptable response from a cooperating teacher would not be the old, "Oh, I told you so at first. You should do just what I told you," but an enlarging discussion in which the cooperating teacher can explain what he has learned in classroom experience and the intern can suggest what he would like to try next time. Then there can be an intellectual discussion and development of a set of expectations for the intern to try and implement within

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[7]Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, TEACHING AS A SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITY, New York: Delta, 1969. pp. 31-35.

the internship and his first year of teaching. This kind of support is beneficial for the intern because it allows him to open up his fears and doubts to his peers and his older colleagues in the schools. It also provides support to the cooperating teacher by allowing him to bring his experience and his data collection from the past to the fore and have it used within the class.

It can be seen that this on-site, pre- and in-service seminar is an extremely valuable asset used in this way as a support mechanism for pre-teachers. It is valuable for those in-service teachers who become involved in it. However, the problems of the first and second year teacher who generally do not have interns and so who would probably not be involved in this on-site seminar also need to be dealt with in the discussion of support groups.

Support for the First Year Teacher

For the first year teacher the problem of support is perhaps even greater than for the intern. All the pressures that are on the intern are on the first year teacher also, with the additional realization that it is a year long job and that there is no support at all coming from the university.[8] The new job may be the first

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[8] Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE LONE-LY TEACHER, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. 31.

full-time job in the young teacher's life. There are the
additional problems of getting situated in a new area or
town, finding a place to live and making other personal
arrangements. Without a support group these problems to-
gether may seem almost unsurmountable.

The negative support of the teacher's room is
even more powerful in relation to the first year teacher
than it is to the intern. They have a much greater in-
vestment in becoming part of the group of professional
teachers. In this new context they are very careful about
venturing anything of themselves, and listen very care-
fully to the older teachers. If talk is about the ball
games they may never discuss curriculum issues with the
other teachers.

> Concerned teachers are seeking positive reflections
> from adults, not just from children. Our group
> indicated that they gained a great deal of grati-
> fication from their work with children, but they
> expressed an equally strong need to share and
> communicate with other adults in the school. They
> felt frustrated and under pressure from other teach-
> ers, administrators, even pupils to behave as other
> respectable teachers whatever that meant. This
> prior expectation was superimposed on them and it
> was their job to fit with such an expectation.[9]

There is almost a forced separation between new
teachers. Each one is trying to get in with the group
and the group is not the group of new teachers, it is

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[9] Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE LONE-
LY TEACHER, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. 15.

the group of established teachers in the schools.

Formal Organization for Teacher Support

There are formal and informal approaches to fil-
ling this gap. The formal approaches depend on some
structural mechanism being developed so that they will
take place. If there is no structural mechanism develop-
ed it is futile to hope that something will work out.
The informal ways will develop only if there is some kind
of training in the idea that support groups can, in fact,
develop and are, in fact, part of the schools. Without
this background and expectation there are very few places
where the informal support group will develop.

For these reasons the university must take an
important stand in the development of support groups.
They are the ones who structure the formal support groups
and help the schoos to develop support group mechanisms
and they also must be the ones to indicate the possibili-
ties and availabilities of informal support group mecha-
nisms so that new teachers will seek them out or try to
develop them on their own. The university has historically
forgotten the young teacher once he has finished his de-
gree. This is detrimental to the long range goal of pro-
ducing better teachers and therefore is detrimental in
the long run to the university and the school system and
the individual teacher.

Formal support group mechanisms for the first
and second year teacher can take a number of forms. In
all forms, however, someone must take responsibility for
getting the job done. In most cases school personnel
will not take that responsibility because they have never
been educated as to the importance of that kind of device.
Therefore, it is the university which must take a major
role in initially establishing support groups.

Role of the University

The first type of support group is a mandated
continuation of the teacher education process in the first
year of teacher training. This can mean additional
credits needed for certification or a mandatory masters
degree within the first three years of teaching. Within
this structure there would be a weekly or bi-weekly univer-
sity class, perhaps on-site, or at least in a regional
location, which would be required of all first and second
year teachers. This support group would have very much
the same sort of function as the pre-service, in-service
seminar as discussed earlier in this chapter. It would
be a place where young teachers could come together to
discuss their problems, and use their skills in ways which
would help them improve their teaching, and also give
support to that kind of thinking throughout their teach-

ing experience.

Again, the group could deal with a specific subject area like curriculum development, or methods, or some theoretical subject, and the product should be one which is beneficial to the day-to-day functioning of the teacher. First year teachers have very little time to waste on what they view as extra material. But the real function of a class would be to keep young teachers in the practice of using their intellect to solve classroom problems. They would be taught through their first and second year of teaching to continue to use their theoretical-practical skills in solving classroom problems.[10]

Another way of implementing a support group mechanism would be for universities to run seminars for school administrators in the purpose and organization of support mechanisms for young teachers. These seminars would be organized to give an administrator an idea of what was necessary in the support of the young teacher and to help him master the specific skills and directions to form such a group. This has the benfit of making administrators more aware of what happens to young teachers in their schools, but administrators are unfortunately always in the position of being the boss, and therefore somewhat

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[10]Arthur T. Jersild, WHEN TEACHERS FACE THEMSELVES, New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. p. 7.

threatening to the teacher. This is especially true for the new teacher. In order for this process to work it would be important to help the administrator separate his evaluation function from the training of teachers. He must be able to do each in a separate context, or he can never be involved as a truly supportive individual. It would rather be a coercion for young teachers to be placed in his charge for their support mechanism.

Role of the Administrator

I believe that school administrators do have the aim of helping new teachers develop their skills to become better teachers. But I find that unless they are very careful to communicate that in a non-threatening way to their new young teachers they tend to scare them away rather than be any help. Support needs to be help and validation, and genuine respect for something that a teacher is doing. This kind of help is a very tricky thing to give. It must not be tainted by the threat of, "You better do it my way, or else I'm not going to be able to rehire you." With the best of intentions administrators sometimes communicate this position.[11]

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[11]Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE LONELY TEACHER, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. 35.

Buddy System

The third way to implement support groups for young teachers might be to set up a buddy system for the first and second years of teaching. These buddies would be identified by the university and established in some kind of formal format, perhaps including a credit giving course. There would be a pairing off of new young teachers. This pairing might be within a school or within a region, but there would be the expectation and some mechanisms for checking up on the fact that these people do get together on a regular basis, do some specific work involved with their teaching for their mutual self-support. In order for this to work, certain skills would have to be learned by each of the teachers within the normal pre-graduation teacher training program. The training would be in the areas of general counselling skills such as eye contact and attention, listening well, supporting other people's comments, and asking perceptive questions. These skills taken in concert with the mutual skills of analysis which are to come out of the teacher training program might provide the kind of support mechanism necessary within the schools.

It is hopeless to expect that this kind of thing will evolve on its own. It must rather be set up by the

university with credits granted and some way of control-
ing it, or it will not happen. New teachers very rarely
look toward other new teachers in the school for the kind
of support that they need. They feel that other new teach-
ers are just as inexperienced as they are and therefore,
cannot provide the answers that they are looking for.
The problem with a mutual self support arrangement is that
each teacher must learn that he is not looking for an-
swers but rather is looking for help in development of
ways to find those answers for himself.

> Argyris (1968) has pointed out how extremely
> difficult it is to gain interpersonal competence
> when one's survival needs are high. Our teachers'
> reports are ample evidence for the observation
> that their feelings of adequcy and performance with
> children were tied closely to their interactions
> with other adults.[12]

Informal Support Groups

These three formal organizations of in school
support groups for first and second year teachers seem
somewhat cumbersome, but they are in fact a lot easier
to develop than the informal support group which is per-
haps more valuable in the long run. Formal support groups
are hard to set up because they require for their initial
formation an understanding of the need for this kind of

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[12]Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, THE
LONELY TEACHER, New York: Columbia University Press, 1955,
p. 42.

support. This understanding is not common among young teachers. They are very much afraid of admitting to others that they don't know. They feel threatened and that threat makes them close down when they need to open up. When they do go to another teacher for support, that support generally comes in the "Do it my way. I'll tell you how to do it" form and that is not productive for the young teachers.

The short hand answers the older teacher may tend to give to the young teacher are not productive because they circumvent the thinking process which is necessary to develop in young teachers if they are to be able to face and solve their own problems. There are simply no pat answers and single ways of doing things in the class-room. If the teachers who are already in schools cannot give encouragement and help in problem solving, it seems fruitless to expect informal support mechanisms of value to develop in that context.

Peer Support

In order for these mechanisms to develop among new young teachers they must be willing to open up to one another in search of that kind of support. Where the young teachers have known each other before and had shar-ed experiences in the university, this kind of development is not so rare. But in most cases if there are two new

or young teachers within a school they come from different schools and different backgrounds and so are not as likely to look to each other. In order to develop an informal support mechanism it would be necessary for many schools of education to teach their young teachers within the teacher education program to seek it out in the field.

This expectation should be instituted in all teacher education prgrams so that after a period of time many schools will have groups of teacher opening up these areas of cummunication. A class which would be part of regular teacher training programs at the undergraduate level would focus on the techniques of counselling skills, listening skills, and good question asking skills among teachers. Students can use support group skills at all levels. When they are just taking university courses, they can share their ideas through these skills. When they are doing their internship, they share their ideas with these skills through their seminars. And when they are finally in the role of teachers they will have some experience and know the power of support skills. New teachers need the expectation that other young teachers are there to help them, and that they can ask for this help. I had an extremely good experience in this, but only because I was part of a department which was young teachers. There were seventeen of us with three or less years of teaching experience,

and so we didn't go to each other for answers, but rather
for help in the ways that we might work out our problems.
This was extremely productive and was facilitated by an
administrator who gave us all the same periods off so
that we could find each other during the school day for
this kind of help.

Support through Leadership

Informal support groups between teachers and admin-
istrators can also be developed. It is necessary for each
group to know that the other is there and can be there in
some way which will support them. As part of the normal
teacher training program I would include long discussions
about the role of the principal within a school. Most
of our young teachers come out of teacher education pro-
grams with a real fear or dislike for people in adminis-
trative roles. This fear grows out of their experiences
as students and what they hear other teachers saying about
administrators. But this fear puts up a barrier between
the new teacher and somebody who might be really produc-
tive in helping the new teacher iron out his skills and
thinking ability.

The most important experience that happened to
me during my first year of teaching was the support that
I got from my building principal. It was of an informal

nature in which we would just sit around and talk about a lot of different things. But over a period of a year he said to me a number of times that he believed that the role of a principal was to help develop teaching talent and he figured that he would invest five years in somebody that he has hired as a new teacher. With that five years investment he decided he could probably really train a top notch teacher and it would be worth all of his work. This type of positition is not the common understanding from teachers about their administrators, and yet it was extremely productive to me. I would like to see teachers know of that possibility.

It is only through the development of hard nosed, well thought out support groups that we can ever hope to train really excellent teachers. The idea that a teacher training program ends when a young teacher graduates and before he tries out his skills in the actual teaching profession is foolish. A teacher training program may work with the student for two or three years and then have all of his skills lost within the first year of teaching without support for that new teacher in his very strenuous role as a first or second year teacher.

For years the university has ignored the significance of this period, just as they have ignored many of the significant aspects of the internship. It is no long-

er all right for us to be training teachers who are only as good as their colleagues already in the schools. Their colleagues in the schools were trained under the old pick two from column A and two from column B system. They were trained during a period of time when we just needed a lot of bodies in schools and could be slipshod about our teacher training background. Now we have the time to train highly competent teachers but we must continue to support that competency or it will be lost in the school environ‐ment.

Most of the practical aspects of our teacher train‐ing programs have been oriented around role modelling of teachers already in the schools. This mechanism does not provide for growth in the training of teachers. In role modelling our charges become copies, and perhaps poor copies of what's already out there. Developing skills at the university level is very important. But that devel‐opment is worthless if we do not have other mechanisms besides role modelling for the perfection of those skills. There are things that in-service teachers bring to the teacher training process, but item for item copying is not one of the values of those teachers.

As has been said, if by some magic stroke of luck we were able to prepare all perfect teachers starting to‐morrow it would still take forty years for our new teach-

ers to permeate the school system because that is the length of time that teachers now in the schools would still be teaching. In actuality the process would take much longer because even if we could produce perfect teachers starting tomorrow they would go out in the schools and immediately begin to lose their new skills and new techniques. Understanding this makes it clear that it is imperative to have some way to counteract the negative influences of teachers already in the schools and still use the positive influence of their practical knowledge. The mechanism for counter-acting the nega-tive elements and supporting the positive elements is the establishment of support mechanisms as I have propos-ed in this chapter.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

The Five Elements

Within the text of this dissertation, I have dis-
cussed at length five elements, or components of an in-
depth teacher education program. Within the chapter
dedicated to the discussion of each of these elements,
I have indicated a need for a change in both structure
and in the direction taken in handling those aspects of
teacher education programs. In the chapter on selection,
I underline the goal of a good selection process. I also
indicate some of the higher principles that these goals
grow from. In short there is a theoretical construct
from which the actual elements and techniques of the
selection process can be developed. I have not develop-
ed those elements, but indicated a structure in which
they need to function.

In the same way, in the chapter discussing the
inter-play of theoretical and practical experiences, I
indicate the structure necessary for teachers to be able
to assimilate all of the information from their theoret-
ical university classroom experiences, and from their
practical school experiences. The model developed here

is one in which there is a continuing interplay of theo-
retical and practical experiences which lead to a personal
integration for each one of the teachers within the pro-
gram. I believe this model is significantly different
from the the majority of teacher education programs now
in existence. I also understand that this model is just
that, a theoretical model, and needs to be taken as a
format within which specific teacher education programs
can be developed.

The unity of pre- and in-service education is
another component to my program. As I have stated with-
in the text of the dissertation, teacher education can-
not stop after the graduation of the student from the
university. In addition, pre-teachers have a lot to
learn from seeing practicing teachers in the school in
their day-to-day work, and the in-service teachers can
also gain something by reestablishing the contact with
the university through working with the pre-service
teachers. Part of this development can be faciliated by
the inclusing in the process of a joint curriculum writ-
ing course with these two groups, overseen by university
personnel. I believe that this model can be very effec-
tive in providing a form for the re-organization of the
field work component of a teacher education program.

Self supervision is another one of the five

importnat elements that I've listed. I believe that until
teachers can thoroughly identify what they are doing in
the classroom, and are able to analyze and change those
actions, they will not be able to truly improve the
quality of their teaching. The outcome of this is that
schools will stagnate with a status quo in teachers who
can't learn from their mistakes. Schools will not be
able to develop new directions until the teachers them-
selves can implement those directions. Teachers cannot
implement the directions until they can understand what
is actually happening when they are in a classroom.

The last item that I have introduced among my
five components of a teacher education program is the
model for support groups. It is certainly important
to note that without support for innovation and change
in teaching that change will never take place. What I
have developed is a theoretical structure. It does not
provide the detail of actually establishing support
groups. My model indicates the necessity for support
groups and various organizational modes, but not specific
organizational methods. Again these specific methods
need to be developed within the context of a real world,
a specific program. If they are developed in that manner
they will meet the needs of the students they are dealing
with. In the theoretical construct it is enough to in-

dicate the necessity and show that the program can indeed work.

Five Elements among Many

It is probably obvious to anyone reading the dissertation that these five elements cannot, in fact, be the totality of any real world teacher education program. I do not pretend that anybody could take this dissertation, and with no further knowledge go out and establish a functioning teacher education program. That was not the idea behind this model. This model rather, takes five extremely important elements, and I might add they are five elements which I think should be central to a teacher education program, and develops these elements as they would fit into a larger format. That format is a functioning teacher education program.

While I feel that these elements should be central, I also understand that there are a lot of areas that are not covered. It would be quite easy to design a whole dissertation to work only on methods and resources, or only on university instruction, or only on program counselling, or only on job placement, or only on audio-visual training, or only on school law, or only on a large number of individual items which are extremely important and which need to be dealt with in a functioning real

world teacher education program. I believe that as the programs are set up, that involve these ideas, the work in additional areas will have to be done, and my five elements will find their place among a large number of other elements. But I believe even more strongly that without an overall conceptual model of these five elements they can tend to be lost in a piecemeal approach to some of the other items considered here and other areas that have not been. The function of this dissertation is not to limit the scope of a teacher education program, nor to say that other elements are not important. They are. The function of this dissertation is to show these five elements function both individually and in concert as the central core of a high quality integrative teacher education program. That was the purpose of this model, and that is what I think I have accomplished.

Inter-Relationship

Any form of written communication is by its nature linear. That is to say ideas flow one from the other in a sequential manner. In my dissertation it is impossible to be reading sections of chapters 3, 4, and 5 at the same time. Therefore, I think it important at this time to make a note and to indicate re-study of the various areas that I have discussed because of the high inter-

relationship between and among the five areas discussed.
The experience of the person training to be a teacher is
not necessarily linear in nature, and therefore, his
total program affects him in many inter-relating ways,
rather than just starting at the beginning and going
through it 'till the end. It is important to understand
the inter-relationships to see the strengths built up
through the overall picture of this teacher education
program. If we treat it in a linear way, we have de-
feated one of the main purposes.

I believe there are six main areas of inter-re-
lationship which run through the five elements or com-
ponents that I have listed. These areas of inter-re-
lationship represent central important concepts, and it
is quite understadable why they appear again and again
in the particulars of my dissertation. I believe that
it is important to consider the inter-relationship and
to go back through the dissertation to see connections
as well as seeing each element as it stands alone.

Diversity

The first of these common grounds is the idea of
diversity. Part of it is the cultural diversity that
our teaching population brings with them when they come
to a teacher education program. This cultural diversity

shows up in the element of selection, where we seek people
from a wide range of backgrounds to come into teaching.
It also shows up in the idea of support groups, because
often support comes from somebody with a different back-
ground from your own, because he can see your strengths
and your weaknesses in a way that you cannot, because
you are limited by your cultural background. I think
that another type of diversity is also important, and
that is diversity within the teacher education program
itself. In the chapter on the interplay of theoretical
and practical experiences one of my main points, is that
it is that diversity of exprience which allows full devel-
opment, I am talking about bringing a diversity of posi-
tions and a diversity of experience into close proximity
to allow the strengths of all involved and to develop
fully and to develop a stronger product, the product be-
ing the curriculum in a specific classroom.

Teacher as Thinker

Another idea which runs through all of the chap-
ters is the idea that education is a cognitive endeavor.
In all five chapters I continually stress that in order
for a teacher to be able to handle the material I'm talk-
ing about, he must be able to think and analyze, and use
the theoretical tools which he comes to the teaching

process with and which he develops within a teacher
education program. Without being able to use these tools,
the whole conceptual model falls to pieces. If we do
not have teachers who are thinkers, we might as well re-
sort to the use of teaching machines, because somebody
who teaches by rote, and by book, and by somebody else's
method, can never truly understand either the inter-
action within his classroom, or what he must change to
improve his teaching skills. A thinking teacher can
always be better than he was. A non-thinking teacher is
of necessity stuck in a rut.

Teaching and Experience

I believe that the dissertation does not fall
into the trap of so many philosophies of education by
placing everything in the cognitive realm. I believe
that teaching skill also grows out of a large quantity
of experience. Again, the five elements, point toward
the value of experience being extremely important. In
selection I'm looking for a teacher who has a range of
experiences far beyond those of the normal college under-
graduate. Where I talk about the inter-play of theoret-
ical and practical, the practical experiences that I'm
talking about are multitudnous and varied so that in
approaching any specific classroom situation the teacher

will have an experience which is perhaps closely related
to it. It is upon this experience that the building of
cognitive ideas must take place. Cognition does not
take place in a vacuum, it must be developed through
real world experiences, and these real world experiences
are a part of all the elements of my teacher education
program. What could be more real world than having pre-
and in-service teachers working together in a common
endeavor? What could be more real world than having a
teacher responsible for his own supervision, taking the
data from his immediate environment to be able to work
on? What could be more real world than day-to-day support
for and by other teachers and other education personnel
within the educational endeavor?

University Involvement

The fourth major idea which runs through the whole
dissertation is the new organization for the university
and its responsibilities in teacher education. I believe
that it is important to note that the universities have
always had this responsibility, but have not taken it
up giving the excuse that the type of responsibility that
I'm calling for would be too expensive and too cumber-
some in an era when what was needed was a large number
of marginally trained teachers. I don't believe that

that argument has ever been acceptable, but certainly it becomes unacceptable now when we are beyond the problem of a lack of teachers. In an era of teacher surplus the university can not gain in those areas of responsibility, which it has traditionally neglected. In fact, if it does not take up this challenge, _ believe that some other mechanism will soon develop for the training of teachers, because the old system has proved to be extremely ineffective, and something new must be developed to take its place.

The university development in terms of an on-site course is a major idea which runs through all of the components of the program. The chapter on unity of pre- and in-service education and curriculum development is central to the whole dissertation. It is through this mechanism that teachers and pre-teachers can work to develop together to develop new ideas and new curriculum. Within this context, theoretical and practical discussions can take place. Within this context there can be the development of a cognitive approach to teaching, as well as an experiental one. Within this context there is the development of the tools of self supervision and the tools to do something about perceived problems. And within this context is developed the support which is essential to individuals working on the highest level they can function on, instead of being inhibited by the

normal social and psychological pressures of being a
teacher.

Self Knowledge

The concept of self knowledge also runs through
the five chapters. In the chapter on selection we provide
multiple entry and exit points, allowing a student to
gain knowledge of himself and still have the opportunity
to act on that knowledge even after he has committed
himself to a program. Self knowledge in this way allows
teachers to see where their strengths lie and to put them-
selves in positions where they can best utilize those
strengths. Within the inter-play of theoretical and
practical experiences we can continue this process, allow-
ing the student to make decisions about his vocation.
Again we are placing a premium on self knowledge which
continues throughout the teaching career. In the chapter
on the unity of pre- and in-service education, we again
give the student a chance to develop skills in areas of
self knowledge. By the use of the seminar, and class-
room sessions, he can see not only what it is he needs
to know, but how he must act and behave in certain situa-
tions in order to be productive in working with others.
One of the major goals of self knowledge is to integrate
one's self and one's productivitywith other individuals

and their productivity. Self supervision is an extremely important aspect of this as I state in the chapter. Teachers must learn to become truly aware of what it is they are doing in the classroom, and not confuse their observations with delusions about what is actually going on. The development of knowledge of the self can aid greatly in this process. For it is through knowledge of how we behave in specific circumstances that we can make more accurate self observations in classrooms, and therefore be better able to change our actions to make ourselves more productive in classrooms.

Positive Regard

The last major idea which runs through all of the other chapters is that of positive regard for others. I believe that the selection process discussed allows people to be human in the selection process and not need to bend their personalities to fit into a specific program. This indicates a positive regard for differences and a validation of those differences on the part of the selecting group. Within the integration of theoretical and practical I speak a number of times about the ability to function in different situations and appreciating those kinds of abilities. I think it is important that pre-teachers and teachers in training learn to appreciate the

strengths of those they work with and to tell those peo-
ple of those strengths because it is through a voiced
positive regard for those people that pre- and in-service
teachers can work more closely with others, and it is
through positive evaluations that people do begin to feel
comfortable about voicing some problems they seem to be
facing and about accepting help from other people. It
is not possible to help somebody else by telling him how
bad he is. Rather, one should say, "You're doing a really
good job here, and here, and here, and perhaps if you
tried in this fourth area something a little different,
it would work a little better for you."

This positive regard for others is especially im-
portant in the area of support groups. As a society, we
have a tendency to bolster our own egos by saying nega-
tive things or acting in negative ways toward other peo-
ple. I believe that there is a major psychological change
which needs to take place to provide these support mech-
anisms. This major change is necessary if there is to
be real support of one human being for another in our
society.

The Consideration of other Elements

I indicated above that I realized the five elements
that I've dealt with in depth, would not produce a complete
techer education program. What I am saying is, that the

model here projects certain important elements and leaves out some which may become even more important later on. I believe that a total program must be developed including these five elements and what ever other ones seem to be necessary. But I believe that in order for the additional elements to be well integrated with the five elements that I have dealt with in this dissertation, it is necessary to make sure that the six unifying ideas that I have listed just above are continued and held consistently throughout the program. This is also not to say that the program should be limited to these six ideas, but I do feel that the six ideas form a basis for the interaction among the individuals within a high quality teacher education program. It is my belief that through an understanding of the model I have proposed, and the further development of specific items within that model and in conjunction with that model, that a high quality teacher education program can be implemented. That is the long range goal of this dissertation.

It is not enough to merely develop a model, and leave it at that. A model must be tested and in order to be tested it must be implemented. The future of this dissertation will be its implementation in a real world functioning teacher education program. Through implementation and testing of that implementation, many of the

ideas and basic concepts stated in this dissertation can be tested and validated and the work for many other possible studies is indicated within the text presented here.

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APPENDIX

DARTMOUTH HIGH SCHOOL

Ed. 686 - Special Problems in Education: On-site Curric-
ulum Development in Distributive/Cooperative
Education.

Dartmouth High School, Room A-8, on the following tenta-
tive dates:

Feb. 12 - organization and orientation.

March 12 -

March 19 -

April 2 -

April 9&10- State Distributive Education Conference,
Marriott Hotel, Newton, Mass.

April 23 -

May 7 -

May 21 - Last class.

Instructor: Mr. Michael Minor, Distributive Education
Teacher Development Program, University of
Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass.

Notes re: Feb. 12 meeting.

The class began late in order to include late-
comers (3:30 P.M.). Mr. Minor expressed his desire to
start on time (3:00 P.M.) in the future because of the
limited number of class hours offered by this on-site
course.

Class members introduced themselves and then
listened to a short lecture by Mr. Minor on "The Child
versus the Curriculum", one of two short essays written
by John Dewey in 1904 and re-published in paper-back
recently under the title "School and Society" and "The
Child and the Curriculum". The class was advised to read

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the book which is some 150 pages total.

The following points were discussed at some length regarding the "Child Versus the Curriculum":

(1) The child-centered approach to teaching, in-
cluding the use of the open classroom techniques,
is really in need of some structure, both in the
set-up of the classroom itself, and also in the
activities conducted therein. There is a need
for children to be placed in choice situations
which force them to make their own decisions.
Some structure is needed for this to take place.

(2) Wrong, too, are those who follow strictly the
curriculum approach to teaching. It has been
found that the child does not need cognitive
(factual) knowledge (what has been traditionally
the sum total of many curricula). Rather, what
the teacher needs to do is address himself to
what makes sense to the child he teaches.

(3) Neither approach works without a synthesis of
the other. Dewey's impression was that there
really is no dichotomy at all and that the curri-
culum should arise from and address itself to the
needs, understanding and experiences of the child.

(4) This is not to say that a teacher must individ-
ualize his curriculum and his attentions. Rather,
he should find where he belongs philosophically
on the child-curriculum continuum in terms of
what teaching approach to assume in order to in-
sure that the students' needs are met -- both
factual and emotional.

Mr. Minor went on to state that his perception
of what curriculum is is "what you do while you call your-
self a teacher" (including in and out of class). This
is intimately tied up with honest and open interaction
between teacher and student. In Mr. Minor's words, "I
am a model, not of what a human being ought to be, but
what a human being might be -- you may like or dislike
it, but here I am". This is the key to lending a child-
centered aspect to your teaching approach, for how you
relate to the students varies concurrently with the amount
of curriculum learning the students will internalize.

This course will concentrate upon curriculum devel-
opment in order to provide a vehicle for interaction

among teachers, administrators, and the university, so
that: teachers can analyze their own and others' teach-
ing styles while designing curriculum each can use later
in his classes; administrators can gain a better under-
standing of current classroom problems, students' needs,
and perhaps, some insight into their roles as adminis-
trative aids in the children's educational progress; and,
finally, so that the university can begin to sound out
the practicalities of teacher-training (or re-training)
programs based upon the affective (emotional or attitud-
inal) aspects of teaching the "curriculum to the child".

The meeting was ended at 5:55 P.M.

Class members to date:

Mr. John C. Calhoun

Mr. Garth O. Styan

Mr. James B. Mitchell

Ms. Nancy Beauchesne

Mr. Ed Fleischer

Ms. Connie Mendoza

Mr. Harold Tingley

Mrs. Pauline Mosny

Mr. William __?__

Assignment for March 12

Bring in some curriculum unit or activity which
you have found to be very successful in your classes (in-
cluding the activity name, the curriculum unit and/or
subunit, and the goal involved or reasoning for doing it).

<u>Meeting of March 12, 1974</u>

Mike Minor endeavored to show the class a different approach to developing a curriculum by first conducting a "mini-lesson" and then by breaking the lesson down and analyzing the reasoning behind it.

THE LESSON

Mike divided the class into groups of two and asked them to list two values which they considered as being on the increase (or advance) in this community at this time. Next, the groups were asked to list two declining values (ones which were highly thought of 25 years ago, but not today). Lastly, the groups were told to list two "steady-state" values. The groups were given five minutes to come to a mutually agreed-upon list.

After five minutes, Mike divided the class in half by asking the people who were done to sit in one group and those who were not done to gather in another group. These two groups were then given five minutes to do the same thing. Thereafter, Mike drew similarity connections between the groups' results. He also led a discussion resulting in a clear definition of what a value is. This definition: A belief of some worth to a given individual by which he operates.

The class was then asked to write down one of their own values and answer the following three questions about it:

1. In what way does it have worth?

2. When and in what way did you consider taking action on it?

3. Did you take action?

   Thereafter, the class shared their answers.

   The lesson ended with two open questions:

1. Can you have a value without taking any action on it?

2. Do you have the same choice situation when choos-

ing between values as you have in choosing a
brand of cigarettes?

At this time the lesson was terminated and its
analysis from a teacher's viewpoint was begun.

The analyzation of Mike's lesson values was
broken down into the following five areas:

I. Concept of the Lesson - (was it consistent,
muddled, multi-faceted?)

II. Problem - (how do you deal with the problem
created?)

III. Method - (what was the technique used and was
it effective?)

IV. Ability _ (was the skill created by this of any
use?)

The analyzation also included five questions that
a teacher should ask himself when analyzing his own
lessons. These are:

A. Does this lesson belong in Distributive/Coopera-
tive Education? (Why/why not?)

B. Can students handle it?

C. Are skills developed or behavior altered?

D. What does the product show? (Was the lesson a
"teacher-trip" or do the students really have
it?)

E. Can we use the ability? (Does it lead into some-
thing also?)

The class then began to analyze Mike's "Values"
lesson in terms of the above scheme. Mike used values
to form a basis for this course (curriculum development)
since he felt everyone could "buy in" to the lesson. The
key here is knowing what you're going to "cover" and how
it applies to your audience. Therfore, Mike's concept
revolved around the idea that we all have some "gut"
connection to at least one value. The problem then became
one of how you make your audience realize they have this
gut connection with at least one value in a relevant and

poignant manner. Mike's answer to this problem was the method he used.

Mike's method was based on the idea of non-threatening, step-by-step support building. Using groups of people to start the lesson gave the greatest chance for all to participate since non participants would be under some pressure by their partners to perform the task and, if both partners decided not to do the task, they would not be in the best position to influence other couples to do likewise.

Mike also excerted time pressure by giving only five minutes to perform the tasks. This tended to keep the groups on the topic and kept them from becoming bogged down. Then too, by starting off the lesson with tasks oriented toward the exploration of societal values, any personal threat was negated and more students were immediately willing to participate.

Later on, Mike broke into the more personal areas of values, but this was after some degree of discussion and sharing of societal values. Even then, however, Mike made a point out of protecting personal privacy and ensuring acceptance of any individual's election not to share his answers with the others.

The products created were:

1. Some personal vlaues and/or thoughts on paper.

2. The two open-ended questions given at the end of the lesson.

The ability created was a better way of dealing with these two questions in a way each student could not, or would not, have dealt with them before the lesson began.

The five questions which Mike set up as the second part of the lesson's analyzation will take place next week.

The question he left the class with was:

Which is more important, Skill Development or Personal Development, when it comes to the "time crunch" in curriculum development?

<u>Meeting of March 19, 1974</u>

In reference to the notes from 12 March, Mike started the meeting with the discussion of the first of the five questions, specifically:

I. Is the value lesson which was done last week to be considered a part of Distributive or Cooperative Education?

The consensus of opinion was that there was at least a place for the discussion of values in a D.E./Coop curriculum but that an immediate and simultaneous problem was getting the students to respond or open up. Mike emphasized that this was a real problem, especially since pupil-pupil interaction (the method he used in the lesson) is the desired goal in a lesson of this sort. Garth Styan stated that he found it quite possible as well as desireable in his existing course structure and had been done on the basis of open, honest and frank discussion between himself and students.

Mike's contention is that no teaching goes on in a vacuum. Learning goes on all the time in and out of school. That is why it is crucial that any teaching begin and grow out of the students previous experience. Values are an important part of teaching for two reasons: 1, the students deal with them everyday; and 2, values are not explored as objectively anywhere else. Therefore, the lesson's concept - spending class time to clarify, verify, compare and share values - was not only educationaly imperative if we are to motivate students to learn. A lesson on values is one of many ways to begin dealing with the emotions and feelings which many times act to block the acquisition of cognitive knowledge and skills.

In sum, a balanced curriculum might include both the teaching of knowledge and skills as well as the teaching of an objective, responsible approach to feelings, emotions and attitudes; and a values lesson fits very well into the latter.

Mike went on to point out quite readily that the teacher should not teach his/her values nor the values of society as a whole. Rather, the goal should be to teach students to be <u>problem-solvers</u>; gathering data, analyzing, synthesizing, hypothesizing, then <u>acting</u> upon that. This in turn might tend to solidify a given student's own values system and make him less likely to "join the bandwagon" on anything thereby becoming an independent

thinker.

A good values reference is a book entitled, VALUES CLARIFICATION, Sidney E. Simon, et al, Hart Pub. Co., New York, 1972. Therein is a values clarification "strategy" or classroom exercise called "Twenty Things I Love To Do". Based upon the idea that we should all be doing things we love to do to some degree or other, this exercise was designed to point out some selected things about our activities.

This exercise is done in the following manner:

1. People asked to list 20 things they love to do and enter that list down the left side of their papers, using key words or phrases in order to leave enough space for 6-7 columns (½" wide) on the right side of the paper.

2. People asked to draw these columns.

3. People then told to put the following marks (on the left) next to the activities to which the following criteria apply: (on the right)
    * - next to those activities for which you get paid
    $ - next to those activities for which you pay
    65 - next to those activities you will be doing at age 65
    (date) - the date you last did each activity
    - Rank order the top five

4. The class was then asked to complete the following sentence stubs;
    a) When looking at my list I was to find that---
    b) When looking at my list I found that----

So, in sum, the question of whether a values curriculum belongs in D.E./Coop Ed. ultimately rests with the individual teacher, however suffice it to say that strong argument can be made for their inclusing into the program.

II. Can the students do it?

The conclusion of the class discussion was that the students CAN do it but may not WANT to do it. It is therefore up to the teacher to set the atmosphere for trust in the class - not only between students but between

them and the teacher.

III. Are skills developed by the students?

The central issue here is whether the students leave class with something they can do that they couldn't do as well or do before. When dealing with the values learned and adopted, it is impossible to test formally in a valid manner. A cooperative judgment by student and teacher <u>together</u> be a good beginning.

IV. What does the product show?

The list that came out of doing the "Twenty Things" exercise might be used to compare with others and also to refer back to and re-explain to the person who made it as well as others what went on in class (and in his/her head).

V. Is the ability (to examine values) useful?

The answer here is usually a judgment by the teacher however, it need not be said that what is useful to the teacher is not or may not be useful to the students or vice versa. If the teacher can't see the immediate value in doing a successful class activity which the students enjoy, perhaps he/she can open up that issue with the class to see how they would use it.

Mike emphasized that one <u>has</u> to ask oneself these questions when creating curriculum.

Garth Styan then presented his assigned activity to the class (which was his lesson plan for the next day):

1. Concept-class or member responsibility for where the class is going and what it's doing.

2. Problem-how to get non-motivated students to activate themselves and assume leadership.

3. Method-conflict situation about what the class will do arising out of the "boring" unit "laid on" by the teacher.

4. Product-student confidence; teacher-student trust; class member cooperation.

5. Ability-to take a stand, voice complaint and offer new direction.

<u>Meeting of April 2, 1974</u>

Next class--Tues. 23 April 1974 (postponed)
Tues. 30 April 1974

Distributive Education Teacher's Convention
Marriott Hotel, Jct. Mass. Pike and Int. 128
Newton, Mass.
April 9 and 10

Today's Schedule:

1. Old business--U. Mass. registration and credits
2. Garth and Jim's presentation of a successful
    curriculum unit
3. Preparation for the D. E. Teachers Conference

1. Old Business
    a. Receipts were given out for those that the Univ-
ersity has recognized as having paid their registration
fees. If you don't have one see Mike.

    b. Pass-Fail grades will be given for the course
unless you need grade credits for certification, advanced
degrees, etc. In these cases you should tell Mike so he
can make the proper arrangements with U Mass School of Ed.

2. Garth and Jim explained their unit which involved a
student taking over the teaching of the class after hav-
ing led the decision on the part of the students not to
continue doing what Jim had begun to teach. This was done
with no hostility from the point of view that if one com-
plains one should be ready to suggest something better.
After being told to come to class the next day ready to
teach the class, this student (Bill) proceeded to teach
a great class the next day on the subject of a year-end
party for the class. Because he had not finished with the
class, he continued with the class the next day for about
half the period after which time Garth and Jim began to
analyze with the class both Bill's role as leader but also
the group's role as individual members. They talked of
such things as what Bill was feeling as he led the group,
how the group felt, the difference in the group attitude
from the first to the second day, class members respons-
ibility for the function of the group, why they did not
accomplish their goal (which was to plan and organize a
party), why the group got bored and frustrated, what hap-
pened when Garth and Jim remained neutral on all issues
that arose, etc., etc. In sum, a very good <u>and applicable</u>

lesson on leadership, teaching, groups, and group processes came out of a potentially volitile situation.

Mike made the observation that there was a lesson within a lesson: 1) Bill changing the direction of the class, 2) the different leadership styles exhibited by Garth, Jim, and Bill throughout led to an internalized model -- at least for Bill if not for Jim and Garth, and 3) Bill's identification with the problems of being a teacher and how hard it is to function in an instructive manner in class.

The part is immaterial and as yet not settled. What is important are the managerial concepts of Organizing, Planning, Communication, Implementation, and Evaluation and their emphasis when mentioned by the teacher after something like this has occurred.

The question was then raised as to what approach to use -- the "Do your own thing" approach or the "Standardized" approach to education. Mike emphasized his desire to use an approach which occupied a middle ground between these two extremes. His position is that we are all better teacher's of our individual areas of competance than of something we have no competence in yet are told to teach for the sake of standardization. On the other hand, "doing your own thing" undermines the professionalism and standards of predictable performance which is inherent in the high school diploma. Do not get tied up with the dichotomy -- there is none; it should be a union of the two extremes after considering the unit you want to teach, the people you are working with, the issues it causes for both parties, and the competencies each party can bring into the classroom at that time.

3. Preparation for the D. E. Teacher's Conference began when the class then analyzed Garth and Jim's lesson from the point of view of the new supplementary D. E. Curriculum which will be in publication by next fall. Within this framework, there are four areas or divisions within each curriculum unit. These are:
> Objective - the goal of the unit in behavioral terms
> Rationale - the reasons for doing the unit
> Learning Activities - expanded, in-depth lessons
> Nuggets - short ideas which can be expanded by
> each teacher

So, analyzing Garth and Jim's lesson in this manner

would look like this:

Objective - why is this important?
1. Everyone works, lives, etc. in all kinds of groups (i.e. family, church, friends, class, clubs at work, teams, etc.)
2. People do not often look at their action in those groups.
3. Effective functioning as member or leader of a group is essential to leadership and an advancement in our chosen vocations.
4. Provides personal practice in individual and group decision-making.
5. Better self-image as person requires new inter-personal skills.
6. Increased motivation for personal achievement.

Learning Activities -
1. Let a student whom you think is a strong person take over the leadership of the class for one or more days.
2. Help group create their own project and then let them follow through on it.
3. Sociology of Responsibility article about there being less chance of getting help when your car breaks down on a major highway than on a secondary road or rural road. ("Someone else will help him").
4. Lost On The Moon simulation game with small groups.

Nuggets - ideas with connections to other fields of study and endeavor.
1. Anecdotes from personal experiences both of the teacher and the class.
2. Current issues -- newpaper articles about group function or disfunction or leadership roles.
3. Discussion on the issues of Democracy vs. Total-itarianism.
4. Movie about the Lemmings of Scandanavia running into the sea and the lesson it has for us re: individual group members following along blindly.
5. Field trip to the local Town Meeting to see Democracy in action.

Finally, Polly made the observation that not all students can become leaders, and Mike responded by saying that individualization of instruction was desirable to let everyone identify with leadership development at their own level of talents and abilities so that he can

make the decision about how much and how far he wants
to go with it.

"He who is not busy being born is busy dying."

Bob Dylan

<u>Next Classes</u>:   May 7 and May 21 (last class)

<u>Old Business</u>:   Everyone who attended the conference (D. E. Teachers' Conference, April 9 and 10) thought it was productive and good, but there seemed to be a feeling of "it's too early to tell" about the new curriculum guide and its "official" receiption by the powers that be at the State. Mike reassured all that it is O.K. with the State, but that true evaluation of the curricula may take time--especially since every teacher <u>must</u> adapt the guide to his own areas of expertise and to his class and school situation. He emphasized the need--sooner or later--for those evaluations. The following comments were made:

    1.   There should be an expansion and continuation of the "packets" (whatever that means).
    2.   It takes time to review the guide, adapt it to our own classes and then begin to implement it--evaluation might have to await this process.
    3.   Some teachers might need a State Department of Education policy statement re: this supplemental guide--good luck.
    4.   John Calhoun used the "Success" game (win as much as you can) and had "great success" with it; however, he warned against becoming an "entertainer" in the eyes of the class.

<u>New Business</u>:   Mike's presentation of a "content-oriented" curriculum (Manhole covers and Black Boxes).

    1.   <u>Why Are Manhole Covers Round?</u>   Mike began the class with this question to which we all wrote down as many plausible answers as we could and then discussed them. Turns out that the two "experts" on the subject were Harry Tingley and George Sherman. The answer being almost irrelevent, Mike went on to point out that, in terms of the five analyzing steps (see Notes, 19 March), his lesson could be analyzed in this manner:

    Concept - Observing, thinking and organizing produces real knowledge for each individual - each person can generate real knowledge or enough of a hypothesis to act upon in any given situation.

    Problem - How to emphasize this to the class in a meaningful manner.

    Method - Manhole Covers Lesson--a subject not likely to be well-known by anyone, yet well within the casual experience of all.

Product - A new awareness of how we learn from others, by making our own hypotheses, testing these out with others, and how we can improve our own thinking and organizing and observing processes.

Ability - To make more solid knowledge out of the few facts of our own and how to get and use those of others to improve our own body of knowledge.

Mike's rationale for the lesson is that when we have a problem presented to us, we all have some knowledge and ability to lend to the successful resolution thereof, and that "the answer" may indeed prove to be an inadequate model for future use, thereby, creating a need for everyone's participation in its alterations.

2.   You guessed it--we did not get to "The Black Boxes". Tune in next week, folks!

"If I can get my kids to even talk about my class outside of it, than I have succeeded in making them their own teachers--and that's good!"

<u>Next Class</u>: Tuesday, 21 May (last class)

<u>Old Business</u>: Manhole covers lesson--hard knowledge, single concept curriculum because it dealt with fact about manhole covers, engineering, physics, thought-organization and problem solving psychology.

This is hard knowledge because it deals with objective facts from the outside world as opposed to Mike's values lesson, which might be called "soft-knowledge" dealing with personal or interpersonal skills.

<u>Issue</u>: <u>Logical</u> sequence to education versus <u>Psychological</u> sequence of learning.

What's critical is that <u>some</u> basics be taught, (reading, writing and math), but not by a rigid, standardized schedule-_although there should be some standardization of where the kids should be at the end of each course.

More often, when you have kids who haven't picked up more basic skills, it's because of poor teaching rather than style.

Subject-matter and schooling have been fractionated and pay no attention to psychological learning in the real world where, for example, if you are presented with a problem, you may have to draw upon many different disciplines. A student will learn when he feels the need to.

<u>Issue</u>: So how does a school system deal with subject separation which has produced people in more advanced classes without basic skills?

The problem seems worse because more kids remain in school longer. The answer doesn't lie with the "scope and sequence" people alone because it hasn't worked. What is needed is to get more "Garths" to sit down and deal with realities of the pressures (25 kids in a class, etc.) and discuss where you want the kids to be in terms of their ability to deal with their environments successfully.

<u>Issue</u>: Standardization in cooperative curriculum is in a state of flux--there are standards, but the pursuit of these need not be standardized.

Polly's Unit on Checking Accounts (as background for Simulated Office).

Lecture
Pre-test
Corrections
Discussion of wrong answers
Worksheets - homework
Discussion of worksheets and answers
Students make a check and write a check
Post-test (same as Pre-test but with more detailed
information)

Explanation of Polly's Simulated Office Program.

Issue: Boring job - if you want a worker who's perfor-
mance is high over long periods of time, you need to deal
with motivational issues (i.e., marriage, achievement, sex
roles, benefits, etc.).

Teachers and schools must go beyond meeting the
needs of business. Business wants "secretary-zombies"
and when one gets a promotion it's usually not because
of straight skills but because of initiative, creativity,
motivation, etc.

What vocational school technical training does is
lock kids into that field. Teachers need to teach the
necessary skills and also broaden horizons to prevent
stagnation on the job.