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Chapter 1 of this book, "Stimulating Educational Change Through Inservice Teacher Education," deals first with the conditions, the elements receptive to, and the mechanics of change, and then discusses the cooperative responsibilities of colleges, state departments of education, professional organizations, and local school districts for inservice education programs. Chapter 2, "The Curriculum for Inservice Teacher Education," includes discussion of the curriculum purposes, content, instructional materials, organizational structure, and methods. Chapter 3, "The Function of Leadership," relates inservice education leadership tasks to specific job positions in discussing the responsibilities of various agencies and institutions involved. Chapter 4, "Initiating and Operating Programs of Inservice Teacher Education," includes sections on conditions indicating the need for inservice education, program initiation within a school, discovery of a point of departure, use of resources, development of an organizational structure, evaluation of progress, and coordination with district-wide programs. (JS)

In-Service Teacher Education: Crucial Process In Educational Change

By

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

This publication is a major revision of an earlier Bureau of School Service Bulletin, "In-Service Teacher Education: a Conceptual Framework," (Volume XXXIV, Number 2, December, 1963). Several additional ideas and, hopefully, meaningful suggestions have been included to make this revised edition more comprehensive. While the 1963 bulletin dealt indirectly with in-service teacher education as a primary process in the inducement of educational change, yet focused more directly on the task of enunciating a theory of in-service education, this publication tries to relate more directly to the utilization of in-service education to promote such change.

Though we are quite aware that in-service teacher education is only one avenue whereby needed educational change can be made, we are, nevertheless, even more convinced that this is a crucial and necessary process for sustaining change. Likewise, we are thoroughly convinced that while pre-service staff preparation is essential, in-service, continuing preparation has even greater potential for bringing about the kinds of innovations so sorely needed in our schools and accomplishing this feat with increasing acceleration.

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CHAPTER I

STIMULATING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE THROUGH IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

The pressures for educational change have grown to immense and demanding proportions during the past decade. Perhaps the abiding faith that Americans have in education as the most promising avenue toward the attainment of the "Great Society" has engendered most of these pressures. Education has suddenly become the most talked about need in our contemporary culture. Everywhere people are awakening to the fact that the development and maintenance of a highly mechanized, automated, and complex society depends largely upon the extent, character, and efficiency of education. For the first time in our history schools have begun to receive the attention and recognition so necessary if they are to become primary agents of social, political, and economic change. Because of this awakening, people are willing to support the enactment of local, state, and Federal legislation promulgated to channel financial assistance toward the improvement of education. The National Defense Education Acts, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and the Higher Education Act of 1965, are evidence of this support at the national level.

Obviously, the schools of America face an unprecedented challenge. The era of revolutionary change has arrived. The maelstrom of new ideas, new instructional methods, and new instructional materials has squarely challenged the school to adapt to these conditions or relinquish its claim as the principal educative institution of our society. If it cannot provide compensatory education for disadvantaged students, then a Head Start type program will surely take over the task. If it cannot provide exploratory vocational opportunities for students, then various kinds of youth-work programs will be developed and operated outside the jurisdiction of the school. Education will proceed; the school may or may not be the avenue for it.

Of course, there is a mounting concern among school authorities about the current revolutionary situation with regard to education. This concern has manifested itself in educational literature with exhortations to change, and with suggested techniques for change. The tempo of research related to the inducement of change has been accelerated. Experimentation has increased in an attempt to

find more efficacious ways of using old programs and for developing new programs. The assistance of sociologists, political scientists, psychologists, and representatives of other behavioral science disciplines has been solicited.

There are many questions facing school authorities as they prepare to accelerate change in school programing and thus meet this omnipresent challenge. What elements of the school program are in need of change? Which of these elements are the most receptive to change? What processes are conducive to initiating change efforts? What "conditioners" affect efforts for effecting change? Whose responsibility is it to stimulate and implement change?

Obviously, there are many ways to go about the task of changing school programs to meet current needs and demands. It is the purpose of this publication to place some of these ways into proper perspective and to focus finally upon one way, in-service teacher education. However, before we can examine the elements and processes of educational change, we must have more than a vague concept of the function of the schools as an educational institution in our society.

What, then, is the place of the school in education? Obviously, the scope of American education is much broader and more comprehensive than just the aggregate of school programs. The education of an individual occurs via many avenues, most of which are relatively unplanned paths whereon the person walks as he experiences the adventure of living. He may or may not at the time be completely aware that he is undergoing educating experiences, and these experiences may or may not have any lasting or useful effect upon his behavior or understanding. Such education is a constant phenomenon; nothing can prevent it; however, chance plays a major role in determining the scope and quality of this broad form of education.

The school evolved as an institution wherein programs for the education of youth could be planned, reducing the chance factor as much as human ingenuity could effect. This planned learning environment, however, remains subject to the direction and support of a changing society. If society changes at a pace greater than that of the school, the school can only fail to meet its full function of service to that society. If by some chance the school were able to move ahead of its society, then that society would either have to adjust to this role or exert pressure to cause the school to retreat to its more traditional function.

Traditionally, the school has lagged behind the technological developments of society. For example, science education in the

schools had little to do with the emergence of the "scientific age." Research, both governmental and private, produced the stimulation for such advancement, and the school program trailed along with educational programing. Unfortunately, this sequence of development keeps the school program in a secondary position to reality and prevents it from ever providing the leadership for the initiation of societal movements.

The school, as an instrument of society, cannot forever remain in a fixed position far to the rear of the educational frontier. If this situation remains too long, another inroad cannot help but be made into the function of the school itself. If the school cannot lead, then other institutions will. If the school will not provide the kind of education needed in our society, then other agencies will take over the task. Thus if a school is to attempt to bring about educational innovations, it must be attuned to its society, must recognize the directions in which change is immediately possible, and must constantly be in a state of dynamic interaction with its society so that it will be supported in those changes for which there is a state of readiness and in addition have *entree* with which to build additional readiness conditions for changes which are presently impossible.

The Conditioners of Change

All school programs are undergoing change, yet the rate, processes, and direction of such change must be examined before any value judgment can be made concerning the wisdom or potential productivity of that change. The rate may be of such a slow nature that the changes which result are out of date before they can make any vital contribution to the educational program. Or, on the other hand, the rate may be so accelerated that too many changes occur for assimilation and persistence. Likewise, though the rate of change may be optimum, the processes whereby the changes are attained may be in violation of those democratic precepts and the respect for human dignity and worth which provide the backbone of our society.

The direction of change must also be scrutinized. Nazi Germany produced change in the education of its youth at a rapid rate; the direction of such change, however, was toward objectives which were not in keeping with the objectives we hold as desirable. Nor were the processes they used in keeping with the processes which are applicable in a democracy.

In view of the dynamic nature of our society, one may reasonably raise some questions concerning why it is that the rate of change in some school programs is so lethargic, while programs in other schools

are undergoing very rapid change. Perhaps, some answers can be found by examining the "conditioners" which surround a school and either facilitate change or impede it.

Helping to determine the relative position of school programs in relationship to change are two sets of forces and pressures: those that converge upon the school from external sources, or centripetal; and those that build up internally in the school, or centrifugal.

Centripetal Forces and Pressures

Centripetal forces have played an important role in molding the school into the institution we know today. One has but to examine the history of the introduction of several areas of the school curriculum, vocational education for instance, to recognize that society has tended to dictate much of what is presently being taught. The current controversy concerning prayer in the public schools came about as a result of centripetal pressure impinging upon the practices of the school. Left to the school, it is doubtful that this issue would have arisen.

Essentially, the centripetal pressures come about as a reflection of society's desire to control the functioning of the school. There is, of course, a necessity for the continuance of these external forces, whether they be wholesome in nature or nuisances. Their presence insures opportunities for greater cooperation and communication between employer and employee, between lay citizen and professional teacher.

These external pressures are displayed in various forms. They may show themselves as pressure groups insisting that the entire school program be focused upon the "three R's," or by groups demanding that greater emphasis be given to phonics in the reading program. They may be represented by one lone citizen seeking to have his own special idea become a part of the curriculum or protesting the lack of special attention being given to his son or daughter. Or they may be personified in the form of an organized group asking for permission to make an award to students for patriotism.

Perhaps the greatest centripetal force affecting change in the school today is the Federal government. The recent national legislation, particularly the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and its predecessor, the National Defence Education Act of 1958 (and subsequent amendments), have begun to stimulate educational change through the lure of cooperative financing of local educational efforts. The original NDEA programs called for local districts to match Federal funds to improve the curriculum areas of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. It is a well-

known fact that some school districts diverted matching funds from curriculum areas which were in greater need of improvement simply to secure funds from the Federal sources. The priority of local need was ignored because of the external pressure of financial opportunity.

Private foundations, too, have exerted great pressures upon the public school curriculum by financing research and development projects which coincided with the foundations' special areas of interest.

This is not meant to deprecate the interest and support tendered by the Federal government or foundations toward inducing curriculum change. Quite the contrary; these efforts have generally been received with gratitude by most educators. It is, however, meant to show that local determination of educational need is subject to considerable inhibitory influences, thus forcing local school officials to plan local curriculum changes in terms of conditioners invading the local scene from without.

The public schools are political units of government and are subject to the spectrum of restrictions and regulations which parent units of government prescribe. Regulations governing the length of the school day, the required curriculum, personnel employment and management policies, textbook and materials selection, state financing of local schools, *ad infinitum*, reflect these centripetal forces at work to condition the kind, amount, and rate of change in such local schools.

Centrifugal Forces and Pressures

The internal pressures which are generated and expand within a school may be called centrifugal forces. As the staff of a school work in an atmosphere wherein they daily see growing numbers of students, greater need for individualizing instruction, the lack of sufficient or pertinent instructional materials, or the inadequacy of space required for modern instructional programs, they may become agents of centrifugal forces and seek or even demand that these conditions be improved. The recent action of the National Education Association in applying "sanctions" against school districts illustrates centrifugal forces at work.

Teachers have often taken leadership in urging higher school tax levies for the support of the public schools. This action has not always been motivated by a selfish desire for higher salaries but frequently has been caused by what the teachers themselves would call a greater perception of need than envisioned by the general populace.

Teachers, as centrifugal forces, have been stimulating educational

change ever since that mythical, indomitable teacher first admitted that "I must find a way to improve my teaching," or perhaps, "I must have more books with which to teach." The innumerable efforts for instructional improvement and curriculum development which have characterized the teaching profession clearly illustrate the power and influence such internally generated forces have rendered to the schools of America.

Psychological Conditioners

Educational change generally connotes human change. The crucial factor in the utilization of new facilities, new materials, or new curricula is the person or persons who direct the use of these elements. Therefore, any consideration of educational change must include the effects that change has upon the human individual.

The human organism seems to be inhabited by a consuming need to protect itself from certain types of external invasion. In effect, each of us erects a fence around himself with appropriate gates to permit *entrée* of those ideas, people, or actions which will not endanger the psychological equilibrium we are determined to maintain. Each has a perception of the kinds of invading forces he can withstand, and these forces are permitted to enter by way of carefully guarded gates. Each, likewise, has his own construct of the kinds of forces which offer threat if permitted to breach the protective fences and will resist the invasion of such forces.

Of course, the erection of psychological fences serves to provide stability for the individual so that he can function without disorientation and disruption from external forces. However, it also serves as a barrier to those influences which may change the structure within those fences or prevent the placement of more gates within them. In a sense, the growth of the individual depends upon encroaching external forces.

When an individual becomes a part of an organization, he gives up certain rights as an individual. For example, when a teacher is employed, he is, in effect, agreeing to accept the purposes of that school organization and work toward them. Psychologically, this may mean some readjustment of the fences of that teacher; he may have to accommodate himself to seeking the attainment of purposes which lie outside his perceptual framework. His success as a teacher in this situation may depend upon his willingness to change. Of course he may resist, at least to some degree; this is to be expected. He may close his classroom door—which to him may represent a gate to himself—as a warning to all outside that what is taking place inside is the business of those behind this fence.

Some trepidation in joining an organization is a normal feeling. Most people seem to realize that personal adaptations will have to be made so that the individual can function as a part of an organization. Most such adaptations are accomplished with a minimum of effort; however, some are resisted with evident fear. If the person is merely joining a group which sponsors an informal bridge game on Thursday evenings, the adaptation may be easily made. It is relatively easy for a person to refrain from scheduling himself for anything else on Thursday evenings. However, if that person, as a member of a school organization, is asked to teach reading to a group of high school students and his preparational background has not included the teaching of reading, he may have severe problems in making this adjustment.

Each person has his own perception of himself, his strengths and his weaknesses. Typically, he is likely to feel comfortable when he can display his strengths and hide his weaknesses. In other words, there are many gates in his psychological fence surrounding what he perceives as his best points; just as there are few gates leading inwardly to those aspects he sees as his worst features. He may be vulnerable to invasion and change in the way he performs on the athletic field because he perceives himself as a good athlete; he may resist any effort to get him to change his method of student evaluation simply because he feels that his present method lacks any firm basis. To the former invasion he may say "Yes, I believe that if you can help me I can perform even better." To the latter effort he may cover up with "I just don't see any need for changing my grading procedure."

Likewise, each person has his own perceptions of other people. Some of his colleagues he may envision as offering no threat to himself; others will appear to be battering at his psychological fences with threatening implications. Of course, it is quite evident that the quality and scope of educational improvement is dependent to a considerable extent upon the quality of the cooperative effort exerted by many people. This means that the psychological barriers which exist between and among individuals must be reduced or removed if such persons are to constitute an effective team producing concerted effort toward effecting change.

Leadership

Another conditioner of educational change is the quality of leadership within the school organization. The term *leadership* must be personified, for people occupy the positions which are assigned the responsibilities of providing leadership. Too often we are prone to

think of the status positions within an organization rather than consider the individuals who fill such positions. A principal, however, is a person first and an official second. Anything he does as a principal is subservient to his individuality as a person. No one can rise above or perform better than his humanness will permit.

When viewed in this perspective, a school leader becomes an important conditioner of change. The composite psychological and physiological factors which are a part of and indeed which constitute the individual school leader are crucial in determining whether or not that individual can or will provide the quality of leadership which will stimulate, elicit, and support change.

It has often been said that a school can never rise above the level of leadership provided by its leaders. Perhaps this is true. At least it would be extremely difficult for a school staff to provide a quality program of education in the absence of adequate leadership.

What qualities are necessary for the adequate functioning of an individual in a position of school leadership? Recent research and experimentation concerning this question has revealed several interesting and provocative replies. Many studies have indicated that the efficient functioning person is one who has a high regard for himself as an individual, perceives other persons as having great worth, and considers that he is of equal value with his colleagues. Such a perception seems to imply that the school leader who is effective in promoting change has a strong belief that people basically want to perform at significantly higher levels and that he believes he has insights and competencies which will free them from their restraints and enable them to accomplish their goal.

Elements Receptive to Change

The elements of the school program which are receptive to change fall into certain broad categories. A school staff seeking to initiate changes should not only be aware of what can and cannot be changed, but should also be able to arrange these into some semblance of priority. Without *a priori* efforts, the changes initiated may have little effect upon the quality of the total program.

Generally, the elements of the school program which can be changed are (1) the purposes of the school; (2) the physical environment; (3) the quality and quantity of instructional materials; (4) the "content" of the curriculum; (5) the organizational framework of the school; and (6) the performance and behavior of the professional staff.

The Purposes of the School

Because the school is an organization with purposes for existence, it, therefore, functions within a framework designed to help it move toward these purposes. From time to time, these purposes should be reviewed in the light of existing environmental conditions and in terms of accomplishments. Change can only be projected if a new direction for effort is envisioned. Goals or purposes are in reality guidelines for directed effort.

Fundamental changes in the purpose structure of a school are not easily nor simply brought about. Purposes are not left to the whim or desire of the professional staff, but are in large part subject to the will of the larger community and society. A staff, for example, cannot suddenly decide to change a school's purposes without consulting, involving, and working closely with the community, which in the last analysis controls the entire functioning of that school. The implementation of processes to seek the attainment of the purposes may reside more with the professional staff than with the community; however, even this area needs close cooperation and communication.

This element of the school program—the purposes for which the school is operated—is subject to change. Perhaps the evolutionary changes which have occurred in terms of the purposes of the school have been the most insidious as they occurred, yet in retrospect the most obvious of all changes. Occasionally, however, shifts in purposes have taken place with such speed that they have been immediately recognized. The current redirected emphasis upon science education is a case in point.

Purposes are subject to change both through the evolutionary process and through conscious, revolutionary processes. The former will occur with the passage of time; the latter only with some destruction of community and societal traditions.

The Physical Environment

The upsurge of classroom construction since World War II illustrates the changes which can result in this element of the school program. The comfort of students is not the only compelling reason for this construction; the primary cause for such a tremendous investment of monies is the hypothesized results expected from the changed programs that can be housed in such new buildings. Recent experimentation in television instruction, large-group teaching, and team teaching arrangements may call for different kinds of space

requirements. The current focus of interest in science education calls for buildings and physical facilities of a particular sort.

This element of the school program is peculiarly receptive to change. Crowded classrooms and less than appropriate learning conditions are easily identifiable. The stimulation for change, in this instance, may come from both lay and professional sources.

The Quantity and Quality of Instructional Materials

This element of the school program has been particularly vulnerable to change. An important factor in the methodology of instruction, the materials of the curriculum provide balance and coordination in teaching and often are the primary source of a curriculum. Even a "child-centered" curriculum must have available the appropriate learning materials; and in those instances in which the "subject" is the focus, they are the heart of the program.

Spurred by such influences as the American Library Association, schools have sought to improve their supply of pertinent books, magazines, et cetera. Encouraged by the National Defense Act of 1958 and subsequent legislation, there has been a tremendous volume of science, mathematics, and foreign language materials channeled into our schools. Many teachers consider an adequate amount of such materials the "holy grail" and go to great effort and sometimes personal expense to keep up the quest.

The Organizational Framework

Organization, or how the school program is structured, has been relatively resistant to rapid change. Except for the past decade, the patterns of school organization which were operative in the 1930's have been continued even in the face of much criticism. The "graded" American school came into full flower about the turn of the century and is the outstanding characteristic of school organization today. Since the middle of the 1950's, powerful influences have been at work trying to modify this pattern.

Presently many schools are attempting to improve their organizational structure. There have been numerous instances where ungraded, or non-graded, elementary schools have been organized. Likewise, the utilization of teachers in instructional "teams" has become rather commonplace. Lengthening the school day or year, extending the traditional twelve-year program into two additional years, employing more and more instructional supervisors, shifting the function of the principal toward greater involvement in supervision, and strengthening the place of the junior high school in the

pattern of organization are illustrations of attempts to change the organization of the school.

Many of these efforts, however, require the close cooperation of those forces external to the school itself and, therefore, encounter difficulties which serve as a braking effect upon them. For example, if a school desires to lengthen the school day for children, many factors are involved: the effect upon parents, the availability of supporting finances, transportation difficulties, and the community's tenacity about tradition.

Other efforts, such as shifting the function of the principal toward supervision, can be accomplished within the school family and, thus, may find less resistance.

The "Content" of the Curriculum

External forces are always at work trying to change the content of the school curriculum. For example, the great interest in the "space age" has resulted in many suggestions for additions to the curriculum. Science in the elementary school, except for informal and erratic efforts, was almost non-existant until this surge of interest. The mathematics program had remained virtually unchanged for decades until external forces converged upon those responsible for school programing. Foreign languages were consigned almost entirely to the high school until the coming of the space age.

Within the school itself there are constant efforts to rearrange or reconstruct the curriculum. Reading instruction, for instance, has received much attention at the high school level where formerly it was assigned to the elementary school. Curriculum guides in social studies, English, and other curricular areas have been written and used by teachers in an attempt to have a more appropriate curriculum for boys and girls.

The content of the curriculum is an element of the school which is very receptive to modification and change. As long as such effort is confined to the subject to be taught, this receptivity is apparent. When the effort begins to move toward improving the competency of the teacher to teach the subject, the receptivity is lessened.

The Performance and Behavior of the Teacher

The resistance to or encouragement of change related to this element of school program improvement is very much a situational matter. In retrospect, there has been considerable encouragement for teachers to improve themselves professionally, salary increments for additional college study being an important factor. Much of this encouragement, however, has come from licensing and accreditation

agencies such as state departments of education or regional associations; just as much of it has been implemented through colleges and graduate schools and has been characterized quantitatively—such as number of college hours, college degrees, diplomas, and the like.

This is not to imply that school personnel have not sought to improve their performance qualitatively or through techniques exclusive of college or salary influences. The workshops, faculty meetings, professional libraries, study groups, and evaluation efforts reflect the desires of a profession to improve its quality of service.

Change can be induced in this element of the school program. The direction of such desired change and the structure to bring it about have not received adequate study or experimentation. In the last analysis, however, the teacher is the element that supersedes all others in the making of a stronger school program. Purposes, building facilities, materials, organization, and curriculum content are but tools waiting for someone to manage them. Even their improvement or change depends upon the performance and behavior of the teacher.

The Mechanics of Change

Educational change is fundamentally dependent upon change in people's attitudes, understandings, skills, and behavior. The changes which occur in terms of buildings, instructional materials, school organization, curriculum content, operational processes, and school purposes are in reality but manifestations of change in the persons responsible for these elements of programing. People see the need for better or more appropriate buildings, so they provide them. Teachers learn more about curriculum needs, so changes are made in the curriculum. Thus the process of change becomes cyclic; as greater insight or competency is acquired by teachers, changes in the school program become possible; as changes in the school program are made, teachers are stimulated into gaining greater insight and competency. Thus, changes in either personnel or program are interdependent one upon the other.

A school program, however, is subject to change through the injection of new personnel who already possess the competency to implement the desired change. Those schools in which there is a large turnover of personnel, or new schools to be staffed, through careful selection can provide programs of a predetermined nature. This is theoretically possible; however, the availability of the appropriate personnel affects the success of this technique of program development.

The process of change which takes place in people may be in-

terpreted as "learning." The process of facilitating learning may be called "teaching." Therefore, if a school program is to be improved through improving the competency of a staff, "teaching" and "learning" will have to be present. When these two factors are combined to provide growth for teachers, administrators, supervisors, and other school personnel, the resultant process is called "in-service teacher education."

The mechanics of producing educational change, then, are greatly dependent upon those processes which comprise in-service teacher education. There is strong reason to assume that fundamental educational change will occur only as a consequence of personal growth on the part of those involved in the educational enterprise. Personal growth may be generalized to mean that the individual experiences learning opportunities which help him meet his present needs, extend his horizons, and help him prepare himself to fulfill his function in bringing about future educational change.

In-service education implies that "teaching" as well as "learning" will be somehow involved. Teaching is the act of speeding up the processes of learning and bringing focus to the "content" to be learned. Therefore, "teaching" and "learning" are fundamental and crucial factors in the mechanics of educational change.

It is assumed, then, that fundamental educational change—improvement—will occur as a consequence of personal growth on the part of those involved in the educational enterprise. But this is to generalize unduly, unless, of course, "personal growth" is interpreted to mean that the individual, teacher and administrator, experiences learning opportunities which are predicated on the basis of personal need. An occasional speech by some authority, an infrequent teachers' meeting—these do not constitute planned learning opportunities.

The mechanics of bringing about educational improvement must rely heavily upon what is known about "learning." We know, for example, that the best point of departure for engaging a person in growth experiences is by first finding out what the particular related interests are of that individual. Difficult indeed is the task of trying to involve the typical high school mathematics teacher in a continuing study of how best to teach reading. However, if that teacher has discovered the excitement of watching a young student progress in mathematics simply because he has finally learned to read his mathematics problems, then perhaps this latent "interest" can be made to bear the task of propelling that teacher into giving of himself so that he will be able to help his students learn to read when this is their difficulty.

A second fact we know about the facilitation of learning is that

a person's perceptions have much to say about how he behaves. It is easily recognized that a major difficulty in teaching lies in the differential manner in which the teacher and the student perceive themselves, their roles in the teaching/learning situation, and the perceptions they hold about other people. The agreement or alignment of perceptions between the teacher and the student seems unnecessary for the development of an optimum learning situation; however, there seems to be a rather high correlation between effective learning and the *understanding* each participant has of his own and other people's perceptions. In other words, while it may not be essential, or even possible, for the participants in a learning situation to synchronize their perceptions, it is quite necessary that they understand themselves and others with whom they are participating.

The traditional manner in which groups of teachers are brought together for in-service educational experiences almost precludes the development of adequate perceptual understanding. A once-a-month faculty meeting, an infrequent conference, or sporadic attempts toward decision-making do not provide either the setting or the stimulus for this kind of endeavor. When these methods prove to be inadequate even for the purposes for which they were designed, discouragement and an even wider differential of perception is usually the end result. What is needed instead is a well-planned series of related experiencs, each building to and thus becoming a part of the other, and sufficient time and interaction to permit the participants to get to understand themselves and others.

Such experiences should be "student-centered" whenever possible. In the case of in-service teacher education, these will usually begin as "job-centered" efforts. However, there need not be a dichotomy between these two foci providing the "teacher," or leader, has the understanding of what needs to be done and the skill of doing his part toward that objective. The assertion that "Some of my students are having difficulty in reading" can eventually be turned to "What can I do to help some of my students learn to read better?" and ultimately to "What skills in the teaching of reading do I need to acquire?"

A third aspect of the mechanics of educational change relates to the processes which can be expeditiously employed. If an instructional goal is to be sought, and this necessitates in-service teacher education, the leadership is faced with the question of in-service educational programing to attain that goal. The nature of the goal, and the situational factors which condition the attack upon it, will help to govern the decisions in response to this question. Basically, however, the leadership will have to respond to such sub-questions

as: What is the most thorough and expeditious way of arranging for this effort? Can this best be accomplished by having individual teachers pursue it, or should some grouping of the various individuals who are concerned be employed? The answers to these and related questions are not easily available, nor are they simple.

Of course, educational change may not necessarily occur simply because teachers or others in positions of leadership grow professionally. The school, after all, is a social institution with an internal organization possessing built-in characteristics that tend to resist or retard change. This is a "permanent" organization; *i. e.,* it is expected to endure for a considerable period of time. The anticipation of outputs that require lengthy and deliberate production efforts, coupled with the tenured employment of persons to fill positions of responsibility in attaining these outputs, require that the organization possess a high degree of permanence. Any proposed fundamental change offers some threat to the continued existence of the organization and to the production of pre-determined outputs. Ironically, however, this characteristic of permanence which is so vital for the existence of the organization also insidiously serves to protect the organization from adaptation and change which in the long run might increase the quantity or quality of the organization's outputs.

Most permanent organizations can accommodate slow, evolutionary change without disruption, chaos, and confusion. Radical or revolutionary change, if attempted at all, usually results in reducing temporarily the efficiency and productivity of any organization.

Even if the school were to attempt to operate as a fluid, "impermanent," organization, these efforts would probably be thwarted by the other societal organizations which impinge upon or are related to the school. School administrators will bear testimony that a community not only must be able to understand the school but also must have a voice in developing or agreeing to changes within the school. Perhaps the most difficult task for most administrators is maintaining effective channels of communication between the school and its related societal organizations.

Teacher Education In Service A Cooperative Responsibility

Teacher education in-service is the cooperative responsibility of the colleges which prepare teachers pre-service, the state departments of education which provide leadership for state-wide instructional improvement, various professional organizations whose purposes include the professional improvement of its members, and the local

school districts which employ teachers and which actually provide instructional programs for children.

To this point the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards has stated: "In-Service Growth is that growth which takes place after the teacher is on the job. It is a continuation of the professional development which was begun during the pre-service period of preparation. In-service education is a process inherent in any planned program designed to make the individual a more effective teacher. This type of education should be an integral part of any school program.

"A cooperative plan for the professional growth of teachers in service includes all of the education personnel in a given school situation—teachers, superintendents, principals, supervisors, special service staff, and staff members of colleges and state departments of education."[1]

There is today a real urgency which demands that we re-focus our attention to the totality of teacher education, plan more wisely in terms of the most appropriate experiences to be offered in both the pre- and in-service phases, and coordinate our efforts more diligently to promote the continuous development of teachers from the time of their entrance into pre-service programs until they retire at the end of their professional careers. Such a re-focus, of course, will necessitate considerable adjustment and modification of our present teacher education programs.

No longer can teacher education be relegated entirely to the colleges and their efforts in the pre-service phase of a teacher's growth. Rather, the employing school district, because of its direct responsibility for instructional programs for children, must assume the primary role in planning and programing the in-service period of a teacher's growth. Perhaps, inadvertently, we have in the past attempted to accomplish more in the pre-service phase than is feasible or practical because of the prevalent notion that little can or will be done once the teacher has begun to practice. Perhaps we have also attempted to develop the pre-service aspects in some directions which can best be pursued once the teacher is functioning in a real, live situation with children. At least there is a need for a cooperative examination of the whole area. Let us then turn our attention to some of the unique advantages available to these various agencies which already have responsibilities for teacher education and which might develop effective cooperative roles in teacher education in service.

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[1] *The Teaching Profession Grows In Service*, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1949, page 9.

Colleges

The colleges' pre-service preparation programs operate with several distinct advantages. (1) They have the advantage of being first in line in the selection and screening process by which the prospective teacher is admitted to preparation programs. The teacher supply and demand being what it is—and what it is likely to remain for many years—the school system must be satisfied with having to make choices from the persons who have already been screened, prepared in pre-service programs, and licensed for practice. (2) They have the advantage of having relatively large blocks of the prospective teacher's time available for study in depth. The school system employs the person to teach, with personal growth experiences being provided only to help him fulfill this function. Therefore, time itself becomes a crucial factor in developing in-service education programs in school systems. (3) At present the colleges have the obvious advantage of having already accumulated the minimum essentials for teacher education: a staff prepared for effort in the various areas of specialization so necessary in teacher education, specially designed buildings and physical facilities, and a rather long background of history which permits them to function securely in the face of known expectancies.

State Departments of Education

State departments of education likewise have a major function in teacher education in service. Though most are already providing leadership for the coordination of pre-service programs, and most are attempting to promote assistance to local school systems for instructional improvement, the great need is for them to provide coordinating leadership for the growth and development of teacher education programs at *both* pre- and in-service levels. A state department of education has the distinct advantage of having a legal, as well as a strategic, relationship to both the college and the school system, and so situated can provide strong leadership for the coordination of what both do in in-service teacher education.

Professional Organizations

Many professional organizations accept, as part of their purposes, responsibility for the in-service education of their membership, though this purpose may be couched in terms of the "improvement of instruction." The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development is a case in point. This organization actively promotes in-service education both among its membership and generally throughout the profession. For example, the Kentucky branch of ASCD has for the past several years stated as one of its pur-

poses: "To provide leadership development opportunities for persons throughout the state, regardless of membership in ASCD."

Local School Districts

The school system also has some rather pronounced advantages in developing and implementing programs of teacher education (1) Whereas most pre-service experiences of prospective teachers must be simulated and/or theoretical, the school system can provide a real laboratory for learning opportunities for teachers. The scope of real problems, concerns, and needs of a school system negates the necessity for simulation in these areas. (2) The school system has the advantage of being in a better position than colleges for integration of educational theory and practice. A profession that must necessarily be dynamic and changing, teaching can never rely entirely upon what is "tried and true" but must be constantly moving out in new directions, with processes, into new frontiers. This calls for considerable theorizing, much brain-storming, though reality dictates practical controls upon the implementation of the results of theorizing. Teaching requires invention and discovery, and accordingly both theory and practice must be developed together in a kind of matrix which pits one against the other toward the end result of clarifying both.

Ultimate Responsibility Resides With Local School District

The very fact that numerous institutions and organizations have accepted responsibility for in-service teacher education creates a problem in coordination. The multiplicity of approaches to helping a profession grow in service causes considerable confusion, often resulting in an overwhelming number of meetings, conferences, and committees. For example, a college may pursue its own program by providing consultative help for a school system, almost oblivious to the efforts being made by a professional organization or the state department of education in the same school system. Chance and accident may provide some communication and enlightenment about the totality of the operation, but this can only be erratic and haphazard.

The school district is the agency most closely associated with the local community. Legally it is the agency directly responsible for the quality of the instructional program. It then follows that it is the most directly concerned with, and responsible for, the professional performance of its staff. Consequently, each district is directly responsible for providing a professional development program

to facilitate the continued growth of its staff in those directions most desirable for its schools and community.

Summary

In this chapter we have tried to present a brief profile of the necessity for educational change, the conditioners which affect change, the elements of the school which are receptive to change, and some of the mechanics of effecting change. In addition, we have indicated that in-service teacher education is a cooperative responsibility and have pointed out that colleges, state departments of education, professional organizations, and local school districts share this responsibility. Further, we have presented our view that the ultimate responsibility resides with the local school district.

In succeeding chapters we shall discuss processes whereby the essential elements of in-service education, or continuing teacher education, can be focused to keep the school curriculum changing to meet the changing needs of the schools of America.

CHAPTER II

THE CURRICULUM FOR IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

The series of planned learning opportunities a school provides for pupils is termed the *curriculum* of that school. These learning opportunities are deliberately conceived in relation to the purposes held by that school. Likewise, the components of these opportunities—the curriculum content—are structured in terms of sequence, pupil maturity, materials, equipment, and scope. Surrounding this matrix is an organizational configuration which groups pupils, provides a teacher or teachers, insures the availability of space, and provides a method of evaluating the consequences of pupil participation in or exposure to the learning opportunities. The reduction of the element of chance is thus a major emphasis and characteristic of a curriculum. Whether this insurance against chance is sought in rigid, inflexible, lock-step operational procedures or whether a considerable degree of flexibility is operative, a curriculum is nevertheless always present. Too much is at stake to neglect to *plan* for the education of our youth.

What has been described above in terms of a curriculum for pupils is also representative of the curriculum in colleges and universities which operate programs for the pre-service education of teachers and other professional personnel. In every instance, a curriculum is provided to insure that teachers in preparation receive the most possible in understandings and skills during the limited time of their pre-service education. In both the school and the teacher education institution, curricula are provided which have (1) purposes which serve as directional guidelines, (2) content or subject matter to be learned, (3) learning materials which relate to the content, (4) an organizational structure for the facilitation of learning, (5) a physical environment arranged to promote learning, and (6) leadership which guides and stimulates learning.

The pre-service education of teachers, of course, represents only a minor fraction of the time a person must spend in learning to become an effective teacher. These four or five years must be followed by in-service education which lasts throughout the professional career of a teacher. This, in principle, has been accepted for many years by professional organizations, school officials, and teachers themselves. There would seem to be no serious argument concerning this point; however, vast confusion does exist in relation to the implementation

of this principle in in-service education programing. On the one hand there is a point of view, and inevitable consequences, which pleads for individual initiative in partaking of wide-ranging opportunities for self-growth. This tack implores the teacher to read books, travel, engage in contemplative thought, and enter into discussions with other professionals. Essentially, the responsibility for in-service education rests with the individual teacher, and the school has but a minor role in helping such individuals direct and focus their growth.

On the other extreme, there is a concept of in-service education which holds that the school does have a major responsibility for helping the professional staff grow and improve performance and, consequently, that school officials predetermine the topics or study areas which all teachers are compelled to pursue. Usually, these activities are inflexibly scheduled, and the staff are expected to participate in them regardless of self-perceived need. Quite often rewards are provided in the form of salary increments, promotion points, et cetera, so that teachers will realize something for their effort. Obviously, the individual teacher is perceived to have little responsibility for his own in-service growth in this arrangement; rather this responsibility is reserved to the official leadership. Operationally, this concept can be found in schools or systems which adopt, at the insistence of the superintendent, principal, or supervisor, a single-topic (improving teacher performance in "reading" is a superannuated favorite), and all teachers from coach to counselor are compelled to participate. "Big brother" knows what teachers need, and even if they do not need it immediately, they will in time.

In between these two dichotomous points of view are many less pronounced concepts. The combinations of views in this in-between state borrow from either extreme in a patchwork of design and operation which reflects uncertainty about the most efficacious structure of in-service education. Perhaps the only common ground for agreement would be that "in-service education is a crucial need for all professional educators."

The writers believe that the missing ingredient in all these points of view is the conceptualization of a *curriculum* for in-service education (This should be *curricula*, for many variations are needed; however, for the purpose of simplifying this discussion the singular form will be used.) If a curriculum perspective is needed in all the schools of the nation and the task of these schools is "education," why, we ask, is there not a corresponding need for a curriculum for the education of teachers in service? Are *purposes* any the less needed? Is there a body of *content* which can be defined? Is some

type of *organizational structure* unavoidable? Do some materials and equipment seem necessary?

The line that separates pre-service from in-service teacher education was not drawn with forethought but was gradually developed as the nation's schools developed. Nor is this line an insurmountable barrier destined forever to keep the two divisions from interaction; many breaches have already been made. (Teaching internships, apprenticeships, et cetera, provide a mixture of both.) Ultimately, perhaps, this demarkation will be eliminated and, paraphrasing Gertrude Stein, teacher education will be teacher education. Meantime, the in-service phase must be strengthened and deepened so that that hoped-for day will be soon coming.

Lest a current misunderstanding be perpetuated, there is a great difference between in-service teacher education and teacher participation in school program development. The writers have observed numerous activities designed and operated to improve various aspects of the school program which were inappropriately labeled "in-service education." To be sure, the growth of the teacher may be a prerequisite of school program change, but some activities seeking such change may not necessarily call for teacher growth. If the change merely calls for the same level of teacher performance, teacher education may not be necessary. The obvious suitability of using program change as the vehicle for stimulating activities related to teacher growth has in all probability engendered this confusion. The great interest in educational change, and the realization that most productive change does indeed demand concomitant staff growth, have also favored the merged conception of these two distinct elements.

As previously discussed, pre- and in-service teacher education programs are but parts of the same whole and should be developed as integrated components of *teacher education;* however, the environments and situations in which each are implements are different; and, therefore, each must be treated separately in operation. The remainder of this chapter discusses the "curriculum" for in-service teacher education, an element that is needed if systematic, logical and orderly improvements are to be made in this area. The reader should be aware that this treatment of in-service curriculum is of necessity general and theoretical.

The Purposes of the Curriculum

Teacher education in service seeks to foster the continued professional development of the staff. In this sense its basic purpose

is one which will remain constant, for it is assumed that one never arrives at a level of perfection. The rationale of this assumption is based on a belief that each staff member is always in the process of becoming that which his potential permits him to become.

Such a broad concept of purpose demands its reduction to more specific elements. In what areas, or along what lines, or by what standards does one determine whether or not he is continuing his professional development? The research of Edmonds[1] offers some directional cues. From a study of available research, he categorized the competencies of supervisors into ten syndromes. Each syndrome was composed of a multitude of competencies, all interrelated and contributing to the parent syndrome. In considering operational purposes, it seems to us that these syndromes have much to offer as directional guidelines for continued staff development in service. These, then, would serve as purposes or objectives for a curriculum for teacher education in service.

1. Knowledge and understanding of the school as a social institution and its role in present-day society.
2. Knowledge and understanding of the curriculum, of its development, of current curriculum research, and of the relationship between the curriculum and the role of the school in society.
3. Knowledge and understanding of human growth and learning.
4. Knowledge and understanding of "self," self-growth, and attitudes related to self-acceptance and acceptance of others .
5. Knowledge and understanding of teaching and leadership methods and techniques which include those things concerned with how the staff members function in their jobs.
6. Knowledge and understanding of instructional materials and resources and their usage in the educative process.
7. Skill in communicating effectively with individuals and groups through oral, written and behavioral communicative processes.
8. Skill in helping individuals identify and develop procedures for arriving at solutions, problems and concerns.
9. Skill in problem identification, development of processes for solution, or the methodology of problem attack.
10. Skill in "group process," particularly those processes related to working with groups of people to identify and develop solutions to problems and needs.

[1] Fred Edmonds, "A Study of the Competencies of General Supervision and an Assessment of the Supervisor Preparation Programs in Five Kentucky Colleges in Terms of Competency Development." (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Kentucky, Lexington, 1961).

For such purposes to be known and acknowledged by the entire staff is essential. As Herbert Simon states, "Human organizations are systems of interdependent activity . . . usually characterized at the level of consciousness of participants, by a high level of rational direction of behavior toward ends that are objects of common acknowledgement and expectation."[2] Programs of teacher education in service, while a part of the larger organization—the school district—are in themselves "human organizations." For programs to be characterized by a high level of rational behavior on the part of participants, their purposes must be commonly acknowledged and accepted. These purposes, then, would serve as the goals toward which each staff member would strive. They are the goals against which to measure the worthwhileness of each in-service activity. They are the guidelines to be used in planning each activity so that it contributes to staff growth toward one or more of them. They are the curriculum purposes for teacher education in service.

In no way does the identification and acknowledgement of such purposes do violence to those basic principles of in-service education long recognized in the professional literature. Rather, they seem to lend clarity to such principles while contributing to a staff's recognition that continued development in these areas is desired and expected. Also, such directional purposes seem to suggest areas to be considered, as staff needs and interests are used as bases for developing in-service experiences. For example, if a group of teachers are concerned with grading and promotion, their opportunity to study and work on this problem might be planned in such a way as to include most of these ten syndromes. It is difficult to see how such a problem could be pursued intelligently without an examination of the role of the school, curriculum, human growth and learning, teaching methods and techniques, instructional materials, communication, problem identification, problem solving processes, and group process in relation to the problem itself and the staff's procedures in working on it.

It will be recognized that not all instructional problems or interests lend themselves easily to such purposes. Nor can the pursuit of all problems or interests be considered a part of teacher education programs. Such purposes, then, suggest both the types of problems or interests to be considered a part of a curriculum for teacher education, and procedures and directional goals toward which experiences may be directed.

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[2] H. A. Simon, "Comments on the Theory of Organization," *Administrative Control and Executive Action*. Edited by B. C. Lemke and J. D. Edwards. C. E. Merrill Books, Inc., Columbus, Ohio, 1961, p. 124.

As is recognized in all high-quality instructional programs, there must be balance in the curriculum. To be sure, in a curriculum skewed in terms of having an inordinate amount of time, materials, and emphasis devoted to one specific purpose the results should be immediate and predictable. However, a curriculum is composed of many facets, with many purposes, each too important to be long neglected. Thus, in teacher education, while it may be necessary and even desirable to focus on one or two of the clusters of purposes, some semblance of balance should be sought over an extended time. This should not be construed to mean that at any given time an in-service education program should be focused on all ten of the clusters of purposes. Quite the contrary. Purposes, too, must be identified in terms of priority in relation to the real problems, needs, and concerns identified by the school staff. This priority arrangement would seem to result in a shifting of emphasis from time to time toward attention to needs and purposes of greatest importance at a given moment.

When purposes or goals have been identified, inevitably they will be accompanied by barriers to their pursuit or implementation. Such barriers may or may not be perceived by a staff, depending upon that staff's competence in identifying them. Though a vague feeling of dissatisfaction or lack of accomplishment in terms of achieving the purposes or goals may permeate a staff, it nevertheless remains for the staff to identify the causative factors for such dissatisfaction. Nor is it sufficient just to identify a host of barriers or problems. These must be arranged in an order of priority of attack, the most urgent or important coming first. Essentially, a problem is not a problem until it is so identified by an individual or a staff.

The problems that school staffs have identified then become "starters" or "igniters" of action processes and procedures within a staff, and may be related to one, two, three, or perhaps all, of the over-all directional purposes already stated. The current school drop-out problem in many school systems is an example of a type of problem that requires a new look at the school as a social institution in today's society, a serious review of the curriculum, a renewed effort to understand individual human behavior, a deepened concern regarding how children learn and grow, and the like. In studying such a problem it is conceivable that a school staff would be operating simultaneously in terms of all ten directional purposes. In other instances, action might be related to only one directional purpose.

The everyday problems that are carefully identified by teachers may become the most important areas of activity through which a

school staff may consciously design for itself a series of experiences that will culminate in a more mature, knowledgeable, and skillful staff of teachers.

The Content of the Curriculum

The content of the curriculum for in-service teacher education may be generalized into two broad categories. First is that content which emerges from the study of the factors (problems, concerns, interests) which are directly related to (a) clarification or modification of the purposes or objectives of the instructional program for children, (b) improvement of the physical environment—school plant, equipment, and so forth—to provide a more desirable setting in which children can learn, (c) improvement in the selection and use of instructional materials, (d) improvement in the scope, sequence, and organization of the curriculum content for children, and (e) improvement in the organizational structure of the school program. The second category into which the content of teacher education in service might be divided relates to those aspects of study which deal with the improvement of the performance of the teacher and which may be extrapolated from the ten directional purposes previously discussed.

The interaction of the teacher, through his involvement in school program implementation and improvement (the first category above), should cause him to become sensitive to and identify his needs in terms of his own effectiveness (the second category). Figure 1 illustrates this process.

Of course, the process represented in Figure 1 is greatly oversimplified. The basic point to be conveyed, however, is that, concurrently with his involvement in school improvement programs, the teacher should be engaged in an in-service education program which obtains its clarity and meaningfulness as a result of his interaction with others as they seek to improve their school's program. Thus each teacher is constantly relating himself and his personal competencies to his simultaneous experiences in school improvement endeavors, and out of this relationship he begins to assess his own competencies and to avail himself of opportunities to improve the levels of his competencies.

Sources of Content for Teacher Education In Service

Repeating, there are two major categories of sources from which the content for the education of teachers in service may come: (1)

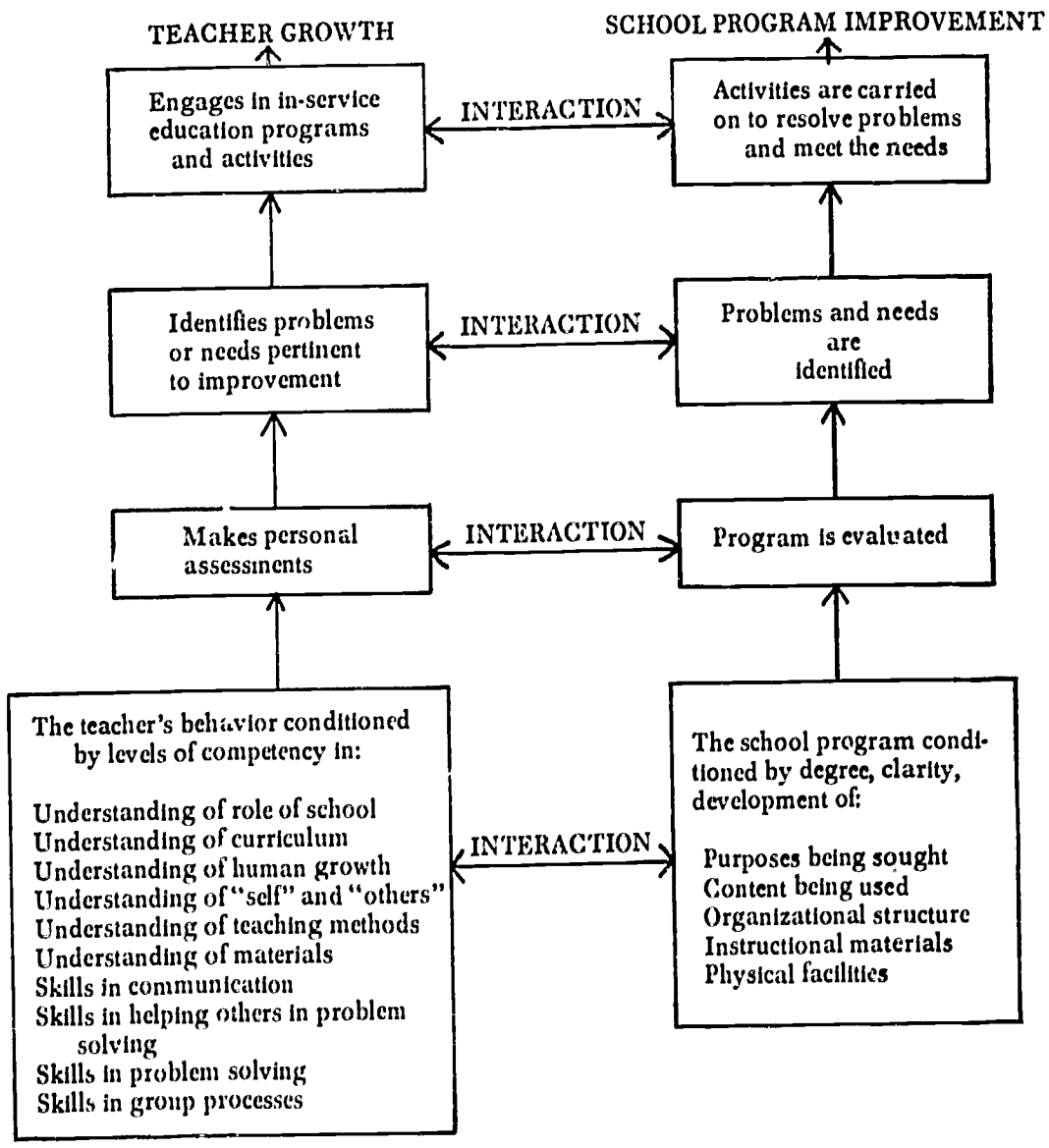

Figure 1.

from the teacher and (2) from the school or school system. Each of these may provide content for study in a variety of ways; however, content can be produced only as efforts are made to identify needs in terms of purpose, function, task, role, and as the processes to meet those needs are identified. Both sources, then, may produce content which is intertwined and interrelated. Let us examine each of these potential sources further.

The Teacher as a Source of Content

A teacher is first of all a person possessing certain attitudes, knowledge, and skills concerning teaching. Each teacher possesses competencies in varying degrees in relationship to other teachers; there-

fore, in order for a program of education to affect each teacher, it must be designed to provide for each individual. This does not preclude the development of a program in which teachers function in groups, but it does emphasize the necessity of recognizing prime importance of and differences among individuals within a group.

The logical step a teacher might take in pursuit of additional professional growth would be to assess his needs and to do something about them. Unfortunately, one cannot easily step outside himself and assess the competency of the entity he observes. Nor can one, in the assessment of his needs, rise above his present level of competency in identifying his needs. Therefore, in order to become more perceptive of himself, an individual must learn about himself; and he can do this only as he interacts with his own environment. Such interaction provides him information about his own adequacies and inadequacies as well as a framework within which he can identify his needs.

The environment of the teacher is the immediate school community; however, impinging upon that environment are the influences of the state, region, nation, and world. As he interacts with this immediate environment and is subjected to the influences of the broader environment, he should become increasingly sensitive to his own performance and behavior. By interacting with his school community, he has the opportunity to learn how to identify his needs as a teacher, and the identification of such needs seems the perfect prelude to the initiation of processes for his own professional growth.

Of course, the school environment can be either enervating and void of stimulating interaction or a dynamic environment in which teachers are exposed to numerous opportunities which propel them into meaningful interaction. Unless a school staff is engrossed in clarifying the purposes of their school, in examining and improving the content of the school's curriculum, or in trying to find ways of generally improving the quality of education for their student body, a sterile situation exists in which the inadequate interaction of the teacher in his school program cannot possibly cause the teacher to identify content needed for his own professional growth. But if the school program is constantly under scrutiny and development by the staff and patrons, the identification of professional needs by members of the staff is inevitable.

All people have feelings of security or insecurity depending upon the nature of the environment in which they find themselves. Each person will invariably, either consciously or subconsciously, protect himself in any situation which threatens his personal security. For example, if a school staff, by majority action, decides to undertake

an evaluation of how well teachers are liked by their students, and one member of the minority feels that he is not well liked, the chances are great that this individual will either withdraw from the project or actually try to prevent it from being carried out. Thus, when our security is jeopardized or unbalanced, we will struggle to remove the threat and re-establish our equilibrium. Therefore, it is highly probable that a teacher will identify needs which are non-personal rather than personal and which will focus upon the school, the community, or other people rather than himself.

As a staff works to meet the non-personal needs they have identified, they will tend to become increasingly conscious of their own levels of competency. As they do, the nature of their problems will begin to shift favorably from external to personal factors. Increasingly they will ask such questions as, "How can I improve my own skill in communication?" As this shift takes place, the nature of the content will also begin to shift toward an appropriate alignment with the changing perceptions of need.

Let us move further in our examination of the teacher as a curriculum-content source by examining the teacher as a learner in a teacher-education program. A program of instruction of teachers should treat content in terms of "how learners learn," just as the teacher in his classroom does with children. Neither teachers nor children can be expected to learn in the absence of learning stimuli or in a situation which is contradictory to what is known about the facilitation of learning. The point here is that in teacher education the participants have responsibility for creating their own environment for the encouragement of their own learning and, therefore, of necessity need to understand how to go about doing so. Which brings us to a "content area" for in-service teacher education: the need for understanding and applying what is "now known about learning."

To illustrate, we know that many kinds of self-identified needs help to make up the content of the teacher-education curriculum. Typically, these needs will at first be carefully couched in terms which label them in a manner external to the teacher himself. For example, "We need to examine our pupil reporting system," may indicate a growing awareness on the part of a teacher that he is not able to communicate very effectively with parents. Of course, any teacher education program will have to begin at the level of identified need. In this example, it is studying the pupil reporting system. However, if the real need is within the teacher rather than in the "system of reporting," it will be uncovered subsequently only if the learning climate is conducive to exploration in a warm and permissive atmos-

phere. But, to reiterate, such a learning climate can be created only by the participants themselves as they recognize their need for it.

Teachers themselves, because they have considerable influence in developing their own programs of self-education, must be helped throughout those programs to recognize those aspects of "learning" which affect what they are able to achieve toward their own growth. For example, the following are prominent in their effect upon the success of a teacher education program:

1. The physical environment in which teachers learn is a vital factor. If, as an illustration, teachers need to share information and ideas concerning "pupil reporting methods," such sharing can be greatly stimulated by having the "sharing session" in a relaxed environment, such as the teachers' lounge.
2. The perceptions which teachers hold about their colleagues have tremendous influence upon their receptivity for learning. If a teacher feels that he is surrounded by persons who have a high regard for his opinions, he will probably voice his opinions with increasing alacrity. However, if that teacher perceives his "fellow-teachers" as some sort of intellectual threat, he may become quite reticent even when the climate otherwise is generally favorable for open discussion.
3. The perceptions teachers have of themselves greatly influence their behavior in teacher education programs. A teacher is most likely, at least in beginning programs, to identify external school curriculum needs in areas with which he is quite knowledgeable. If he sees himself as a good teacher of English, he will probably suggest that there are "needs" in this area. If, however, he believes himself to be weak in pupil evaluation, he will most likely avoid suggesting any needs, personal or external, in this area.

   Of course, as a teacher education program becomes more sophisticated and mature, the individuals involved become more aware of their self-perceptions and more confident in their ability to clarify them. Generally speaking, we are what we think we are; we do what we think we can do well, and we somewhat jealously guard these external perceptions of ourselves. Only continued self-education can help us learn enough about ourselves so that our self-perceptions can be modified and clarified.
4. Another factor with considerable weight lies in the area of "functions and roles" which we associate with the educational position we hold. A teacher may be quite hesitant about sug-

gesting that there is a need for a faculty meeting because, in terms of his understanding of his role perimeter, this is a function of his school principal. Because of this extrapolation from his self-identified hierarchy of function and role, the teacher may also feel that any suggestions for in-service teacher education should originate with the principal and not with the teacher. Conversely, a principal may feel that, by virtue of his position, any in-service programing ideas should come from him, and thus regard himself as a manipulator of people to get them to do what he desires.

Because the content of the curriculum of in-service teacher education is so vaguely defined, one of the prime goals of teacher education is to specify and, if possible, structure such content. Perhaps a well-defined body of content, applicable universally, can never be specified; however, in order to bring about continuity in a specific teacher education program, it seems not only desirable but necessary to identify minutely such content. With this as a goal, the teacher becomes the prime source of identification of in-service teacher education content.

A final point concerning the teacher as a source of content for the teacher-education curriculum: The teacher is a source of content even though he may not be the identifier of that content. It requires constant growth and insight for an individual to identify progressively his competency needs. Therefore, his assessment of himself, and the uncovering of his own needs for himself, must be accomplished little by little as the individual learns more and more about himself. Thus an expanding and deepening insight of oneself can come only with education. This implies that an individual requires help in identifying his needs and, consequently, the content he should be studying to meet those needs. Providing such help is a function of the leadership in educational programing for teachers in service. More discussion of this aspect of need identification will follow.

The School as a Source of Content

As indicated in Figure 1, the school itself has goals or purposes to be achieved, and the school staff should identify these with adequate recognition of the conditioners and influences of the wider environment. Out of the interaction of the school staff with the conditioners provided by the school environment, content for teacher education can be identified.

The school's curriculum, or program, represents an hypothesis which in essence says that if these things are done with these chil-

dren under these conditions, the stated purposes will be achieved. This hypothesis implies need for a continuous evaluation of the purposes that are and are not being attained. From such an evaluation, the school staff should be in position to identify areas in which modifications in the program need to be made.

Needed modifications tend to center around the areas of (1) content, (2) instructional materials, (3) school organizations, and (4) school facilities, as these relate to the acknowledged purposes being sought. It is difficult for a staff to examine objectively their own behaviors in isolation from these areas. To do so is too threatening. Therefore, the identification of problems associated with such "external" areas serves as an opportunity for the staff, through the leadership of the principal and supervisor, to proceed in such a way that they may increase their knowledge, understanding, and skills relative to the ten teacher-growth purposes held for the teacher education program.

A school staff should be constantly at work to clarify the fundamental purposes of their instructional program, thereby creating an opportunity for the motivation of teacher growth. Even if nothing more is done to capitalize upon the opportunity than the discussion of "What is it we should be doing in our school?" some teacher growth should ensue.

Of course, there are more thorough ways for a school staff to examine, study, and clarify the purposes they hold for their school. For example, when a staff commit themselves to exert effort in examining their school's purposes, they are opening the door for a variety of self-education opportunities. Such questions as the following may serve as initial points of departure for staff study: What is the role of our school as a component of our school system? What is the peculiar domain of the school in the totality of a student's education? What are the common needs of our student body? What are the peculiar needs of our students?

These and other questions may ultimately bring about the identification of a prime question in programing for teacher education in service: What do we as teachers need in order to respond more adequately to the needs of our school?

When this final question is raised, it is evident that there has been achieved a state of readiness for further development—perhaps in a more sophisticated and meaningful design—of a program for teacher education. As long as teachers focus their attention upon school needs to the total exclusion of teacher competency needs, in-service education programs must remain at a rather elementary level. This statement is not meant to imply that programing for school im-

provement is relatively simple. Quite the contrary. However, it must be recognized that in-service teacher education, by its very phraseology, refers to teacher growth and not necessarily, except indirectly, to school program development. Thus, basically, what is sought is teacher growth so as to facilitate the improvement of instruction for students.

Need, however well identified, rarely is singular. Once teachers begin to open Pandora's box, they are likely to identify a veritable flood of needs. Regardless of the type of need or its source, a single need will invariably become a need cluster: "I need to increase my skill in communication, *particularly in talking to groups of children and in writing on the blackboard.*"

The above illustration indicates the need for application of the problem-solving method to the situation. Which need in the cluster is most vital or crucial at the moment? Which should receive a higher priority rating, effort in "talking with groups" or "writing on the blackboard?" The specific need which is chosen is very relevant, for what teachers study does make a difference. The factor of available time is in itself great enough to cause the priority structuring of needs for teacher education programing.

It should be noted that the process of learning how to identify needs productively is an integral part of in-service teacher education. Though we readily recognize our responsibility in need identification as both the prelude to and a part of the development of teacher education programs, what needs we do identify and the urgency with which we classify them are critical matters. Time is crucial; teacher education cannot proceed at a casual rate; therefore, we cannot afford to continue to identify ropes, walls, and trees to the exclusion of the elephant itself.

The environmental situation probably provides cues concerning the priority structure of teacher education needs. However, here again a primary purpose of teacher education is at stake: how do we recognize such cues? How do we know that the resolving of a particular problem—or the resolution of a specific need—is more important than applying effort in terms of another problem or need? Is urgency another criterion? Or is the interest surrounding the need a powerful determinant of its priority position?

Here also we must consider the relationship between the *content* of the teacher education curriculum and the *curriculum* in its totality. *Curriculum* implies more than just the content to be learned; it also infers ways and means of facilitating the learning of that content. Therefore, the decisions affecting the priority of the needs structure must be made in terms of several factors: (1) the personal goals of

the teachers involved, (2) the perception of functions and roles held by the participants, (3) the level of competence of the involved individuals, (4) the interests of those persons, and (5) the pressures and expectancies perceived by the participants as they view their job-related responsibilities.

A final consideration in the priority arrangement of needs is the realization that some needs cannot be met; others are within the realm of successful achievement. At some point the distinction between those needs which can be met and those which cannot must be recognized and reconciled in any priority arrangement.

The school, as a source of teacher education content, provides such content in relationship to an additional aspect: content in terms of the organization and processes necessary to pursue needs once they are identified. Of course, the mere identification of need, without successfully arranging to meet it, will only result in confusion and frustration. This uncompleted process has probably caused the untimely demise of more in-service teacher education programs than any other reason. What must be recognized is that a school staff has to *learn* how to organize themselves and *learn* how to function so that they can successfully meet the needs that are identified as important. Thus the content for teacher education, of necessity, must include the study of organization and processes of working, and these components must be overtly identified and accepted by those who are involved.

To illustrate this aspect of content, let us turn to a rather typical situation. Suppose a school staff, through some process, has given a high priority rating to the identified need of developing a more adequate pupil reporting system. The discussion, during the process of making the identification, has resulted in the emergence of considerable distaste for the present system; and, therefore, this particular staff is in a sense caught between the horns of a dilemma. They can never really fall back and effectively use the old system, because they have now voiced and firmed up their dislike for it, but they must either revert to it or develop a system in which they can have confidence. Thus a need has led them to a crucial point. Do they have the competence to reorganize themselves to meet the need? Or must they simply give up the challenge, ignore the fact that they might learn how to find their solution, become more frustrated and, consequently, more ineffective as they half-heartedly go through the motion of using the old reporting system?

Thus the school is a source of content of the curriculum for the education of teachers in service. Such content can be identified in a realistic setting. It can be practical and meaningful to teachers and

can contribute to the vitality necessary for a school in a dynamic society.

The Instructional Materials of the Curriculum

Obviously, there is value in having a wide variety of professional materials available for teachers. The stimulation provided by such materials as numerous books, magazines, pamphlets, films and film strips, tapes and recordings cannot be discounted. Innumerable needs have been identified simply because a teacher has availed himself of the opportunity to browse in a professional library and, as a consequence, has found an idea or process which has helped him assess his competency.

The curriculum for in-service teacher education, by definition, includes learning materials. Of course, these materials must be appropriate to the content, or the areas, being studied in the curriculum. Too often it has been the writers' experience, when local leadership has been questioned about the availability of such materials, they have responded by saying that they have "a professional library for use by teachers." The point here is that materials should be chosen on the basis of need, not on some vague notion that somehow, somewhere, sometime they may be used. If, for example, a group of teachers are pursuing a study of "learning," their efforts should be supported by the presence of a variety of materials dealing with this area. Because we are talking about teacher education curricula as *planned learning programs,* the materials of the curricula must also be planned in terms of purposes sought through such programs.

In order to illustrate the need to use materials as sources of information, and not necessarily to be critical of some current in-service programing, these writers would point out that teachers often spend too much time "sharing their ignorance," to the exclusion of systematically selecting and using materials which could provide them with something to share. Of course, any information which is accidently uncovered can add to the body of knowledge to be communicated and shared, but only by chance, and not as a primary procedure in developing the kind of curriculum under discussion here.

The implementation of the curriculum calls for the use of human resources—consultants, specialists, competent aides—which can assist in the growth of teachers. The leadership of in-service education programs might wisely spend some time in listing and evaluating these resources before encouraging the initiation of a program in a specified direction. (This whole area will be more thoroughly elaborated in succeeding chapters.)

The Organizational Structure of the Curriculum

If the provision of the curriculum for children requires the organization and structuring of the curriculum components into a meaningful sequence of experiences, then such a requirement is equally valid for a curriculum for the education of teachers in service. When directional purposes have been identified and the content with which to pursue the purposes has been projected, the next logical step in the process is to develop the organization for the facilitation of learning in terms of the content and purposes.

The kind of organization necessary for the facilitation of learning by teachers in a curriculum designed for their in-service education must obviously be somewhat different from that of the traditional school curriculum organization. Such an organization should have several characteristics.

1. *It should be developmental.* Though some semblance of organization is quite essential in setting a point of departure for programing, the needs of the organization will depend upon the purposes being sought, the content to be learned, the personnel involved, the time which is available, and other factors in the environment. Generally, however, the details of the organization will have to be developed as the need for additional organization emerges. It seems, indeed, a foolish gesture to attempt to seek out an organizational plan, complete in every detail, prior to the actual initiation of a program. The kind of organization necessary for a study of how to improve skills in communication may be quite different from the kind of organization which would facilitate teacher growth through a study of the purposes of the school program.

   It would seem that the prevalent school program organization might well serve as the initial in-service teacher education framework. As it is, the hierarchy of organization, including school leaders, must be used for producing improved instructional programs; and, therefore, may well be the organizational arrangement with which to begin programing for in-service teacher education. Using the existing organization may help alleviate a condition which often arises and creates untold confusion: the proliferation of organizational entities—committees, planning groups, and the like—whose purposes are never quite clearly defined. Other organizational arrangements can be developed as the need arises.
2. *The organization for in-service teacher education should be multi-faceted.* The complexity of the task of facilitating the

continuous development of a staff requires the provision of numerous learning opportunities, purposefully designed and structured. To cope with this complexity, the organization framework should include such facets as:

(a) *Organized programs and activities at the local school level.* These may result in such activities as total faculty meetings, departmental meetings or activities, interest group endeavors, grade-level activities, or study pursuits by individual teachers.

(b) *Organized programs and related activities at the district-wide level.* The organization at this level may be in relationship to the further development and projection of local school programs. The district-wide organization should grow out of and be developed to assist or supplement the various local school programs. Without a doubt, the district-wide program is quite dependent upon the quality of programing in the local school.

(c) *Organized programs at the leadership level.* This part of the total organization should provide for the continuing growth of leadership personnel so as to insure the presence of adequate leadership in the above-mentioned two facets. Such organizational arrangements may result in principals' meetings and study efforts, summer leadership conferences, and the like. Not to be overlooked in this facet should be activities designed to develop new, emerging leaders to supply the district's needs. (Chapter III will deal at length with this whole area of leadership.)

3. *The organization should provide for coordination.* Coordination is necessary to provide for wise and adequate use of learning resources and to insure that what is gained from study and growth will contribute to the goals and objectives of the school system. Such coordination may be helped by the following:

   (a) The general supervisor or curriculum director may be the key figure in helping to fit the various activities and their parent programs into a meaningful whole.

   (b) The various principals within the school district should consider coordination as a major function of their position since the individual school programs of a school district must be related and coordinated.

   (c) A representative district-wide coordinating committee may be formed to help with the coordination of efforts. This

committee may be somewhat analagous to what we now often call "in-service committees."

4. *The organization of the curriculum must be structured to provide for the individuality of teachers.* The ultimate objective in programing for teacher education is, of course, the improvement of instruction for students. The responsibility for teachers' continued professional development stems from the greater responsibility for providing better learning opportunities for students. The task of improving instruction would be relatively simple if we had but to develop curriculum materials, reorganize the content of the curriculum, improve the physical facilities of schools, or modify the operational structure of school programs. Paramount to the success of these various means of improving instruction, however, is the performance of the individual teacher in his day-by-day use of these avenues. If a teacher has the necessary competence, these avenues can be employed effectively; if, however, he lacks the understandings and skills requisite to their full exploitation, instructional improvement will not accrue. Thus the old axiom, "The teacher is the key to learning," should cause us to remember that the teacher should not be forgotten in the press of expeditious programing to bring about quickly a better quality of learning experiences for our youth. Just as classroom instruction must concentrate upon helping the individual child, so must in-service education help to facilitate the growth of the individual teacher. The range of variability among teachers in terms of needs, interests, capabilities, and attitudes is as infinite as are these same characteristics among children. Therefore, an in-service teacher education program must be firmly anchored in a theoretical framework which places great emphasis upon the growth of the individual teacher.
5. *The organizational framework should provide for learning opportunities for both individual teachers and groups.* In teacher education we have become quite conscious of groups and group processes in the design and implementation of programs for the growth and development of teachers. Quite often we seem to lose sight of the fact that the use of a group is a means rather than an end, and that group work is merely an organizational arrangement for stimulating, encouraging, and coordinating the learning activities of the various individuals who make up the group. We must realize that meetings, groups, and conferences are all nothing more than devices created and

structured for facilitating learning opportunities for the individual persons who are participating. Admittedly, such structured arrangements are necessary, but their purposes, advantages, and disadvantages should be thoroughly understood and carefully weighed by anyone engaged in programing for in-service teacher education.

Because the goal of any program of teacher education is instructional improvement, such a program cannot be operated without bringing groups of teachers together for coordinated study and work. The crucial factors in any grouping arrangement, however, lie in the interrelationships between the purposes for the arrangement—purposes for both the individual teacher and group.

If a specified goal is sought, and leadership is faced with programing decisions to facilitate the achievement of that goal, the major and primary questions which must be answered are these: What is the most expeditious and thorough way of arranging for this effort? Can this best be done by having individual teachers pursue it, or should some grouping of the various individuals who are concerned be employed?

Let us for a moment take a closer look at what can be accomplished through the formation and use of groups. Obviously, if a decision involving the participation of a staff is required as a part of the process of seeking a specified goal, at some point these persons will have to be brought together as a group. The purpose for the establishment of the group should be thoroughly understood so that the various members will be able to function within their defined responsibilities. Within the organizational structure for teacher education, then, it seems to us that groups might be established for three general purposes:

(1) *Complementation,* in which the purpose is envisioned as helping the individual members of the group complement and supplement their competencies through association with each other. This purpose may be exemplified in new-teacher orientation activities in which new teachers are grouped with experienced teachers for the expressed purpose of helping each new member become familiar with the school or school system environment.

(2) *Intersection,* in which the group is formed to help each member pool his aggregate knowledge about some aspect of instruction so that a new aggregation of knowledge emerges from the group experience. Thus we can anticipate the birth of a new aggregate of knowledge, the group aggregate. An illustration of

this purpose may be found in the writing of a curriculum guide wherein each member merely contributes his ideas and knowledge without any attempt to modify them.

(3) *Compromise,* in which a group is formed to facilitate the exchange of knowledge, information or beliefs, with the prime purpose being the modification of the individual member's knowledge, information or beliefs. Such a purpose is illustrated in activities carried on by groups which are endeavoring to develop further their "philosophy of education."

Complementation is the purpose when individuals associate with a group to increase their own aggregate of knowledge or skills. Intersection is the purpose when the need is to bring together the aggregated knowledge or skills of various individuals for the development of a new aggregate for a new entity, the group. Compromise is the purpose when some modification is consciously sought in the knowledge or skills of the individuals comprising the group. Generally, it is much easier to program for complementation and intersection, though compromise may offer the most direct route for programing for the growth of the individuals. However, groups probably have to develop readiness for compromise through experiences in complementation and intersection.

Process: The Fifth Dimension

The four facets of the in-service teacher education curriculum which we have discussed to this point—purposes, content, materials, and organization—have a common denominator: they are all of a developmental nature. While we have attempted to stabilize them momentarily through such retorical devices as arranging purposes into clusters or syndromes, or recounting examples, we recognize that these devices have been used merely as an attempt to communicate certain concepts we hold. Purposes, for example, do not exist in abstraction; they can be identified only as they are born through the labor of people. This makes them developmental in nature, and their development in turn is quite dependent upon the kinds of processes which people use to identify them. Let us now turn our attention to a specific treatment of process as a part or facet of curriculum for teacher education.

The Utilization of What is Known About Learning to Improve the Processes of In-Service Growth

The kinds of processes used by a staff for its own professional growth will be greatly affected by the degree with which staff mem-

bers understand and utilize current knowledge of how people learn and why people behave as they do. A teacher education program in service will of necessity operate in terms of what the participants believe about learning and behavior. The wide divergence of understanding among any school staff about learning, and about the conditions under which learning takes place most effectively, probably presents a substantial block to the development of an adequate in-service program. There can be little hope of implementing the directional purposes of a teacher education program unless some basic agreements are reached as to what is believed about learning and how learning takes place within the individual and within a group.

The concept of human behavior referred to as perceptual theory has had the greatest influence on recent experimentation in which the writers have been involved at the University of Kentucky.[3] This theory holds that behavior is determined by and is pertinent to a person's perceptual field the instant he acts. What a person does is completely relevant to and consistent with his world as he sees it at the instant of action. His choice of behaviors is made with regard to his primary motivating need of maintaining or enhancing his self-organization. In essence, people behave in a manner consistent with their perceptions of themselves, other people, and the world in which they live. Behavior in this sense becomes a consequence of perception; therefore, to modify behavior, perceptions must first be altered.

Current research seems to indicate that perceptions are the consequence of an individual's experiences in behaving and in observing the way other people behave toward him. Regardless of the accuracy of the interpretations of experiences, his perceptions constitute the individual's world of reality and, consequently, determine his behavior within that world. Therefore a person's perceptions are modified only as a consequence of abstracting new interpretations from new experiences. In order to arrive at new interpretations of experience, an individual needs to see himself in a situation in which he has:

1. Freedom to explore and develop his own values.
2. Freedom to explore interests he values as important.
3. Freedom and opportunities to examine his own perceptions and compare them with the perceptions of others.
4. Freedom and opportunities to be himself and to respect those who differ from him.

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[3] These experimentations included two coordinate projects: "Experimentation in Preparing School Leaders," 1951-1960 and "Program of Experimentation in Preparing Educational Supervisors," 1957-1961.

5. Assistance in becoming responsible for his own behavior.
6. Opportunities to learn for real use rather than to learn isolated facts for a test or grade.
7. Opportunities to use people, places, things and events as resources for having new experience.
8. Leadership which facilitates rather than dominates.

This constitutes by no means a complete theory of learning; however, it emphasizes an approach to learning that has had much meaning for many people. The important factor here is that with adults, just as with children, the prime purpose of learning is modification of behavior; and until such changed behavior is apparent, learning has been minimal.

Problem Solving: A Process

The process of problem solving seems quite consistent with the theory of learning discussed above. Many critics of current educational practice, however, contend that we are trying to do the impossible when we attempt to teach these processes. Perhaps there is some validity in their criticism if what we are trying to do is to have learners memorize the elements of the process, without helping them engage in experiences from which they can conclude that intelligence can be applied effectively to their problems. We, however, believe that certain kinds of experiences can be provided which will help individuals learn how to cope with their problems. We further believe that such experiences can be built into programs for the education of teachers which will enable them to resolve the kinds of instructional problems they encounter. Such experiences, however, seem appropriate only if they are components of and abstracted from real situations. In other words, a teacher probably will learn about the problem-solving process best when he is engaged in solving a problem of his own.

At present there are obstacles to employing the problem-solving process in improving the quality of in-service teacher education. In some instances we are handicapped by negative attitudes concerning the necessity for using the process; in other instances limitations are imposed because of our use of incorrect, incomplete, or misunderstood methods in the process. Certainly, if we take off in hot pursuit of a "problem" which we have not clearly identified, we are doomed to frustration and dissatisfaction. And just as surely, if we try to bring our "process" to conclusion before we have adequate data for "drawing conclusions," we find ourselves acting without any reasonable assurance that we are moving in the right direction.

There is probably no pre-service teacher education program in the United States that does not include within its curriculum some content in the area of problem-solving. This content may be labeled under such titles as: problem-solving methods, action research, applied research, educational research, experimentation, or methods of research. The experiences provided under such titles are likely to be those that examine the theoretical aspects of conducting a research project with little or no actual application in a real setting. The result of the experiences may be observed in the classrooms of America today, where so little that is recognized as fundamental problem solving can be found.

Teacher education in service, in contrast to that at the pre-service level, provides a living and meaningful laboratory in which the problem-solving processes not only can be learned but are desperately needed at present. Each school setting provides limitless opportunities for a staff member or a school staff to study and refine their own processes. Efforts at such refinement must go far beyond that of simply stating a problem based on limited, subjective observations or subconscious sensing. Problem solving needs to become equivalent to research in the classroom, with a carefully refined system developed in the total process of stating and investigating an hypothesis. Problem solving in in-service teacher education is in effect both a means and an end. As a means it is a vehicle for modifying the personality, knowledge, and philosophical point of view of the participant. The end is the modification or improvement of curriculum and instruction.

There are five aspects of problem solving within the school setting which must be considered for problem solving to become a vital and useful process in improving the school program. (1) The school, as a dynamic and going concern, must be studied, measurements and evaluation made, and points of weakness discovered. (2) One or more of the weaknesses must be carefully selected and thoroughly "researched." (3) An actual solution must be proposed and tested in the school-laboratory setting. (4) Modification must be made in the school program so that the solution can work in practice. (5) The solution must be sustained by placing it in the organization so that it will become a permanent part of the system. Unless the problem-solving process is successful at each of these five points, little can be gained from engaging in such an activity.

Problem solving as a process for teacher education must be a cooperative venture in which the teacher, administrator, supervisor, and, in many cases, students and community members are involved. The successful completion of the first three steps indicated above is of little value unless both administrative and organizational changes

are made to implement and test the changes dictated by the findings of the research endeavor. It is possible that many teachers feel it is futile to engage in problem solving in depth because there is little hope that their endeavors will actually make a difference, because of administrative unwillingness or inability to operate in terms of their findings. To overcome such handicaps, administrators must become willing to provide the organizational structure in which teachers may find time, space, materials, consultant help, and the like, to carry out their research and to implement their findings.

It is our belief that problem solving must be the core process in the development of adequate programs of in-service teacher education. The elements of this process—identifying problems, clarifying problems, gathering data, hypothesizing, experimenting, generalizing, concluding, implementing, and projecting—offer possibilities for individual-teacher and school-program growth on a continuum that is limitless.

Summary

In this chapter we have tried to examine the curriculum for the education of teachers in service. We have deliberately defined the term *curriculum* rather narrowly so that we could find a way of slicing it into manageable bites for discussion purposes. Our definition has emphasized that such a curriculum is developed in terms of *planned* learning experiences, those over which we can exert some semblance of prediction and control.

We have examined certain facets of such a curriculum: (1) the purposes which undergird it, (2) the content which is to be learned, (3) the materials with which to learn the content, (4) the organizational structure with which to facilitate learning, and (5) the processes which can be employed in developing all facets of the curriculum.

We have consciously attempted to withhold from our discussion of curriculum the aspect of *leadership*. While it is a part of process, it is so vital that we wish to give it special emphasis by examining it in a chapter all its own. Therefore, the succeeding chapter is devoted solely to the function of leadership in programs for the education of teachers in service.

CHAPTER III

THE FUNCTION OF LEADERSHIP

Any human organization, educational or otherwise, must have responsive and energetic leadership as one of its essential components. A group of people, even with well-defined purposes for concerted effort, will remain only an unorganized group unless provisions are made for the selection and utilization of persons to initiate the processes of decision-making, coordinating, and implementing activities in terms of the group's purposes for being. Man, at the dawn of history, discovered that one person, usually the father or patriarch, had to be designated the leader of his governmental organization, the family. If the principal concern of this post-Adam family unit was survival itself, and the discovery of food was a prime element in survival, then early man found that the selected leader could function so as to help his little group find adequate food and thus survive. The leader, however, had to be energetic, knowledgeable in terms of the possible sources of food, and skillful in directing and coordinating the efforts of the individuals who comprised his little band. Without his leadership all would have perished.

So it is with the organization for in-service teacher education. Though the patriarchial concept of leadership has since become outmoded and generally abandoned in favor of more adequte concepts befitting our modern, complicated, societal organizations, the basic precept that leadership is necessary must be retained. Though we occasionally appear to be oblivious to the necessity for leadership, generally we accept it as a necessary component in an organization.

Human organizations in the modern environment have added several dimensions to the expanding concepts of leadership. No longer is a single individual expected to accommodate himself to the entirety of leadership responsibilities in an organization. Persons, instead of a person, come to mind when the term is uttered, though we still cling to—and logically—the principle that somewhere in the hierarchy of leadership there must be a single person who serves as *the* leader. Of course, our society has developed certain unique concepts concerning the function of the leader, concepts which a resurrected early man would hardly recognize.

Leadership in Educational Organizations

Educational leadership may take two distinct forms: that which is designated or implied because of the positioning of the individual

or individuals in an organization, and that which emerges for reasons other than such status designations. For example, in the former case a school principal, by virtue of his position within the educational organization, is designated as a leader by either direct or implied laws or policies. His position in the school structure indicates him as an official. Nothing he can do, as long as his position remains fixed, will relieve him of leadership responsibilities. Of course, with these responsibilities he should be allocated concomitant authority which will enable him to fulfill his responsibilities.

In the second form, educational leadership may emerge, and indeed should be encouraged to emerge, as individuals' functions and roles begin to converge or overlap. For example, a teacher, as a result of his experiences, may be able to suggest to another teacher certain methods of teaching arithmetic which he feels will assist that teacher. Though both have, because of their positioning in the school organization, somewhat identical job assignments, one teacher realizes that the singleness of purpose of both can best be pursued by his providing leadership in terms of helping his fellow teacher.

As our educational organization has developed, specific positions have been created to provide leadership for each component of the total organization. The resulting hierarchy is well known, though considerable confusion still exists regarding the specific functions and roles of each position. In somewhat clearer perspective, we have identified the general functions of each position; it is in terms of role identification that the perspective has become hazy. This in part has been caused by our inability to conceptualize the difference between *function* and *role*. Therefore, some discussion of these terms seems appropriate.

Function, as we use the term, has reference to the *focus* of a particular position. An oversimplified example would be: The prime focus or function of the principalship is to provide instructional improvement leadership for his school's staff. To perform this function, he has been given certain areas of authority which are exclusively his. However, in the fulfillment of this function, he will have to engage in numerous activities both for his own education and the education of his staff. These activities we interpret to be his roles.

Roles, then, are obscure and theoretical until they operate in the reality of the situation. These are only identified in the over-all context of the function of the individual. For example, in terms of the principalship and its prime function, there may be numerous ways for a principal to perform his function. He may identify these in terms of faculty meetings, experimentation, or individual teacher conferences. Or, he may feel that he should be a supplier of ma-

terials and resources, or an organizer to facilitate the emergence of new teaching methods. Regardless of the activities engaged in, they become his roles; his function, meanwhile, remains stable and, in this case, singular.

Functions, then, are the theoretical and generalized projections of the purposes of a position. Roles are the practical applications of the ways and means of seeking to fulfill functions. The principal should be able to enunciate his functions even in isolation from his school, but his roles must be identified in a specific setting in terms of the many situational factors surrounding his school.

The Organization for Educational Leadership

The complexity and size of schools and school districts require the leadership energies of many persons. Because of the necessity for many such persons, some sort of administrative organization must be created so that each person's function can be clearly delineated. Of course, the size and complexity of the unit to be administered have an effect upon the nature and function of the various positions established in the organizational structure. A small school, for example, will need only one principal, while a large school may need several additional assistant principals.

The primary purpose of an administrative organization is to facilitate the processes of leadership. No type of organizational arrangement will by itself insure the provision of quality leadership; however, we feel quite sure that adequate leadership performance will not be assured without an effective organization.

Administrative organizational patterns reflect the educational philosophy of those responsible for the development of organizational structures. This helps to account for the numerous instances in which school systems are reorganized following the appointment of new superintendents. Generally, two patterns of structures prevail: centralized and decentralized structures.

A centralized structure will usually be characterized by the delegation of considerable authority to a single individual. For example, the superintendent will have authority to prescribe district educational purposes, dictate procedures for effort to meet such purposes, delineate authority to subordinates in a kind of sub-contractual manner, and make major decisions with or without consulting with subordinates. Essentially, this type of structure developed during the day when schools were much less complex and a single administrator could cope with the situation quite adequately. Perhaps, too, the business world, in striving for economic efficiency, has been a

major influence in causing the development and perpetuation of centralized administrative structures.

The second type of organizational structure, decentralized administration, is characterized by the division of authority and responsibility into components specifically related to educational positions and by the participation in decision-making by personnel not officially designated as leaders. Whereas centralized organizations are prone to effecting fast decisions, partly because of the small number of persons who are directly involved, decentralized organizations are generally slow in decision-making because of the need for the involvement of large numbers of participants.

Operationally, it is doubtful if either of these two kinds of administrative organizations exist in the purest sense. Rather than being bipolar, they are interfused along a continuum in a "mix;" i. e., one aspect of administration may reflect centralization—business administration, for example—while other aspects may reflect a decentralized operation. The point we wish to make is: in-service teacher education, as an administrative function, is too complex to be operated in a highly centralized organizational structure. More on this point later.

Leadership Purposes in Profile

The efforts of educational administrators are exerted in two broad directions: (1) the management of the organization's operation so that established goals can be consistently and persistently sought, and (2) the improvement of the organization's operation either by developing better operational procedures to attain such established goals or by striving to identify new goals and, consequently, new operational procedures. The first direction subsumes that the stability and equilibrium of the enterprize are crucial factors in goal attainment and that the established goals and operational procedures are valid and potentially productive. The second direction subsumes that improvement in both goals and operational procedures is a constant need and that the major administrative effort should be made in this direction.

Of course, there are inherent dangers in the blind pursuit of either of these two directions for administrative effort. Some maintenance of the status quo is a necessary element of the environment if people are to continue to function effectively; however, there are centripetal and centrifugal pressures for educational change, and these cannot long be ignored in our society. On the other hand, "improvement" often carries a connotation of change for change's sake, a meaningless and unsettling condition which is certain to demoralize and irritate.

The following profile of administrative purposes is presented to provide a perspective of how the sub-purposes related to providing in-service teacher education are components of the totality of purposes of educational administration.

Purpose I — *The Instructional Program*

Administration should be concerned with the continuing development and implementation of a quality instructional program.

A. Leadership should be provided for the identification of clearly stated instructional objectives which are congruent with the needs of society and the immediate school community.
B. Leadership should provide for continuous program planning, including the revision and modification of curricula in alignment with the identified educational objectives.
C. Leadership should provide for the implementation of program plans, including supervision and evaluation of programing consequences.

Purpose II — *School Organization*

Administration should be concerned with the continuing development and utilization of adequate and efficient school organizational structure.

A. Leadership should strive for the development of administrative job descriptions which clearly delineate the responsibilities and authority of all personnel.
B. Leadership should provide an organizational structure which encourages the broad participation of school personnel in the development of school objectives, policies, and programs.
C. Leadership should provide for the development of an organizational structure which facilitates the functioning of the instructional program in terms of identified educational objectives.

Purpose III — *Personnel*

Administration should be concerned with the performance, welfare, and professional growth of all school personnel.

A. Leadership should develop procedures for the development and impartial application of appropriate personnel policies.
B. Leadership should provide for the in-service growth of all school personnel.
C. Leadership should provide for the development of procedures which stimulate and encourage personnel and recognize or reward personnel for superior performance.
D. Leadership should develop procedures for the facilitation of communications among personnel.

Purpose IV — *Community Relations*

Administration should be concerned with the development of adequate relationships between the school and the community.

A. Leadership should develop procedures for the insertion of community inputs into the school program, including the marshalling and utilization of community resources, ideas, and support.
B. Leadership should develop procedures for communicating with the community.

Purpose V *School Management*

Administration should be concerned with the development of adequate and efficient school management procedures.

A. Leadership should develop procedures for "routinizing" the management "details" of the school.

B. Leadership should develop procedures for the efficient management of school finances, maintenance of facilities, and the construction of new facilities.

The Function of Leadership in In-Service Teacher Education

The Purposes of Leadership in In-Service Teacher Education

Practically every position of educational leadership has been envisioned as having the function or purpose of improving instruction. Once this generalization has been made, we apparently encounter difficulty in communicating further. Of course, a supervisor of instruction must work for the improvement of instruction, but so should every other professional person. What matters here is that this quite meaningless phrase needs to be explored further in a critical light to determine exactly what it implies.

What, then, are the purposes of leadership in programs of education for teachers in service? The belief that the quality of educational opportunity for children is ultimately dependent upon the quality of the teacher has already been aired. If this belief is accepted, and this discourse is based upon this belief, a series of assumptions seems in order:

1. Because teacher education in service is so vital, specific and definite programs need to be developed. Though some of these programs may be quite informal, they should never be unplanned. Teacher growth by chance is outside the perimeter of teacher education programs.
2. The development of a program implies the internal development of an organization to facilitate that program. Therefore, teacher education must be programed around some type of organization.
3. Because an organization must have leadership in order to achieve its purpose, in-service teacher education must have such leadership.
4. Because each specific educational position carries its own array of functions, certain positions will have to be assigned the function of teacher education.
5. Because the roles of those engaged in teacher education programs are in a constant state of development and re-align-

ment, this fact should be recognized, and provisions should be made for continuous redefinition of productive roles for all those involved.

6. Because effective leadership is so vital, in-service teacher education should include programs designed to help the assigned leadership personnel become increasingly effective.

These assumptions provide a base from which to further clarify the purposes of leadership in programs for the education of teachers in service.

In Chapter II, we pointed out the ten syndromes or clusters of purposes for in-service teacher education. These ten areas also constitute a framework of purposes toward which leadership can work. They, in a sense, are the guidelines from which specific leadership purposes can be extrapolated.

Democracy and Teacher Education In Service

There is considerable misunderstanding concerning "democracy" in the operation of programs of education for teachers in service. Our lack of clarity in this crucial area causes us to resort to behavior that propels us in one of two extremes: Either we become addicted to laissez faire methods of leadership, or we become quite dictatorially aggressive in our zeal to bring about quickly what we perceive to be desirable change. In the former we are denying the necessity and urgency of providing for teacher growth to meet the mounting challenge to develop the improved instructional programs required by our dynamic society. In the latter we are behaving in direct contradiction to the purpose which we have enunciated as the *raison d'etre* of the school in our society: helping the individual pursue his own destiny through democratic participation with his peers. In both cases we are denying all that we know about the conditions necessary for learning; and after all, learning—or improved professional performance—is the goal of teacher education in service.

Democracy and Leadership

The most easily recognized problems in "making democracy work" in teacher education in service lie in the area of leadership behavior. Democracy demands responsive and visionary leadership. Where do we get such leaders? What should be expected from individuals placed in positions of responsibility in teacher education? What are the responsibilities of those who are not officially designated as leaders, but who obviously have a stake in making the

enterprise successful? These are but a few of the problems in the selection and functioning of leadership in teacher education.

Not everyone is equipped for instructional improvement leadership or teacher education leadership. The responsibilities of such leadership usually call for persons of considerable competence in a specialized area. In the more general sense, the specialized competence for such persons may be thought of as the possession of those understandings and skills necessary to help individuals or groups of individuals to identify productive purposes for their self-educative efforts, to find ways of attaining such purposes, and to facilitate changes necessary for attaining them.

Such leadership should recognize that the school or school district does indeed have needs and that these must be identified and attacked; however, concomitantly there must be recognition that the responsiveness of the personnel of the school or school system in identifying and doing something about these needs is dependent to a considerable degree upon the understanding and skill of the leadership itself. This recognition should cause the leadership personnel to identify their own needs and plan programs of self-in-service education for the fulfillment of these identified needs.

While a self-in-service education program for leadership will have to be designed for a specific situation, in a specific environment, and in relationship to the persons involved, certain questions should be considered in all situations:

1. In terms of our community and society, what is a sound theory of education upon which to build a school program?
2. Do we really understand our particular job functions and roles?
3. Do we really know enough about how people grow and learn?
4. How can we improve our skills in communication?
5. How can we improve our skills in working with people, individually and in groups?
6. How can we organize to identify and meet our needs in leadership competence?

Responsibility and Authority in Programs of Education for Teachers In Service

Each educational position carries with it an area of responsibility and an area of authority. The supervisor who does not know exactly where the boundaries of these areas are for his particular position is in a frustrating situation. The principal who does not know how his areas of responsibility and authority fit into, coincide with, or are tangent to other areas in related leadership positions is likely to become either aggressive or immobile. The teacher who is uncertain as

to which leadership position is responsible for and has authority for the various aspects of teacher assistance is likely to experience considerable embarrassment or conflict.

Much of this uncertainty can be alleviated through an understanding of such points as: (1) The superintendent is responsible for and has authority for the development of programs of education for teachers in service so that instructional improvement can be assured. (2) The responsibility of the superintendent cannot be delegated to someone else (authority may be delegated, but not responsibility). (3) The school principal has responsibility and authority, by virtue of his position, for the development of programs of education for the personnel of his school unit; and though he, like the superintendent, may delegate authority for the accomplishment of a particular segment of those programs, he cannot abdicate his final responsibility to the supervisor or anyone else. (4) Though the supervisor may share authority with a planning committee for district-wide coordination and programing, he, too, cannot delegate his responsibility.

The delegation of authority to subordinates by the superintendent is quite clearly a major function of that position. When in the superintendent's judgment a task must be performed and the performance of that task must be delegated to someone else, it becomes his duty to seek out that individual who can most productively and expeditiously perform it. Parallel with the delegation of the task to the proper individual should be the clear delineation of the perimeter of the task and the limits of necessary authority the individual is being delegated for the performance of the task.

The subordinate may question the purpose or even the necessity of the task. He may discuss with the superintendent the proposed methods of accomplishing the task. He may even raise the question of whether or not he, the subordinate, is the proper person to fulfill the assignment. However, once the superintendent has made decisions in terms of the various questions and concerns raised by the subordinate, that subordinate has the duty of performing the task within the expressed boundaries and prescriptions of the superintendent. Democracy will function only when such authority is clearly and firmly vested in specific leadership positions.

The central core of democratic behavior resides in the effectiveness of personal interrelationships among a staff. These interrelationships depend upon (1) the proper delegation of authority; (2) the clarity with which such authority is understood by all persons involved; and (3) the adequacy of intercommunications, whereby all individuals within the organization can relate to each other in terms

of job functions, job roles, and modifications in both functions and roles made necessary by the inevitably changing environment in which the persons function.

"Representation" and Teacher Education In Service

Another important element of leadership in producing adequate educational programs for teachers in service is the element of *representation.* Teachers are often selected as leaders from grades or building units to represent their peer groups in planning system-wide activities, in decision-making, in relating and sharing the work of the local unit with other units, and in communicating the desires, concerns, and problems such local units have identified. Several questions should be considered regarding the use of representation: (1) What are the areas in which a person can reasonably be expected to represent a peer group of teachers? For example, can a representative be delegated the authority to speak for his constituents in the identification of their needs or problems? (2) If the involvement of persons in a program tends to give them greater identity with that program, can the process of having a single person speak for a group of peers result in such involvement? (3) If a decision is to be rendered by the representatives, and each member of the peer group is to be included in the decision-making process, can these representatives be delegated the authority to make the decision even though they, and they alone, may have access to the data on which the decision is to be based?

Typically, school systems employ procedures which rely upon the use of school representatives in system-wide teacher education programing. These procedures portray an overt picture of democracy in action, though they should be examined beyond the superficial stage. Can such people, most of whom will not have experienced formal preparation programs in leadership, be expected to render the quality of in-service teacher education leadership required in the complex nature of such programing? If we demand that principals experience somewhat extended formal preparation programs, prerequisite to employment as instructional leaders, can we assume that teachers can just incidentally learn the leadership skills and competencies which we consciously attempt to build into preparation programs for principals? Of course, the obvious solution to the problem posed by this question lies in the development of experiences for such emergent leaders which will enable them to perform at increasingly higher levels. This means that each school system should develop a rather systematic program for the provision of leadership training experiences for those persons who are

to provide leadership for in-service teacher education programs and activities.

One final word of caution seems necessary in using the process of representation in teacher education programing. When an individual is chosen to speak for his peers, he should be made thoroughly aware of his responsibilities and duties as a representative. If he is to have *carte blanche* authority, he should be so informed. If he is merely to relay the desires, ideas, or instructions of his group. he should understand that these are the limits of his responsibility. If he has some limited authority to go beyond the thinking of his group, this should be clear to him. At any rate, there is a quality of responsibility: The peer group has the responsibility to define and limit the scope of the authority being given to the representatives; the representative has the responsibility to find out what is expected of him and to do it to the best of his ability.

The Relationship Between the Processes of Democracy and the Purpose of In-Service Teacher Education Programing

Programs for the education of teachers in service should operate in the context of democratic processes. Since teachers learn how to behave democratically by their involvement in activities which so operate, the purposes for which in-service teacher education programs must strive can best be achieved through democratic action. However, the purposes for teacher education programing should serve as the focus for effort and activity, and should never be relegated to secondary positions in favor of some ethereal democratic process. Such processes have real use, and we should not have to manufacture simulated situations in order to practice democracy or to develop our skills in understanding it. If democracy means the involvement of the individual so that he can become responsible for his own management, then programs for the education of teachers in service must depend upon and constantly employ those processes which are the essence of democracy.

The Functioning of Leaders in In-Service Teacher Education

There is, of course, a distinction between the functions of leadership in in-service education and the performance of leaders in such functions. It is one thing to describe how something ought to be done, but still another to do it. Much of the literature dealing with leadership simply describes how leaders should behave, not how they might do it. Perhaps the latter is too complex to be generalized. This section attempts to narrow the customary generalizations, to put some meat on the skeleton.

Planning and Initiating In-Service Programs

Leadership requires constant and thoughtful planning. While it is true that occasionally a superintendent or principal stumbles upon a situation which almost insists that it will result in improvements in staff growth, these are too rare for in-service educational programing. Rather, the productive leader will plan to establish many situations where the outcomes are somewhat predictable and desirable. After all, a program is really an hypothesis that if certain things are done with certain people in certain ways and under certain conditions, the net result will be certain predictable outcomes. The "ifs" in this proposition all depend upon *planning* for their specificity.

Planning, lest some autocratically inclined individual misunderstand, is not a solitary process confined to the authority of the official leader. While it is true, we believe, that the status leader has prime responsibility for in-service education planning, he is not the only person who possesses that responsibility. All participants, by virtue of and in regard to the specific educational position they hold, have similar responsibilities. However, the official leader—superintendent, supervisor, principal, et cetera—has a peculiar kind of responsibility; he is officially designated as an educational leader.

Planning requires certain processes: making decisions in terms of the direction of the planning; programing to implement those decisions; and appraising the effects of the implemented programs. These components are cyclic in nature; i.e., decision-making leads to programing which in turn must be followed by appraising and ultimately back to decision-making.

It must be emphasized, however, that this leadership process refers to the action taken by leaders and must, therefore, be within the areas of responsibility and authority assigned to the leader. Any adequate planning will involve those other than official leaders in the same cyclic process adapted to the responsibility and authority of those who are participating. For example, a principal, as he himself plans, might decide that he needs to step up the frequency of his faculty meetings to help his teachers learn more about newer mathematics programs. Thus he has made a decision. He might also decide that these faculty meetings should have the services of a special consultant in mathematics to inform the teachers through lectures and films about new mathematics. This is a programing projection. If he expects to succeed in this venture, he will try to have all his teachers who are teaching mathematics react to his "suggestions" about his proposals, at which time they may modify the planning along the lines which they perceive as being essential. There-

fore, he has planned by himself, he has involved others in acting upon his plans so that they can accept them as theirs, and he has set the stage for the initiation and implementation of a program in in-service education.

We are addressing ourselves to this point because we have observed too often school leaders who were prone to expect others to do all the planning for in-service education programs, leaving the leader relatively uninvolved in the entire process or at least only "one of the boys." The official leader can never be just another participant; his position compels him to provide leadership. He must fulfill this responsibility, though, of course, he should do it in a manner befitting a status leader in a democracy.

The initiation of efforts aimed toward the development of in-service teacher education programs is an important function of leadership. When a person is employed as a leader, he is expected to be an initiator of activities for the improvement of his program. Not only do his employers hold this expectation, others also have a similar expectation. In a typical school situation the staff will be reluctant to forge ahead of the principal in the suggestion of new activities unless, of course, the principal has deliberately developed such a permissive atmosphere.

Initiation is more than just calling a staff together and announcing that the time is ripe for the development of in-service education activities. The response such a principal is likely to receive is one of "so what?". However, if that principal has appraised the situation, has made some decisions about what he should do in the provision of in-service leadership, and has developed some suggested approaches for the projection of certain activities, then the response from his staff is quite likely to be enthusiastic and eager.

Manipulating Environmental Factors

Leadership, especially official leadership, is in the unique position of being able to manipulate many factors in the school environment so that in-service teacher education can become productive. The focusing of financial support, materials, and other resources in programing for in-service education activities is an important function of the leader. Too often and for too long such activities have been financed and supported at a level that could only result in less than desirable productiveness.

The official leader, by virtue of his perspective, should be qualified to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the school unit within his jurisdiction. This is a primary administrative responsibility and should be a continuing process followed by the maneuvering of

resources to meet crucial needs. For example, if a principal has evidence that his teachers need certain additional materials in mathematics instruction, he should attempt to find ways of providing such materials.

Generally, in-service education needs are not so simple to identify nor so easy to meet. Considerable time, thought, and effort are required to analyze a faculty in terms of their knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Even more effort is required to manipulate appropriate environmental elements to meet the needs associated with such assessments.

Working with People

Leadership, of course, implies working with people. In in-service teacher education this meaning assumes primary importance, for the basic processes in this endeavor are designed to facilitate learning for the professional staff. Undergirding any in-service program is the assumption that the participants have to learn *how* to modify their performance before they can actually modify it. A sound program will be founded and operated in terms of what the participants know about human learning processes. Chapter II dealt with learning in some detail; however, some additional points are suitable at this point:

1. The leader should recognize that his is a quasi-teaching task, that whatever he does should be done within the framework of the best knowledge about learning.
2. The leader should be aware that while all people want to learn, there are varying levels of receptivity for learning as it may apply to in-service teacher education.
3. The leader should attempt to understand the school environment as it is understood by other participants. Perceptual differences are unavoidable; however, the leader should try to understand these differences.
4. An avoidance of "good" or "bad" evaluation of peoples' actions, while difficult, is likely to promote better rapport in working with people. Most people feel that they are doing the best they can under the circumstances.
5. The more the leader is actively involved, contingent, of course, on the kind of participation he evinces, the more easily he will be able to exert high quality leadership. The leader who is conspicuous by his absence is in danger of losing the advantages which accrue from *working* relationships. There is little place for remote control leadership in in-service teacher education.

Making Decisions

A decision to many people is simply a judgmental act, the selection of a course of action from two or more alternatives. Perhaps it can be reduced to such simple terms; however, decision making in in-service teacher education generally is a complex and difficult task.

Actually, many of the crucial decisions in in-service teacher education are the product of many persons' deliberations. The focusing of these persons' action, however, is brought about by the organization in which they function and by prior decisions of the leadership of that organization which caused the participation of these persons. If there is little organization, or if the organization is not designed to channel individual efforts into a mainstream, decisions must be made by individuals. While certain decisions call for the action of only one person, most in-service education decisions cannot be so narrowly developed.

If a superintendent who has developed only a semblance of organization brings his staff together only to communicate the details of a decision he alone has made, he may find that his staff will either passively acquiesce or actively rebel at that course of action he has decided upon. Of course, each leader must make decisions as a function of his job; however, he must be careful that the effect of the decision is in keeping with his particular job.

A decision has several elements or characteristics: (1) it has a relationship to prior decisions and courses of action; (2) it is made because two or more alternative choices are present when only one can be followed; (3) it is made in due regard to the knowledge and value patterns of the maker; and (4) it implies that some sort of action will follow.

A decision is a component of a series of decisions; those which have preceded it affect it directly and indirectly. Most decisions, while they affect the course of action to be taken, seldom are terminal; other decisions are made necessary as the alternative selected is pursued. In fact decisions have a way of establishing precedents upon which later decisions are based.

A decision is made necessary because several choices of action are present. Without at least two such choices no decision would have to be made. Compromise may merge the choices until they lose their individual identity; however, the newly developed choice still represents an additional alternative.

All decisions are made because of the knowledge and value patterns of the makers. It has been said that if two people are given the same choices to make, have the same knowledge and the same

value patterns, they will make the same decision.[1] Though administrators may appear to behave inconsistently in making decisions, there is some reason to believe that the inconsistency lies in the perception others have of them.

A decision implies that a course of action, indeed some action, will follow. While the decision may affect only inconsequential alternatives—a low-level, rather unimportant decision—some action is implied. Of course, the action may be likewise insignificant.

In in-service education, as in administration, the decision-making process is the key process in determining whether the program will be so heavily centralized that only a few persons are involved or whether the program will be decentralized and utilize the advice and participation of many persons. If involvement is to be sought, and in in-service education this is vital, then this can best be obtained when the decision-making process is attended by a broad spectrum of persons.

For each decision to be made there should be someone with the responsibility for seeing that it is made. Some decisions must be made by a single individual, while others require the participation of many persons. In any case, however, a single person should have the responsibility for assuring that the decision is acted upon. The organization should have this assurance incorporated into it, areas of responsibility delineated for each participant, and the authority assigned for the accomplishment of the responsibility. Suggestions for the proper assignment of responsibility and authority in in-service education follow.

The Leadership for In-Service Teacher Education Programs

Present patterns of school organization include certain positions which carry with them responsibility and authority for the development of programs for teacher education in service. Even at the expense of repeating ourselves, let us examine a rather typical school district organization, identify the various status positions, and state their functions and roles in providing leadership for in-service teacher educaton.

The Superintendent

Because the responsibility for instructional improvement clearly rests with the superintendent, he has the ultimate responsibility for the in-service education of his total staff. He may delegate the neces-

[1] Herbert Simon, *Administrative Behavior.* New York: Macmillan, 1950. p. 241.

sary authority to his subordinates for the initiation and implementation of programs and activities related to teacher education, and he may help them clarify their own responsibilities in such programs, but he can never absolve himself of his responsibility in this area. His position in the school system's organization assigns this responsibility to him.

As superintendent, his involvement in the further education of his staff should cause him to perform several roles. Among these are:

1. He should seek the necessary budgetary support for financing a program of in-service teacher education.
2. He should make schedule and calendar arrangements which will provide adequate time for the program.
3. He should seek the employment of personnel with competencies which will support the program.
4. He should provide liaison arrangements with the state department of education, cooperating colleges, and other resources.
5. He should make the appropriate delegation of authority to his subordinates for the initiation and implementation of programs.
6. He should take the initiative in seeing that his "leadership team," including his central office staff and his principals, are involved in an in-service leadership education program.
7. He should actively engage himself in programs within and without his school system for the deliberate purpose of improving his own professional competence in providing educational leadership.

The Director of Instruction

The holder of this position may wear many hats and may be called by other *nom de plumes* such as "assistant superintendent for instruction" or "director of elementary (or secondary) education." Accordingly, we shall identify the position in several contexts.

The director of instruction may be a quasi-administrator with responsibility beyond or separate from in-service teacher education. Ideally, perhaps, in smaller school districts this position should be developed as a kind of general supervisory job with primary responsibility for the education of teachers in service. In larger districts, probably, the position must be structured in the organization as a kind of chief supervisor, a kind of "supervisor of supervisors."

Regardless of the size of the district, and the title of the position

if it is supervisory, this person must be assigned distinct functions and roles:

1. He must be in part responsible for in-service education either of teachers or of supervisors.
2. He must have the necessary delegated authority in order to meet his responsibility.
3. He must be aware of and function for the continuing growth of himself in programs calculated to improve leadership.

The General Supervisor

(This section is quoted from "Teacher Education In Service: The Function of the General Supervisor," *Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service,* College of Education, University of Kentucky, Vol. XXXV (December, 1962).

The bulletin begins by stating: "It is generally agreed that the supervisor is responsible for the improvement of instruction. Certainly, however, he is not the only one with such a responsibility. The contention here is that his task has been so loosely defined, so generally conceived, so left to the shifting forces of time in its evolution as part of our school system, that a sharp reappraisal of his assignment is overdue."

Some revision of concepts concerning function are necessary: "If general supervisors are to become responsible for the in-service education of the total staff, several modifications will be required. The traditional function of the general supervisor will need radical revision as will the purposes for which the supervisor will work. Such alterations in purposes will in turn necessitate revision of both the operational organization and the operational processes of supervisory programs."

Areas of responsibility are suggested: "The general supervisor charged with such a function would become responsible for: (1) the identification of and planning for experiences through which staff could acquire those knowledges and understandings and develop those skills needed to improve their performance; (2) the implementation of those planned experiences; (3) the evaluation of the experiences provided the staff; and (4) the modification of the instruction program as a result of the provision of these learning experiences for the staff."

A point of focus is suggested: "The literature is replete with materials related to the processes or procedures which seem effective for supervision. Such terms or concepts as *democratic, creative, stimulative* and *suggestive* are familiar to those who work in this area.

Further, such operational activities as planning committees, work committees, curriculum study committees, classroom visitations, and individual conferences are similarly familiar. Also, much has been written on the initiation, implementation, and evaluation of supervisory activities and programs. Therefore, there is little need to discuss such matters here. It is essential, however, to clarify and elaborate upon the *point of focus* of these if they are to become a consistent part of a program designed for the continued professional development of a staff in service.

"The basic point is that a program developed for the purpose of promoting staff development, of necessity, must have a clearly established set of goals or purposes to indicate the direction in which such development is desired. Ten such purposes have been suggested as desirable ends toward which continued progress is essential if the performance of professional responsibilities is to improve. It would then follow that successful progress toward such purposes would occur only as a staff has additional related experiences which result in the development of further knowledges, understandings, and skills. The process of such acquisitions is referred to as *learning*. Such learning that occurs in a program designed to facilitate it and to influence its direction is considered to be a resultant of 'teaching.' Teaching—or a type of teaching—has to be the basic ingredient, the focus, for the operational procedures employed by the general supervisor.

"A general supervisor, in the type of supervisor program proposed here, must persistently ask himself, 'How can I work so that what I do can become a meaningful learning experience for those of us involved? His answer, obviously, must come from within himself—his knowledges, understandings, and skills within the problem, concern, or task at hand; within the individuals with whom he is working; and within the total situation of which this concern or problem is a part. He should recognize, however, that the procedures or processes he uses will to a great extent influence the experiences and subsequent learnings he and his staff derive from them."

The supervisor is a teacher: "Said another way, the operational procedures of the general supervisor should focus constantly on his role as a staff educator or teacher. In reality he should work in a manner quite similar to that of an effective classroom teacher. For example, both the teacher and the general supervisor have long-range and short-range purposes clearly in mind as they develop experiences with those with whom they work. Both recognize their roles as both 'teachers' and 'learners.' Both provide for the indi-

viduality of those with whom they work. Both attempt to identify with and for their 'learners' specific needs or interests related to the purposes sought. Both start with these identified needs and interests and cooperatively develop appropriate experiences for their pursuit. Both employ a variety of processes and procedures—the major emphasis of all being that of problem-solving. Both cooperatively evaluate and experience with their 'students' and use the evaluation to identify new needs to be pursued. And, both use these newly identified needs or interests as a base for repeating the process of planning, implementing, and evaluating."

The School Principal

The school principal, like the supervisor, is in a position where job descriptions are partly defined in a legal framework and partly developed by incumbents. The typical situation, though, places the administrative aspects in the legal or traditional category (and these aspects may be quite specifically defined) but leaves the supervisory aspects clothed in vague generalities. For example, the principal, in most states, is charged with reporting the attendance statistics of his school to his school district. Likewise, he is customarily legally responsible for seeing that a minimum course of study for students is followed by his teachers. However, in terms of his supervisory function, the legal guidelines are usually vague except to indicate that a portion of his time, for example fifty per cent in Kentucky, should be spent in supervision of instruction. Thus, he is relatively free to develop the supervisory function of his position as he, his colleagues, and his supervisors see fit.

If the "improvement of instruction" is either a stated or implied function of the school principal, and this has generally been accepted at least in theory, he has several routes available to him in performing his function. One route, and this is our chief concern here, lies in upgrading his staff so that they can perform their functions more adequately. He will traverse this route with greater speed and fewer detours if he quickly recognizes that what he does, and the manner in which he does it, is dependent upon his own competence as a school principal. This recognition may seem quite elementary and obvious; nevertheless, it should be the basis of a second assumption: His performance in large measure will be determined by his own continuing growth as a leader in in-service teacher education.

This means that he should actively seek to find ways of furthering his own competence in teacher-education leadership. To do so, he may proceed in two generalized directions: (1) He may study aspects of leadership which are not immediately and directly of pressing

concern in his present job situation, (e.g., reading about how to structure faculty efforts in adding foreign language instruction in the elementary school, even though no such effort is now projected for his school); or (2) he may decide to confine his study to those areas in which he is already or about to be engaged. Of course, the former direction may prevent his becoming provincial, while the latter has the advantage of "urgency as a motivational factor in learning." The first direction may enable him to proceed at a leisurely pace with fewer worries about priority of efforts, while the second may, if he is inclined toward greater productivity, help him achieve more in the efforts in which he is involved.

In the kind of in-service teacher education program envisioned by these writers, the school principal is the key to quality. Because we visualize the individual school as the prime seedbed for the germination of programs and activities necessary to the professional growth of teachers, and because we believe that it is only in this setting that self-perpetuating programs can be sustained over an extended period of time, the leadership responsibility of the principal is indeed almost overwhelming. Though the responsibility is tremendous, we see great advantages in anchoring teacher education programs to the local school setting. Having observed for many years the efforts of school districts to effect district-wide programs, and having participated in their frustrations and minor achievements, we have come to believe that a school district's program has limited possibilities except in (1) providing a matrix for coordinating the programs of various schools of the system, and (2) providing resources, both personnel from the central office staff and materials needed to fit the requirements of local school programs. In this concept, the programs of education for teachers in service begin and are implemented at the local school level. These school programs are appropriately related to form the district's program of teacher education.

Others in Leadership Roles

Not all leadership comes from those persons within a district's organization who are assigned as status leaders. A prime advantage of democracy is that theoretically all persons in a given situation have responsibilities and rights in making decisions affecting the total group. This aspect of democracy has already been discussed, and so no repetition of it will be made here. However, it is a premise which must be used to project a view of the teacher as a leader in helping to develop in-service teacher education programs.

The desire to "behave democratically" is not the only reason for including teachers in leadership roles in teacher education, for, as

previously pointed out, an important principle of learning is also tied up in the same package. This principle, repeated but paraphrased, asserts that learning is more likely to occur if the individual is personally involved in the area under consideration. Because *involvement* is an important motivation technique, there is considerable value in providing individual teachers opportunities to participate as leaders in in-service teacher education programing.

The point here, however, is that the emergent "leader," the teacher, should be given opportunities which are beyond the level of superficiality. Teachers can and should participate in a meaningful and significant manner in such leadership roles as making decisions concerning purposes, organizational arrangements, and operational processes in in-service teacher education programs. As leaders—even though all will not, cannot, be leaders in the context suggested here—they can make valuable contributions and add strength to any program. Their participation should have the dual outcome of facilitating growth for those teachers who can be leaders and who can, in the process, provide leadership for the facilitation of growth for others.

The College and In-Service Teacher Education Leadership

The college which is engaged in pre-service teacher education has a leadership responsibility extending beyond the period of time which the teacher or prospective teacher spends on the campus. Nor is this responsibility completely absolved through the customary sponsoring of summer conferences, off-campus "extension" classes, or mild-mannered "follow-up" questionnaires. Such responsibility is much deeper and the methods of meeting it far more complex. While this area was mentioned in Chapter I, several additional points need to be clarified.

Most colleges, unless they are community colleges, are not regional institutions; consequently, they draw their students from wide-ranging places. Thus they naturally find little reason to select schools or school districts arbitrarily and pledge their support to these schools or districts in in-service teacher education. Prospective teachers arrive at their gates, spend the necessary time in preparation programs, and then drop out of sight in the classrooms of the nation. Occasionally, some of these teachers reappear for second or third engagements in summer or evening classes, but at their choice. One vital necessity is overlooked, however—that of the college's making continuing assessments of its level of productivity in teacher education. And where, one may well ask, can such assessments best be made? On the college campus or in the classrooms presided over by teachers?

Of course, it would be virtually impossible for a college to follow all its licensed products into their classrooms; however, in order to find the proper environment for making assessments of what to do to upgrade its preparation programs, a college might, in cooperative arrangements with a given school or school district, accept a leadership function in in-service teacher education. Actually, this function is accepted whenever a college embarks upon pre-service teacher education, but it would be naive to assume that all colleges have identified their responsibilities in this area. As has been repeatedly stated, teacher education programing is composed of two phases, pre- and in-service, but this is only an artificial way of trying to divide that which is indivisible. Fragmentation will ultimately result in static programing, while what we so urgently need in teacher education is synthesis and growth. Hence a college should never say, in effect, to a school system, "Here is a teacher for you; he's all yours; our job in his preparation is completed."

Colleges should begin to exercise leadership in in-service teacher education by such means as (1) responding to requests for assistance from a school district and maintaining the relationship thus initiated; and (2) identifying those districts which by established criteria are convenient and receptive to college-initiated efforts for in-service teacher education programs.

Experiences at the University of Kentucky have clearly indicated that there is little difficulty in developing cooperative, working relationships between colleges and local school districts. The College of Education has sought to develop these relationships in many ways. For example, a staff member has been assigned the nearly full-time task of assisting schools in planning for and implementing in-service teacher education activities. This person serves as consultant to planning groups, consults with official school leadership, assists in securing other consultative help, and generally seeks to provide assistance to and stimulation for local in-service programs. In effect, this position is a bridge or liaison between pre- and in-service teacher education programs.

The College of Education also initiates and supports research and development ventures in in-service teacher education. For instance, operating under a grant from the United States Office of Education, the College conducted an eighteen month research study (1964-65) with four Kentucky county school districts to develop more effective procedures whereby a college staff might assist local administrators in their own professional growth in educational administration. The outcomes of this study include the establishment of

improved cooperation and show that great value accrued to both the College and the school districts.

Another significant outcome of these actions has been the increasing emphasis placed upon "planned programing" for the education of teachers in service. While most colleges engage in fulfilling their "service function" by supplying consultants, materials, and so forth, we firmly believe that until these services are organized and programs are planned for their use with teachers, the resultant professional growth of teachers is left too much to chance. And because local school districts have the ultimate responsibility for the development of programs to help their professional staffs grow in service, it would seem only logical that the college and the school district plan concerted action in this direction.

The State Department of Education in In-Service Teacher Education

The various state departments of education have traditionally operated in terms of three generally accepted major functions: leadership, regulation, and service. Our concern here is with leadership, though it is quite difficult to separate this function from the other two.

All state departments of education have an internal organizational pattern which includes provision for the certification of professional personnel. In Kentucky, for example, this function is the responsibility of the Division of Teacher Education and Certification, which, appropriately, is a part of the Bureau of Instruction. In this organization, the Division is responsible for the development of minimum licensing standards and the related function of providing leadership for the development of teacher education curricula. This arrangement places the personnel of the Division in an advantageous position whereby they can provide leadership for the coordination of these two functions.

Teacher education, however, is composed of two phases, preservice and in-service. Each phase should complement and supplement the other; each is dependent upon the other; therefore, the line of demarcation separating them is in reality an artificial one. In an effort to remove this line, or at least to reduce its influence, the Division of Teacher Education and Certification has for many years provided leadership in both pre-service and in-service teacher education.

In 1950 the Kentucky General Assembly, at the suggestion of the State Department of Education, enacted legislation providing for planned leadership and assistance to the various school districts in Kentucky in their local in-service teacher education programs. The projected program envisioned the employment of Department of

Education staff members who would serve as consultants to local districts in the development of their in-service teacher education programs. This action by the General Assembly was followed by supplementary action of the State Board of Education in permitting local school districts to use two regular teaching days for planned in-service activities, thus helping to provide time for such an important endeavor.

In 1956 this state-wide program took a new tack. Four of the state colleges agreed to assist in the enterprise by each, jointly with the Department, employing and supporting an in-service consultant to be housed on their respective campuses. In 1962 the College of Education of the University of Kentucky joined in this cooperatively sponsored program. Though this program has been somewhat altered since 1964, the essential elements remain intact. One major change occurred in 1965 with the employment of a supervisor of in-service teacher education by the Kentucky Department of Education.

Needless to say, this program has had considerable impact upon the development of in-service education programs in Kentucky. Practically all the school systems avail themselves of the services of college consultants in planned programs. Consequently, there is an acute awareness of the necessity for the improvement of in-service education as a prime means of improving the quality of learning experiences for Kentucky's school population.

Summary

In this chapter we have attempted to clarify some ideas concerning the function of leadership in educational programs for teachers in service. We have sought to show that leadership is a necessary component of such programs, and have tried to outline the general tasks of leadership in in-service education programing.

We have reiterated our firm belief that in-service education is the most expeditious way of improving instruction in the schools of our nation, indeed that instructional improvement cannot reach significance without resorting to this method.

We have stated that leadership must have purposes of a dual nature, those of helping others improve their professional competence and those which point toward the growth of the leaders themselves.

We have tried to relate the leadership tasks in in-service teacher education to specific job positions so that the total responsibilities of leadership will not exclude in-service education.

We have tried to clarify the in-service education responsibilities

of various agencies and institutions whose nature impinges upon this vital area.

In the succeeding chapter we discuss the more practical task of initiating and operating programs of in-service teacher education in the local school setting.

CHAPTER IV

INITIATING AND OPERATING PROGRAMS OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

As has been indicated earlier, programs of teacher education in service can become instruments through which some of the elements of chance in staff development may be reduced. Acknowledgement has been made of the reality that teacher education, while essential in the long run, is but one of several variables involved in effecting modifications of an instructional program for children. As such, it can function effectively only when it is addressed to those problems, interests and concerns which hold potential for providing educational experiences for some or all of a staff.

In this chapter we treat the initiation and implementation of such a program of in-service teacher education. First, we shall describe some of the conditions which, when present, give testimony to the fact that in-service education in a given situation is surely needed. Secondly, we shall describe how a program of in-service education can be initiated within a school setting. Thirdly, we shall briefly discuss how the in-service education programs of the various schools of a district can be coordinated.

The reader is cautioned to recognize that the previous chapters serve as a base line upon which this treatment is developed. To insure that this recognition is maintained, some repetition and clarification of the major points previously discussed will be used. Though what we say may be redundant, we believe this is the most propitious manner for the presentation of the ideas in this chapter.

Conditions Indicating Need for In-Service Teacher Education

Although it would be difficult indeed to imagine a school or school district in which there was not considerable need for in-service teacher education, the degree of need and the direction of programing to meet such need would necessarily vary from school to school. Local conditions which are unique in relationship to particular schools must be analyzed and considered in the development of in-service programs. Therefore, the official leadership of a school or district responsible for the stimulation of educational change via in-service education should make more than a cursory anaylsis of local conditions which reflect the need for and the direction of in-service education. Some cues for making this analysis follow.

1. *Lack of Common Educational Purposes*
Practically every school has a set of enunciated instructional purposes or objectives. Too frequently these purposes are little more than gross, global statements, broad in scope yet reflecting little apparent awareness of specific pupil and community needs. Just as frequently these statements mask the areas of need about which a school staff may be in disagreement or indecision. This situation, if left untended, cannot result in the kind of concerted and coordinated effort so crucial in bringing about improved instructional progaming. No longer can we permit each teacher or staff member the license to choose his own instructional goals and to operate his own little segment of the school program in isolation. *If this situation does exist,* in-service teacher education is needed to bring focus to the instructional program.

2. *Absence of Major Experimentation*
The development of new instructional programs, new organizational patterns, the use of new instructional media, et cetera, have begun to revolutionize education. Each of these innovations, however, calls for local experimentation to test methods of implementation. New mathematics programs, for example, cannot be adequately incorporated into ongoing school programs without appropriate experimentation to test proced , for integrating the innovation into the total school program. Perhaps one of the greatest fallacies in programing is the assumption that the diffusion of an innovation can be accomplished with a minimum regard for local conditions. Few, if any, innovative programs come completely packaged with universally appropriate instructions for introduction and operation.

Thus, the absence of major experimentation would seem to indicate that staff growth activities are needed so that new ideas receive appropriate consideration and testing.

3. *Shortage of Suitably Prepared Personnel*
In this day of burgeoning instructional programs, many schools are experiencing a dire shortage of personnel appropriately equipped with the competencies so necessary to staff this proliferation of programs. For example, many programs supported by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 in the area of reading are faltering because of the lack of enough reading specialists. This condition is so obvious that the need for preparing these specialists can be readily

identified. What is needed, perhaps, is not simply the development of programs to prepare X number of reading teachers, but the concomitant planning of programs to help educate teachers so that the remediation needs of children might be eliminated or reduced.

4. *Infrequency of Concerted Efforts to Plan New Instructional Programs*

In a recent study of twenty-two Kentucky school districts it was found that only one third of the elementary schools and less than one half of the secondary schools have faculty meetings oftener than once a month. In effect this would seem to indicate that the teachers in these districts are left to their own devices, deliberately isolated from planned interaction with each others, and deprived of the security such interaction can provide when new ideas and new demands are rampant.

Of course, the infrequency of staff meetings does not necessarily reveal the need for in-service education; however, it is an index of need that should be examined. We are aware that some principals schedule faculty meetings with great frequency only to turn them into routine business sessions. We are also aware that "meetings" are only a part of in-service education programing. We believe, however, that frequent staff interaction is a necessary component of instructional program development and that staff needs will emerge as this interaction occurs.

5. *Infrequency of Staff Contact with Outside Resources*

New ideas are diffused through a variety of means; professional journals, books, seminars, conferences, et cetera; all contribute to the spread of innovative ideas. Thus it is important that a school staff has a multiplicity of opportunities to read about, hear about, and discuss the newly developing instructional programs. "Outside" consultants, serving as diffusion or catalytic agents, can be of invaluable assistance in breaching the barriers of staff isolation.

If few planned opportunities exist for a school staff to make use of extramural resources, the necessity for in-service activities to offer such opportunities should be obvious.

6. *Poorly Defined School Leadership Roles*

The administration of a complex educational program, whether in a school or school district, is a difficult task at best. When administrators are also concerned with the promotion of

deliberate, planned change, the task is even more demanding. The totality of administration requires that numerous official leadership positions be created: superintendency, assistant superintendencies, supervisory positions, principalships, et cetera. Even in a static state wherein the status quo in programing is maintained, it is difficult to keep job assignments specific and clear-cut so that each leader knows the perimeters of his responsibility and authority. In a situation where change is demanded and sought, job assignments become even more a matter of concern. In the latter situation much effort is usually required to assure maximum production by each person and a minimum of duplicating efforts and job conflicts.

In schools or districts where leadership job assignments are ill-defined, there is an obvious need for in-service education for leadership personnel.

Program Initiation Within a School

For several reasons, efforts to develop programs of in-service teacher education have frequently by-passed the local school to operate at the district level. One reason is the belief that teachers within a school district need to get together for morale-building purposes, that some problems are common throughout the district and, therefore, require district-wide attack, and that centralization of efforts will produce greater results. However, a reason which is probably more basic is that we are bound to the old, traditional teacher-institute concept which used the district-wide approach to instructional improvement. Each of these reasons exerts its influence; each undoubtedly has advantages; however, we should have long since learned from our experiences that instructional improvement can best occur on an individual-school basis, not on a district-wide basis. Our experimentation with "community schools" during the past few decades should have taught us this fact of life.

Schools within a system, then, do differ. They have different enrollments, children, teachers, principals, communities, facilities, and programs. Because of these differences, each school has certain instructional problems and certain instructional-improvement opportunities uniquely its own. Because of these differences, each school should initiate and implement its own teacher education program as a coordinated part of a total program within a school district.

A teacher education program in service, as here conceptualized and treated, is based upon the identification of staff and instructional

program needs through interaction of staff with instructional programs for children. Such needs are unique to their setting. While the same general statement of needs might be made by several schools, each faculty would perceive these needs differently and would seek to implement programs to meet their perceived needs in a manner unique to itself. For example, a school system with which we have been working engaged its elementary teachers in a year-long study of its English program. A rather extensive analysis was made of such things as purposes of the English program, the basic concepts to be taught, the materials to be used, and the sequence of the various aspects of the program. All these ideas were incorporated into an English curriculum guide; however, the important outcome as reported by teachers was the learning experience they derived from the effort. The curriculum guide is now being used, but in different ways by different teachers in different schools, depending in large part on how the individual teacher perceives the needs of pupils.

In initiating an in-service teacher education program, then, it seems that the local school can no longer be overlooked or bypassed as the basic unit. It is the "classroom" for the staff that works there. It is the laboratory within which each teacher, as a learner, identifies his problems, interests, or needs and where he hypothesizes and tests various solutions with children. Consequently, the local school provides the most practical and effective framework for initiating and implementing a program of in-service teacher education.

Levels of Expectation

School staffs seem to reflect the level of expectation held for them by persons filling status positions. A staff cannot effectively produce at a level very far beyond that held by the leader. In this instance the principal sets this expectation. When the principal's, the supervisor's, and the superintendent's expectations overlap and are mutually supportive, staff security and productivity seem to increase proportionally. For example, recently in one school district a building principal and his staff wanted to engage in a year-long serious study of a particular problem which held considerable potential for helping the staff to "understand children" in relation to their present program. Unfortunately, the general supervisor, by word and deed, indicated that the outcome of such an activity would be questionable and that he valued a system-wide activity (a two-day conference) with all personnel participating, on a general theme unrelated to the identified concern of this school's staff. Obviously, the teachers and

the principal were greatly upset and confused. The principal's level of expectation was geared to a depth study of a specific problem faced by his immediate staff. The supervisor's level of expectation was that of involving everyone in an intensive two-day examination of a generalized problem unrelated to any specific program.

Let us contrast the above with an example taken from another school district. In this instance the building principal and his staff, after studying their goal achievements, recognized that some individual children were being overlooked in their program. The principal invited the supervisor and superintendent to meet with his staff to discuss the findings accumulated from this study. After this meeting, the staff began an intensive study of methods, of materials, of organizational patterns, of conditions for learning, and of their fundamental purposes. The supervisor became a resource person, a participating member, and a co-leader with the principal in this endeavor. The superintendent added his weight to the effort through oral comments, through his reactions to requests from the staff for released time, through providing money for travel to other school districts, through the purchase of materials, and through the securing of consultants. The leadership personnel, then, were united in their expectation that this staff could and would do something, and this unity added to the security of the staff. The result was that this school eventually moved into an experimental ungraded elementary school program, which, though it may not prove to be the panacea they hope for, will undoubtedly enable them to grow professionally and keep them endeavoring to find better ways of providing for individual children.

Another facet of expectation relates directly to staff productivity, staff involvement, or staff commitment to a program of in-service teacher education. Unless the building principal, supported by the supervisor and superintende , expects his staff to involve themselves in a productive manner, little of significance can accrue. For example, we were recently in a school where the principal repeatedly commented that in-service education was a waste of time. He further added that his were all "degree teachers" and that the role of the administrator was to take care of the details so that his teachers could teach. It is true that he performed admirably in routing various reports and communications to his staff. Teachers had few interruptions during the day and were not "bothered" with committee and faculty work. However, further questions revealed that: (1) The drop-out rate within his school was one of the highest in the state. (2) The instructional program had changed but very little (a foreign language had been added) in the past six years. (3) No

teacher was trying any new teaching procedures nor using any of the newer teaching materials. (4) His program had crystallized into a routine cover-the-textbook operation. (5) None of his teachers belonged to or participated in any organization other than the state educational association. (6) The most recent attendance in a college course was that of the new language teacher four years previously. When asked about these factors, the principal and his staff replied to the effect that they had a good school and spent their time in teaching and saw their involvement in in-service education or curriculum improvement as a waste of time. Truly, then, this staff reflected the level of commitment and expectation of this principal. Little could happen in such a setting that would result in the continued professional development of the staff.

Let us contrast this example with another in which the principal was overtly committed to instructional improvement as a consequence of teacher education. In the early phase of his tenure in this school, he had initiated faculty study and work committees. His staff recognized his enthusiasm for improvement and learned that he was supportive of them in new endeavors whether or not they were completely successful. Thus, because they were sensitive to the principal's expectations, they responded accordingly. In the time we have known this school, all but one of the staff have been engaged either in a college summer school or in an extension class, and all have served on one or more faculty study groups each year. At the present time seventy per cent of this staff are engaged in some form of experimental teaching. Individualization of instruction has become increasingly expected, apparent, and formalized in the programs of reading, arithmetic, and social studies. Teaching materials have been used increasingly as a means to an end, as evidenced by such steps as the abandonment of a single text, the purchase of multiple texts, the distribution of textbooks according to children rather than by grade-level, the increased use of audio-visual equipment, and the development of materials by children and teachers. Today, one would hardly recognize this school and these teachers as the same he visited six years ago. Why? Probably one of the teachers summed it up best, "When Mr. _____ came, things started to happen. He expected us to experiment, to do things differently, and we had to learn how. He helped us and now none of us work any other way." He expected his staff to grow; he made it possible; he helped; and together, they have created an entirely new and different school for children.

While the preceding example does not provide specific evidence that the quality of the instructional program was significantly im-

proved, it does show evidence of some conditioners which point toward the eventual improvement of instruction, and it does show that the behavior of the principal is reflected in the behavior of his staff.

Setting a high level of expectation, then, is one of the essential roles to be played by the principal. This role must be supported overtly by the supervisor and by the less active but still positive effort of the superintendent. Unless those responsible expect something to happen and communicate this expectation clearly to those with whom they work, little or nothing of a positive, developmental nature can occur.

The Identification of Needs

The responsibility for seeing that the needs of the school are identified rests with the principal. Not only should he facilitate the efforts of others to identify the needs that they can perceive, but he should also continuously engage himself in identifying those needs he can see. In both instances he should avail himself of all the help and assistance he can find from such sources as the supervisor, the superintendent, and other principals.

The fulfillment of this role might be pursued through several techniques such as visiting classrooms, conferring with individual teachers, using checklists or inventories, and having departmental, grade-level, or total school faculty meetings.

One principal annually closes his school year with a series of faculty meetings in which each group or committee that has been functioning makes a brief progress report. The major part of these reports is devoted to the identification of things remaining to be done. These are then reviewed by a committee of the staff during the summer, and plans are initiated to make changes that are currently possible and to project plans to deal with others during the following year.

In another school each teacher is asked to evaluate his year's work. One part of the evaluation is the identification of areas in which he feels he should grow during the following year. Another section asks that he report those changes which he feels should be made in the instructional program and in the operation of the school. These are then reviewed before the closing of school; and, through a series of small group conferences, a tentative plan for the following year is developed.

The role of securing the information is filled cooperatively by the principal and the supervisor. However, in each case the primary responsibility is accepted by the principal. It is he who invites the

supervisor to work with him, to contribute his knowledge, skill, and time, and to serve as a coordinating agent between this and other schools. However, the supervisor is always working "under" the principal, for this is his school, his staff, and his responsibility. Thus their roles are clear, and there is no confusion as to purpose or procedure. The staff feels secure with each, for in both cases the individual roles are clear and are identified in a manner that leads to productive activity for staff development.

The Priority Arrangement of Needs

Once a list of needs has been identified, there remains the responsibility of selecting the one or ones most pertinent to teacher education. Not all needs emerging from a school operation can or should be treated to promote teacher education. For example, the modification of a lunchroom schedule holds questionable possibilities for in-service education. The same might be true of needs having to do with the operation of the library or the scheduling of assembly programs. Someone, then, must assume the responsibility and leadership for setting up procedures for screening problems, assigning them for treatment to an appropriate agent, and selecting the one or ones which are most closely related to teacher education. This role of leadership in screening problems must again be filled by the principal, though the supervisor may serve as his cooperative assistant.

How such responsibility can be handled can be exemplified by the performance of a young principal we know. His first year on the job was somewhat typical in that he became acquainted, tended to the administrative and physical operations of his school, and finally began exploring with his staff the kinds of changes they desired. From this exploration he began to construct a list of staff-identified needs, and the time eventually came when he produced this list for faculty examination. The resultant faculty discussion caused him to recognize that some of their suggestions could be dealt with through local administrative action; some would have to be referred to the superintendent; some were beyond their present budgetary limitations; and some could be pursued by faculty study and implementation. During this entire process the principal and the staff were assisted by the supervisor.

Finally, through the process of examination, referral, and study, the list of needed changes was reduced to four areas for closer scrutiny by the total school staff and the supervisor. In an extended faculty meeting these four areas of need were analyzed as potential contributors to staff growth and program improvement. As a result two of the areas were eliminated, and two were accepted as mean-

ingful and desirable areas of need for staff attack. These two became the bases for the focus of the in-service education program during the following year.

The necessity for the principal to accept the responsibility for assuming the leadership role in need or problem selection is obvious. Teachers' time is precious; any involvement they have in school-sponsored activities should be meaningful and productive. Thus the principal, aided by the supervisor, should help his staff select problems for study which have great potential for staff growth.

Organization and Implementation

People cannot work together effectively unless their efforts are organized and channeled toward recognized goals. Someone has to assume the responsibility and exercise leadership to develop an organizational structure and to make the conditions within the structure such that efforts are coordinated and sustained. Again, within a local building unit this role belongs to the principal, with the positive assistance of the supervisor and superintendent.

To illustrate this role, let us look at two schools, both of which have staffs that are very busy. In the first school, each teacher is involved with several short-term committees which meet practically every afternoon; yet frustration is high and the outcomes quite unproductive because the teachers are too busy to have time to do their work well. Each committee makes frequent recommendations, but these somehow never get implemented; in fact, these recommendations often are contradictory. In this school, obviously, there is only a semblance of organization, and coordination of the work of various groups is practically non-existent. Consequently, though the staff is trying to effect improvements, few changes are forthcoming.

In the second school, the staff is also engaged in several kinds of activities. There is, for instance, a long-term committee at work on the vertical articulation of content in reading, mathematics, and science. Another group is attempting to evolve a plan for school-wide enrichment activities as a part of their program. There are other long-range committees at work on many aspects of program improvement. In addition, the total staff meets regularly each two weeks to coordinate the efforts of the various committees. These faculty meetings are always well-planned and are always preceded by written agenda sent to each staff member at least two days prior to the meeting. The staff understand that these faculty meetings are a vital part of their total operation, for it is here that the committees report their progress to the faculty, and it is here that the details of coordinating the work of the different groups are handled.

These word pictures attempt to contrast two very busy school staffs. One is busy in an unorganized and uncoordinated manner; the other, while more productive, seems less busy because of its organization. In the first case, the focus is on decision-making to relieve current pressures. True, the principal takes great pride in the fact that his staff is busy and that they are busy because he has provided leadership despite occasional "interference" by the supervisor. The second principal has worked to develop an organization so that all efforts of his staff fit into some long range plans aimed toward both staff growth and instructional improvement. Also, the second principal has actively sought and received the assistance of his supervisor, who has helped him to keep the activities within the organizational framework flowing toward specific, staff-identified goals.

Evaluation

One final role to be considered in initiating a program of teacher education in a local school unit relates to evaluating such an undertaking. Evaluation is included in this sample listing of roles because it is one so often abandoned by all personnel. Yet, if programs are to be initiated and developed, someone must accept the responsibility for seeing that measures of effectiveness are taken of the procedures employed in achieving or not achieving the acknowledged purposes of the endeavor. Unless a staff is aware of success and failure to a degree beyond a level of "feeling," movement toward greater effectiveness is decreased, if not stopped. Therefore, since the principal is responsible for his school and the supervisor has a responsibility for teacher education system-wide, the role of evaluation may be filled by these two working cooperatively with the staff. Such an arrangement may be that together they plan a two-phase program. The principal may assume the responsibility for evaluating results in terms of the instructional program itself, while the supervisor's efforts may focus more closely upon the teacher education aspect. Such efforts need to be coordinated and examined cooperatively as these two individuals and the staff project the next steps in developing an improved instructional program for children through a local teacher education program in service.

Thus specific role identification and delineation are essential to an effective venture in in-service teacher education. It is only when roles are identified and delineated that conflicting and overlapping efforts are reduced and the chance omission of an essential role is prevented. Such a process, in itself, will tend to eliminate the con-

fusion and embarrassment which arises when two or more leaders are functioning on the same task in an uncoordinated manner.

Finding a Point of Departure

Many stage productions fail because of the opening scene. Unless this scene captures the interest of the audience, sets the mood for the participants, and successfully anticipates that which is to come, seldom does a production receive enough support to enjoy a very long run. In initiating a program of teacher education within a local school, it is essential that the identification and selection of a "point of departure" be conducive to its success. Criteria for selecting learning experiences for staff are discussed in an earlier chapter and these criteria certainly have application here. However, let us turn our attention to only five factors as illustrative of those which contribute to the determination of a successful point of departure for a teacher education program.

First is that of meaningfulness. In launching a program, the experience or problem used should be of such nature as to capture and hold the interest and attention of the participants. Usually such problems stem from the experiences a staff or individuals have had with their efforts to implement their own program. It is a concern which directly affects their work. It may be one which is causing frustration, or, on the other extreme, it may be one in which the staff finds excitement. For example, one of the most successful programs we have seen was initiated because a school staff was convinced that they could do a much better job if their pupils were grouped "according to ability." Though the principal had some quite definite convictions against this pattern of school organization, he recognized that his was the responsibility for the continuing growth of his teachers and that their involvement in some type of experimentation with "homogeneous grouping" could possibly provide some learning experiences for them. Two years later, after continuous study, experimentation, and evaluation of progress, this same staff concluded that, while their pupils indicated growth (according to scores on achievement tests) beyond that normally expected, something was lacking in their pupils' growth in relationship to other personal and social goals which the staff held as purposes of their school. Meanwhile these teachers were beginning to recognize their own inadequacy in dealing with children of varying abilities and potential, and consequently were beginning to try to learn more adequate ways of teaching all children. After another year of study, this staff has now devised a three-year research study of how to individualize instruction.

The point is that this principal capitalized on a concern or issue that had real meaning for his staff, and upon this single concern they have systematically developed a teacher education program which should result in considerable growth for all.

A second element that portends the success of the initial effort is represented in a point of departure which holds potential for some immediate action to be taken yet lends itself to sustained study and effort. The illustration above makes this point. The staff could have rather quickly devised a set of purposes, developed a plan, grouped the children, and considered the problem resolved. However, the issue was of such interest and the plan that was developed to test a position on the issue was such that continuous, sustained study of the issue and its sub-problems was necessary.

Many problems or issues do not readily provide stimulation for immediate and continuing effort in in-service teacher education. Though most staff-identified problems could, with considerable leadership on the part of the principal, become oriented toward teacher growth, some problems are more readily adaptable for doing so. For example, the problem of how to group pupils for more effective instruction seems to us to have more staff-growth potential than the problem of how to requisition class-room materials. The former has more obvious and more easily identifiable sub-problems which lend themselves to becoming vehicles for immediate and long-range study with consequent staff growth.

A third essential element is illustrated in the selection of a point of departure which is specific and "clean." If a generalized school problem is of sufficient concern to a staff, that problem should be so specifically analyzed that no participant has the slightest doubt about what the problem is. For example, if a staff feels that "the improvement of the reading program" is a problem of utmost concern, then, before "goals" for effort can be projected, the "problem" must be more thoroughly analyzed. From such analysis may come such manageable problems as: How can we use phonics in a more meaningful way? What can we do to help our pupils develop a more useful vocabulary in science? How can we improve the selection of library books? The clearer the problem, concern, or interest, the more specific we can project our goals, and the more adequately we can evaluate our progress in terms of these goals.

A fourth success-inducing element relates to time. A staff unaccustomed to participating in extended in-service education activities can hardly be expected to divorce themselves suddenly from their more leisurely pace and embark upon a project which is a ravenous consumer of time. Recently a principal reported his ex-

perience with this problem in relation to the development of an ungraded primary program. Because he was committed to the idea of approaching the problem from a staff-development point of view, he had assumed incorrectly that the staff's verbal consent meant that they, too, were willing and able to spend unlimited amounts of time in an in-service experience. Long will he remember his shock and disappointment when finally he came face to face with an apparent rebellion from his staff. What started as a potentially different approach to a curriculum problem exploded in his face because of the inordinate amount of time demanded of his staff. It was not that the idea was poorly conceptualized, nor that the staff was unwilling. The difficulty could have been predicted from the nature of the problem, the plan advanced for pursuing it, and the fact that teachers are human beings with interests and responsibilities beyond the school.

The above is not an isolated instance. Nor is it the only consideration to be made of the time factor. For example, there are illustrations that could be made to show that some in-service teacher education efforts fail because they proceed at a too leisurely pace. The point here is that the selection of a point for departure is dependent to some degree upon the amount of time available and the planning for time utilization.

Finally, as a fifth consideration, experience indicates that individuals and groups are more receptive to involving themselves with problems, issues, or concerns which do not threaten their own personal security. To illustrate, it is generally easier for a staff to attack a problem in reading than it is for them to examine their own performance in teaching reading. Because of this natural human characteristic of self-protection, the point of departure selected should not impinge greatly upon the personal security of individual staff members. Rather it should be focused upon a problem, issue, or concern external to those involved. In the first illustration in this section the principal focused the problem upon homogeneous grouping of children, rather than upon the inability of his staff to cope with individual differences among their students. However, after three years of working together, these teachers are still studying ways of individualizing instruction.

These writers' own experiences as reported in another Bureau of School Service Bulletin, *A Program of Experimentation In Preparing Educational Supervisors,* convince us that teacher growth can rarely be successfully achieved if approached frontally. Our experience is that we all tend to "freeze," to become immobile, if we are the focal point of scrutiny by others. People tend to become more secure as

the distance between their personal security and the problem under consideration increases. Therefore, to help insure the successful initiation of a local program of in-service teacher education, it seems highly desirable to do so from a point of departure external and non-threatening to those persons involved in the endeavor.

Using Resources

Every professional educator recognizes that both a good teacher and a good instructional program utilize available resources to increase the effectiveness of the learning experience. A teacher education program in service likewise has need for using resources. However, in every case the timing, the selection process, the role given to a resource person, and the preparation of those seeking help from a resource are crucial factors in determining the value achieved. Let us turn our attention to these four variables.

Readiness and Timing

To select and use a resource prematurely, or to use one after a need has passed, typically results in the consumption of time and little else. We are reminded of a situation in which one of us had been asked to work with a group all day on the topic "grading and promotion." Puzzled by the lack of response from the group, we later pursued the matter with the person who had asked us to participate and learned that the topic had been selected by the group from a list identified by a planning committee. The participants had not made any preliminary preparation, nor did they plan to follow this meeting with any further activity. The leadership had assumed, because some teachers had occasionally mentioned their concern about "grading and promotion," that there was a high degree of readiness for study in this area. Obviously, such a day had far less import than it would had the group more thoroughly prepared itself for this particular topic, by first firmly identifying the area as of great concern, and, secondly, by making some preparation for using the day and the consultants in a more profitable way.

It is quite clear that the judicious use of a resource is largely dependent upon the readiness of participants.

Selection of Resources

A second factor to consider in initiating or maintaining an in-service program is the selection of resources. Let us here consider only human resources as these relate to teacher growth. When a resource person or consultant is needed, careful consideration should

be given to that person's competency to do the job that is expected of him. Quite often resource persons are asked to deal with a topic about which their knowledge is only of a general nature, and they are unable to bring the expertness to the situation that many persons would expect. An illustration of this point occurred recently when a school staff was seeking help in developing an individualized teaching, grading, and reporting program. Originally, they asked a college professor who had, as most educators have, a general point of view on the topic. However, before accepting the invitation he learned that what this staff really wanted was a consultant to describe to them the precise details of such a program. Recognizing his limitations, he accordingly referred them to a colleague who was far more knowledgeable in this area.

Quite often, also, we have a tendency to select resource people only from among those who possess some degree of professional status. Thus often overlooked are our own colleagues or persons of lesser "status" who have a high degree of competency in specific areas. For example, recently one consultant was asked to work with a group of social studies teachers on a problem related to teaching civil responsibility. Only three days previously he had recommended that a teacher from this same school district be invited to work with a group of teachers in another district on this problem. This teacher was far more expert, in both theory and practice, than the consultant; however, he had been unrecognized and overlooked as a resource person because he was not a college professor and because no one in the district actually knew of his outstanding knowledge and skill.

Finally, we too often select and use resource persons with "reputations" who can afford to be with us only on one or two occasions. Such resources should be used, of course, provided the nature of the problem, or the work, is such that a single-barreled treatment is appropriate. There are times, however, when a less known or recognized person should be involved simply because he is interested, competent, and available on a continuing basis. In the long term the latter person can often prove a much richer resource than the former because he can follow through with the group and help to insure a relationship between a decision and its implementation.

Expectations of Consultants

It is extremely risky to ask a person to serve in a resource capacity without explaining to him quite carefully what it is that will be expected of him. It is equally risky for a person to accept such a responsibility without being sure that he understands what he is to

do. Two of us vividly recall the day when we were invited, so we thought, to meet and explore a problem with an informal group of ten to fifteen persons, all filling the same positions within different school districts. When we arrived on the scene, it was obvious to us that there were sixty or so persons present and that these persons represented many positions. Imagine our surprise when we learned, while being greeted by the person who had invited us, that we were to provide a three-hour program for this group on the stated problem. Somehow we did; but we both are certain that we will never again let ourselves get into such a situation. We are equally sure that the day was not particularly productive for the group.

Other illustrations could be made, but the point appears clear that for a resource person to be effective he must be charged with performing a specific task in a specific manner. The time spent in developing his assignment seems to pay comparable dividends in the value received.

Adequate Preparation

Finally, a group should make adequate preparation for the utilization of specified resources. While preparation for utilization is closely related to readiness, it goes beyond readiness because it entails specific preparation for the experience itself. A person might have access to a resource—let us say an overhead projector—but unless he prepares himself to use it, the resource serves little or no purpose. A person or a group should themselves get ready to make maximum use of a resource before it appears on the scene. Let us again illustrate from our personal experience. Recently we worked with a high school staff on a problem related to dropouts. Within five minutes it became clear that only one of this staff had even a slight acquaintance with any of the research or recent writings on the subject. In an attempt to establish some communication with the group, references were made to other studies in secondary education, for example, the Eight Year Study. Again, it was apparent that only a few had even a vague recollection of these studies. Finally, the group was asked what their own school's dropout rate actually was. No one knew. Obviously, they had done nothing to prepare themselves for this meeting. Because of the lack of a recognition and acceptance of a responsibility for roles by the group itself, the resource person could in no way execute his expected role. Rather, the situation demanded that he change roles in order to help the group identify their problem and explore ways of working on it.

In brief, a local school's teacher education program should be aided and enriched through the use of resources. Persons, places,

and things have specific and unique contributions to make when they are carefully selected and timed in their use and when the group itself fulfills its responsibilities for their full utilization. Without wisdom and care, resources can, and often do, become millstones around our necks which sink us before we have a chance to swim.

Developing an Organizational Structure

A school's program of teacher education in service cannot sustain itself without an effective organizational structure within which its activities occur and within which progress toward acknowledged purposes can be identified. In considering this point, organizational structure should not be misconstrued to connote limitations or restrictions. Rather, it is here used to mean the arrangements for providing freedom and creative effort within a framework which gives directional guidance to in-service activities.

Quite often we tend to resist structure out of a rebellion against loss of freedom. However, it is within a structure that we enjoy and increase our freedoms. For example, a staff may remain a collection of individuals, each pursuing his own interests in his own way with little or no progress discernible in the school program, until such time as they recognize and face a problem necessitating their combined energies and efforts. When they face a problem, a staff becomes a group and will tend to create their own—formal or informal—organizational structure to defend themselves against or to solve the acknowledged problem. Without such structure their efforts might well shoot off in many directions, several of which might be in conflict. With a structure, however, efforts are coordinated, necessary jobs identified, assigned, and completed in terms of the parent problem.

The principal will have to perform a leadership role in establishing the organizational structure for in-service education programming within his school. Furthermore, he should seek to develop this structure so that it will accommodate two sets of purposes, those his staff identifies and those which he from his particular vantage point can identify. If, for example, his staff identifies the development of an individualized reading program in the school as their "purpose," and he, from his evaluation of their performance as teachers, believes that they need to grow in understanding "how children learn" —one of the ten syndromes of purpose discussed in Chapter II— then he must try to find ways of helping them develop the necessary organization to achieve both his and their "purposes."

Organizing Within the Parent Problem

Sub-problems, as offspring of the original concern, provide a somewhat natural avenue for developing an organization to facilitate a staff's efforts. Such an organization may be structured so that the specific purposes or goals of the sub-problems are related to the parent problem. Each sub-problem may be assigned to a committee or individuals who may attack only this assigned segment. Finally, the outcomes of study by the various committees and individuals must be aligned by the total group so that they apply to a resolution of the parent problem. For instance, in reference to the example of "reading:" as the total staff carefully examines the problem they have identified, they will probably begin to see several sub-problems within it. These sub-problems (What is an individualized reading program? What are the differences between individualized and typical reading programs? How can continuity be attained in an individualized program?) call for specific resolution; therefore, com-

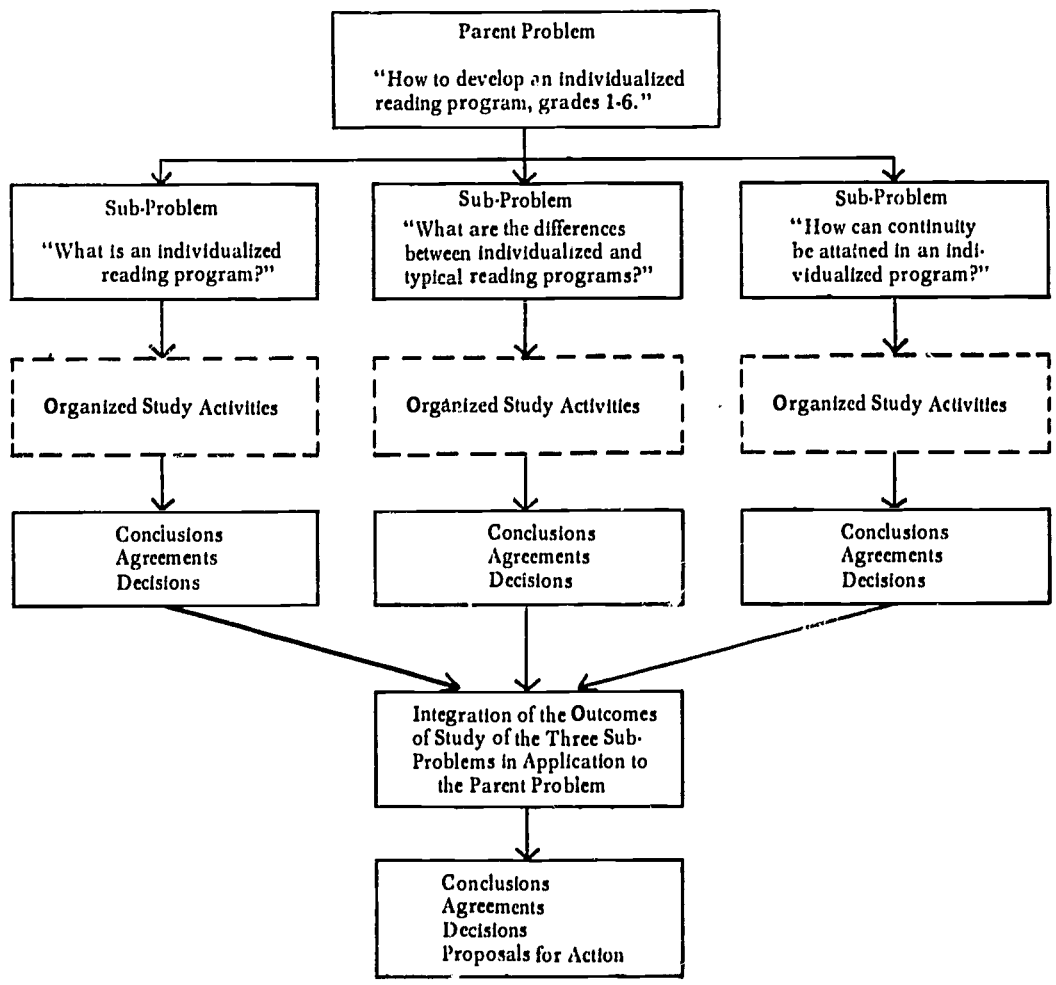

Figure 2.

mittees or segments of the total staff may take the responsibility of resolving them. Once these sub-problems have been resolved, the total staff has the task of synthesizing them toward a resolution of the parent problem. Of course, all these efforts have to be structured so that the end product will contribute to the major or parent problem. Figure 2 illustrates the organization of this process.

While the nature of the problem and the realities of the setting will govern the way a staff organizes itself to work, the fact remains that some structure must be created within which individuals and the group can work with the understanding that their efforts are contributing to the achievement of both the sub-goals and the parent goals.

Framework of Time

A structural design for teacher education in service is dependent not only upon the nature of the problem but also upon the amount of time available to individuals and groups. Some problems are such that they can be disposed of immediately; others require an enormous time allotment. Some purposes are quickly achieved while others are obtained only through continued effort over an extended period. Therefore, time becomes a factor as an organizational structure is created.

Within the organizational structure, however, time plays another role. Deadlines must be set and met in order that progress may be felt, morale sustained, and purposes achieved. In establishing its original framework, a staff should agree on the amount of time they feel they can and will spend on the total problem or concern. Within this time element each sub-group must be assigned a realistic production deadline. The entire group should then set aside a period in which to synthesize the work of the sub-groups. Finally, a period of time in which the production of the final solution or testable plan is to be developed and tested, should be agreed upon.

Further, within this over-all structuring of time, the organizational framework should include specific plans for total and sub-group meetings. Thus, persons may pace themselves in their productive efforts to meet both the short-term deadlines for each total or sub-group meeting and the long-term goals being sought.

Finally, an organizational structure for a group's effort on a problem, and the projection of a whole series of problem-centered activities into a total teacher education program within a school, are essential to staff and program development. However, such structure should never become the master! It should remain subservient to the goals or purposes sought. The initial structure should

be flexible and should be consciously and thoughtfully modified as the groups progress. The time allotments, for example, may become completely unrealistic, and thus the group should knowingly change its expected deadlines. Likewise, one of the sub-problems may prove to be an unproductive effort; consequently, those assigned the responsibility for it should so report to the parent group.

Hence, structure brings order to human effort. Productivity increases as the organizational structure provides an effective framework within which activities are channelled toward the achievement of stated and acknowledged goals. In initiating a program within a local school, the principal and the supervisor, together with the staff, can profitably spend time in creating an organizational structure compatible with the problem, the setting, and the time available.

Evaluating Progress

Another essential, yet often overlooked, element in an effective in-service program is that of "sensing" or being aware of progress toward acknowledged purposes. In relation to the initiation of a program within a local school, the importance of this element increases. The initial phase of such a program must be productive if that program is to continue and to expand; consequently, bench marks must be taken to determine the extent of progress enjoyed. Let us look at two types of bench marks that seem to be significantly related to this point.

1. *Progress Toward Staff Goals.* As discussed in the previous section on organizational structure, attention was called to a way of developing structural and time frameworks with which the acknowledged goals or purposes of the staff may be reached. The clarity and practicality of both the purposes sought and the framework developed were emphasized. If these are clearly identified and acknowledged by a staff, they provide periodic opportunities for recognizing progress. For example, if a staff has assigned six sub-problems to appropriate committees or individuals and placed a time limitation on these, it can observe movement toward the over-all purpose as these sub-groups complete their assigned tasks. Hence, a form of checklist can be used to "mark off" the completion of each aspect of the endeavor. Such a checklist is a concrete symbol which communicates progress and consequently helps maintain the morale of the group.

A second aspect of evaluating progress toward the staff's purposes arises as a staff enters the final phase of their work prior to the implementation of the plan which they have proposed as a solution

to the original question, problem, or concern. At this point the staff will have to determine how to measure the effectiveness of their plan as they implement it. Consequently, they, possibly via a subcommittee, will need to develop specific procedures for evaluating the effectiveness of their proposal. These procedures and the subsequent data collected contribute directly to the evaluation of progress toward a more effective instructional program for children.

An illustration seems in order. Three years ago, two schools within a district embarked upon a long-range program for reducing the reading deficiencies of junior high school students. After a full year of concentrated study by the respective staffs, each school developed its own proposed solution. The two proposed solutions were not very similar; however, each included two common procedures, namely, a procedure for continued staff development in the areas of understanding children, utilization of materials, and methods of teaching reading, and a procedure for using standardized test scores (pre and post) in reading and general achievement, data from sociograms, and grades in specific courses. In both instances staff morale and staff feeling of achievement were sustained because of these procedures for assessing progress.

2. *Progress Toward Goals Related to Teacher Education.* Evidence of this type of progress is more difficult to obtain; consequently, it is less frequently provided for in in-service education programs. However, if a school is to initiate a program for staff development in service, it needs to provide the means for assessing progress toward the purposes held for such programs.

Let us examine the general procedures one principal employed. In general his teacher education purposes were about the same as those suggested earlier. For example, he constructed an observation guide for his own use, and he periodically observed each teacher at work and followed each observation with a personal conference in which he used his observations as the basis of the conference. He also checked and recorded for each teacher conference such things as grades awarded, number of children retained, remarks made on cumulative records, performance of children on standardized tests, use made of instructional materials, and use made of the available professional resources. This was quite an elaborate and time-consuming operation; however, he used it very effectively as a guide for his work with individuals and with the total staff.

This principal could point with confidence to specific evidences of teacher progress toward the goals he held for staff development. For example, he could validate the statement that Miss X was increasing her efforts to individualize instruction while Miss Y was now making

greater use of instructional materials. He could, with equal confidence, say that Mr. A needed to work on his acceptance of children from high socio-economic groups with high I.Q.'s. In these assessments he was measuring his own progress in becoming an effective teacher of teachers, and it is toward this end that principals and supervisors need to evaluate their own progress as they lead in a program of teacher education in a local school.

Coordination with District-wide Programs

The teacher education program within a local school is in reality one facet of a district's total program for the development of staff in service. As such, the district's over-all organizational structure for teacher education must provide for the coordination of all parts of a total program. The responsibility for this coordination ultimately rests with the superintendent; however, we have suggested that this responsibility also belongs to the general supervisor, who should be assigned the necessary authority to fulfill it.

Coordination in this instance is not unlike that faced by a principal in coordinating the work of his individual teachers with the program for the entire school. Each principal might consider himself as a teacher, his staff as his students, and his building as his classroom. In this respect, then, there must be an over-all set of purposes agreed upon and sought by each principal Each must see the relationship between his work and that of others in similar positions. Each school's teacher education activities, while they differ in nature, should be validated in terms of their consistency with the achievement of the district-wide purposes.

There will be occasions when an individual, or small groups of individuals within one school, will be pursuing a problem quite like that faced by teachers in one or more other schools. When this occurs, a district-wide group composed of such people with a common problem might be organized and structured to function within the framework of both the total district program and the individual schools.

Summary

In this chapter we have discussed certain principles and steps involved in initiating programs of in-service teacher education. We have emphasized that the procedures for developing such a program should be systematic and thorough, and we have tried to interpret these procedures by citing numerous examples. To the discerning

reader, however, one filament holds this chapter together; without it the entire structure would disintegrate. We refer, of course, to the responsibilities, tasks, and roles of leadership. Perhaps we may have created the illusion that only supermen should undertake to provide the quality of leadership we have stated or implied is necessary; but if we have, it was unintentional, and we apologize. However, we have consciously sought to point up the crucial function which leadership has in helping a staff improve its professional competence, and, though we may have been over-zealous, we have had far too many experiences which indicated that leadership is not fulfilling its responsibilities.

This chapter also emphasizes the responsibility of leadership in setting the tone and establishing the optimum climate which will enable a staff to (1) find a point of departure which has potential for staff growth, (2) use resources wisely and continuously, (3) develop the necessary organizational structure, (4) evaluate progress toward identified purposes, and (5) readjust and realign efforts as experiences indicate the need.

Another point of view exposed in this chapter concerns the use of the local school as the basic organizational unit for the development of in-service education programs both in the local school and district-wide. The reader may well take issue with this point of view; however, it has been the writers' experience that it is more profitable in the long run to begin programing in the school and develop the district-wide program as an aggregate of local school programs.

Enveloping each method and each example we have cited has been a strong emphasis upon the necessity for each participant in in-service programs to have opportunities to contribute his ideas and his efforts toward the development of his own professional growth. His contributing is not just democracy in action; it also elicits the greatest support and productivity for any educational program.