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A Guide to In-Service Education

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A GUIDE TO IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

A Paper
Presented to the Faculty of
Eastern Illinois University
In Education 580

In Partial Fulfillment
Of The Requirements For The Degree
Master of Science in Education

Plan B

By

Paul Preston

August, 1961

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express deep appreciation to Dr. Gerhard C. Matzner, the writer's adviser, and to Dr. Curtis R. Garner, the instructor in whose course this paper was prepared. The advice and suggestions of these gentlemen have proved invaluable in the writing of this paper.

The writer also wishes to express his sincere thanks to Frances Preston, his wife, for her understanding and sympathetic attitude during the preparation of this paper. During this time several household duties were neglected; however, this neglect went without an accompanying complaint by Mrs. Preston.

Other sources of help have been tapped, but they prove too numerous to list at this time. However, a general acknowledgement to all of the authors, from which the writer has freely quoted, is hereby made. An extensive listing of such authors may be found in the attached bibliography.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Prior to the writing of this paper, the writer's conception of

in-service education included little more than summer school attendance

and professional reading. The writer's views on in-service education

were clarified and extended through the expenditure of time and effort

required for the writing of this paper. Now, he joins Prall and Cushman

when they say:

> Continued education of teachers means much more than making up
> defects in preparation. It means continuous growth in the capacity
> to teach. It means broadened understanding of human development and
> human living. And . . . it means growth in one's capacity to work
> with others, with classroom teachers and principal in a variety of
> activities, with the administration, with parents and community lead-
> ers, and with children of different age groups.[1]

Definitions of In-Service Education

The writer's definition.--It is next to impossible to give a pre-

cise definition to such a broad concept as in-service education. Almost

all, if not all, that a teacher may do individually to improve his pro-

fessional competence and value as a teacher can be called in-service ed-

ucation. Not all in-service education is of this individual nature.

It also involves group activities, which have as a goal the

1Charles E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, Teacher Education in
Service (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944), p. 438.

improvement of the school in order to better provide for the educational needs of society. In-service education is an experience through which the pupils and the educational personnel of a school receive benefit from learning together.

Cory's definition.--Numerous definitions of in-service education are existent in the periodical literature which pertains to the subject. Cory's definition is to be found among such definitions. Cory has assumed in-service education to be:

> the sponsoring or pursuance of activities which will bring new insights, growth, understanding, cooperative practices, democratic prodedures, and community understanding to the members of the staff and arouse them to action to improve the curriculum, to take additional training, and to improve themselves and their work in every way possible.[2]

Illinois Education Association's definition.--The Research Department of the Illinois Education Association recently defined in-service education by listing twenty-one in-service activities and presenting separate definitions for each of the activities.[3]

Spears' definition.--Spears comments on in-service education as follows:

> In-service training is a concept that has swept the country in a period of a few years. The idea has the advantage of a title that is graciously accepted. In theory it is the idea that everybody on the staff--whether teacher, administrator, or specialist--needs to grow on the job. It implies continuous growth, and is highly flattering to a person in the classroom.[4]

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[2]Durward Cory, "Incentives Used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers," North Central Association Quarterly, XXVII (April, 1953), pp. 385-409.

[3]Research Department, Illinois Education Association, "In-Service Educational Activities in the Public Schools of Illinois," (Springfield, Illinois: May, 1960), pp.2-3. (Mimeographed.) See Appendix A for a complete list of the activities and their definitions.

[4]Harold Spears, Curriculum Planning Through In-Service Programs (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957), p. 47

Summary.--In summary, in-service education is a process which brings about growth in teaching ability and thereby stimulates pupil growth in a desired direction.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to: develop a general guide for in-service education activities. This will entail: (a) a study of printed materials to determine "what is", (b) a formulation of a description of "what should be", and (c) the general guide.

CHAPTER II

IN-SERVICE EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Studies of In-Service Education

NEA research.--The Research Division of The National Education

Association released Special Memo in June, 1956. This paper contained

a tabulation of a survey of opportunities for professional growth which

were open to teachers. The tabulation follows:

TABLE 1

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH
OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE[5]

Type of opportunity	Number of districts	Percent of total
University extension courses	1,120	57
Curriculum committees	1,211	61
Lectures on educational subjects	852	43
Special courses in nearby colleges . . .	923	47
Workshops during regular school year . .	1,148	58
Committees, other than curriculum. . . .	811	41
Workshops during summer	436	22
Other opportunities	79	4
Total reporting one or more	1,856	94
Number of districts reporting	1,973	

Oak Ridge.--Bertis E. Capehart, in his analysis of the in-service

activities of the Oak Ridge program, found that teachers considered the

following activities most valuable:

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[5]Research Division, National Education Association, Special Memo
(Washington, D. C.: June, 1956), p. 25.

1. Sharing of practical teaching devices, methods, and materials.
2. Help from consultants.
3. Serving on committees such as curriculum revision, public relations, materials, report cards, and cummulative records.
4. Participation in the writing of the Guide to Teaching.
5. Talking over problems with other staff members.
6. Growth in the use of group processes.
7. Being chairman of a group.
8. Reading of professional literature.
9. Working with parents.
10. Attending a summer school.
11. Exchange of ideas and opinions with staff and administration.
12. Being secretary of a group.
13. Studying children--how they learn, how they grow, and how they develop.
14. Being a discussion leader in a group.
15. Attending conferences.
16. Visiting other schools and classrooms.
17. Faculty workshops.
18. A sense of belonging to a group in which I have participated.
19. Having a chance to express my own ideas.[6]

Capehart also lists the aspects of in-service which teachers consider least valuable. These are:

1. Members who do not contribute, who are not interested, or who do not accept responsibility.
2. Faculty meetings.
3. Too much repetition.
4. Poor leadership.
5. Lack of pre-planning.
6. Little use of professional material
7. Building workshops.
8. Poor preparation.
9. Some people dominate the group.
10. Lack of consultant services.
11. Not enough sharing of teaching procedures.
12. Interruptions of previously announced plans.
13. Lack of new ideas.
14. Lack of opportunity to attend professional meetings.
15. Lack of opportunity to visit other schools.
16. Membership of group often too large.
17. Not enough time to pursue a problem to its conclusion.
18. Supervisory conferences.[7]

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[6] Spears, op. cit. pp. 83-85.

[7] Ibid. p. 85.

Burton and Brueckner.--A similar report is offered by Burton and Brueckner; however, it is based upon a much wider population than was given consideration in the Oak Ridge Schools by Capehart. Teachers from twenty or more schools selected each of the following as techniques with the most promise for in-service education.

1. Organizing teachers into committees to study problems.
2. Organized study of special topics in general staff meetings.
3. Providing a professional library and browsing-room for teachers.
4. Having teachers (not administrators) give reviews of articles in current educational magazines.
5. Giving special financial awards for participation in programs of in-service education.
6. Cooperatively engaging in a systematic evaluation of the school, using the criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards.
7. Carrying out a well planned attack upon the problems of curriculum development.
8. Holding forums where parents, pupils, teachers, and board members participate.
9. Attending summer school.
10. Holding small group meetings to study revision of the course of study in a department.
11. Visiting teachers in one's own school or in other schools.[8]

Techniques listed by at least ten but fewer than twenty schools.

1. Panel discussion by teachers.
2. Experimentation with new classroom procedures.
3. Making surveys of student problems.
4. Attending professional meetings.
5. Planning an orientation meeting for new teachers.
6. Having teachers prepare and issue handbooks for new teachers.
7. Holding informal meetings of the staff.
8. Home visitation.
9. Field trips for teachers.
10. Making surveys of graduates.
11. Participation in the eight year study.
12. Participation in interschool studies of curriculum development.
13. Encouraging teachers to write magazine articles.
14. Attending guidance conferences.[9]

The following were listed by fewer than five schools.

1. Visitation of classes by principal.

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[8] William H. Burton and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision a Social Process (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955), p. 146

[9] Ibid.

2. Talks by principal.
3. Reading of papers by teachers.
4. Using rating scales.
5. Requiring special readings.
6. Issuance of bulletins by the principal.
7. Demonstration teaching.
8. Requiring summer school attendance.[10]

IEA research.--In a survey of 620 public school teachers in Illinois, the Research Department of the Illinois Education Association found:

TABLE 2

ATTITUDES OF VARIOUS TEACHING GROUPS
TOWARD DEMONSTRATION TEACHING[11]

Classification of teachers	Percent of teachers favoring demonstration teaching
Non-degree	60
B. A.	53
M. A.	50
M. A. plus	50

The report indicated that teachers with less experience were more often in favor of demonstration teaching than were teachers who were more experienced. It also found that teachers in grades K-8 were more receptive to demonstration teaching than were secondary teachers; however, all of the secondary teachers considered demonstration teaching to have an average value, while on the other hand 18% of the K-8 teachers felt it had little value.

There is a point of disagreement between the findings of the Research Department of the Illinois Education Association and those of

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[10]Ibid.

[11]Research Department, IEA, op. cit. pp. 7-9.

Burton and Brueckner. The findings of the former support demonstration teaching as an in-service education activity while lack of support for this activity is indicated in the findings of the latter.

Oregon.--The Oregon State Department of Education and the State System of Higher Education[12] prepared and distributed questionaires to approximately 25% of the teachers in Oregon. Over 2,400 of the question-aires were returned. The returned questionaires represented approximate ratios of men, women, married, single with and without dependents, little and much experience, teacher college graduates and liberal college graduates, elementary and secondary teachers, teachers of different subjects, small, medium, and large school systems.

The results indicated that on the average 63% of the Oregon teachers were satisfied with their pre-service training, while another 25% of the teachers displayed dissatisfactions with their pre-service training. The area of dissatisfaction was in regard to the limitations on training which they had experienced in their pre-service education. One in five of the teachers believed that additional courses would be the best way to improve their competency in teaching. The same ratio held for teachers who believed that work conferences would be the best technique to be used for serving the purpose of competency improvement. Less than 10% of the teachers favored any single one of the following--supervision, faculty meetings, visiting, and travel.

Travel

Research needed.--The value of travel as an in-service educational activity has not be validated. Only one of the studies mentioned above

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[12]H. B. Wood, "In-Service Education of Teachers Which Way Next?" Curriculum Bulletin No. 64, (Eugene, Oregon: School of Education, University of Oregon, 1949), pp. 2-9. (Mimeographed).

makes reference to travel as a means of in-service education. The need

for research in this area is seemingly evident.

> Of several hundred articles examined during this study only three
> dealt specifically with travel as a form of in-service education.
> At the same time all educational writers stress the need for teach-
> ers to have a wide perspective and broad understanding of the world
> about them. For growth in this area of teacher effectiveness travel
> could be publicized much more than it is now.[13]

Professional development.--Unstattd, one of the three authorities

located by Needham, believes:

> The wide perspective and broad understanding which travel gives are
> more essential to the teacher than to many other professional workers.
> . . . Travel will almost invariably bring personal growth and enriched
> teaching ability. . . . There is probably no other method of pro-
> fessional development that, for the effort required, yields as much
> as travel.[14]

Umstattd illustrates the gains a teacher may make through invest-

ing a part of his vacation periods to travel.

> The teacher of history or literature may gain a fuller appreciation
> of his field by visiting the sites of historic events or the settings
> of the literature he brings to his pupils. The social science teach-
> er can give an enriched offering to his pupils after he has witnessed
> the actions of various forms of government, has mingled with all
> classes of society, or has learned the view points of people at all
> economic levels. The teacher of biology brings a wealth of material
> to his classes when he returns from the seacoast, the teacher of art
> brings new inspiration from the Lourve, and every teacher brings from
> a summer of travel wider views, new insights, and enriched experiences.[15]

Marsh, as cited by Unstattd, says:

> Teachers . . . above all others should have a broad, sympathetic
> understanding of the members of all the great families of the world.
> Travel . . . will lessen intolerance and any unjust pride born of
> limited knowledge. If we are to think clearly, act generously, and

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[13] John Needham, "The Type of In-Service Program Which Should Be Provided Oregon Teachers," Curriculum Bulletin No. 65, (Eugene, Oregon: School of Education, University of Oregon, 1950, p. 34. (Mimeographed.)

[14] J. G. Umstattd, Secondary School Teaching (Chicago: Ginn and Company, 1944), pp. 478-479.

[15] Ibid. p. 478.

teach sympathetically, we must know the trials, successes, and general conditions of our neighbors on the other side of the river, over the mountain, across the seas, and beyond the near borders.[16]

College credit.--The teacher who does not have plans for other educational activities may profit from devoting the entire vacation period to travel. Since numerous institutions of higher learning are conducting either or both domestic and foreign tours, the teacher may be able to earn college credits as a result of his travels.

> Christian O. Arndt, who has been conducting New York University's Seminar on Western Europe Today (a six nation tour) for the past eleven summers, believes that it is incumbent upon school and college administrators to evaluate the "seriousness of purpose" of the staff members heading for a summer overseas. If this is not done, the credits or other rewards given the returning traveler are gifts, based on generosity rather than professionalism.[17]

"Many people prepare for their travel merely by buying a ticket and packing a suitcase."[18] Doctor Arndt does not agree with such meager preparation. He would set up minimum standards to be met by the traveler before giving credit for his travels. The requirements set forth by Arndt are as follows:

> The traveler should be able to show some worthwhile pre-travel preparation--the reading of books, visits to embassies or consulates, interviews with foreign students or exchange faculty people--and give proof that this was done. Next, the traveler might be required to share his experiences with the school or community upon return. An illustrated assembly program, a PTA lecture, articles in teacher journals, or even in the local newspaper might suffice to prove that the junket was done with seriousness of purpose and was a meaningful experience.[19]

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[16]Ibid. Also see J. Frank Marsh, The Teacher Outside the School (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1928), p. 135.

[17]Editorial, "Tourism and Personnel Policy," Overview, I (August, 1960), p. 52.

[18]Ibid.

[19]Ibid.

Benefits of travel.--It is possible that the first few weeks following the close of school may be highly suitable for teacher travel. Travel at this time may serve the teacher in three ways. (1) It may serve to clear the teacher's mind of the many details of problems which have arisen during the past year. A change of scenery and associates may shift some of the unpleasant details into the background, while new and possibly more agreeable details fill the teacher's mind. (2) The change of pace from teaching to traveling may provide the teacher with physical refreshment. However, the comment "coming home to rest" is not an unusual one. (3) Although "Travel broadens one." is an old cliche, it may hold an important truth for the teacher who travels. Travel may be the means by which a teacher broadens his knowledge and deepens his understanding and thereby increases his potential as an effective classroom teacher.

Travel, as all other means of teacher improvement, should be considered primarily as an educational activity rather than as a source of pleasure and enjoyment. The desired changes in teacher behavior are not likely to occur whenever the goal is "a search for pleasure". This is not to say that all enjoyable activities are to be excluded whenever the teacher is traveling for educational purposes, but it is to say that the benefits of travel must be consciously sought by the traveling teacher.

Summer School

Opportunities without limit.--If the teacher's travels have not been too extensive, he may return home in time to attend summer school. In some cases summer school at a distant location may be sandwiched between two short intervals of travel. The possibilities for teacher growth through attending summer school are only limited by the imagination

and desire for improvement on the part of the teacher, as course work is available in most of the areas which a teacher may desire.

The value of summer school attendance is attested by Capehart's[20] listing of the most valuable aspects of in-service education and by Burton and Brueckner's[21] list of techniques which were selected by twenty or more schools. However, the value or lack of value of this activity lies, in part, within the individual rather than within the mere fact that a teacher has attended a summer school.

The attitude with which teachers face the prospect of spending a summer vacation in attendance at a summer school is possibly one of the major factors which determines the value the experience will hold for them. Many teachers may be aware of the part attitude plays in their professional growth, but this level of awareness may range over a wide continuum. Teachers, as well as other individuals, may have a resistance toward doing things which are not necessarily of their own choosing. Their resistance to attending a required summer school was openly manifested in Burton and Brueckner's report.[22] It may also be witnessed in many cases where a relatively low level of change occurs as a result of attending summer school just in order to meet requirements. Some teachers may passively accept the necessity of earning in-service credits in order to qualify for salary schedule increments, but attendance at summer school under such circumstances is in no way a guarantee that the desired improvement of the teacher's teaching ability will take place.

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[20]Spears, op. cit. pp. 83-85.

[21]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. p. 146.

[22]Ibid.

National Science Foundation Institutes

Full year institutes.--The Academic Year institute program for high school teachers of science and mathematics of the National Science Foundation is now (April, 1960) in its fourth year. In 1956-57, two institutes were conducted on an experimental basis, with a total of ninety-seven teachers taking part. In 1957-58 there were sixteen academic year institutes; in 1958-59 this number has increased to nineteen. There are thirty-two institutes scheduled during the current academic year.

The institute program of the National Science Foundation is designed to establish supplementary training programs for secondary school science and mathematics teachers. The purpose is to help make available programs in which teacher can extend and bring up to date their knowledge of the subject matter in the areas they teach, and to make it possible for them to participate in the programs.[23]

Summer institutes.--"In addition to the widely distributed academic year institutes, there were over three hundred summer institutes and numerous in-service institutes sponsored in 1959 by the National Science Foundation."[24] The length of the summer institutes vary from six to ten weeks in length. In rare cases the time may be more or less than this amount.

Financial aid.--The teachers selected to attend the summer institutes receive a travel allowance which approximates four cents per mile for one round trip from the teacher's home to the host institution; however, this allowance is usually limited to a stated maximum. A basic stipend of $75.00 per week and exemption from certain university fees are also received by the selected teachers. The basic stipend is adjusted upward by $15.00 per week per dependent; however, the maximum adjustment is $60.00 per week.

The academic year institutes are often based on 40 weeks as the

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[23]William C. Lowry and David D. Redfield, "Selection of Academic Year Institute Participants at the University of Virginia," *The Mathematics Teacher,* LIII (April, 1960), p. 270.

[24]Ibid.

participant receives a basic amount, $3,000.00. Similar dependency allowances apply to both the summer and the academic year institutes. Certain host institutions provide a supplementary summer program for academic year participants who have maintained the required level of excellence during the year. Similar financial arrangements continue during the supplementary period.

Many deserving teachers may fail to apply for the academic year institute because they do not feel they can afford the loss of the difference between the stipend and their current salary. Such teachers should give consideration to the fact that the stipend is often worth 20% more than face value. Under certain conditions the money received from the stipend is tax free.

Workshops

Tyler's definition.—Burton and Brueckner use Tyler's early definition of a workshop.

> The workshop is an arrangement whereby a teacher or a school official may work intensively on a problem which he brings from his own school and may obtain assistance of staff members of the teacher training institution. Typically a summer-workshop runs for six weeks and includes staff members from various fields of study, particularly from the curriculum, student personnel, evaluation, and administration. Workshop participants interested in similar problems form small groups, and they work individually with the guidance of faculty members who give help on particular difficulties they face.[25]

Workshops in the local community.—The workshop may also be conducted in the local community rather than in the university setting. In this case, the university personnel who are to participate are invited to the school where they are to work. The majority of people in attendance are from the local school, although school personnel from neighboring

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[25]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. p. 146. Also see Ralph W. Tyler, "Trends in the Preparation of Teachers," School Review (April, 1943), pp. 207-212.

communities are often invited to join the workshop. It is usual to limit
the number of outside invitations, but this limit is not applicable to
laymen of the local community.

The workshop conducted on a university campus has a wider selection
of personnel and facilities at its disposal than the one conducted in the
local school. However, this advantage may be offset by greater partici-
pation of the teachers and laymen when the workshop is held in the local
community.

Activities related to workshops.--Capehart's[26] study, which has
previously been refered to, mentioned faculty workshops as an experience
which the Oak Ridge teachers found valuable. Other activities included
in his list seem to be closely related to workshops as the term was de-
fined by Tyler. Among the activities which share this relation one may
find: (1) Sharing of practical teaching devices, methods, and materials;
(2) Help from consultants; (3) Talking over problems with other staff
members; (4) Growth in the use of group processes of solving problems;
(5) Exchange of ideas and opinions with staff and administration; (6) A
sense of belonging to groups; (7) Having a chance to express my own ideas.
Other items in the list also share this relation. For example, the
various phases of child study could be used for a whole series of workshops.

Opportunities for attending workshops.--Data from the Special Memo[27],
published by the NEA in 1956, indicate that workshops held during the
school year rank second among the opportunities for professional growth of
teachers in-service. In addition to this high position awarded for work-
shops during the year, more than one school in five reported opportunities

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[26]Spears, op. cit. pp. 83-85.

[27]Research Division, National Education Association, op. cit. p. 25.

for teacher growth through participation in workshops during the summer.
it is likely that some of the summer workshop participants were also
winter workshop participants; hence the data indicate that opportunities
for workshop participation existed in between 58% and 80% of the school
districts.

Do workshops provide successful solutions?--The small group which
shares interests in similar problems and works cooperatively toward solutions
for these problems should enjoy a relatively high degree of success. Shaw
compared the ability of individuals and cooperating groups in solving com-
plex problems. She believes the following conclusions are justified as a
result of her experiment.

1. Groups seem assured of a much higher proportion of correct
   solutions than individuals do.
2. This seems to be due to the rejection of incorrect suggestions
   and the checking or errors in the group.
3. In the groups of the size here used (4) more incorrect suggestions
   are rejected by another member of the group than by the individual
   who proposed the suggestion.
4. All members do not cooperate or participate equally in the solution
   of problems.
5. In erroneous solutions (where it is possible to determine the
   exact point at which the error was first made) groups do not err
   as soon as the average individual does.[28]

Solutions of problems in workshops may not always have a transfer
value. It is conceivable that a teacher may spend an apparently successful
period of time working in a workshop and then revert to the same type and
quality of teaching as characterized his work prior to the participation
in the workshop. Levine and Butler found "that once a group arrives at a
decision to act, the members, even though they may act as individuals,

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[28]Marjorie E. Shaw, "A Comparison of Individuals and Small Groups
in the Rational Solution of Complex Problems," Readings in Social Psychology,
ed, Guy E. Swanson, Theodore M. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley (Revised
edition; New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952), pp. 145-146.

take on that decision and act in accordance with it."[29] This seems to in-
dicate that a carry over of ideas from the workshop to the classroom is,
in part, dependent upon the number of teachers who attend a workshop from
the same local school system or possibly even from the same building.

Professional Organization Conventions

A struggle.--The attendance at conventions held by professional
organizations may be sandwiched between two periods of travel instead of
summer school attendance or a workshop if the teacher so chooses. Burton
and Brueckner believe, "the teachers' convention . . . supplies a medium
for inspiration, cultural training, technical assistance, and the exchange
of ideas. There is little doubt of its value where there is adequate
planning and leadership."[30] Bruce and Holden feel that membership in a
large organization and attendance of organizational meetings provides the
teacher with a "sense of identification . . . that gives needed support to
the individual . . . He learns that he does not stand alone, especially
in crises when public pressure mounts."[31] In contrast to this favorable
reaction to large professional organization activity, the following question
is posed: "How can a professional in-group be fostered . . . without re-
ducing too drastically the individuality of thought and action which many
consider an essential of maturity in our democratic life?"[32] Bruce and
Holden continue by describing the dilema. "In Riesman's terms it is a

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[29]Jacob Levine and John Butler, "Lecture versus Group Decision in
Changing Behavior," Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, ed. Dorwin
Cartwright and Alvin Zander (Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson and
Company, 1953), p. 286.

[30]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. p. 152.

[31]William F. Bruce and A. J. Holden, Jr., The Teacher's Personal
Development (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1957), p. 265.

[32]Ibid.

struggle to get beyond being either an 'inner-directed' person who depends largely upon his early training for his fundamental choices or an 'other-directed' person who is highly susceptible to peer influence."[33]

A caution.--Much may be gained from attending professional meetings, but the individual teacher is cautioned to weigh carefully the details of the ideas presented there before adopting them as techniques to be applied in his local situation. Ready made solutions for local problems are frequently inappropriate solutions. The individual teacher must manufacture the appropriate solution for the local problem; however, only slight modification of ready made solutions may transform them into a workable solution for the teacher's local problem.

Work Related Experiences

Source for enrichment.--An alternate way of spending the summer months, and a way that may appeal to many male teachers with heavy family responsibilities, is in a work related experience. In this way, a teacher not only finds a financial supplement for his teaching salary, but he often gains valuable additional information which may serve to enrich classroom experiences for his pupils.

> American industry has discovered that through a program of cooperation with science teachers it may be able to promote the recruitment of future scientific talent, and at the same time benefit itself and teachers in many ways. . . . Action taken by several industries on this matter includes summer employment of science teachers in the laboratories of their plants--in chemistry, atomic energy, and other related technical fields. The object is to instill a fascination about industrial science in the teacher who, in turn, can influence his students to select courses which will qualify them for industrial positions which do now and will later need to be filled.[34]

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[33]Ibid. Also see David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney, The Lonely Crowd (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1953).

[34]"Industry Teams Up With Teachers," Illinois Education, XLV (December, 1956), p. 143.

The following are among the benefits of a professional nature which are to be found in work related programs: Keeping abreast of scientific progress, opportunities to use modern equipment and supplies which a school cannot afford, training in safety and health programs of industry, and the development of one's sense of perspective.

American Cyanamid's Program.--An example of work related experiences is found in the program sponsored by the American Cynamid Company.

> The Cyanamid program gives some indications of what can be expected in this general area. Cyanamid's summer teacher-employment aims at three objectives: (1) giving teachers practical experience in actual research projects; (2) enriching their teaching by showing them how certain scientific principles are applied in industry; (3) boosting their incomes. . . . One of the guiding principles is to place a teacher where he can do--and be done--the most good . . . Both teachers and Cynamid realize that practical summer experience can rarely be applied directly to a high school science course. But the experience has proved invaluable, say teachers, in illustrating or clarifying points in informal class discussion.[35]

Teacher Orientation Meetings

As September approaches, teacher orientation meetings are in order for the new teachers. Claude Vick has said:

> We must do more than we have done in the past to retain the good beginning teachers. They must become a part of the team which will advance the goals and practices of education to insure that it will be a more positive factor in making better citizens, a better nation, and a better profession.[36]

A well planned and carefully carried out orientation program may do much to bring about those things which Vick feels to be so important. During the orientation meeting, the teacher should become acquainted with the philosophy under which the school system operates, if this has not

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[35]"Teachers in Industry," Science Teacher's World, II (January 14, 1958), p. 1-T.

[36]Claude E. Vick, "Orient Your New Teachers," Illinois Education, XLVI (September, 1957), p. 11.

been properly taken care of at the time or employment; he should be in-
formed of books, materials, and supplies which are available, and of the
procedure for securing them for his classes. He should be assigned to
a classroom and to an experienced teacher in the same grade level or
same field of subject matter. This experienced teacher should provide
a continuous source of orientation for the new teacher throughout the first
weeks of school; however, the experienced teacher must avoid the develop-
ment of over-dependence on the part of the new teacher, for this over-
dependence would stiffle the desired growth by the new teacher.

Orientation takes on many phases and is dependent upon the pre-
vailing conditions which surround the local school and community as to
which phases are to be emphasized. Just as the new teacher must become
familiar with the workings of the school system, he must also become fa-
miliar with the community in which the school has its setting. Locations
of banks, shopping centers, dry-cleaning establishments, churches, and
service stations are among the many varied thin s a new teacher will
certainly wish to know concerning his new surroundings. Information about
doctors, dentists, barbers, and various repairmen will also be welcomed
by the new teacher. Housing is often a big problem which faces new teachers;
hence all orientation programs should make provision for aiding the new
teacher in his search for suitable housing.

Pre-Term Planning Meetings

Too often orientation meetings of new teachers are combined with
pre-term planning meetings. It is a fine way for getting the new and the
old teachers acquainted, but the late date defeats the planning purpose
of the meeting. If planning is a continuous process in the school, then

a combination of review of earlier laid plans and new teacher orientations will serve a worthy purpose.

Post-Term Planning Meetings

Following the close of school, teachers may profitably spend a few days in post-term planning. During this period of time, while the events of the past year are still fresh in the minds of the teachers, the evaluation of the year's program should be completed. However, since evaluation should be a continuous process, a complete evaluation is not necessary at this time—only a completion of the job which has presumably already underway.

A scientific attitude on the part of the teachers will not permit them to come to an abrupt halt at this point. Following the completion of the evaluation of the past year's work, attention may be directed toward a program for the following year. Naturally, procedures and methods which were profitable in the past may be continued while the unprofitable ones are cast aside. However, new procedures and methods must be selected with the utmost care.

A day or so spent by the entire staff in the reading of professional literature may provide clues to what the replacement methods or replacement procedures may be. Teachers may report on new ideas which they have found appealing in their readings. An analysis of these reports may possibly provide the desired direction for the remaining program for the following year.

Teachers' Institutes

Early history.--Teachers' institutes had their early beginnings in the first half of the nineteenth century. According to Lins, the first

class of teachers' meetings now known as teachers' institutes was "in the Autumn of 1839 . . . at Hartford, Connecticut."[37] Henry Barnard[38] was chiefly responsible for organizing and financing this early experiment in the training of teachers in service. Barnard reports that the first institute was "composed of twenty-six young men some of whom had taught in the common schools,"[39] and that the institute was established in order to show:

> the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common-school teachers, by giving the opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in District Schools, and of the best methods of school arrangements, instructions, and government, under the recitation and lectures of experienced and well known educators.[40]

"The following year (1840) Brace (Principal of Hartford's Female Seminary) had charge of a similar meeting for women teachers, again at Barnard's expense."[41] Soon after Barnard's efforts to improve teachers in Connecticut, similar efforts were made in other states.

Lins reports that J. S. Denman was responsible for the first teachers' institute in the state of New York. This institute was held in Tomkins County in April, 1843.[42] "Other states rapidly took up the teachers' institute idea. Ohio had its first institute at Sandusky from September 2-12, 1844 . . . Likewise Rhode Island held its first institute in 1844."[43]

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[37]L. J. Lins, "Origin of Teacher Improvement Services in the United States," Journal of Educational Research, XXXVIII (May, 1945), p. 698.

[38]Ibid.

[39]Ibid. Also see Henry Barnard, "Teachers Institutes: Historical Development in the Different States," American Journal of Education, XV (1865), pp. 388-389.

[40]Ibid.

[41]Ibid. p. 699.

[42]Ibid.

[43]Ibid.

Massachusetts held its first institute in 1845,[44] while Pennsylvania's first institute was held three years later in 1848.[45]

Although institutes were held in other states before they were held in Massachusetts, Massachusetts was a leader in providing state support for teachers' institutes. The legislature of Massachusetts appropriated, in 1846, $2500 a year to be used by the Board of Education to defray the expenses of the meetings.[46] The legislature set a limit of $200 for each such meeting.[47] State support was forthcoming in New York under an appropriation made in November, 1847.[48] The maximum support for any one county of New York was set at $60 per year.[49] Connecticut, although a pioneer in the movement, failed to provide state support for institutes until 1847.[50]

Current practices.--"Twenty-eight teachers were in attendance and received instruction daily for a term of two weeks, in the modes of governing and teaching the common school branches."[51] Contrast Denman's description of the first institute in New York with the current practices in Illinois, where two days in early October are often devoted to teachers' institutes. One of the two days is spent in an institute under the direction of the

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44Ibid. p. 700

45Ibid.

46Ibid.

47Ibid.

48Ibid. p. 699.

49Ibid.

50Ibid.

51Ibid.

local County Superintendent of Schools, while the other day is spent in

a regional meeting under the direction of the Illinois Education Association.

Burton and Brueckner say, "though the institute has now fallen into

bad repute, it is with capable leadership, still a valuable instrument of

educational practice."[52]

Teachers' Meetings

Past and present.--Wilbur Yauch gives a vivid description of what

teachers' meetings have been and a direct statement of what he believes

they should be.

In the past, teachers' meetings have been used for the purpose
of telling teachers what the principal wants done and how he wants
it done. These meetings were characterized by an issuing of orders,
interpretation of orders previously given in writing, or a "dis-
cussion" of ways teachers can improve the quality of child discipline,
handling of savings stamps, preparing assembly programs, operettas,
etc., etc. The "discussion" was usually a one way affair, from the
principal to the teacher, to be recorded in notebooks or scratch pads
for future reference. If the teachers participated at all it was for
the purpose of raising questions to clarify interpretations of orders.
. . . Teachers' meetings should be situations in which the staff
members determine the policy and the program of the school, with the
principal acting as discussion leader.[53]

A chief means of teacher education in-service.--Faculty meetings,

departmental meetings, and grade level meetings are usual occurences during

the school year. Weber reports that:

Holding staff meetings is considered one of the chief means for
educating teachers in service by the schools included in the sample.
Ninety-seven percent of the schools studied reported that general
staff meetings were held for the purpose of promoting teacher growth.
. . . In nearly ninety-five percent of the schools the teachers are
required to attend and in eighty-five percent no efforts were made
to invite or encourage parents, or pupils, or board members to attend
faculty meetings. Administrators presided at faculty meetings in 82.5
percent of the cases, whereas teachers presided in only 3.2 percent

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[52]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. p. 152.

[53]Wilbur A. Yauch, Improving Human Relations in School Adminis-
tration (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940), pp. 65-66.

of the schools. In 14.3 percent teachers occasionally or part of the time. Accurate minutes are kept of faculty deliberations in only one school out of four, and in only one case out of ten are the minutes made available in duplicate for examination by the staff. In two-thirds of the schools the principal or superintendent plans all of the faculty meetings, whereas teachers elected by the staff plan meetings in only 18.2 percent of the cases. In 15.8 percent of the schools the principal appoints a committee to plan faculty meetings, assigns the job to department heads, or makes no plans whatsoever.[54]

Are needs being met?--Although staff meetings are considered as a chief means of promoting teacher growth in numerous schools, the same source of information also indicates that the staff meetings are often planned and conducted in a manner which is not conducive to desirable teacher growth.

Cartwright says, "the attractiveness of a group may be increased by making it better serve the needs of people."[55] Perhaps the high number of schools, mentioned by Weber, which require teachers to attend faculty meetings is due, in part, to the lack of "attractiveness" of the meetings. If this should be the case, then faculty meetings, as conducted in many schools, are not serving the needs of the teachers in an adequate manner.

Increasing the value of faculty meetings.--How can faculty meetings be made more attractive to the teachers and consequently become more valuable to an in-service program of teacher education? Possibly Cartwright has supplied a partial answer to the question, for he has said, "A group will be more attractive the more it provides status and recognition for

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[54]C. A. Weber, "A Summary of the Findings of the Subcommittee on In-Service Education of Secondary School Teachers," North Central Association Quarterly, XVII (January, 1943), p. 282.

[55]Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, (eds) Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson and Company, 1953), p. 82.

its members, the more cooperative the relations, and the freer the inter-
action."[56]

Wider use of teachers in the planning and conducting of faculty
meetings would possibly provide the members of the group with the desir-
able degree of status and recognition necessary for the rise in level of
attractiveness. However, the substitution of a teacher or even a committee
of teachers for the principal or superintendent in faculty meetings would
not insure the meetings becoming and remaining more attractive to the
staff, for such a teacher or such a committee could possibly become even
less democratic in their control of the meetings than the principal or
superintendent had been. To avoid the development of committee domination
in faculty meetings, the members of the committee should be elected by
the entire faculty for a relatively short period of time. A period of six
months on the program planning committee should be long enough to build
the status and recognition many teachers desire, and it would be short
enough to spread committee service among a large number of the faculty.

Hare suggests that:

> As the size of a discussion group is increased from five to
> twelve members, the degree of concensus resulting from discussion
> decreases when the time for disucssion is limited. . . . Because of
> the large number of members in a group of twelve, each member has
> less time to speak. If an individual has a chance to express his
> own ideas, even if they are not accepted, he is generally satisfied
> with the results of the discussion. Consequently, since the large
> membership have fewer chances to speak they are less satisfied. An
> additional way in which a large group limits interaction among its
> members is that it increases the follower's feelings that the in-
> dividual's opinions are not important and therefore not worth pre-
> senting to the group.[57]

If Hare's hypothesis is correct, then the development and conducting

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[56] Ibid.

[57] Ibid. p. 517

of attractive faculty meetings are next to impossible unless the school
is a very small one. Perhaps the faculty meetings should be replaced by
a number of group meetings each of which has a relatively small membership.
This would serve to provide freer interaction among the members of the
teaching staff.

Hare's hypothesis is supported by Thelen's discussion of "least
group size."

> The benefits of group discussion may well be aided by attention
> to the principle of "least group size" as developed in the theory of
> group dynamics. Thelen indicates that for each learning problem, the
> group should be subdivided into the smallest sized subgroups that
> will represent the socialization and achievement skills required to
> solve particular problems.[58]

There may be a slight difference of opinion on the part of Hare
and Thelen on just **how** many teachers are needed to make up a small group.
The consequences of group membership being more than five has been sug-
gested earlier in a quotation from Hare. Here are Thelen's comments:

> Groups made up of five to ten teachers seem to give enough di-
> versity of experience to function effectively in working on school
> problems. . . . In the small group the individual is much more like-
> ly to feel a responsibility for and reap the reward of contributing.
> Keeping down the size of the group may be a very important means of
> keeping up the benefits, both for the teacher as a person and for the
> school as an educative agency.[59]

Much attention has been directed toward group size, but there are
other factors which may affect the achievement of the goals of group meet-
ings. One of these factors is mentioned by Horwitz when he warns that,
"the attractiveness of a group may be decreased if one has unpleasant ex-
periences in it."[60] Therefore certain precautions should be exercised so

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[58]Bruce and Holden. op. cit., p. 264. Also see Herbert A. Thelen,
"Group Dynamics in Instruction: Principles of Least Group Size," The
School Review, LVII (March, 1949), pp. 139-148.

[59]Ibid.

[60]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit., p.83.

that no member of a group will suffer embarassment through being asked to do something which he is not qualified to do.

Continuing with Weber's report we find that:

> When the schools were asked to state the most promising techniques in their schools in connection with employing faculty meetings to promote teacher growth, the following were most frequently mentioned: (1) having teachers plan faculty meetings, and (2) having teachers work with the principal to plan faculty meetings. In connection with faculty meetings the most serious obstacles were: (1) lack of interest on the part of teachers, (29%); (2) inability to find suitable time of day, (27%); (3) heavy teacher and extra-curricular load, (18%); (4) lack of planning, (13.1%).[61]

As suggested in connection with Hare's hypothesis, the faculty meeting, in all except very small schools, should be replaced with a number of group meetings each of which has a small membership. This would serve, in part, to overcome the serious obstacles which Weber mentions. "Lack of interest on the part of teachers" would become less serious if the membership of the small group, which is to replace the larger group, were restricted on a basis such as grade-level, subject-matter, or teacher interests. It is likely that teachers would be more cooperative within a group if they shared a higher degree of common interests and problems. A reduction of the number of teachers which meet as a group would possibly lessen the severity of the problem of finding a "suitable time of day." However, the use of small groups would not overcome the obstacles of "heavy teacher load" and "heavy extra-curricular load." Also, a reduction of the number of teachers which meet in a single group would increase the problems of communication among the different groups. But, these problems of communication could be cared for, in part, by having each group make the minutes of their proceedings available to all other groups which may be affected by their action. Distribution of duplicated copies of the minutes would

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61Weber, op. cit., p. 282.

be an ideal means of solving the communication problem inherent in dividing the faculty into a number of smaller groups.

A lower limit.--A reduction in the number of teachers which are to work within a particular group may be a cure for some of the ills which plague teachers' meetings. The question arises--How far should the reduction be carried out? Will better results be obtained if teachers function as a committee of one? Are all teachers' meetings to be disbanded? "No" is the obvious answer to the last two of the three questions. Shaw has experimental evidence which lends support to this position. She has said, "Groups seem assured of a much larger proportion of correct solutions than individuals do."[62] And, Butler and Levine have pointed out, "that once a group arrives at a decision to act, the members . . . take on that decision and act accordance with it."[63] In regard to the first of the three questions it may be said that there is no constant number which will be best in all cases.

Professional Reading

An individual or group project.--Professional reading may be carried on as an individual project or on a group basis.[64] In many areas there does not seem to be enough time available for teachers to keep up with the abundance of reading materials which may be pertinent to their teaching position. Baker[65] reports on a plan used by the Public Schools of Austin, Texas. The professional reading problem is handled there by each teacher reading certain books and then preparing a written summary.

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[62]Swanson, Newcomb, and Hartley, op. cit. pp. 145-146.

[63]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit. p. 286.

[64]A suggestion for professional reading was made in conjunction with post-term planning. Above p. 21.

[65]T. P. Baker, "How Can the Principal Promote Professional Growth?" National Association Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XLI (April, 1957), pp. 51-54.

The summaries are then mimeographed and distributed to all teachers.

The value of professional reading.--The value of professional reading was indicated by a study made by Mort and Cornell.[66] They found that of 2,416 teachers in Pennsylvania, more of those teachers had gotten their ideas for change from professional reading than from any other single source. Even though professional reading may be of great value to both the individual teacher and to the school, there is evidence that it is often neglected or crowded out by something else.

The principal's responsibility.--Fisher assigns the responsibility for a successful professional reading program to the principals. In an article directed to administrators he says, "If you grow impatient at the dust that gathers on unread professional books and periodicals, don't blame your teachers. For this, too, is a part of your administrative responsibility."[67] Fisher arrived at the following conclusions after a study of procedures used by the elementary principals in a New Jersey school district.

> Dust did not accumulate on the professional books when principals took time to (1) point out in planned fashion literature pertinent for teachers to read, and (2) give teachers responsibilities for maintaining a library of which they could be proud and for circulating materials important to them.[68]

Reading habits of administrators.--In order for a principal to intelligently recommend reading materials, he must keep up with the latest

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[66]Alice Miel, Changing the Curriculum a Social Process (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1946), p. 106. Also see Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, American Schools in Transition (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), p. 206.

[67]Helen R. Fisher, "How to Get Your Teachers to Read," The School Executive, LXXVII (August, 1958), pp. 40-41.

[68]Ibid. p. 41.

materials himself. If the reading habits of principals are on a par with those of school superintendents, then the number of "intelligent recommendations" which principals may make are relatively few or so would be indicated by a recent article in The School Executive.

> The School Executive recently completed a study of the reading habits of a selected sampling of school superintendents from all over the United States. The study attempted to determine the quanity of professional and non-professional literature which was consumed by these men and women. It also tried to ascertain what they read and what impressed them the most from their reading.
> The findings were discouraging. The quality reported by the superintendents was far below what should be expected from a group with a position of intellectual leadership in our society. . . . For a group which is normally cooperative on inquiry studies the response was extremely low.
> What do the results of this study reveal? We see a picture of one of the community's leaders allowing the pressure of modern school administration to alienate him from the source that could assist the most.[69]

Demonstration Teaching

Teachers are experiencing demonstration teaching whenever they are acting as observers of a class being conducted by an experienced teacher who is classed as superior in the particular field under observation. Demonstration teaching is often beneficial to the new and inexperienced teacher, or so the relatively new teacher gave this impression in a recent survey which was conducted by the Research Department of the Illinois Education Association.[70] This same study also indicated that all high school teachers contacted in the survey believed demonstration teaching to be a valuable type of in-service education.

The value of demonstration teaching to the observing teachers may be controled to a certain extent by providing such teachers with pre-observation sessions in which they are instructed in the art of observation.

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[69]William L. Pharis, Jr., "Your Reading Habits Are Showing," The School Executive, LXXVIII (April, 1959), pp. 58-59.

[70]Research Department, IEA, op. cit. pp. 7-9.

Post-observation sessions in which the observers freely discuss what they
have witnessed may increase the value of the time spent in actual observation.

Visitation

Visitation is closely related to demonstration teaching. Often,
the teacher, who is attending a session of demonstration teaching as an
observer, is watching for a specific method or technique. In visitation
the visitor does not concentrate on specifics, but he gives his attention
to the entire procedure.

Visitation may be conducted on an individual, small group, or
entire faculty basis. Some type of report on the visit is necessary
if full benefit from the time spent in visitation is to be realized.
Pre-planning is another requirement for successful visitation. Permission
to visit classes in another school should be secured from the administration
of that school well in advance of the day scheduled for the actual visit.
The teacher or teachers to be visited should also be made aware of the
impending visit as soon as possible once the permission for the visit has
been granted.

Consultant Services

Sources of consultant aid.--Consultant services provide a means for
overcoming special difficulties of the teachers. The consultant may be an
experienced teacher within the school system, an experienced teacher who
is serving as a traveling consultant, or an expert from a field outside of
education. The state office of education is a frequently used source of
consultant aid.

The Brevard County, Florida, Experiment.--An example of the con-
sultant from within the system is found in the Brevard County experiment

with a program called the Helping Teacher.[71] Teachers, who met certain requirements, served from one to two years as a helping teacher. Among the duties of the helping teacher were such things as orienting new teachers, assisting experienced teachers who requested help, assisting in the evaluation of the total school program. The helping teacher returned to the classroom following his period of service in the new role. It was believed that the returning teacher would have developed a certain competency and understanding of the total program which would enable him to be more effective in faculty work.

Science-teaching consultants.--During the years since Sputnik I, a great deal of attention has been directed toward the improvement of mathematics and science on the secondary level, as well as at all educational levels. The traveling science teacher has become the modern day counterpart of the circuit rider of another day. Following an intensive period of training, possibly at Oak Ridge, during the summer months, these itinerant teachers spend the remainder of the school year making visits to secondary schools. During the brief visit by the visiting teacher, the regular teacher and his pupils have an opportunity to learn from the consultant. The consultant arrives with both an up-to-date knowledge of the advances in science and a supply of laboratory equipment which serves to supplement the meager equipment of the local school. Many of the consultants are expert "do it yourself" fans. They show the teacher and his students ways of making substitute equipment for many of the expensive models which are not within the financial reach of the local school. If the local

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[71]Clarence A. Carder, "Teachers as Supervisor Aides," The School Executive, LXXVIII (April, 1959), p. 57.

teacher becomes adept at making such adaptations from his present stock of laboratory equipment, the visit of the consultant has been worthwhile.

Textbook consultants.--Textbook companies often employ constltants which travel from school to school. Laura Phillips, one such consultant, has said:

> One of the first things a consultant hopes to do is to pick up and disseminate new, workable, and practical teaching ideas. . . . The consultant can often give solutions to specific problems that have been helpful elsewhere. Drawing upon her observation of a variety of school situations, she can suggest a new approach, a different method of presentation, a practical idea for motivation, or perhaps just point out the relative importance of a particular area in terms of the whole curriculum. The suggestion, particularly if modified to fit the local situation, often gives the teacher both added insight and a practical approach to solving one of her problems.[72]

The Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.--The Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction is a source of consultant aid which should not be neglected.

> It can scarcely be said that any one of the six divisions into which The Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction is organized is more important than the other division. . . . The Division of Instruction provides leadership, and many direct aids to the schools for improving their programs and upgrading the quality of education for pupils and students.
> GENERAL SUPERVISION
> The general supervisors, of which there are ten, . . . (have the) duty to evaluate total school programs for the purpose of determining whether schools are meeting the standards for recognition as indicated by statute and by regulations of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Leadership for providing better organization and improving instruction is the responsibility of this department.
> CONSULTANT SERVICE
> The members of this group are supervisors, but for more specialized work. On occasion they may help in the general evaluation of a school but their service is truly consultant work. They provide leadership for schools when requested and undertake to help organize, expand and improve so-called special areas not of the general or basic nature. Their duties are to make suggestions and to give help to bring the various areas to a quality standard which meets the approval

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[72]Laura M. Phillips, "What a Consultant Hopes to Accomplish," Instructor, LXVI (March, 1957), pp. 19-20.

and definitely much better than the minimum standards require. Consultant service is also available for school buildings, junior high schools, junior colleges, instructional materials, and music education.

Those in charge of consultant services are available for help in their particular fields in the way of conferences, workshops, practical solutions for problems in the local school system or on the county or state level.

The Art Consultant helps schools to provide basic art experiences for all public schools. Loans are made to the schools for exhibits, books, for courses of study, slides and films. The state art curricular guide for the elementary schools is suggestive of creative experiences. . . .

Physical Education, Driver Education, Safety Education, and Health Education are closely interrelated and the learnings in these areas combine to make an important and vital impact on the lives of children. . . . The consultants in these areas are available for workshops, conferences, guidance, visitation and programing. Much help can be had through reference materials, books, films, printed materials, and exhibits.

School Buildings present a problem to many local school districts. . . . The school building consultant is available for those contemplating new buildings or remodeling old ones. . . .

Junior High Schools are with few exceptions, relatively new in Illinois. . . . The consultants for Junior high schools are available for guidance and consultation both for organizing new junior high schools and for improving and upgrading those already existing. . . . The consultant can and does help administrators and teachers achieve the objectives for which their schools were conceived.

Junior Colleges . . . Through reference materials, research and and survey assistance, and personal conferences, the consultant from the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction can do much to help those communities where junior colleges are included in the total educational program.

Music Education.. . . Teachers of music in specialized classes or in "self-contained" classrooms need guidance and help in coordinating the music program and providing a proper balance of instrumental and choral work. The music consultant is available to lend assistance to teachers and groups of all levels. . . .

Instructional Materials are greatly diversified. All members of the school staff are concerned with the efective use of all types of supplementary materials. . . . Consultants . . . are available to work with school officials in improving the quality of materials selected and the effective use of them. Librarians and audio-visual directors may secure various aids and suggestions from the consultant service in the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

. . . Supervision of this program and visitation of classes is a duty of the staff of special education but they offer much guidance in helping establish and administer special classes. Staff members are available for consultant services.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational education is concerned with eight different areas of instruction, agriculture, homemaking, trade and industry, distributive education, practical nursing, technical education, industrial arts, and business education. Instruction in all areas are reimbursable

except industrial arts classes and business education classes. Supervising by the staff of the Board of Vocational Education is concentrated on the reimbursable programs but they act as consultants on all vocational programs in the local schools and of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. . . .

<div align="center">TITLE III
NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT</div>

Title III, another cooperative endeavor involving State and Federal aid, authorizes financial assistance to schools for the purpose of acquiring equipment, materials, and improved building facilities for the subjects covered by this title. Improved supervisory service from state level is an integral part of this title's requirements. Consultants are available on request for guidance and supervision of projects.[73]

<div align="center">Exchange Teaching</div>

High potential.--Exchange teaching, whether it be between two teachers in the same building or between two teachers in separate countries, is a potential means of developing the good teacher into an even better one. The potential for development of international understandings is unlimited when teachers from different countries serve on an exchange basis. The potential for misunderstandings is equally as high unless diligent effort is put forth to prevent its development.

Woodburn's discussion.--In Woodburn's discussion of the teacher exchange programs, both good and bad features of the program are aired.

The teacher exchange program has accomplished much international good will and fostered international relations at the grass roots level. . . . The exchange program offers an opportunity to the individual teacher, both American and foreign, to expand the base of their experiences and to study other countries' customs, geography, habits, philosophy, and other facets of nationality in which they are interested. . . . Many of the teachers who come to America are so used up by speaking engagements that they miss up to 20% of the time, and even though they may not be absent from school, the preparation for ambassadorship and their own curiosity to see as much of America as possible, saps energy which might be used in teaching or preparation for teaching.[74]

[73]Charles F. Carpentier (ed.), Illinois Blue Book 1959-1960 (Springfield, Illinois: Office of the Secretary of State), pp. 431-435.

[74]A. C. Woodburn, "Exchange Teachers," National Association Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XLII (April, 1958), pp. 131-132.

<u>Koch's answer</u>.--Paul Koch, upon being appointed as an exchange teacher to England, was asked, "What in the world do you want to do that for--spend a whole year in England?"[75] Mr. Koch spent much time during the following year in formulating an answer to this question. Eventually, the following answer emerged:

> Just as the world has a pattern, so does education, it being world wide. Fundamentally, education recognizes no barriers and is, in fact, international; education, where ever found, basically has common pursuits and objectives. There is a continuity of education throughout the world. The concern and goals and purposes-- all that education entails--leap borders, oceans, all barriers. In the last analysis what we do here is felt there and what is done there is eventually manifest here. This is the soul of the solution. This is "why" the program of exchange teaching is infinetely worthwhile.[76]

Participation in Civic Affairs

<u>Become a part of the community</u>.--Sister Sylvester Muschaleh answered in the affirmative in regard to the question, "Should teachers live and participate in the community where they teach?"[77]

> If the teacher is to give off both heat and light, he must become an integral part of the community where he teaches. But how can he do this unless he lives there permanently? If he does, then he can vote for his representatives in the local government; he can ask for measures which will benefit his school and its teachers; he can make himself heard where his opinion really counts.
> Besides, to understand the pupils' problems a teacher must know the community in which they live. When he becomes familiar with the home life of his students, then he becomes far more sympathetic and helpful. . . .
> The teacher with vision must participate in as many local activities as his time, energies, and talents may permit.[78]

<u>Organizations and community activities</u>.--Burton and Brueckner provide an extensive list of organizations and activities from which

[75]Paul B. Koch, "Why Be an Exchange Teacher?" <u>Clearing House</u>, XXXIII (September, 1958), pp. 21-22.

[76]<u>Ibid</u>. p. 22.

[77]Sister Sylvester Muschaleh and Jane Benner Helper, "Teachers Should Live and Participate in the Community Where They Teach?" <u>Instructor</u>, LXIX (May, 1960), p. 8.

[78]<u>Ibid</u>.

teachers with the necessary time, energy, and talents may choose.

There are many community organizations and activities in which the school personnel might associate themselves, Red Cross, camps, gardens, clean-up campaigns, drives of one sort or another, councils, betterment associations, health programs, Boy Scouts, Girl Reserves, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., conservation activities, landscaping, recreational parks, playgrounds, art centers, adult education, forums, work projects, nurseries, libraries, and better housing projects. School people . . . should as a group plan to assist with community activities as much as they can and learn in doing so. If school responsibilities are too heavy to permit participation, the duties should be lightened. . . . The schools cannot afford to be divorced from these community-wide activities and cooperative improvement programs.[79]

Self Appraisal

Although many phases of in-service education are of a group nature, there are others phases which are primarily of an individual nature. Self-appraisal is among the in-service education activities which are of an individual nature, although it may be, in part, carried out as a group activity, that is, a collection of individuals may appraise themselves as individuals at the same time. This type of self-appraisal may be accomplished by the members of the group checking various items on a previously prepared form. Such a procedure may hold some value for the individual, but a deeper and more personal appraisal of one's self in the role of teacher may provide a sounder basis for teacher growth.

Chandler, a supporter of self-appraisal, suggests the following questions as guides for teachers who may wish to evaluate themselves.

   (a) Do I conceive of my work as an 8:30 to 3:00 o'clock proposition? I know of no clock watcher who is doing a satisfactory job.
   (b) Am I proud to be a teacher? A person who cannot truthfully answer "yes" is doing himself, children, and teaching a disservice by staying in it.
   (c) What have I done during the past three months, six months, year to improve the quality of my services? A person who cannot list tangibles in answer to this question is overpaid at any salary.
   (d) What contributions have I made to my profession in the past year?

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[79]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. p. 163.

A teacher has an obligation that goes beyond a good job in the classroom.

(e) Have I consciously formulated a plan for self-improvement? Benjamin Franklin's scheme for self-improvement is still a valid one.

(f) Am I contributing to community life as a citizen? Self-realization demands that a teacher lead a full life.[80]

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[80]B. J. Chandler, "What It Takes to Professionalize Teaching," The School Executive, LXXVII (December, 1957), p. 48.

CHAPTER III

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

Criteria

Important questions.--In-service education should be beneficial to the teacher, the school, the community, and most of all to the pupil. In selecting in-service education activities, several questions should be asked in regard to each of the proposed activities. The following questions are believed to be among the important ones to be asked. The order of these questions is not an indication of their relative importance, nor is the list meant to contain all questions which may be logically asked. In each of the questions the word "it" refers to the activity under consideration.

1. Will it improve the teachers' abilities as directors of learning?

2. Will it better equip the teachers for their roles as counsellors of children?

3. Will it improve the teachers' capacity for directing extra-curricular activities?

4. Will it provide the teachers with democratic experiences?

5. Will it lead to wider participation by the school staff in community affairs?

6. Will it improve the teachers' personal-social adjustments?

7. Will it develop more effective thinking on the part of the school personnel?

8. Will it broaden the teachers' range of significant interests?

9. Will it aid the teachers in their acquiring a body of important information?

10. Will it aid teachers in their development of a consistent philosophy of life?

11. Will it lead to the identification of existing school problems?

12. Will it lead to cooperative development of school policy?

13. Will it encourage teachers to continually evaluate their teaching?

14. Will it lead to satisfactory solutions of the problems of the learner?

15. Will it serve to maintain or to improve the physical health of the teachers?

16. Will it serve to maintain or to improve the mental health and psychological adjustments of the teachers?

17. Will it serve to maintain or to improve the emotional stability of the teachers?

18. Will it serve to maintain or improve the quality of human relationships between teachers as a group and other individuals or other groups of individuals?

19. Will it serve to maintain or improve the quality of human relationships between individual teachers?

Multiple-facet subject.--In-service education is a multiple-facet subject; therefore a number of other lists of criteria could be presented which approach the subject with emphasis upon other facets of the subject. For example, the subject of in-service education could be centered in curriculum development, the point of view of other personnel which may be involved such as legal bodies, lay groups, parents, officially designated leaders, or pupils; or the point of view of state departments of education or colleges and universities. However, the teachers' role should be

spotlighted in the in-service program of education, for the role of the

teacher is a focal point in the educative process whereby the pupils learn.

The questions which have been presented as criteria for the selection of

in-service activities are therefore questions which deal primarily with

the part the teacher is to take in the program for his growth or how the

program may alter, for the better, the current role he is playing in the

program of education.

Personal growth and group growth.--

Instructional improvement is dependent upon the personal growth
and development of the individual teacher. . . . Teachers teach what
they are--they teach as they perceive themselves to be interacting
with reality. Consequently, to help the teacher improve in order to
enhance our instructional programs, we must work in terms of changing
the perceptions held by such a person and at the same time develop
his professional skills, knowledge, and understanding.[81]

But, on the other hand, there are also factors of a group nature upon

which instructional improvement is dependent. It is believed that an

effective program of in-service education should be involved with both

individual and group activities rather than with either individual or

group activities.

Supporting Quotations

Introduction.--Spears, Ogletree, Beasly, and Weber have done much

serious work on in-service education, and they have made some remarkable

contributions in this area. The quotations which follow do not necessarily

reflect the views held by these gentlemen. This is certainly the case for

Ogletree and may also be so for Weber. Ogletree would, "shift the point

of emphasis away from techniques and procedures and place it upon the

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[81]James R. Ogletree, "Person-Centered In-Service Education Why
Not?" Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, XXX (September, 1957),
College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington. pp. 17-18

people involved."[82] And, as for Weber, he is primarily reporting the

findings of a committee with which he may or may not entirely agree.

Chandler has also contributed to the volume of materials on in-service

education.

Chandler: Common characteristics.--

No specific in-service program can be universally acceptable, for
local conditions and needs are diverse. However, good in-service pro-
grams have common characteristics which are:
a) In-service activities receive direction from and are related to
the work of teachers in the classrooms, the school, and the com-
munity.
b) Teachers have a significant share in planning all in-service
activities.
c) Teachers are motivated to engage in meaningful activities.
d) Sound principles of learning are observed.
e) In-service activities are an integral part of the school program.
f) The in-service program is characterized by a variety of activities--
both individual and group.
g) Activities are carefully and intelligently evaluated.[83]

Spears: Principles.--Spears offers the following as guiding prin-

ciples for in-service training:

(1) The professional training of the teachers does not cease as he
leaves the college for the teaching position. (2) Nor can his future
professional development be adequately served by continuous teaching
experience alone. (3) Although it is reasonable to expect a teacher
to guide his own future development, it is the obligation of the
school system to stimulate the advancement of the staff by providing
opportunities for teachers to grow on the job. (4) These opportunities
when properly planned and coordinated can be called the in-service
education program of that school district. (5) The provision of
staff leadership for this program is a legitimate school expenditure.
(6) The test of the in-service program lies in the improvement of the
instruction and consequently in the improved development of the pupils.
(7) The in-service program cannot be separated either in spirit or in
function from curriculum planning and supervision, the three represent
overlapping features of the program for instructional improvement.
(8) Although the prime purpose of in-service training is to promote
continuous growth of teachers, a portion of the effort represents the
elimination of deficiencies of those who were inadequately trained
during their pre-service education.[84]

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[82]_Ibid._ p. 33.

[83]Chandler, _op. cit._ p. 49.

[84]Spears, _op. cit._ pp. 315-316.

Ogletree: Characteristics of in-service education.--Ogletree says,

"The following is a set of characteristics which writers on the subject commonly agree is important and/or essential for in-service education programs (including supervision, curriculum development, and action research) as they are now conceived and as they now exist."[85] The list was developed as a result of an extensive survey of all available literature which pertained to in-service education and had been listed in the Educational Index for the years 1929-1948.

1. To be effective a program of in-service education must be planned through the cooperative efforts of a central planning committee representing all agencies concerned with the progress and results of such a program.
2. An effective in-service education program should provide for participation in improving local conditions.
3. An effective in-service education program should be so well planned that the first activities of the year quickly orient and interest all teachers, especially the new and inexperienced teachers.
4. An effective in-service education program should provide means for utilizing tests as aids in locating problems for cooperative study.
5. An effective in-service education program should be based upon the needs and desires of the participants as they see them.
6. An effective in-service education program should assist teachers in locating, analyzing, and solving their problems.
7. An effective in-service education program should provide means for all school personnel to share responsibilities for the program's activities.
8. An effective in-service education program should provide and encourage the use of every possible technique of growth.
9. A well planned program of in-service education should provide assistance in locating, obtaining, and using new teaching material.
10. An effective in-service education program should provide for continuous evaluation and revision of its objectives and methods of work.
11. A well planned program of in-service education should provide for the continuous development of its participants.
12. To be effective, a program of in-service education should be continuous, each year's work based upon the past year's experiences.
13. A well organized in-service education program should provide some form of award or recognition for work done in the program.
14. An effective program of in-service education should be organized in a way that teachers are allowed to and encouraged to try out new things which they learn through the program.
15. The activities of an effective in-service education program should result in desirable changes in the total school situation as a result of the continuous growth of all school personnel.
16. An effective in-service education program should recognize that growth can come only from within the individual. The program must stimulate the individual to desire to improve while in-service.

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[85]Ogletree, op. cit. p. 29.

17. An effective in-service education program should provide and encourage democratic leadership instead of autocratic domination.

18. An effective in-service education program should begin with an understanding of the participants and should provide opportunities for each participant to begin work on his own level.

19. An effective in-service education program should provide close cooperation among the local school, the local school system, and the state department of education, teacher training institutions, and other educational agencies.

20. An effective in-service education program should provide for small group work. These groups should be small enough to encourage wide participation on common problems, yet large enough to work effectively.

21. An effective in-service education program should have definite times and places for its meetings.

22. An effective in-service education program should include some form of inter-school and intra-school visitation.

23. An effective in-service education program should closely define and make understood its purposes, its activities, and the functions and responsibilities of each participant.

24. A well planned in-service education program should be conducted on a voluntary basis. Continuous evaluation and revision should be made to increase the participation of school personnel in the program.

25. A well planned in-service education program should include provision for summer work to assist the participants in their efforts to grow while in-service.

26. To be effective, an in-service education program should provide an adequate professional library.

27. An effective in-service education program should establish both ultimate and immediate objectives. These objectives should be clearly defined and understood by all participants.

28. A well planned in-service education program should be flexible so that it can change its objectives and "ways of work" whenever the need arises.

29. A well planned program of in-service education should provide the participants with opportunities for relaxation and socialization, which in itself is instrumental to growth.

30. A well planned program of in-service education should carry on an extensive program of public relations to keep the public aware of the problems and progress of the schools and the teachers.

31. An effective in-service education program should provide fertile ground for leadership qualities to be realized.[86]

In commenting on the above list of characteristics Ogletree observes, "a tremendous amount of overlapping and restatement of the same basic point. . . a degree of internal inconsistency. . . a tremendous emphasis and concern with procedures, techniques, or methods."[87]

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[86]*Ibid.* pp. 29-32.

[87]*Ibid.* p. 32.

Beasly: Characteristics in common with other types of education.--

The most effective programs of in-service education have certain characteristics in common with any other effective types of education. Beasly says that the ideal in-service education program is characterized by at least the following:

1. An ideal program of in-service education is one in which motivation for participants comes from within the individual.
2. An ideal program of in-service education is one which is cooperatively planned.
3. An ideal program of in-service education is adapted to the needs of the participants.
4. An ideal program of in-service education provides for an interpretation to the public of both purposes and outcomes.
5. An ideal program of in-service education provides a plan for continuous evaluation and improvement of the effectiveness of the program by all concerned.[88]

Weber's report.--

A study of previous research concerning the problems of educating teachers in-service revealed that teachers and administrators seemed to agree that educating teachers in service is a definite responsibility of the secondary school and that this responsibility could not be met by merely encouraging teachers to attend summer school or extension classes. Examination of previous inquiries led the Sub-committee to conclude that other investigators had found that insufficient planning, use of outworn, disliked, principal-centered techniques and absence of cooperative attacks on the common problems of the staff were chief reasons for failure of programs of in-service education. The findings of those who had previously inquired into the problems of educating teachers in service warrant the assertion that the following procedures have the greatest promise for encouraging growth of teachers in service:

1. Discarding inspectorial techniques which originate with administrators.
2. Giving teachers a definite part in shaping school policies, planning faculty meetings, and developing a program of public relations.
3. Devising ways and means for teachers to have a part in the selection of their own leaders who will preside over their own meetings.
4. Inviting and encouraging parents and pupils to participate in deliberations which concern problems affecting the child.
5. Encouraging the workshop idea in the education of teachers.[89]

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[88]Needham, op. cit. p. 17. Also see N. C. Beasly, "Evaluating In-Service Programs," The Teaching Profession Grows in Service, 1949. Official Group Reports of the New Hampshire Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1949), p. 46.

[89]Weber, op. cit. p. 281.

CHAPTER IV

A GUIDE TO IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Introduction

Continuous growth in service is highly important if we are to
keep pace with a rapidly changing society and apply the newer methods
of teaching to education. Improved teaching can result only to the
extent that the persons concerned (a) recognize their personal and
group needs and the problems affecting their teaching, (b) develop
some definite procedures for the solution of their problems, (c) feel
some responsibility for helping to plan to meet these needs, (d) de-
velop some criteria for the selection of the problems to be studied,
and (e) share in the responsibility for evaluating the program.[90]

Recognition of Needs

Faculty recognition of its needs is of vital importance to an in-

service education program, for an individual or a group does not make pro-

gress toward problem solutions until the existence of the problem has been

acknowledged by the individual or the group. Bruce and Holden state that,

"the recognition of inadequacies . . . is an intelligent step toward filling

the gaps in our training and experiences and toward repairing the defects."[91]

Kurt Lewin has pointed out that, "an individual will believe facts he himself

has discovered in the same way that he believes in himself or in his group."[92]

Queener's example.--Queener cites an example of a problem and its

solution in his Introduction to Social Psychology which is helpful in

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[90]Staff Relations in School Administration, Thirty-Third Yearbook
of the American Association of School Administrators (Washington, D. C.:
1955), p. 116.

[91]Bruce and Holden, op. cit. p. 211.

[92]Kurt Lewin, Resolving Social Conflicts (New York: Harper and
Brothers, 1948), p. 68.

portraying the necessity of recognizing that a problem exists before

progress is made toward a solution of the problem.

On a factory floor employing a woman supervisor, a number of wo-
men operators, and a male mechanic, trouble developed between the su-
pervisor and the mechanic. One of the girls was supposed to have in-
formed her supervisor that the mechanic had refused to fix her machine.
The supervisor called the mechanic to ask for his refusal, and he de-
nied it. Furthermore, he obtained a denial from the girl that she
had made the accusation, and both of them confronted the supervisor
with the accusation that she had lied. Forthwith the supervisor an-
nounced her intention of quitting as did also the mechanic. This was
World War II and bad times for losing competent workers. The plant
psychologist was called in.
In interviews with the supervisor, mechanic, and operators he
learned that there simply was not enough mechanic time for the number
of machines which broke down. Supervisor, mechanic, and several of
the operators were inclined to blame the ensuing dissatisfaction upon
one another's perversity, but they did also mention the real problem
of the mechanic's excessive load, and the psychologist commended each
for this objective insight. Both supervisor and mechanic were asked
whether they thought it would be a good idea to call the operators to-
gether for a discussion of a way to better divide the mechanic's time,
and both said it would. In a group meeting with the operators the
psychologist reminded them of the objective problem which they had
pointed out, and asked them if they saw any solution to it. In the
course of discussion they agreed that priority in obtaining mechanical
services should go to the most critical machines, otherwise first
come, first serve. The psychologist next asked the mechanic whether
he wouldn't prefer to have this decision of which machine was most
critical unloaded upon the supervisor, and he said he would. The
supervisor agreed to take the responsibility, and in a short time the
intragroup problem was solved.[93]

The individuals in the above situation were only partially aware

of the true problem at the beginning, for they blamed the dissatisfactions

which developed upon the perversity of one another more than upon the over-

load which the mechanic was being called upon to bear. In the course of

events the psychologist was able to influence the development of their

awareness of the nature of the true problem through his favorable comments

upon their insight. Once this was accomplished, the supervisor, mechanic,

and operators were ready for unified effort to solve their problem.

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[93]E. L. Queener, Introduction to Social Psychology (New York:
Harper and Brothers, 1948), pp. 266-267.

<u>Intuition is inadequate.</u>--Proper recognition of problems and needs invloves more than an intuitive feeling that things are not as they should be. An analysis of existing conditions, made in the light of Burton and Brueckner's list of symptoms of teaching problems, may aid teachers in the identification of their teaching problems. The list of symptoms follows:

1. Disorderly conduct of pupils.
2. Low level of pupil interest.
3. Poor group relations among pupils
4. Test results considerably below those expected of the pupils.
5. Excessive truancy and unlawful absence.
6. Failure of pupils to complete assignments.
7. Evidence of poor planning for lesson by the teacher.
8. Evidence of lack of basic knowledge by the teacher.
9. Emotional instability and physical fatigue of the teacher.
10. Poor personal relationships with teacher associates and parents.
11. Limited participation by the teacher in school and community affairs.
12. Evidence of poor housekeeping.[94]

Faculty recognition of needs may also be achieved by using the school's objectives as a guide for evaluation of the existing conditions. If such a list of objectives is not readily available, then the preparation of such a list of objectives could well be the first assignment of a new in-service education program.

Needs of Teachers

<u>Personal and/or group needs.</u>--Teachers as a group have needs which are in a sense personal, but at the same time they may be collective needs of the group. Trager and Radle offer the following as a collection of such needs:

1. To feel that administration is democratic.
2. To be able to make mistakes.
3. To be a part of a developing professional movement.
4. To feel free to experiment.
5. To have time to study children and treat them like human beings.
6. To have a chance to talk over problems with teachers in other schools.

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[94]Burton and Brueckner, <u>op. cit.</u> p. 321.

7. To have time to know the children's parents and neighborhood.
8. To meet and work with people different from themselves.
9. To learn to understand themselves better.
10. To learn to talk up in a group of teachers without fear.[95]

Growth needs.--Along a similar line Needham says, "Teachers have growth needs which have not been met by pre-service training."[96] Needham continues by citing the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education.

1. Respect for Personality. Teachers must recognize the fundamental worth of each growing personality as a member of our culture.
2. Community-Mindedness. Teachers must grow in ability to become an integral part of the community.
3. Rational Behavior. Teachers must develop the ability to deal with personal and professional problems in a rational manner.
4. Skill in Cooperation. Teachers must grow in the ability to function as members in the group process and develop skill in working with others.
5. "General" Qualities Shade into the "Professional". The general qualities mentioned above should never be minimized in planning for professional development. The teacher should be versatile in all areas of life.
6. Increasing Knowledge. Teachers must grow in scholarly aptitude and background. All teachers need a broad liberal background.
7. Skill in Mediating Knowledge. Teachers need to develop the ability to help children learn.
8. Friendliness with Children. Teachers must develop the attitude of friendliness with children but the attitude should be wise and objective rather than sentimental and uncritical.
9. Understanding Children. All teachers must grow in understanding the implications of developmental and adolescent psychology.
10. Social Understanding and Behavior. The teacher as a professional person must grow in understanding of the problems, trends, and possibilities of society.
11. Good citizenship in the School as Society. The teacher must grow in ability to function as a good citizen in relations with pupils, other teachers, and administrators.
12. Skill in Evaluation. Teachers should understand the techniques of measurement and evaluation and be able to apply them intelligently.
13. Faith in the Worth of Teaching. Teachers must develop a professional spirit that recognizes the greatness and power of

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[95]Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, Human Relations in Curriculum Change (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), p. 292. Also see Helen G. Trager and Marian Radle, "Will Your New Program Work?" NEA Journal, XXXI (December, 1948), pp. 612-613.

[96]Needham, op. cit. pp. 13-14.

their work in benefiting society.[97]

To let these quotations stand without comment would be an unfair indictment of teachers in general. Only a rare group of teachers would experience all of these needs at any one time; however, the collective needs of the individuals forming a group may at times encompass the complete list. The list is given to indicate the multiple dimensions in which an in-service education program may direct the growth of the teachers who are an integral part of the program.

Solutions

The California Statement of Teaching Competency.--"The California Statement of Teaching Competency"[98] is a definition of types of behavior which characterize "good" teaching. This instrument may be valuable to teachers when they set out to determine the causes for lack of satisfactory progress by the teachers. The "Statement" defines competence of teachers in the following six areas:

1. Learning of students.
2. Counseling of students.
3. Development of understanding and appreciation of our cultural heritage in the students.
4. Participation in school activities.
5. Public relations between the school and the community.
6. Professional level.[99]

Teachers who have already identified their problems may find the California Statement of value to them, for its definition of a "competent"

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[97]Ibid. p. 14. Also see Karl L. Bigelow et al. Teachers for Our Times: A Statement of Purpose by the Commission on Teacher Education (Washington, D. C. : American Council on Education, 1944), pp. 154-173.

[98]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. pp. 318-321. Also see Evaluation of Student Teaching, Twenty-eighth Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching (Lockhaven, Pennsylvania: State Teachers College, 1949), pp. 7-11. Infra, Appendix B.

[99]Ibid. p. 318.

teacher may guide teachers to solutions for their problems.

Small group meetings.--As has been pointed out in a preceeding chapter, small group meetings when properly organized and carefully conducted may be helpful in arriving at solutions of teachers' problems. What constitutes proper organization? In commenting on the organization of group meetings Ogletree has warned against,

> cold, locked-step, organizational design . . . (which) seems to reject the warmth of the personalities and the needs, desires, and perceptions of those who will be interacting within its framework and upon whose shoulders the responsibility for instructional improvement ultimately falls.[100]

He would "shift the point of emphasis away from techniques and procedures, and place it upon the people involved."[101] His basic reason for this is:

> Unless the individual recognizes a personal need or value in that which is being forced upon him, he will reject it and develop a resistance toward it. . . . moreover, . . . real growth or change in an individual's or group's behavior patterns will occur only when an individual or group recognizes or perceives in a situation or activity an opportunity for greater self enhancement, acting or proceeding in a fashion other than that which has been previously enhancing to his self-concept.[102]

It seems to be apparent from Ogletree's arguments that the properly organized group will provide for the enhancement of each individual's self-concept. This may possibly be achieved through restricting the number of persons which are to act as a group. Such restrictions should provide each member of the group with a greater opportunity to participate and to express himself. This greater degree of self-expression may provide the individual with the necessary opportunity for enhancement of his self-concept.

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[100]Ogletree, op. cit. p. 32.

[101]Ibid. p. 33.

[102]Ibid. pp. 33-34.

However, the opportunity for freer interaction is not a guarantee that
the interaction will bring about the results which are desired by the
teachers who are members of an in-service education program, for group
reaction is a complex function of organism and stimulus situation.

> In any case the social dynamics technique for studying behavior in
> groups offer very significant opportunities for self-understanding and
> for the maintainence of autonomy of personal independence in think-
> ing about school problems.[103]

Spears' warning.--Spears warns against becoming lost in the ac-
tivities of an in-service education program.

> Teachers may become so busy in carrying out (in-service) activi-
> ties that they may not take time to determine if it is the way to the
> goal. We need to fight the tendency for means to become ends. Study
> programs signify nothing in themselves and should never be used as
> antibiotics for school operators who are trying to get away from their
> classroom problems.[104]

Ogletree's suggestions.--Ogletree suggests we change the perceptions
held by many teachers.

> Instructional improvement is dependent upon the personal growth
> and development of the individual teacher. . . . Teachers teach what
> they are--they teach as they perceive themselves to be interacting
> with reality. Consequently, to help the teacher improve in order to
> enhance our instructional programs, we must work in terms of changing
> professional skills, knowledge, and understanding.[105]

Factors which may contribute to rediness for change.--The School
Executive recently published an article in which some of the factors which
may contribute to an individual's development of clearer perception and
hence to his readiness for change were listed. The list follows:

1. Recognition that new values may be absorbed without loss to self.
2. Seeing more realistically what one thinks he can do and develop-
   ing a new concept of what he really is.

[103]Bruce and Holden, op. cit. p. 282. Also see Gale E. Jensen,
"School as a Social System," Educational Research Bulletin, XXXIII (1954),
pp. 38-46.

[104]Spears, op. cit. p. 333.

[105]Ogletree, op. cit. pp. 17-18.

3. Recognition that new situations can be met without undue disturbance to the self-organization.

4. Identification with an administrator who is friendly, well-liked, democratic in ways of working with staff, parents, girls and boys; who is himself productive in the areas of his responsibility.

5. Awareness of disparity between earlier experiences and the demands of the situation in which one currently finds oneself.

6. Dissatisfaction with the way things are going, with behavior which is recognized as actually inconsistent with certain aspects of the self-concept although previously not noted as such.

7. Experimenting with new ways which bring success or satisfaction, thus making restructuring of attitudes easier.

8. Experience which takes concepts that are strange to an individual, and therefore feared, and translates them into reality so that they are understood and thus no longer threatening.[106]

Changing levels of conduct.--Changing from a lower level of conduct to a higher level of conduct is a desirable outcome in any in-service education program. Allport presents two solutions to this problem. "(1) Adding forces in desired direction, and (2) reducing forces in opposing direction."[107] Either may bring one to the new level, but the two ways are not the same. The first may result in high tension while the second may result in low tension. Allport continues by suggesting that "a successful change includes . . . three aspects: unfreezing (if necessary) the present level L_1, moving to the new level L_2, and freezing group life on the new level."[108]

Solutions and Finance

Expenditure of teachers' time.--Thus far solutions of teachers' problems have been considered which involve time which may rightfully

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[106]Clarence Newell et al. "Can You Change a Teacher's Attitudes?" The School Executive, LXXVII (February, 1958), p. 77.

[107]Cartwright and Zander, op. cit. p. 297. Also see G. Allport, "Cartharsis and the Reduction of Prejudice," Journal of Social Issues, I (August, 1945), pp. 3-10.

[108]Ibid.

belong to the teachers. Study to identify problems, of both the individual and the group, small group meetings to solve these problems, and consultations, whether these be with a fellow teacher, principal, or consultant, all require an expenditure of extra time on the part of the teachers. It is a debatable issue as to just how much the school is justified in involving the teachers in expenditures of extra time without remuneration.

Provisions for remuneration.--Campbell has made a list of financial provisions for remunerating the teachers for the time spent in the in-service education program. Campbell's list is as follows:

1. Special provisions of the salary schedule.
2. Sabbatical leave allowances.
3. Expense allowances for educational travel.
4. Allowances for visiting other schools.
5. Funds for substitute service to relieve teachers for conferences, visiting, special assignments, etc., etc.
6. In-service institutes and allowances of time for attendance and funds for consulting services.
7. Bonuses for advanced professional study.
8. Subsidizing of services provided by teachers' colleges for departments of education in faculty advisory service.
9. Compensation for pre-school and post-school conferences by the faculty.
10. Summer workshop costs, both those arranged locally and those in which teams of teachers work as a unit in university summer schools.
11. Expense allowance for attendance at state and national educational conferences.
12. Funds for publication of bulletins, study guides, outlines, and curriculum brochures used in the improvement of instruction.
13. Provision of time for special in-service activities.
14. Provision for comprehensive professional library service, including curriculum laboratory, current periodicals, collections of past educational references and assistance in gathering data from other sources on special problems.[109]

Board control.--Available finances and time are not solutions within themselves; however, they are the two major factors which are directly under the control of local boards of education. In all fairness to the boards of

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[109]Burton and Brueckner, op. cit. p. 532. Also see Clyde M. Campbell (ed.), Practical Applications of Democratic Administration (New York: Harper, 1952).

education, it must be acknowledged that their control of these two elements is restricted by forces outside the school.

Which Problems Are to Be Studied?

Classifying problems.--A study of existing conditions within a school will lead to a variety of teacher problems in most schools. A listing should be made of the problems which come to light under an analysis of existing conditions. After sufficient time has elapsed to allow the teachers to regain their perspective, the listing of the problems should be reviewed. The purpose of this review is to clarify and to classify the statements of the problems. Relatively broad titles should be used for this classification of the problems. These broad areas may provide natural lines of division of the faculty into small groups. Each of the small groups should plan to solve the problem of its major classification. In so doing, it is possible that part of the original problems will be solved. The solution of original problems will only be incidental to the work toward a solution of the major problem; nevertheless, this side benefit is not to be totally disregarded.

Many of the problems of the orginal list can be fitted into one or more of the following categories:

1. An appraisal of the educational product.
2. A diagnosis of learning difficulties.
3. A study of instruction.
4. A study of the curriculum.
5. A study of materials and resources.
6. A study of the socio-physical environment.
7. A study of the teachers' well-being.

Personal well-being versus professional development.--Any one of
the first six classifications is an appropriate small group problem. Re-
sults of a survey of the Public Senior High Schools of Indiana[110] indicate
that in-service education programs are over emphasising well-being of the
individual teachers at the expense of professional competency. "The
most widely used techniques of in-service education were related to teacher
welfare."[111] And, "The emphasis of the in-service education was on the
well-being of the individual teacher rather than the improvement of the
professional competency of teachers."[112] Taylor lists the foregoing as
among the important conclusions drawn from the results of the previously
mentioned survey.

The information for the survey was collected by a check list
questionaire and was limited to those activities in which teachers par-
ticipate during the school day. In summing up the study, Taylor said:

> Growth in service is a concept which goes with true professional-
> ization. Society expects the professional person to keep abreast of
> his speciality and he is judged by his knowledge of developments in
> his field. In-service teacher education programs in Indiana were
> found to be concerned largely with the personal welfare of the in-
> dividual teacher rather than with his professional growth. If teach-
> ing is to achieve the status of a profession, there is need for emphasis
> of in-service teacher education to be put on professional growth.[113]

An Outline for the Group Attack

Problems of interest.--If group action is to be successful, the

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[110]Bob L. Taylor, "Professional Growth-An Aim of In-Service Edu-
cation," Educational Administration and Supervision, XLIV (November,
1958), pp. 349-352.

[111]Ibid. p. 350.

[112]Ibid.

[113]Ibid. pp. 351-352.

group must be presented with a problem in which members of the group are vitally interested. The group must also be deeply interested in the solution of the problem. The solution should hold a promise of a more enjoyable life for the members of the group.

Expression of views.--After the presentation of the problem, all group members should offer his or her views on the problem. The problem should be viewed from every conceivable angle in order to understand all of its ramifications. Care must be exercised by the discussion leader at this point. The group must not be permitted to wander too far astray from the central thought of the problem at hand.

Tenative solutions and experiments.--After the problem has been viewed from all angles by the group, the members of the group should be requested to propose a number of tenative solutions for the problem. The tenative solutions should be recorded on a chalkboard for all members of the group to see. An attempt should be made to select the most promising of the tenative solutions. This attempt will involve a careful evaluation of each of the proposals. Once the selection has been made, the group should experiment with the solution to see if it will work. Following a period of extensive experimentation, the results of the experiments should be reported to the group. It is necessary at this time to evaluate the reported results. On the basis of this evaluation, the solution may be adopted by the group. However, it may be that upon hearing the report, the group may wish to modify the proposal and conduct more experiments before accepting the solution as a satisfactory one. A third possibility is that the group may wish to discard the proposal and begin anew with some other. Both of the latter possibilities will entail additional experimentation and evaluation.

<u>Mechanics</u>.--In order to provide continuity to a series of group meetings, it is necessary that a person be appointed by the group to keep a written record of the proceedings and to prepare mimeographed summaries of previous actions. Distribution of these summaries will speed the process of getting the succeeding meetings under way.

Continuous evaluation of group meeting progress--having each group member rate the value of the current meeting, for example, is important. A five point scale which ranges from a low of "no value" to a high of "very valuable" may be checked by each member of the group and given to the group secretary at the close of each session. The secretary may compute the mean of the ratings and report this mean to the group at the next meeting. A graphical record of the group's reaction to the meetings may serve to guide the leader in his choice of methods for conducting future meetings. The rating blank may have space for comments and suggestions. Whenever comments are made on the rating blank, the blank should be returned without a signature. No value is attached to having the blanks signed; hence the omission of the signatures in all cases is acceptable.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Other Methods of In-Service Education

Thus far the small group study of problems has been stressed as
the means of growth for the teachers in an in-service education program.
What about other activities? Are they to be totally disregarded? Are
they to be treated as lacking in value for the in-service education program?
The reply to the last two questions is "no," while the answer to the first
is less direct.

Duty of the principal.--It is the duty of the principal, in a
democratic setting, to keep the faculty aware of the many different ways
of improving the total school program. He must encourage faculty partici-
pation in those activities which serve the improvement cause; however, the
teachers must select the in-service activities in which they desire to par-
ticipate. In individual cases where there is evidence of teaching dif-
ficulty and the teacher having the difficulty is not attempting to correct
the situation, it becomes the duty of the principal to have a conference with
that particular teacher. The conference should serve to acquaint the
teacher with his problem as seen by the principal and to inform the teacher
of the principal's desire to help him find a solution for his problem.

Keeping the Faculty Aware

Concern for own growth.--Although it is the principal's duty to
keep the faculty aware of ways to improve the school and themselves, how can
the principal successfully do this? The principal, first of all, must be
concerned with his own growth as a professional person. "The principal who
is enthusiastic and continually seeks new ways for doing his own job nat-
urally provides inspiration for staff members to do likewise."[114] The
practice of the concept of friendliness and helpfulness, by the principal,
will do much to promote professional growth.

> School executives have no more responsible task than that of pro-
> moting growth in the personnel. But . . . responsibility for the pro-
> fitableness of in-service efforts is widely distributed. It is not one
> which must be acquired in the first instance by the school executive and
> at a later date by other members of the professional staff. It can be
> acquired gradually as classroom teachers and school executives attempt
> to learn together.[115]

Validation of In-Service Education

Growth of the individual teacher begins with his awareness of
certain needs or inadequacies and with his attempt to meet or satisfy these
needs or inadequacies. The final measure of the extent to which these needs
have been met must not be based upon an intuitive feeling of self-satisfaction
on the part of the teacher. The teacher may have acquired this feeling of
self-satisfaction without reaching an adequate level of growth needed for
inspiration of growth in the pupils. Hence, the final measure of whether or
not the felt needs of the teacher have been adequately meet is dependent upon
the level of resulting pupil growth for its validation.

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[114]H. E. Jones, "How Can the Principal Promote Professional Growth?"
National Association Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XLII (April, 1958),
p. 56.

[115]Prall and Cushman, op. cit. p. 31.

Summary

The following statements are presented as characteristics of a good in-service education program:

1. The activities which make up an in-service education program are selected through democratic interaction of the educational personnel of each building. "If children are to be provided experiences that develop democratic qualities, they must be guided by teachers who are themselves sympathetic and skilled in such experiences."[116]

2. All participation in in-service educational activities is voluntary.

3. The principal is responsible for conducting himself so as to maintain a democratic atmosphere in the school once it is established.

4. The principal is responsible for making initial moves toward the establishment of a democratic setting in the school.

5. The needs of the pupils give direction to an in-service education program.

6. In-service education will benefit the community, the school, the teachers, and the pupils.

7. A comprehensive in-service education program will permit an interchange of the words "it" and "will" in each of the nineteen criteria.[117]

8. Pupil growth is the validation for in-service education.

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[116]Yauch, op. cit. p. 10.

[117]Op. cit. pp. 40-41.

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APPENDIX A

DEFINITIONS OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION ACTIVITIES USED BY
THE IEA RESEARCH DEPARTMENT IN THE BULLETIN
"IN-SERVICE EDUCATION ACTIVITIES
IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
OF ILLINOIS."

Conferences—meetings of a group of teachers to find a solution to a specific problem and thereby improve instruction or service.

Consultant services—aid from some source outside the school system to help a teacher, or teachers, improve in a specific phase of instruction or pupil services.

Correspondence, evening, or extension courses—courses taken primarily for the improvement of instruction; earning of credit toward a degree or a salary increment may be incidental.

Demonstration teaching—a demonstration in actual classroom situation by an individual skilled in teaching a particular subject or grade level.

Exchange teaching—teachers exchanging classes temporarily to broaden their experiences and thereby improve instruction.

Exhibits—collections of materials to convey a particular idea or to furnish information in a particular area.

Experimentation—research done or in progress, new methods tried; or new material used in order to find ways instruction or services can be improved.

Faculty meetings—meetings when specific problems are constructively discussed in order to find a solution and improve instruction or pupil services.

Intervisitation—teachers visiting other classes or other systems while classes are in session, specificially to get new ideas for improvement of instruction.

Institutes—meetings called by the county superintendent, designed for educational and instructional improvement as provided by the School Code.

Lectures—Presentations by someone outside the district on a topic that is related to improvement of instruction or services to pupils.

Professional meetings—teachers attending formal meetingson county, district, state, or national level designed to improve professional attitudes and competencies.

Professional organization service—giving a teacher time to serve a professional organization, or attend a convention as a delegate.

Work related experiences—teachers working during the summer at a job related to their field of instruction whereby they can obtain helpful information.

Supervision of student teachers—teachers given the responsibility of supervising the activities of student teachers brought into the system.

Teacher orientation activities—specifically designed to orient inexperienced teachers, or to acquaint experienced teachers with new procedures, and thereby improve instruction.

Teacher self-evaluation--utilization of a check list, or similar device, whereby the teacher can privately, or in a group, evaluate his own teaching.

Travel--travel of such a nature that the teacher can obtain information and ideas that will help him in his instruction.

Workshops--usually short term intensive activities in which a formally organized group works on specific problems in a specific area of instruction or service for the pupil.

Preparation and evaluation of instructional materials--activities by a formal, select group interested in a specific area of instruction. Usually of longer duration than a workshop and involves fewer people.

Supervisory program--visitation or consultation with a teacher by a person specifically trained in supervision of instruction. Activities may be initiated by either the supervisor or the teacher.

APPENDIX B

"THE CALIFORNIA STATEMENT OF TEACHING COMPETENCE"

The competent teacher:

1. Provides for the learning students.
    1.1 Uses psychological principles of learning.
        1.11 Uses effective an continuing motivation.
            1.111 Recognizes and makes use of the interests, abilities, and needs of the students.
            1.112 Uses the experiences of the students and draws upon life situations and the interests inherent in subject matter.
        1.12 Provides varied learning experiences.
        1.13 Uses a variety of teaching procedures, such as discussion, review, etc, effectively.
        1.14 Plans cooperatively with students.
    1.2 Uses principles of child growth and development in learning situations.
        1.21 Provides for differentiated activities and assignments to meet the needs and abilities of the students.
        1.22 Knows the health (mental and physical) status of his students and adapts activities to their needs.
    1.3 Maintains an atmosphere in the classroom that is conducive to learning and is marked by a sense of balance between freedom and security.
        1.31 Maintains an effective working situation.
        1.32 Helps students increasingly to assume leadership and responsibility.
        1.33 Provides opportunities for students to cooperate and to exercise leadership in activities of large and small groups.
        1.34 Provides opportunities for expression of independent and critical thoughts with emphasis on freedom of expression and openmindedness.
    1.4 Plans effectively.
        1.41 Aids the studnets to define worthwhile objectives for large units, daily class work, and special class activities.
        1.42 Organizes his teaching well by choosing wisely learning experiences, subject matter content, and materials of instruction.
        1.43 Selects and uses a wide variety of materials of instruction (eg. books, phamplets, films, bulletinboards......).
        1.44 Uses resources of the school library and the community.
    1.5 Uses varied teaching procedures.
        1.51 Uses teaching procedures (such as group reporting, discussion, planning with pupils) designed to achieve desired purposes in teaching.
        1.52 Builds effectively upon the students participation in class activities.
        1.53 Develops study skill of students.
        1.54 Stimulates creative activities of students.
        1.55 Aids the students to evaluate their own achievements.
    1.6 Uses diagnostic and remedial procedures effectively.
        1.61 Is familiar with common diagnostic tests in his own and related fields.
        1.62 Constructs, administers, and interprets diagnostic tests.
        1.63 Uses othe appropriate diagnostic procedures.
        1.64 Plans and uses remedial procedures.
    1.7 Uses adequate procedures for evaluating the achievement of students.
        1.71 Uses informal evaluation procedures (anecdotal record, interview, questionaire) for collecting and interpreting needed information.

       1.72 Uses standard achievement tests.
           1.721 Is familiar with the more common ones in his field.
           1.722 Selects, administers, and interprets the results of
               tests and uses them in planning.
       1.73 Uses teacher made tests.
           1.731 Constructs appropriate tests skillfully.
           1.732 Interprets the results and uses them in planning.
       1.74 Keeps accurate and adequate records, eg. case studies, cummu-
          lative records.
       1.75 Makes effective reports to students and parents concerning the
          progress of the students in their growth.
    1.8 Manages the class effectively.
       1.81 Plans satisfactory routine for handling of materials, equip-
          ment, and supplies.
       1.82 Uses own and pupil's time effectively.
       1.83 Is attentive to the physical well being of students in such
          matters as heating, lighting, venelation, and seating.

2. Counsels and guides students wisely.
    2.1 Uses sound psychological principles concerning the growth and develop-
      ment of children in guiding individuals and groups.
       2.11 Maintains objectivity when dealing with behavior that is agress-
          ive and abnormal.
       2.12 Is sympathetic with and sensitive to students' personal and
          social problems as well as their academic needs.
       2.13 Makes adjustments in the curriculum and other requirements
          in light of pupils' needs.
       2.14 Secures sufficient rapport with students so they come to him.
    2.2 Maintains effective relationships with parents.
       2.21 Explains the needs, abilities, interests, and problems of
          the student to their parents.
       2.22 Obtains cooperation from parents in helping students with
          their problems.
    2.3 Collects and uses significant counseling data.
       2.31 Administers aptitude tests and intelligence tests.
       2.32 Interprets the results of such tests.
       2.33 Uses results collected in counseling with students.
       2.34 Keeps research suitable for guidance.
    2.4 Uses suitable counseling procedures.
    2.5 Maintains appropriate relations with guidance specialists, recognizing
      their role, and the limitations of his own skill and abilities.

3. Aids students to understand and appreciate our cultural heritage.
    3.1 Organizes the classroom for effective democratic living.
    3.2 Directs individuals and groups to significant life applications of
      classroom learnings.
       3.21 Uses subject fields to develop understanding of social, economic,
          and political problems.
       3.22 Develops an understanding of wide significance of various
          fields of subject matter.
    3.3 Draws on his own background of experiences to elicit the cultural
      growth of individuals and groups.
    3.4 Helps students to know and to apply in their daily lives the demo-
      cratic principles which are rooted deep in our historical development.

4. Participates effectively in the activities of the school.
   4.1 Plans cooperatively the means of achieving educational objectives.
      4.11 Shares effectively in curricular revision and is able to evaluate progress toward attaining educational objectives.
         4.111 Defines objectives clearly.
         4.112 Collects data efficiently and draws appropriate conclusions from them.
         4.113 Employs appropriate remedial procedures.
   4.2 Assumes his share of the responsibility for school activities.
      4.21 Carries out effectively the administrative responsibilities designated to him.
      4.22 Participate in planning and administering extra-curricular activities.
   4.3 Maintains harmonious personal relations with his colleagues.

5. Assists in maintaining good relations between the school and the rest of the community.
   5.1 Acquaints himself with available community resources and uses them in classroom activities.
   5.2 Obtains the cooperation of parents in school activities.
   5.3 Aids in defining and solving community problems.
      5.31 Helps in defining community problems and in developing awareness of them in students and parents.
      5.32 Draws on available and appropriate resources within the school in attacking community problems.
   5.4 Takes part in community affairs and projects.
   5.5 Observes professional ethics in discussing school problems, particularly with lay personnel.

6. Works on a professional level.
   6.1 Gives evidence of the social importance of the profession to parents, students, and other members of the profession.
   6.2 Adheres to a prpfessional code of ethics.
   6.3 Contributes to the profession by membership in professional organizations and participation in their activities.
   6.4 Assumes responsibility for his own professional growth by planning an appropriate program for professional betterment.
   6.5 Aids in supervising student teachers and in the orientation and induction of beginning teachers.

APPENDIX C

ADEQUACY OF TRAINING OF OREGON TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRA-
TORS AND, TYPES OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING ACTIVI-
TIES BEST FOR IMPROVING COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCIES	Percent who believe							
	their training adequate	their training limited	courses are	work conferences are	supervision is	faculty meetings are	visiting is	travel is
			the best way to improve competency					
General methods of teaching	82	10	27	31	8	6	20	18
Command of subject matter	82	9	39	15	3	2	6	19
Directing pupil participation in planning their work	61	28	18	27	10	4	12	2
Using audio-visual materials and equipment	41	46	31	21	10	3	5	3
Using newer type reference materials	52	36	25	25	6	3	5	2
Using newer techniques of teaching	58	30	30	27	9	4	13	3
Participation in guidance activities	41	41	26	23	8	9	8	2
Directing pupil evaluation	52	34	20	21	7	8	6	1
Supervising extra-curricular activities	57	31	15	17	7	6	8	4
Preparing lesson plans, units, courses, etc.	72	17	19	18	9	4	4	2
Working with parents and laymen	59	29	7	13	3	6	19	4
Working with colleagues and administrators	78	11	3	12	4	22	7	2
Contributing to general morale and supporting ethics	82	7	5	11	4	13	7	7
Averages	63	25	20	20	7	7	9	5