DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 096 288 SP 008 418

AUTHOR	Andrew, Michael D.
TITLE	Teacher Leadership: A Model for Change. Bulletin 37.
INSTITUTION	Association of Teacher Educators, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	74
NOTE	62p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Association of Teacher Educators, Suite 1201, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006 (Stock No. 861-27435, $4.00)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.75 HC-$3.15 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	Educational Programs; *Educational Strategies; Elementary School Teachers; *Leadership Training; *Models; Preservice Education; Secondary School Teachers; *Teacher Education

ABSTRACT

This book describes a model for differentiated preparation of teachers in elementary and secondary schools which draws from several models and emphasizes individual autonomy and choice. Chapter 1 discusses teachers as educational leaders, lists reasons for their failure as leaders, discusses four barriers to educational change, and presents a stereotyped and an ideal role of teachers as educational leaders. Chapter 2 presents a model for the preparation of teacher-leaders who are competent educators and who have attitudes, skills, and knowledge to assist others in the improvement of instruction and to bring about beneficial educational change. Chapter 3 focuses on the human dimension as it applies to the preparation of teacher-leaders. Chapter 4 deals with four bodies of knowledge relevant to preservice development of teacher-leaders: knowledge of children, schools, institutional change strategies, and the nature of the field of education. Chapter 5 deals with requirements for competent performance as a teacher-leader, which are skills for the flexible performer, competent specialist, and teaching analyst. Chapter 6 discusses general strategies in teacher education and specific strategies for the development of teacher-leaders. Chapter 7 suggests a specific program for selecting, preparing, and using outstanding teachers in new teaching leadership positions in schools. An 18-item bibliography is included. (PD)

ED 096288

TEACHER LEADERSHIP:
A MODEL FOR CHANGE

MICHAEL D. ANDREW
University of New Hampshire
Durham, N.H.

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
ATE
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER

SP 008 418

ASSOCIATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS
Suite 1201 1701 K Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C. 20006

BULLETIN 37

1974

Copyright 1974

Library of Congress Card No. 74-81010

ASSOCIATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Melvin C. Buller, Executive Secretary

TO PURCHASE: Single copy, $4.00 (Stock No. 861-27435). Orders must be prepaid except for those on official purchase order forms. Orders requiring special handling, such as Air Mail, Rush and Foreign, should include sufficient fees to cover the additional postage. Shipping and handling charges will be added to billed orders. Make checks or money orders payable to ATE. For other publications, please request current price list.

Cover design, Cynthia Johnson, ATE Administrative Secretary. Technical editing, Carl Rose, ATE Assistant Executive Secretary.

Contents

INTRODUCTION iii

Chapter 1 TEACHERS AS EDUCATIONAL LEADERS 1

2 TEACHER PREPARATION MODELS 9

3 THE HUMAN DIMENSION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS 19

4 KNOWLEDGE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS 27

5 SKILLS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS 33

6 STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING TEACHER-LEADERS 39

7 THE EMERGENCE OF LEADERSHIP 55

Selected References 60

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Introduction

This book describes a model for differentiated preparation of teachers in elementary and secondary schools. It is eclectic, drawing from several models. It emerges as a framework emphasizing individual autonomy and choice. In support of the proposed model, one strong argument is that it promotes decision-making and leadership capabilities. Teachers who exert leadership open the way for change in education.

Recent models set forth career lattices and differentiated staffing patterns for teaching. These models describe steps separated by function, degrees earned, and job experience. Seldom is differentiated preparation described. Preparation for differentiated positions in teaching is more essential than systems for labeling various roles. Set forth here is a multi-phased model of career development for teachers. The outcome is defined as a teacher-leader: a competent educator with special skills in analyzing teaching, working with students, implementing change, and developing curriculum.

M.D.A.

Chapter 1
TEACHERS AS EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

Few would fail to rate education high on a priority list for human fulfillment and the hope of man. Few would not agree that major effort should be made to improve education. Deridement of educational practice has been an inviting pastime for hoards of critics. The Silberman report[1] climaxed a rash of recent criticism of our educational institutions and emphasized the unavoidable conclusion that our schools must change. Readings in the history of educational thought and practice point out rings of criticism and prescription, but meager change in practice. There are longstanding goals far from attainment. The following four goals might be a list for today or from forty years ago:

1. Development of individuality
2. Development of social concern
3. Development of a disciplined mind
4. Development of practical skills

One can justify the need for change simply on the basis of the failure of our educational institutions to implement and achieve these longstanding goals.

At nearly every point in history, the argument is also advanced that educational change is needed to keep pace with a changing culture. In the mid-1970s we are confronted with near irrefutable evidence that we face an era when the magnitude and rate of cultural change is greater than at any point in the past. Student unrest, divisiveness in present society and a widening generation gap suggest empirical evidence of a cultural revolution. The magnitude of social change dictates an urgent need for mechanisms of educational change.

One mechanism for educational change is basically the person who can, himself, deal with change. To aid in the development of a teacher who is this kind of person, this book sets forth a teacher-leader model.

Critical changes in education are those changes which effect what happens to children. Over the past century in American education a number of school leadership positions have evolved. These positions have been in response to growth in size of school systems and in response to a desire for curricular and instructional improvement. Leadership positions which have evolved for curricular and instructional improvement include assistant superintendencies, supervisors, and curriculum coordinators. These positions characteristically have been non-teaching roles. Educators were given authority for leadership over a number of classroom teachers.

Many leadership roles have turned into managerial, accounting and administrative positions, rather than educational leadership to bring about change.

---

[1] Silberman, Charles E., *Crisis in the Classroom*. New York: Random House, 1970. *passim*.

This trend seems characteristic of bureaucratic positions in education. Attempts to implement curricular change have been hindered by administrative indifference, incompetence, or teacher resentment of line-staff dictation.

The basic premise is that effective change is accomplished where those primarily responsible for implementing and supporting change have a major role in planning, choosing and directing desired changes. Individuals with this responsibility are the teachers. Needed leadership would best be placed in the hands of teachers whose responsibilities would include preservice instruction of teachers, assistance for their continued growth and initiation of curriculum change.

Leadership positions for teachers have several advantages. They put responsibility in the hands of the basic agent of change. There is need for pathways of career growth for classroom teachers. Traditional career patterns have enticed teachers to administrative or college and university positions. Administrative leadership positions have tended to produce an entirely practical orientation and separation from theoretical concerns. College and university roles have allegedly produced theoretical and abstract orientations to educational problems. A teacher-leadership position seeks to keep teachers teaching and to combine scholarship with practice.

The nature of teacher-leadership positions to be developed equips teachers to remain learners responsible for self-directed growth and the growth of other teachers.

Preparation for teacher-leadership forces teachers to continually confront critical educational issues — the purposes and implications of educational goals and methods. There is emphasis on emergence of educational philosophy.

The desired leadership position will be referred to as the teacher-leader. It is an in-school position, not a shared time clinical professorship where conflicting priorities and demands may exist. It is not solely a resident supervisor position because the responsibilities are broader than supervision. Neither is it only a master teacher because the requirements go beyond exceptional teaching skill. Rather it is a front-line leadership role for improvement of curriculum and instruction.

To carry out teacher-leader responsibilities a new role offering teachers autonomy, trust, time and recognition must be developed. Fundamentally there must be new career development paths which prepare teachers for teacher-leader positions.

Creation of new teacher-leader positions requires a planning, a selecting and a funding partnership between schools, colleges and universities, State Departments of Education and other agencies.

Preparation for new teacher-leader responsibilities implies a major change in existing patterns of teacher training.

In the past, major emphasis of teacher preparation has been to prepare a skilled practitioner capable of implementing new practices and better content. But teacher education, by its own goals, judged from within as well as from without, has been a collosal failure. "Progressive" methods and curricula,[2] long advocated by teacher preparation institutions, have not had much effect on educational change.

---

[2] Terminology may change but ideas remain constant.

Confessions and Criticisms

We have failed for many reasons. Nine of the more ominous ones appear to be:

(1) We have neglected to prepare prospective teachers to understand and effectively handle massive pressures to conform as they exist in schools.

(2) We have advocated idealistic goals contradictory to those found in most schools. We have advanced idealistic methods with few if any models of application.

(3) We have preached utopian methods and goals for attainment by children, with little or no attention to the actual nature of children as they exist in schools today. We have provided students very little opportunity to learn what children are like. We have stressed a variety of abstract learning theories and neglected study of characteristics of children, their development, values and backgrounds.

(4) We have utilized a clinical-laboratory experience that we have known to be influential on students. It is totally immersed in socializing processes of schools. It introduces students to a multitude of role requirements all at one time. Generally, it provides only traditional educational models, often contradictory to the teacher-leader model we prescribe.

(5) We have clung to an archaic, deductive, knowledge-centered model for training. It assumes that quantities of abstract knowledge gained will somehow be synthesized into possible school practices and applied with skill. This model has never proven very useful.

(6) We have tended to advance educational ideals and theories without providing a comprehensive picture of the nature of the field of education with which students might make sense and reasoned judgments about conflicting alternatives. Education has been introduced to the novice as a smorgasbord of "foundations courses" with little emphasis on a comprehensive picture revealing the structure of education.

(7) We have neglected the teacher as a person. We have ignored the intense anxiety that our students evidence from struggles to compromise individual and teacher identity, and to maintain self-esteem and a feeling of competence in a new, high-risk endeavor.[3]

(8) We have abandoned the teacher to the schools, not only during his first clinical experience but from that time on— refusing to offer guidance, support and incentives he might seek in reaching out for ideals or in achieving identity as a teacher.

(9) We have assumed that we can prepare competent teachers and agents of change during a preservice program. We have neglected to develop clear and well thought out paths for continuing the education of

---

[3] Teacher educators have intensified risks of failure by arming students with ideals and demands that conflict with school system expectations.

teacher-leaders. We have failed to develop a workable partnership with the schools to this end.

Preservice teacher education has apprenticed teachers to the status quo and, in the process, filled them with unattainable ideals, which often lead to failure and foster personal guilt. This guilt contributes to eventual resentment of teacher preparation institutions, an attitude held by school personnel toward much professional education.

The charges are finally gaining an open-minded hearing by teacher educators who have long ignored critics and plodded along, mistaking the burden of guilt for a cross of prejudice. Lest teacher educators take all the blame, it seems clear that schools have done little to help. Schools traditionally have assumed teacher preparation to be a preservice function. They have criticized teacher preparation institutions for never doing an adequate job. Perhaps one of the most invalid assumptions in teacher development is that good teachers can be prepared in a preservice program. The goal of this book is for teachers to develop as educational leaders. It can never be met until a true partnership, a sharing in planning, program, and accountability, can be developed between teacher education institutions and schools.

We are faced with a new challenge, one which requires a fresh look at the needs of schools, roles of teachers and ways of developing teacher-leaders.

We must look at a teacher's role in educational change before we begin to construct a model for teacher-leader development.

There are many barriers to educational change. Lest it be misinterpreted that changes in teachers' roles alone will solve the problem, a few of the roadblocks to educational change might be mentioned. New gadgetry, new jargon and new architecture are not necessarily related to educational change.

Four Barriers to Educational Change:

(1) The tradition barrier, the tendency to self-perpetuation, is especially strong in schools.

(2) The lack of well-established knowledge regarding the effectiveness of scholarly practices is also a barrier to change. While there has long been a lack of sophisticated research and evaluation, there is presently a mania for specific, narrow evaluation for all educational experience. This may be as constraining to the development of educational knowledge as a lack of evaluation. A behavioral model, inherited from task analysis and training research dominates the contemporary educational scene. This model requires prediction of highly specific end-products and limits research to narrow short-range experimenting. An open-ended, exploratory model, combining fact with intuition and valuing the unexpected more than the expected is presently not in vogue in most educational research. Current training-research models limit discoveries to the trivial and predictable. They deny the model of fluid enquiry that has been the essence of many great discoveries in other fields.

(3) There exists a technical training gap in education. Advances in educational knowledge, technology and curriculum materials have been more

rapid than advances in teachers' use of these innovations. This lag can be partly attributed to a failure to preservice and inservice training.

(4) Lack of front line leadership. Of all barriers to educational change, a lack of front line leadership might be most critical and most relevant for teacher-leader preparation. Front line leadership in schools involves those who initiate and implement change in educational goals and methods. Significant change usually requires that educational ideals be carefully defined and operationalized, relevant materials and methods be designed or acquired, and people be influenced to accept and implement the changes.

Finally, the impact of change must be carefully evaluated. Much of what passes for educational innovation lacks these basic features. Innovation in American public schools often suffers from the fad syndrome where local communities and educators buy innovation which is sold with a rhetoric of new jargon. Change which begins with consideration of educational implications and ideals, which involves a partnership of those directly concerned, and which sustains itself on the basis of careful evaluation is an exception, not the rule.

TEACHERS AND CHANGE

Teachers' roles in the change process has been far from ideal. Innovative teachers often have been those easily brainwashed by educational salesmen and have played the game of superficial change with little heed to children and with little actual change in methods. Teachers' roles in the change process must be examined and an ideal established before models for teacher-leader preparation are delineated in the next chapter.

Teachers and Educational Leadership: The Prevailing Stereotype

Teachers, as a group, do not carry on a leadership function in education in any sense but within their own classrooms. They are bureaucrats with low status in the chain of power. Sociologists might refer to teachers as an oppressed minority. From that perspective, leadership or autonomy from teachers is unrealistic and a utopian dream of glory.

The entrenched role and status of teachers in the educational bureaucracy coupled with traditional training programs for teacher preparation represent an overwhelming barrier to turn teachers into autonomous professionals with significant leadership status.

Essentially, however, teachers hold power for change. When a teacher closes the classroom door (even when he teams with like-minded colleagues) he is usually quite free to shape curriculum as he wishes. His inclination has been characteristically conservative.

In spite of teacher's holding power, common leadership patterns have treated teachers as passive obeyers of orders in a line-staff plan. Unfortunately, many classroom teachers have lived up to this pattern Their behavior may be ascribed to both their teacher training and their treatment in the schools as much as to general personality characteristics. It may be true that teachers represent a conservative element of society. Certainly many are drawn into teaching because of their own success in schools. This success often indicates their own conformity and acceptance of the traditional system. Nonetheless, training of teachers must contribute to their passive, conservative characterization in educational change.

In general, teachers are trained technicians. The behavioral connotation of "training" nicely fits the overall tone of most teacher preparation. This training format is actually becoming greatly enhanced by the Performance Based Teacher Education movement in which certain skills and methods are prescribed and practiced.[4]

Clinical experience is characteristically an apprenticeship, where an educator works with only one trainee. Studies have indicated that this experience is the most influential of all aspects of training programs. Results indicate patterns of trainee behavior are modeled closely after that of the teacher educator. Teacher educators frequently bemoan that clinical experience contradicts models prescribed in courses. Attempts to teach a variety of models are appearing. Still, the aim is to develop prescribed skills which are set forth by particular training programs. There is seldom any autonomy given the teacher to select from a range of alternatives. There is rhetoric about developing one's own teaching style but programs are usually structured to exclude this. A biased presentation of alternatives and limited experience with these alternatives is combined with preferences for certain methods and skills. This pattern coupled with a conformity oriented clinical experience. precludes real teacher autonomy.

Within school systems teacher autonomy often is only a result of lax supervision. A teacher's role in institutional change is minimal; involvement in major decisions is token. Provisions for the continuing education and growth of teachers, and for professional advancement is pitifully inadequate. Major curriculum decisions are most frequently made by principals or superintendents or school boards and in some cases by state committees.

In many schools the pattern of teacher behavior is one of enforced dependence. Teachers must check in and out. They are encumbered by rules. They are watched as closely as children. Like technicians they are expected to fight only for pay raises. They are not given much free time for fear they will waste it. Staff meetings are used to pass down administrative dictates or discuss trivial matters.

As might be expected from their training and treatment, teachers act as passive public servants who are paid for skills. These skills are not valued highly by many citizens. Teachers' salaries continue to fall below those of many skilled technicians. Teachers take on a personality, not of an autonomous and independent person, but of a dependent, albeit sometimes militant, employee. They may not try for an active part in curriculum development. They may resent requirements that are not specifically spelled out in their contracts. They may resist change forced on them. They may undermine new policies. They may seldom take an active, involved role as scholars in their field or in education generally.

---

[4] Often there may be discrepancies between prescription and practice.

This stereotype may be bleak and not representative of many schools and teachers. Yet it may be found not infrequently. Even in schools where teachers are dedicated, there is often a lack of autonomy and involvement in the process of educational change.

If teachers are to accelerate change, they must be personally committed to and involved in proposed changes. Development of personal commitment and leadership involvement will require a model of an educational change process different from that found in most American schools. It is not assumed that many teachers presently in our schools would or could take a responsible role in educational leadership. Many lack basic competencies and are habituated to traditional practices and passive roles. They neither would want to change or could change. Nonetheless, now in the profession are some prospective teachers who could assume leadership roles.

Teachers and Educational Leadership: An Ideal

Teachers as educational leaders may be a misleading prescription. Teacher leadership is not meant to refer to administrative or bureaucratic leadership; rather to a central role for teachers in promoting change which improves the quality of education. Realization of this role for teachers may appear unlikely. Our goal is to set forth a model which works toward this ideal, and, in the process, attracts and keeps talented people in teaching. Three areas where teachers might exert leadership are: (1) self-improvement as teachers; (2) improvement of other teachers; and (3) initiation of curricular change.

Self-Improvement. Teachers need skills and tools for insightful analysis of teaching and curriculum. They need feelings of autonomy, professional competence and commitment, which give impetus to self-analysis and change. These traits involve contributions from preservice preparation and from schools. Preservice preparation must provide knowledge and skills required for analysis of curriculum and instruction. Preparation must structure experiences which promote feelings of competence autonomy, and commitment.

Schools must create a climate which emphasizes, facilitates and rewards self-improvement. Such a climate might involve a variety of components, such as availability of: video-tape equipment for the analysis of teaching; "supervisors" who help provide feedback, rather than evaluation; and utilization of self-analysis for promotion and pay determinations.

Improvement of Colleagues. Teachers who have had preliminary preparation in analysis of curriculum and instruction and who demonstrate quality performance must be encouraged to aid the development of colleagues, student teachers, and beginning teachers. This expertise constitutes the development of two things: (1) teacher leadership roles in the schools for curriculum and instruction; and (2) professional programs to support these roles. Positions of master teacher or resident supervisor with added responsibilities for curriculum development and supervision might be representative. Teacher preparation institutions should not only offer programs for these roles but should share the cost with schools. In return, master teachers would carry out certain aspects of instruction and supervision of preservice and beginning teachers within the schools.

Initiation of Curriculum Change. In addition to master teacher and resident supervisor roles, teacher-leaders must be given autonomy and responsibility for initiating curricular and institutional change. This does not mean that teacher-leaders should be solely responsible for this task. Citizens, students and administrators must share in this task if meaningful change is to be successfully implemented and supported. However, teachers must feel primary responsibility to initiate and supervise curriculum change. Teacher-leaders must therefore possess three leadership qualities, including:

(1) Knowledge of strategies for effective change in American public schools;
(2) Knowledge of curriculum alternatives and development process;
(3) Skill in group process and decision making.

An underlying assumption of leadership roles is that teachers will demonstrate commitment and leadership qualties when treated with trust and made responsible for leadership in educational change. In turn, teacher preparation institutions will be responsible for preparing teachers with pertinent attitudes and expertise.

One justification for the premise that teachers should be leaders is that the old model of administrative dictation of policy has not worked well in changing educational practice. Teachers treated as tradesmen tend to sabotage change. Teachers trained as tradesmen lack alternatives, flexibility and attitude necessary for change.

The line-staff model for educational change is a model inherited from the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Superintendents were the most learned persons in school systems and teachers often had little specific preparation other than two-year normal school. Today, superintendents and principals are trained as organizational scientists with little specialized knowledge of children, teaching methods or educational alternatives. Today's teachers have four-year liberal arts degree and often Master's degrees and beyond.

Today's teachers represent talented college graduates with a high degree of social concern and commitment. Teaching is no longer attracting a large proportion of students who can't make it in some other field. Bright and concerned [illegible]ng people have turned away from private business and technology, and [illegible]eking vocations which express human-social concern. Teaching is a freque[illegible] choice of this group. These qualifications combined with adequate preparation and front-line experience deserve our trust.

Chapter 2 will present a model for the preparation of teacher-leaders: competent educators who have attitudes, skills and knowledge to assist others in the improvement of instruction and to bring about beneficial educational change. *This model for the preparation of teacher-leaders will purposely avoid prescription of a specific, desired classroom role for the teacher and a related prescription of educational goals. Such an approach to teacher preparation is in direct conflict with the intent and philosophy of leadership training. If leadership requires personal autonomy and a broad perspective of a variety of educational alternatives, then teachers cannot be trained as technicians acquiring someone else's ideal.*

Chapter 2
TEACHER PREPARATION MODELS

Although little has been done to improve the current scene in teacher preparation, there appear to be several models which could be refined and applied to the task of teacher-leader preparation. Before selecting or developing a model for preparing the teacher-leader, it would be wise to review and appraise current models

Knowledge Centered Model for Teacher Preparation

The time honored model has been knowledge centered. It has combined acquiring knowledge with observation and emulation of a master teacher. A teacher-to-be acquires as much knowledge in his subject field as possible. This is judged by courses passed and credits earned. Next, a candidate acquires knowledge of the field of education. This includes the history of education, philosophy of education, sociology of education, learning psychology, developmental psychology, knowledge about methods and techniques, knowledge for specific school curriculum and so on. Finally, a prospective teacher practices under the tutorage of an experienced teacher. Teacher preparation institutions have not been single minded in their opinions of this model. In fact, the history of teacher education in this country has been a history of changes within this model.

Teachers colleges valued knowledge of education over knowledge of traditional disciplines. Liberal arts representatives satisfied needs for self-justification by ridiculing education as a discipline and rejecting professional training as out of place in a liberal arts college. A near separation occurred. Recently liberal arts institutions and teachers colleges redefined the Master of Arts in Teaching concept to shift the balance back to traditional disciplines and allow teachers to teach with only superficial amounts of educational knowledge.

Teachers colleges long-withheld academic respectability, have rushed to up-grade traditional disciplines, to limit education courses, and to call themselves liberal arts colleges.

Supporters of MAT type programs, sustained by an image of greater academic respectability, have begun to reexamine themselves under pressures from students and feedback from schools indicating that a MAT candidate is not necessarily superior to a teachers college counterpart. Listening to students and to public schools has become healthy. Listening cannot have been invited by trainers of teachers; it has been forced by student activism and involvement and by a change in school bargaining brought on by an oversupply of teachers.

Perhaps these forces will produce changes. It appears that the forces of both students and schools would push teacher preparation toward a local, real-world model emphasizing apprenticeship, specific competencies, and trial-and-error problem solving in schools. Pressures appear to be acting to limit education courses — they are rejected as abstract, irrelevant, and theoretical

— and to limit traditional liberal arts courses as well. Federally funded teacher preparation models have appeared with the express purpose of providing an "alternative" to college and university models of teacher preparation. These models replace university requirements for course work with real world experiences and specific skill development. State education departments, following the wind of federal money, have hurried to offer accreditation for this model. Patterns for these on-the-job models have varied from excellent supervision and guidance with well defined competencies to relatively unsupervised apprenticeships with self-styled, educational solutions.

When federal funding disappears, there is little evidence that schools pick up financial responsibility for preparing teachers. They are induced to take responsibility by grants for staff and materials, and stipends to pay part of the teaching force. Nonetheless, pressures mount to turn college and university models into clinical experiences. The knowledge centered model may be forced into seclusion; but if history can be trusted, the knowledge centered model will survive.

Behavioral-Skill Development Model

Although its champions have been around for decades, the behavioral-skill model in teacher preparation is currently beginning to gain stature.

The model is borrowed from training research, systems analysis, task-analysis and business. Eight beliefs with regard to teacher training include the following:

1. Learning is a change in behavior.
2. The primary justification for education is that it should lead to functional, practical, useful end products.
3. End products can be and should be predefined by some group of experts.
4. Teaching can be broken down into sequences of specifically defined behaviors.
5. Teachers should achieve proficiency in a predetermined set of skills.
6. Teacher training involves a series of activities designed to produce desired behaviors.
7. Anything worth doing is worth measuring.
8. If it can't be measured, it probably doesn't exist.

The behavioral approach to teacher preparation came into recent prominence with the publicity of micro-teaching as it was defined and practiced at Stanford University and through the resurgence of emphasis on behavioral objectives and systems approach to teacher preparation. In micro-teaching, teaching is defined in terms of a set of skills, and objectives are specified as criterion for training. Video-tape, with instant feedback from students and supervisor, is used to shape trainees' behavior toward the desired end.

The systems analysis approach has gained mounting popularity. A general procedure was presented in a Newsletter of the AACTE Dissemination Project[1] which described the application of systems analysis in evolving new models for elementary teacher education. The procedure comprises six steps as follows:

---

[1] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. *AACTE Dissemination Project News Letter.* Washington, D.C.: June 1970. *passim.*

1. *Conceptualize the system:* Conceptualizing the system requires definition and description of a task or a problem. The problem may involve comprehensive analysis and redesign of a teacher education program, or it may concern itself only with field experiences for preservice teachers. Conceptualization demands defining the scope of a particular problem.
2. *Define the subsystem:* Like parts of a child's erector set, which form an entity, subsystems combine to create a functional system. Unlike parts of an erector set, subsystems function as independent systems, and comprise and support the operation of an entire system.
3. *Specify the objectives of the system:* Objectives should be stated. Elementary teacher education models are good sources of useful performance objectives. A performance objective is a *specific* statement describing what the student should be *doing* to demonstrate the achievement of a stated objective. A performance objective is a description of observable, measurable behavior.
4. *Develop alternative procedures:* Outline alternate paths for achieving the ultimate goals of the system.
5. *Select the best alternative(s):* After consideration of priorities, educational assumptions, and an analysis of constraints, select the best alternative for implementation.
6. *Implement the alternative(s):* The culmination of the systems process is the implementation of an alternative. At this poin theory becomes operational reality.[2]

A behavioral orientation has become the favorite for federal sponsorship. Guidelines for teacher preparation models request behaviorally defined goals. Conditions bringing about the ascendancy of the behavioral model would include the following eight:

(1) Influential leaders in education are members of the behavioral persuasion.

(2) The behavioral approach, because of its susceptibility to programming and use of media, fits nicely with the vast group of technological supporters.

(3) Business foresees in this model a prime market in technological equipment and packaged instructional materials and programs.

(4) Neat evaluation and accountability is impressive to bureaucrats and businessmen who are responsible for financing and administering education.

(5) Predetermined definition of goals appeals to trainers of teachers who wish a sense of power and authority. The power of the teacher has long been his authority in knowledge. Now the knowledge model is pressed from all sides. The authority of the behavioral approach provides an alternative route to security.

---

[2] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, op. cit., *passim*.

(6) Those who doubt teacher competence see a tightly structured, clear set of criteria to which teachers can be held accountable. There is clearly a related educational movement to "individualize" school curricula with the behavioral model. This approach replaces much of what teachers have controlled, and substitutes media, prestructured activities and worksheets. The result is more "teacher-proof" curriculum and school.

(7) Teacher trainers who are too dependent in teacher training have something definite to prescribe.

(8) Research has increased certainly about effective educational practices. If specific behaviors can be proven meritorious, then train teachers to produce these behaviors.

Regardless of reasons for popularity of the behavioral model, it is gaining a following as a model for teacher preparation.

Humanistic, Individual Fulfillment Model

The humanistic, individual fulfillment model for teacher growth stresses the importance of the teacher as an individual. Accent on the individual is often combined with interest in cooperative group action. This ideology captured sentiments of romantics and saw its greatest application in the progressive era from the 1930s to the 1950s when it became infused with socialization and democratic process components. The ideology of individual fulfillment, divorced from its democratic-social emphasis, is reappearing with public school experiments for more child-centered programs. Open schools and open programs with students working quite independently are gaining in popularity, especially at the elementary level. Proponents look enthusiastically to child-centered British primary schools, which make up about 25 percent of the primary schools in that country.[3]

There is a resurgence of the child-centered approach in this country in both private and public schools. In secondary schools and college, new humanism is emerging with emphasis on social action, social reconstruction and personal fulfillment.

Although the humanistic model is enjoying popularity, its application to teacher preparation is very slight. Nonetheless, there are signs of a movement which may reach more deeply into teacher preparation institutions. A few teacher educators have spoken consistently for a more human-centered approach. Arthur Combs in *The Professional Education of Teachers*[4] subscribes to this model. Fred T. Wilhelms in the 11th Charles W. Hunt Lecture, "Realignments for Teacher Education"[5] shows his dedication to the development of the person who is to become a teacher.

---

[3] Rogers, Vincent. *Teaching in the British Primary Schools.* Toronto: The Macmillan Co., Collier-Macmillan. Canada, 1970. p.v.

[4] Combs, Arthur W., *The Professional Education of Teachers.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965. *passim.*

[5] Wilhelms, Fred T., "Realignments for Teacher Education." Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1970.

The surge of sensitivity training and group dynamics methods might have served as the wave on which teacher educators would move toward a more humanistic model. However, the fad phenomena have accounted for most talk about dealing with student's personal, affective needs. The rush to use sensitivity training seems to have been quelled by admonitions on the hazards, harmful efforts of inept "trainers" and by lack of research on the effectiveness of sensitivity training in bringing about significant change.

Other trends on college campuses may cause movement toward a more individual centered teacher preparation program. The relevancy zealots are quick to defend students' self-development as very immediate and most relevant. Innovative educational changes at the college level have a strong emphasis on the individual and his feelings. This approach is certain to infect teacher preparation curriculum. Not only will faculty members promote it, but student activists who are gaining power on the campus often find this approach most attractive.

A humanistic, individual fulfillment teacher preparation model would stress the following seven factors:

(1) Learning by personal experience. Experience, to proponents, seems to be limited to personal emotional experience, and individual, physical participation. There is often aversion to research theory, past experience, or consideration of other people's ideas. The personal nature of meaningful experience implies that a common experience for all prospective teachers may not be relevant. One implication for teacher education would be to minimize traditional course work and maximize individualized, practical experience.

(2) Primacy of feelings and needs of the individual. This emphasis not only applies to teachers, but to children in school as well. There is a close relationship of this philosophy in teacher education to child-centered educational models.

(3) Idiosyncratic, individual nature of learning. Allied with a requirement for personal experience, this characteristic forces a personalized curriculum. Behaviorists would settle for individualization, e.g., varying the rate, and sometimes the approach by which persons acquired desired competencies; but the humanists would require a curriculum individualized in content as well as method, with the student having major voice in choice of both.

(4) The value of indirect, long range and often immeasurable outcomes and the devaluation of short range, highly specific outcomes.

(5) Positive view of man tending toward development and growth and able to change basic attitudes and behavior patterns.

(6) Need for open communication.

(7) Need for continual self-examination and redefinition.

This format attracts individuals devoted to philosophy stressing worth of the individual. It provides a haven for persons who feel the need for continued self-evaluation and self-study. Its emphasis on individually relevant experiences may serve as a means to avoid unpleasant experiences and experiences that have deferred relevance.

The individual fulfillment model to teacher education is in conflict with aspects of the knowledge and behavioral models. The personal fulfillment model belittles common learnings. The other two models rely on them. The humanistic model ignores measurement; the behavioral-skill centered model cannot exist without it. The individual fulfillment model caters to the teacher and child. Other models emphasize content, teaching skills, knowledge of educational foundations, and planning of educational environments. Although proponents of knowledge and behavioral models would not deny the importance of teacher personality, they would consider it as a constant factor, determined when teachers are selected for preparation programs.

The humanistic philosophy has liberal premises but its supporters believe that schools should be run according to their premises and teachers should believe in child-centered goals and methods. What is internally liberal and open is itself — as a whole — quite dogmatic and closed.

Three Models and Their Relationship to Preparing Educational Leadership

The three models described offer alternatives for preparing teacher-leaders. Each could be refined and developed in ways which would probably improve teacher preparation.

Knowledge-Centered Model

The knowledge-centered model, because it is linked with past chaos, is receiving least attention as a vehicle for useful change. Much could be done to improve it. Major curriculum reforms in academic subjects for elementary and secondary schools have been accomplished during the past decade. These reforms, most advanced in science and math, have generally utilized a knowledge-centered model. The approach, popularized by Jerome Bruner[6] and others, emphasizes identifying the structure of the discipline and the teaching of this structure in ways characteristic of the original discoverers in the fields. Discovery and structure have been key concepts of recent curriculum innovations.

Teacher educators might seek to influence liberal arts colleagues to overhaul content courses which have remained far behind restructured elementary and secondary school curricula.

We might also apply the search for structure to the discipline of education itself. Education as a discipline deals with man the learner and man the teacher, with differing ideologies regarding the nature and purpose of learning and knowing and ways of facilitating learning. It is an amorphous discipline borrowing heavily from psychology, from philosophy, from epistemology, and from sociology. Yet, education has a central focus and an identity in its own modes of inquiry. These modes of inquiry are characteristic of an interdisciplinary approach to problems. Educational processes emphasize interaction and aspects of a systems approach. Are we just awakening to the importance and identity of such a "supra-discipline?" Much remains to be done to clarify both the knowledge and processes of education. Nonetheless, as educators we could tackle the problem as scientists recently tackled the updating of science curricula for the schools. We could define and clarify the interactive processes of knowledge-centered models. We could grapple with the problem of the nature of educational truth. Our results could then be taught in representative ways, revealing the nature of our field. Surely such an organization of our discipline is needed. If we look closely at diverse offerings of courses in education, we find both redundancy and lack of comprehensive relationships. Curriculum is compartmentalized into history, sociology, learning theories, developmental theories, philosophies, curriculum theories, instructional theories, administrative theories, and so on. Differing personal preferences of educators lead students to conflicting and unrelated courses which defy organization into any manageable whole. Our discipline is chaotic. It is in worse order than science or math or social studies curricula prior to 1970. If educational leaders are to make intelligent decisions from myriads of alternatives, how are they to do this without some conceptual scheme with which to organize the chaos?

---

[6] Bruner, Jerome S. *The Process of Education.* New York: Random House, 1960. *passim.*

An overhaul of knowledge and processes in education would enhance teacher preparation. Such a task would require scholars of education and a depth of analysis not currently in evidence. There seems to be little interest in comprehensive organization and updating of the field. Perhaps it is not time for education as a discipline to become more organized and unified.

Behavioral Model

Updating and application of the behavioral model in teacher preparation is more popular than rejuvenation of the knowledge-centered model. The task is neater and simpler than the one for revealing the structure of the discipline of education. Once one has mastered behavioral definition of goals, design of properly sequenced activities to develop the behaviors, diagnosis and prescription for the learner in regard to desired competencies and behavioral verification of achievement, he can apply the model over and over to any task. It is a model comprehensible to people in education. It is a neat model and it fits nicely into an empirically oriented, scientific culture. Such a model could improve teacher education. It offers an alternative whereby teacher educators can tell when goals have been achieved. It offers a procedure for definition of goals which would force out of teacher education curriculum which we have used out of habit. It offers rigorous, workable evaluation which would aid in eliminating content and methods which yield no effectiveness in improving teaching. It would force out areas of the curriculum which have no readily measurable short-term results. A rigorous performance oriented model necessitates a close look at the role of the teacher and the learning activities which promote this role. This would stimulate research on teaching. Values of a behavioral model are being felt. It has stimulated hope that something manageable can be done to improve teacher education. It has inspired a confidence of businessmen and politicians who have given generous funding in this direction. It has become popular and functional with educators. It has resulted in simulation and micro-teaching techniques and an effective approach to skill building. Development of educational models for elementary teachers around lists of behavioral objectives arose out of a United States Office of Education study. Several comprehensive models were developed. These models are summarized in *A Readers' Guide to the Comprehensive Models for Preparing Elementary Teachers.*[7]

Values of a behavioral model are obvious but it cannot be unequivocally adopted for preparation of teacher-leaders It slights knowledge of educational alternatives — knowledge of the discipline of education. It avoids humanistic, long-range attention to effective dimensions of teaching and the teacher. Care is needed to apply a behavioral model where specific skills are appropriate. Do not apply it pervasively and give an image of organization, sequence, and specificity. Such image cannot exist in all areas of education. It is important to realize that a behavioral model depends on job analysis and function as they exist in practice. In an era of rapid education change and with the bias to change inherent in this discussion, fixed performance criteria based on past or present job descriptions are difficult to justify. In the model[8] for development of teacher-leaders the following eight guidelines dictate the application of a behavioral model:

1. Specification of operationally defined goals is appropriate for general goals for the leadership model. Such specificity helps to clarify and communicate the broad range of teacher characteristics which the model seeks to develop.
2. General goals involve individualized sets of behaviors developed from a wide range of alternatives. This characteristic obviates the necessity for a single set of highly specific, prescribed performance activities which all students must meet.
3. Care will be taken not to specify highly conditional definitions of performance which tend to force precise evaluation, tight procedures and a limited range of responses.
4. It is desirable to allow definition of goals to arise out of unforeseen and fortuitous circumstances which generate them. Have faith that instructional staff and students value the generation of goals.
5. A curriculum bounded by short-range, specific, sequential behavioral goals is often inimical to development of autonomy, flexibility and self-esteem in the learner. Open resentment of this "programmed" instruction by students is evidence of weakness.
6. A leadership development model will emphasize a personalized synthesis of experiences not common to all.
7. There is little evidence supporting the benefits of any specific sequence of activities and competencies for the general preparation of teachers.

---

[7] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. *A Readers' Guide to the Comprehensive Models for Preparing Elementary Teachers*. Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education. 1969. *passim*.

[8] Described in the next chapter.

Some sequences of behavior are well suited to a behavioral skill development model.

8. "Correct" teaching methods depend on chosen goals, and teacher and student characteristics. Educational goals are basically value judgments; teacher and student characteristics are extremely varied.

Humanistic-Individual Fulfillment Model

The humanistic-individual fulfillment model offers potential for improvement of teaching and teacher preparation. The knowledge model with its terminal apprenticeship experience has virtually overlooked two factors: (1) the teacher as a person, and (2) the effective components of learning. Student teaching has evoked myriad conflicts and emotional pressures.

Role conflicts, interpersonal demands of teaching, and the struggle for a positive identity by a beginning teacher have been neglected. Beginning teachers have little chance to experiment and develop personal style. Prescription and evidence of the importance of a personal style are common, yet preparation programs have generally been structured to exclude this for all but the courageous. Individualization and personalization of teacher preparation is almost nonexistent.

A humanistic model would involve strategies and beliefs which would attend to real needs of beginning teachers. Seminars and counseling services might be extended to meet teacher's effective needs. Care could be taken to give new teachers successful experience. Supervision could shift from criticism to support. Preparation programs could be tailored to individual needs, abilities and wishes. Development of individual educational philosophies and teaching styles could be fostered. These goals would assist development of competent-feeling, autonomous and independent professionals. However, feelings of competence and independence are not all that is required of a teacher-leader. Teachers must prove themselves effective. Leadership requires recognition of excellence from others. A teacher-leader cannot hold a narrow idiosyncratic view of his profession. A teacher-leader may be committed to one philosophy, but he must have perspective which understands other alternatives. He must be able to judge new educational ideas, new values, needs of different children, and adjust his philosophy.

If teacher-leaders were those who believe and practice what "experts" think regarding educational goals and methods, it would be easy to pick one model and train teachers to teach and direct accordingly. This does not fit my definition[9] of teacher-leadership. It does represent a trend in teacher preparation. Those who talk of teacher-leaders invariably talk of teachers who agree philosophically with them.

To some educators, a teacher-leader is one who believes in a child-centered, activity-centered classroom.

To others, he is a teacher who can interpret performance feedback and prescribe the next activity from a prepared sequence.

---

[9] Given in Chapter 1.

To others, he remains a teacher with strong academic background, with strong grasp of the structure of his discipline. He can communicate effectively.

Each of the three models described trains teachers with a philosophy which will hopefully match the philosophy of a new teacher's first school. None of the three can be acceptable for a leadership model. Each, no matter how liberal its doctrine, is limiting. A leader may become committed to one philosophy but he will not have the perspective and open-mindedness for educational change if he came by his commitment by either obvious or subtle dictate. This argument excuses any one model for consideration.

However, it may be possible to piece together aspects of the models into a form which will produce the kind of teacher-leader supported by this argument.

An Eclectic Model

We noted earlier the fact of rapid social change. We are faced with an uncertain future but one surely marked in several decades by diversity, ambivalence, contradiction and conflict. Teaching single orthodoxies, whether old or new, will not meet needs of men and probably not equip any individual to cope with his world.

Educational leadership requires a flexible basis for change: a framework rich with alternatives. A leader must have autonomy of choice which prohibits inculcation of single sets of educational goals and procedures.

Educational leaders are confronted with a need to search for new meanings and new modes of instruction beyond the need for implementing transitory solutions.

One acceptable model for preparing teacher-leaders seems to be an eclectic mode — fostering exploration of alternatives in a milieu which stresses autonomy, communication and responsiveness to individual human need. Teacher educators, to meet the needs for an unknown future, cannot sell educational orthodoxies.

The following chapter draws from the three educational models described. An eclectic model is limited by the alternative models described. Those found in ensuing pages are offered as examples. They are examples which establish a basis for the generation of new educational alternatives. An eclectic model should provide a mechanism to deal with change by providing teacher-leaders who deal with change.

Chapter 3
THE HUMAN DIMENSION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS

Certain knowledge, skills and attitudes have been briefly described as requirements for a teacher-leader.[1] These qualities must be more carefully defined and supported and guidelines for their development must be established. This chapter will focus on the human dimension as it applies to the preparation of teacher-leaders.

A major portion of this chapter was set forth in an earlier publication.[2]

Development of the Human Dimension

Two goals are described: (1) positive identity, and (2) effective communication.

Developing the Goal of Positive Identity

A teacher-leader should have a personal sense of autonomy, competence and commitment as a professional: A positive identity as a teacher.

A teacher-leader has a personal sense of autonomy as a professional. He is self-governing and self-directing, making conscious choices about teaching rather than blindly carrying out a prescribed curriculum.

He has a feeling of professional competence. He feels successful and capable in his role as teacher.

He is committed to his profession. He displays self-initiated involvement and devotion in educational matters rather than routine discharge of required duties and involvement for only selfish ends.

Few argue against the desirability of these teacher-leader qualities, but models designed specifically to foster them are very rare.

A number of educators believe that development of good teachers depends directly on healthy personal development. To date the strategies to bring about positive personal identity have ranged from identity oriented readings and course work to group and individual counseling and to sensitivity groups.

Emphasis on the goal of positive teacher identity stated above is *not* on general personal growth and development. Rather it is on an individual seeing himself as a competent, autonomous teacher. Surely such a professional identity is closely related to one's basic self-concept and may result in changes in self-concept; yet the two need not be synonymous. A teacher may be unsure and insecure with aspects of his personality yet function with confidence and autonomy as a professional. This assumption departs somewhat from Combs[3] and other humanistic educators who argue that a self-actualizing, competent teacher is a self-actualizing, competent person. This is probably true, but it may also be true that an adequate professional identity may not always require specific definition of a positive personal identity.

---

[1] See Chapter 1.

[2] Andrew, Michael D., *Teachers Should Be Human Too*. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators. 1972. pp. 6-14.

Emphasis on personal growth of a teacher in training runs the risk of gaining slim results for time invested. Change in personality traits and self-perceptions in adults is not persuasive. There is a risk of creating an atmosphere of group counseling, psychotherapy and self-preoccupation, which reduces time spent on other goals and may interfere with self-development that might come about by getting on with teaching and living.

There is support for the opinion that learning which threatens self-perception is resisted and that changes in self-organization proceed best where external threat is minimized.[4] A model which focuses on the *person* of a teacher may intensify the threat to many and interfere with learning about teaching as well as with self-reorganization. Clinical experience combined with supervision, or counseling which focuses on a beginning teacher's personality and on success and failure in teaching, carries a high threat and risk factor. Supervision which emphasizes teaching as an experiment, where methods and goals are under closer scrutiny than the person or the teacher, diminish threat. Supervision of this nature encourages personal growth and self-reorganization. As Carl Rogers puts it, "Whe threat to the self is low, experience can be perceived in differentiated fashion and learning can proceed."[5]

Rogers would undoubtedly be in favor of group encounter sessions in a teacher development program. The benefits of this are not questioned here. However, it is suggested that much learning about teaching would proceed best in an experimental atmosphere which allows a teacher to play with the teaching process without continued, direct, personal threat.

These concerns should not be construed as dismissal of the importance of a teacher's personal growth and professional identity. Rather they are intended to communicate caution against overindulgence. The proposed teacher leadership model is eclectic. It will not thoroughly please adherents of the three educational ideologies.[6] The humanistic emphasis of this teacher development model is on the person developing a clear and healthy concept of himself as a teacher and on his ability to deal effectively with others. Fred Wilhelms' statement, "Our primary purpose must be to help each candidate as much as we can in his personal/professional becoming" seems to capture the essence of the emphasis on the humanistic component intended here.[7] We must not

---

[3] Combs, *op. cit.*, *passim*.

[4] Rogers, Carl R., *Freedom to Learn*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1969. p. 159.

[5] Rogers, *op. cit.*, p. 161.

[6] Reviewed in Chapter 2.

[7] Wilhelms, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

restrict our focus only to the person or only to the professional role but must treat the person in the context of his emerging professional identity.

Strategies

Confining the person-centered goals to personal professional identity and effectiveness with others may lessen the task somewhat, yet it is still considerable. Several strategies seem appropriate.

AUTONOMY

The goal of autonomy, or the attitude and ability to function independently without reliance on others for direction, calls for treatment in the teacher-leader model. Early teaching experiences place faith in individuals to make decisions, allows them to do so, and gives them support to avoid frustration and failure. The following two sets of responsibilities define the amount and kind of structure which promotes autonomy, rather than frustration or dependence.

Seven Responsibilities of Teacher Preparation Institutions in Promoting Autonomy

1. Alternative points of view in education must be clearly presented to an individual and they must be presented in a context of open analysis rather than one of predetermined values.
2. An individual must have freedom and *responsibility* to choose among alternative points of view.
3. An individual must have freedom to individualize a program of teacher development to a significant degree, yet have a sound base of alternatives from which he makes choices.
4. He must be encouraged to work from an emerging personal philosophy of education rather than a prescribed or emulated model.
5. As an individual takes on the role of teacher, he must be treated as an independent and competent individual rather than an "apprentice" learning a trade.
6. There must be opportunity for open, supportive discussion of problems of becoming a teacher.
7. Professional growth cannot end with preservice. Teacher preparation institutions must assume responsibility for career development for teachers in school and offer paths of further professional work.

One point of view separates teacher education into preservice and inservice components. In practice the two may be unrelated. No separation will be supported here. Rather, a shared responsibility of schools and teacher preparation institutions will be developed. Development of teacher-leaders is seen as a continuing, cooperative responsibility of schools and teacher preparation institutions.

Five Responsibilities of Schools for Continuing Development of Autonomy

Schools must share with teacher preparation institutions goals of an autonomous teacher-leader. In promoting this end, the following are five responsibilities of schools:

1. Schools must maintain an atmosphere of administrative and community support for teacher-leadership.
2. Schools must take a cooperative role in providing an experimental internship or clinical experience. They must share support for leadership in supervision, rather than leaving this task to visiting university supervisors. They must support an experimental nature of this experience and avoid apprenticeships to promote the status quo.
3. Schools must share responsibility for staff members who work with beginning teachers in increasing their knowledge of curriculum and teaching methodology.
4. Schools must share responsibility for persons who offer feedback, support, and open discussion of teaching for beginning teachers.
5. Schools must adopt processes which give teachers a major role in educational decision-making, particularly with regard to curriculum.

COMPETENCE

Competence may be defined as feeling confidence in one's abilities related to the tasks of a teacher-leader. There is little doubt that a feeling of personal competence would help establish feelings of competence as a teacher. Yet a lasting feeling of competence as a teacher must come from success as a teacher. Success is achieved by feeling that accepted goals have been effectively accomplished.

An autonomous teacher who feels a sense of competence must feel *his* goals and teaching styles are effective. Herein lies a dilemma. Everyone wants to feel competent and a beginning teacher may readily compromise his style and values to gain praise and acceptance which comes from a supervisor or college faculty member with whom he is working. Reward patterns which shape behavior to externally developed models are at the heart of our educational system and are reflected in university course work as well as in the socializing influences of school systems. To develop feelings of competence in a beginning teacher and preserve his autonomy will often require a new kind of treatment of individuals in teacher-preparation clinical experiences.

Structuring teacher preparation for success while preserving autonomy means helping a student tackle appropriate goals (within his capability to achieve and without undue psychological risk). At appropriate times, it means providing positive feedback for a student's goal-oriented activities. This statement may seem obvious, but it implies drastic changes in present patterns of clinical experience, course work, and supervision. Course work must reward individual synthesis of ideas. Clinical experience must be designed to gradually introduce the student to the demands in an environment which favors experimentation. The practice of throwing a new teacher into a typical school system, with its pressures to conform, seems least likely to develop the kind of teacher competence which preserves autonomy.

In traditional student-teaching patterns a novice must conform in order to experience success. He must conform to school philosophy, to community expectations, to students' expectations, and to the expectations of university personnel. Chances of reward for pursuing his goals and ideas are good only if his goals and ideas conform to sets of external expectations. Without opportunity to develop his educational goals and ideas, it is natural that a novice will accept those strongly imposed by the system. Pressures to perform within standards limits true experimentation, which is critical for a beginning teacher to develop goals and style. Traditional student teaching exposes a beginner to such a range of pressures and demands that only the self-confident take the risk of experimentation.

A traditional model for supervision compounds the problem of competence with autonomy. Supervision is normally seen by a student, and carried on by a supervisor, as criticism, or as a shaping strategy to get students to conform to a supervisor's model. Emphasis is on what a student did wrong, not on what he did right in a given situation.

To develop feelings of competence while preserving autonomy, the following nine responsibilities are suggested. They are seen as shared responsibilities for teacher preparation institutions and schools.

Nine Shared Responsibilities

1. A gradual introduction into the role of teacher, consisting of (a) school observation and teacher aide experience; (b) extended observation and contact with children to gain first-hand knowledge of students of different ages and backgrounds; (c) an experimental first teaching environment, prestructured to increase success in various teaching roles and provide several models of teaching.
2. A choice of internship setting and supervision, and opportunity to work in different school situations with a variety of master teachers and colleagues.
3. A style of supervision which (a) values experimentation over the shaping of behavior; (b) favors inductive, student-centered supervisory patterns over deductive, supervisor-directed patterns; (c) exerts structure in the direction of realistic self-appraisal which is sensitive to the need for positive reinforcement; (d) helps a teacher identify and develop strengths; (e) stresses appropriateness of methods, strategies and goals instead of analyzing teaching from the point of view of a teacher's personality and behavior; and (f) values development of self-analysis skills by beginning teachers.
4. Placement of high value on development of individual teaching philosophies and styles of teaching, so that students tend to judge their competence in line with their goals.
5. Inclusion of self-evaluation as a major component.
6. Avoidance of a small number of teaching models in favor of a variety of master teachers.

7. Emphasis on experimentation rather than modeling.
8. Counseling which helps a student accept strengths and weaknesses, resolve conflicts in his identity as a teacher, and seek educational positions which emphasize his competencies. Often beginning teachers may judge themselves and be judged by stereotyped standards of good teaching.
9. Willingness by educators to screen during the development program individuals who show little chance of achieving success as teachers. There often is a tendency to protect anyone who begins teacher preparation. Is it fair to an individual to keep him in a situation where he will achieve few rewards and will become insecure and unhappy, as well as ineffective?

COMMITMENT

Commitment is an attitude reflected by a teacher by involving himself in his profession with his best effort.

Teacher educators and educational administrators often bemoan the apparent lack of commitment of teachers. Teacher educators continue to admit candidates into teacher preparation almost solely on the basis of academic credentials without regard to motives. Consequently, much time is spent educating students seeking a vocational policy, less rigorous academic tasks, or evasion of difficult job decisions.

This does not mean that we should exclude a person who wishes to try teaching or examine the profession. This opportunity should be open to a student early in his college career, before the serious and time-consuming business of developing a teacher-leader begins. It should be easy for a student to explore teaching, and easy to choose to go elsewhere without risking personal failure or devoting large amounts of his college time.

Some process of examining a student's commitment should exist before he undertakes a full teacher development program. Personal interviews and counseling aimed to help students appraise their own commitment seem to be mechanisms available for this task. Assessment of commitment should be a priority in hiring and rehiring of teachers.

Behavioral objectives postulated to reflect commitment could be drawn up but are subject to considerable error. A person may put in many hours yet not feel committed. He may carry out responsibilities yet not be committed. A counseling relationship helping in a self-assessment of commitment is considered a desirable mechanism.

Commitment is more than a prerequisite. It is an attitude which can be fostered by the teacher development program. It is closely tied to competence. Experiencing success and developing a feeling of personal competence as a teacher are helpful in increasing commitment. We are likely to commit ourselves to tasks which are personally rewarding. Responsibilities of schools and teacher preparation institutions for developing competence are closely tied to the development of commitment. There seems a logical or psychological link between autonomy and commitment. A person who feels trust and independ-

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

ence in a job seems more likely to feel a sense of commitment, than a person feels for a job in which he is pressured, dependent and without autonomy.

Commitment reflects passion and enthusiasm for teaching. This aspect of commitment is augmented by surrounding a teacher with enthusiastic and impassioned educators who view teaching as an exciting, challenging endeavor.

Developing the Goal of Effective Communication

A teacher-leader should possess skills and attitudes or qualities which allow him to convey a positive, supportive attitude toward others – both colleagues and children. He should also possess skills of group leadership which promote effective communication. He should be able to communicate openly and to encourage the same from members of a group.

There are many ways to describe these personal qualities. Carl Rogers in *Freedom to Learn* describes this cluster of traits as genuineness, acceptance and empathetic understanding.[8] He uses them to refer to characteristics of interpersonal relationships which facilitate learning.

A positive, supportive attitude embodies acceptance and empathetic understanding. Effective communication requires genuineness. These qualities are considered critical to effective teacher leadership as well as to effective teaching. Inherent is bias toward leadership which seems appropriate to cooperative, constructive group functioning.[9] Within a facilitative, person-oriented leadership role, there is latitude for individual style.

There is clearly a structuring of a teacher development program toward a particular kind of leadership. A specific change strategy for schools in which teachers play a leadership role in a cooperative venture is important to develop teacher-leader characteristics.

A positive, supportive attitude toward others and the ability to promote effective communication might be considered prerequisite qualities already determined in young adults. To a degree this is true. We must take care to search for these personal qualities. We must side with humanistic educators and psychologists — with their faith as much as their research — and agree that human qualities are critical to teaching and leadership and deserve effort to promote them.

A great amount has been written on ways to promote these qualities. It can be simplified into a single prescription. To promote acceptance, empathy and honesty, treat a person that way. A teacher development program must support these qualities. To give a person autonomy with adequate, supportive structure is to show a degree of trust and empathetic understanding. Autonomy of choice from alternatives is characteristic of much teacher development. The supervisory relationship in clinical experiences must show these qualities as well as focus on them in the teaching process. Master teachers must possess them. Administrative leadership in schools must display and foster these traits. Accepting counseling must be available as well as a seminar which looks directly at group interaction for supportive group leadership. We must find qualified people to oversee this aspect of teacher development. Effort in this area may be difficult to evaluate because of disinterest in measurement and because of an idiosyncratic nature of humanistic qualities.

---

[8] Rogers, Carl R., *op. cit.*, pp. 106-112.

[9] This characteristic for a curriculum change model was mentioned in Chapter 1.

For this dimension of teacher development, have no qualms in substituting faith, trust and intuition for accountability. This does not mean that progress in the human dimension cannot be measured. Every attempt should be made to gain feedback and refine evaluative instruments in this area. But lack of evaluative sophistication should be no excuse to overlook humanistic development of a teacher-leader.

Chapter 4
KNOWLEDGE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS

Acquisition of attitudes and skills cannot be divorced from acquisition and application of knowledge. Taxonomic distinctions between attitudes, skills and knowledge may often oversimplify and distort the true nature of human learning. Performance of skills, whether cognitive or manipulative, is almost certainly connected in some degree to knowledge. Man's knowing, feeling and doing exist in complex interrelationships. It has been the practice in much of education to attempt to isolate knowledge as an entity unto itself and to emphasize or ignore direct attention to the acquisition of skills and attitudes and the relationship of knowledge to solving real problems and acting on these problems. It has been suggested that teacher-leaders acquire a particular mixture of knowledge, skills and attitudes. The question arises as to whether these three areas of learning can be treated separately. The previous chapter attempted to emphasize the development of attitudes. This separation is a convenience in organizing and communicating; but reflects the difficulty of clearly describing the interaction of knowledge skills and attitudes in an educational program or in individual learning.

Knowledge for teachers is useful in two ways. Knowledge may help to organize and interpret experience and it may aid in solving problems. Both uses are important to teacher-leaders. As a decision-maker and curriculum change agent, teacher-leaders must interpret curricular options and interpret ideas regarding implications of educational practices. They will be aided by being able to interpret student behavior and the teaching-learning encounter. They will benefit from knowledge of group process or curriculum development procedures which may help solve problems and act appropriately. They will benefit from knowledge gained from solution of classroom problems and the performance of teaching tasks. To be meaningful, neither kind of knowledge can be divorced from reality. Interpretive structures need to be developed and applied: practicable knowledge needs to be practiced. Practice involves a teaching practicum or some form of simulation. Appropriate demonstration of interpretive knowledge may or may not require close contact with actual school experience.

Preservice components of the plan for teacher-leader development espoused here support two major areas of knowledge, interpretive and practicable, as categorized below:

i. Interpretive knowledge of:
   a. alternative educational ideologies
   b. school structure and change strategies
   c. children

   - d. teaching methods or models
   - e. analysis for teaching-learning activities
2. Practicable knowledge of:
   - a. institutional change strategies with limited emphasis in preservice program
   - b. child study
   - c. teaching skills associated with various methods
   - d. teaching analysis

This chapter will deal with knowledge of ideologies; knowledge of school change strategies; and knowledge of children. Knowledge of teaching methods, teaching analysis, and teaching skills — all closely related to practice — will be in the next chapter, dealing with skill development. Areas of knowledge dealt with in this chapter seem amenable to formal academic treatment, with little demand for a teaching practicum to give them meaning.

Given two major areas of knowledge, it is clear that there is a strong theoretical component in this teacher education program. This emphasis separates a leadership development program from an apprentice-technical training program. Series of predetermined skills taught in a behavioral framework would be most characteristic of a technician training program. An educational leader must be given a solid interpretive basis for analyzing and choosing among alternatives.

We are faced with structuring knowledge in three broad areas: (1) characteristics of children, (2) the nature of school change strategies,[1] and (3) educational ideologies. Educators face the dilemma of burgeoning knowledge. A brief attempt will be made to isolate bodies of knowledge of value to teacher-leaders.

I. Knowledge of Children

Teacher-leaders as competent performers should use methods, make diagnoses and interact with a variety of children from a base of in-depth knowledge of children. That good teaching depends on attention to individual needs and characteristics is a long-standing educational cliche. However, a review of teacher preparation uncovers few models in which significant attention is given to learning about children. Emphasis is largely on content, teacher role, methodology and educational foundations. Study of learners is usually indirectly treated in analysis of learning theory. Study of learning theory is one of the most abstract bodies of knowledge for preservice teachers. Its interpretive and practicable uses are very slight. Indeed, professional educators have been unable to bridge the gap from learning theory to instructional theory.

One might argue that knowledge of children emerges from teaching experience, yet in a traditional classroom the preoccupation with content, the "class," and group instruction minimizes attention to individual children. Where attention is given to individuals, it is nearly always in the form of instruction rather than observation and assessment of individual characteristics. Student teaching generally offers no great opportunity for learning about children. It is characteristically preoccupation with role adjustment, which emphasizes a teacher, content and methodology.

---

[1] Ways of presenting this knowledge are dealt with in Chapter 6.

The culture gap between student teachers and their students is well known. Student teachers placed in schools representative of their own socio-economic and ethnic backgrounds often find that they do not know much about a large percentage of students in those schools. Secondary school student teachers may have functioned well as students when attending the same schools placed in for student teaching. They comprised college preparatory groups and associated very little with nearly three-fourths of the students. This gap is compounded by social changes which have drastically altered values and behaviors of secondary school students, making them different, at least on the surface, from their counterparts who have come to teach. In cases where teachers enter schools representing socio-economic groups very different from their own backgrounds, the problem of culture gap is tremendous. This has become evident in institutions which have involved their teachers with ghetto schools and disadvantaged youth. Few of these teachers have found success. Best intentions have been rejected by students.

The need for cultural study is clear. This study would include the following four areas: (1) human development, with emphasis on psychological, physiological, and sociological characteristics; (2) social attitudes, background, mores and values of young people; (3) effective ways to gain knowledge of individual children; (4) children's specific reaction to varying school environments, course content, teacher personalities and teaching strategies. Support for these areas of study is gaining in education. In *Teachers for the Real World* the authors stress the need for the study of the cultural background of children.[2]

In *The Teacher Innovator*, Bruce Joyce states:

> In order to reach into the world of the learner, the teacher needs to control ways of studying the learner — of looking at his external behavior and conceptualizing or intelligently speculating on the meaning of his behavior.
>
> Especially, the teacher needs to employ conceptual systems that help him understand two kinds of things: how people develop and how their development can be facilitated.[3]

Some of this study could be in abstract confines of the college classroom. Direct observation and study of children would be requisite, however, to personal meaning for students. Cultural knowledge of children should come from situational encounters and careful analysis of these encounters.

---

[2] Smith, B.O., Cohen, Saul B. and Pearl, Arthur. *Teachers for the Real World.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. pp. 67-70.

[3] Joyce,, Bruce. *The Teacher Innovator: A Program to Prepare Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1960. p.393.

II. Knowledge of Schools

A teacher-leader, as a competent educator should be aware of the nature of schools: implicit goals, assumptions about children, and expectations held by the staff and student body about teacher roles.

This goal is a necessity for successful adjustment and survival within a system. It is a goal generally met within teacher preparation programs by some course or seminar dealing with institutional expectations.

III. Knowledge of Institutional Change Strategies

A teacher-leader in his role as change agent must understand the structure and function of schools. He must have knowledge of strategies relevant to curricular change in today's schools.

Instruction in institutional structure, function, and change strategies is characteristically a segment of graduate programs for school administrators. If a teacher is to be a change agent, he must have knowledge of institutional function and change strategies. Beginning teachers are naively idealistic and fervently expect to immediately become agents of change in schools.

Several factors have been delineated which allegedly contribute to the resistance of American public schools to meaningful change.[4] The preservice segment of a program for teacher-leaders should offer an introduction to institutional analysis and change strategies. This is justifiable to effect change and also to save the idealist from disillusionment and discouragement. Later training for development of teacher-leaders should include detailed attention to these areas.

IV. Up-to-Date Knowledge of the Nature of the Field of Education

It has been suggested that educators might undertake the task of defining a comprehensive picture of their discipline much like mathematicians and scientists achieved in the recent secondary school curriculum revolution.[5] This may seem unrelated to the preparation of teacher-leaders yet in many ways it is critically related. A teacher-leader is a decision maker. He must play a leadership role in selecting from a myriad of educational goals, methods and materials. Basic assumptions underlying these alternatives are often significantly different — reflecting totally differing ideas about the purposes of education and the nature of learning and knowing. The decision maker must be able to: (1) sort out alternatives, (2) find methods consistent with goals, and (3) foresee long-range implications of educational practice. He must have some cognitive framework to adequately achieve this task. A comprehensive picture of the field of education might give him this framework. It would include the following five major points:

(1) Educational truth is, in last analysis, a value judgment.

(2) As with other value judgments, there are conflicting ideas as to the nature of educational truth.

---

[4] See Chapter 1.

[5] Presented in Chapter 2.

(3) The nature of educational truth and educational goals is closely linked to the social context and values of the times.

(4) There are several distinguishable and fairly continuous, enduring sets of educational assumptions or ideologies. Each of these ideologies is comprised of related educational assumptions about learning, about children, about curriculum content, about evaluation, about the teachers' role and about educational goals. These ideologies can be used to help understand contemporary educational efforts.

(5) Education is an amorphous, multidisciplinary field, borrowing both content and methodology from other disciplines.

A broad analysis of education which would have substance in major ideas, include various sub-areas of education and be comprehensible to the novice, is a considerable challenge. A hodge-podge of inconsistent, redundant "foundations" courses — nonsynthesizable by the diversity of educational philosophies from numerous professors — will not reveal the structure of education to students.

A comprehensive view of educational alternatives, of the structure of the field, is a critical ingredient for teacher-leaders. A comprehensive view might be developed through a structure that views alternatives in curriculum in a philosophical framework. Clusters of assumptions about man, society, learning, goals of education and educational procedures underly guidelines for curriculum development. These clusters of assumptions might be referred to as educational ideologies. They can be categorized as the three ideologies listed below: (1) Knowledge-discipline centered ideology; (2) Humanistic-individual fulfillment ideology; and (3) Behavioristic-skills ideology.

(1) Knowledge-discipline centered ideology includes most traditional assumptions about knowledge education and the more recent emphasis on inquiry and cognitive process education. The "new" math, "new" science and "new" social studies serve as recent curricular developments exemplifying Knowledge-Discipline Centered Ideology.

(2) Child-centered education includes education for social, intellectual, moral, emotional and psychological development. Values clarification, self-expression and creativity education and certain aspects of individualization are examples of trends in Humanistic-Individual Fulfillment Ideology.

(3) Behavioristic-skills ideology includes performance based methodology and curriculum, vocational education and the career education movement.

These three ideologies could serve as an integrating framework of alternatives for teacher-leaders.

SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with four bodies of knowledge relevant to preservice development of teacher-leaders. The continuing development of teacher-leaders is treated later.[6] There has been exclusion of subject-matter needs of teacher-leaders other than those relevant to professional concerns. Thorough discussion of other concerns would lead us from the central theme of professional training. Discussion of subject-matter preparation of teachers is included in *Teachers for the Real World.*[7] Treatment of this topic can also be found in "The Liberal Education of Teachers" in *Crisis in the Classroom.*[8]

---

[6] See Chapter 7.

---

[7] Smith, *et al, op. cit.*, Chapters 9, 10.

[8] Silberman, *op cit.*, pp. 373-411.

Chapter 5

SKILLS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS

There are three major phases of skill development for the preservice segment of a teacher-leader program. Skills for the (1) flexible performer, (2) competent specialist, and (3) teaching analysist. As explained in the previous chapter, these skill areas are closely tied to bodies of interpretive and practicable knowledge. The skill areas and the related bodies of knowledge will be described in the following pages.

It should be clear that teachers' autonomy in selecting from a variety of educational alternatives is considered a central theme of leadership preparation. This condition sets a difficult task for skill development. A sequence of skills conforming to one or another ideal of "good" methodology cannot be forced on teacher-leaders. Skill development must be gained in an environment of multiple teaching methods and alternative styles offering a variety of skills. Individual assessment of various models must be encouraged. Development of unique skills and strategies must be condoned and supported. Nonetheless, we cannot allow students to limit their flexibility and basis for future decision making. Complete freedom to avoid contact with a wide range of methods and models without a strong basis for such exclusion cannot be allowed.

Skills for the Flexible Performer

Flexibility in teaching strategies and styles might be justified as a desirable characteristic for a competent performer. There is common sense support from teachers and students, as well as research backing suggesting that the best teachers are able to vary strategies for differing students and for differing educational objectives.

A teacher's role in encouraging creative thinking must be quite different from his role as conveyer of knowledge, or as diagnostician and prescriber. Some skills may be effectively taught in rigidly controlled, directed and structured training sequences. Nondirective and supportive procedures have been shown useful in developing spontaneity, self-esteem and originality.[1]

Considerable emphasis has been accumulated by Louis Heil and associates which indicates that different kinds of students respond best to different kinds of teaching strategies.[2]

---

[1] Nelson, L., "Developing the Creative Process and Product." '*National Elementary Principal* 44:39; May 1965.

[2] Heil, Louis M., Powell, Marion and Feifer, Irwin. *Characteristics of Teacher Behavior Related to the Achievement of Children in Several Elementary Grades*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1960. *passim*.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

Ryans describes some results of work done by Flanders:

> However, those pupils who learned most and who scored highest on classroom attitude scales were those from classes exposed to flexible patterns of teacher indulgence (that is, predominantly direct teacher influence in certain situations — as when the student's perception of the goal was clear and acceptable, and predominantly indirect teacher influence in other situations).[3]

Bruce Joyce in describing a model for preparing teacher innovators singled out flexibility as central to a successful teaching process.

> Yet if the teacher is not flexible, teaching can become detached from the students, lessons can miss the mark, and disaffection can occur between teacher and his student. Teaching requires continuous small adjustments of technique, personality, and pace. Flexibility is central to the process.[4]

There appears to be mounting support for the ideal of the flexible teacher.

In a program for preparing teacher-leaders there is justification for flexibility. Knowledge of a variety of models and the ability to apply these gives teacher-leaders the basis for change and autonomous decision making. Flexibility in methods will give beginning teachers numerous options to employ in the event that first selections turn out to be ineffective or educational purpose changes. By possessing a resource of options from which to choose, developing teachers are better equipped to accommodate changes in their evolving philosophy. From the point of view of institutional change, flexible teachers will have an advantageous perspective for evaluating prospective changes. They should possess more security in attempting change and should be in a better position to demonstrate and implement changes in teaching strategies.

To force a teacher-leader to adopt as his style a flexible, multi-method teaching strategy is inimical to the goals of leadership training, but equipping a teacher-leader with knowledge and some skill in various teaching strategies is of central importance.

Two levels of skills appear related to developing the flexible performer. The first level of skills is sensitivity to the needs of students. This will be a major level of the child study seminar-practicum as well as a central concern in all clinical experiences. The second level of skills is knowledge and experience with a wide range of alternative teaching strategies. This level of skills will be discussed in detail.

Multi-Methods Instruction and Introduction to Alternative Teaching Models

Having an understanding of major educational ideologies as discussed in the previous chapter, *a teacher-leader should be able to describe, analyze, compare and demonstrate the application of a wide range of teaching strategies.*

---

[3] Ryans, David G., *Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness.* Bruce J. Biddle and William J. Ellena, editors. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964. p. 93.

[4] Joyce, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

This is not a simple performance requirement. In addition to performance, teacher-leaders must be able to describe and analyze teaching models and relate various skills and methods to a broad framework of implicit goals and educational implications. This means that skill development must be carried on in an environment of continual analysis and appraisal. One requirement for this kind of analysis is a broad philosophical perspective in educational ideologies with which to relate teaching strategies. An example of this kind of perspective was offered in the last chapter.[5] More specific than this broad framework is a need for detailed conceptualization of a wide range of alternative teaching models — one which breaks exemplary models down into component teacher behaviors. One such conceptualization has been developed by Bruce R. Joyce[6] and included as part of the Teachers College, Columbia University, model for preparing Teacher-Innovators. Joyce has broken down various models which represent a wide range of educational positions. These models could serve as an excellent source of multi-methods instruction. Joyce's position on the use of these models is essentially the same as the position of this author. Joyce supports this author's position on the need for interpretive knowledge as well as clinical mastery:

> Our position is that the student should have available to him the best of the spectrum of educational theories and the ability to implement them in the classroom. Critical to this mastery is both *comprehension* and theoretical positions and the clinical capacity to execute strategies derived from them.[7]

Critical in analysis of teaching modes is some conceptual framework for delineating important characteristics of the teaching-learning situation — characteristics which are common to all methods and by which these methods can be defined. This framework must not be biased toward one or another style of teaching.

Given the following three intellectual benchmarks for the analysis of experience: (1) a broad perspective on ideologies, (2) a range of teaching models, and (3) a framework for analysis of teaching-learning situations, then analysis, demonstration and skill development may progress in an experimental practicum setting with a wide variety of models. Included might be an experimental school, or the use of simulation techniques such as micro-teaching.[8]

Skills for Achieving Competence in Chosen Teaching Styles

The competent performer as a prospective teacher-leader must be able to perform, at some acceptable level, the skills necessary for teaching strategies of his choice.

Although it has been stipulated that the prospective teacher-leaders be able to demonstrate a wide variety of teaching models, it is not expected that they will achieve high levels of expertise. Preliminary experience with models should provide considerable guidance and structure, to insure, where possible, successful experiences in a variety of methods.

---

[5] See Chapter 4.

[6] Joyce, *op cit.*, pp. 198-236.

[7] Joyce, *op. cit.*, p. 183.

[8] Discussion of strategies appears in Chapter 6.

Initial guided success in an experimental environment will not only provide a broad perspective, but also confidence that the candidate can operate successfully. Although this experience is guided, he must be able to analyze realistically his strengths and weaknesses with various models.

After an experimental, analytic and broad introduction to methods, prospective teacher-leaders should have opportunity and support for development of expertise in preferred teaching styles. The student's choice might include lists of various subskills, such as the structuring of inductive lessons, or questioning techniques for encouraging student-to-student discussion. Developing skill in chosen styles could be supported by in-vitro methods of skill development, such as micro-teaching and simulation, through short-term workshops and experimental teaching, as well as by the experience of internship.

Skills for the Analysis of Teaching

The teacher-leader is an individual with the capability for personal growth and change as well as the ability to bring about growth and change in others, in the curriculum, and in the institution. To meet this end, the teacher-leader cannot be trained as an apprentice who will only sharpen skills through experience. Hopefully, this basis for critical analysis of a variety of teaching models and curriculum alternatives has been developed in preceeding pages. The following discussion deals specifically with a teacher's ability in general analysis of teaching-learning encounters. In the first phase of a teacher-leader program the goal is to facilitate personal growth. Later, the goal is to promote change in others, in the curriculum, and in the school.[9]

Ability to analyze teaching-learning situations has mistakenly been reserved for supervisors — usually college based faculty who analyze the teaching of students for the purpose of further instruction. Occasionally supervisors in school systems carry on this function but their role is normally one of evaluating teachers' performance against some predetermined standard rather than to assist the teacher in personal growth. The traditional concept of supervision emphasizes the shaping of behavior of an apprentice rather than the self-directed growth of an autonomous professional. Traditional supervisory models are usually didactic and authoritarian. The supervisor observes, evaluates performance and passes on this evaluation to the teacher. The teacher is expected to adjust his behavior more nearly to fit the accepted standard. The above stereotype of supervision and the teacher's reaction to it is not a straw man. Personal supervisory experience, observation of others, and honest expressions of students has verified this stereotype. The individual, seeking autonomy and self-esteem, generally resents this approach to supervision. In this model he is a non-autonomous performer, a dependent technician whose behavior is being shaped to someone else's standard.

---

[9] See Chapter 7.

The teacher-leader must be able to analyze teaching-learning situations, evaluate his observations in line with his own beliefs, and institute changes in his own behavior. With regard to changing his own teaching behavior, he must be a self-directed learner. Of course, he may need help in this endeavor. An experienced observer-analyst can help supply feedback and point out relevant foci for analysis. Fellow students can assist in this analysis. Video-tape may be employed. Pupils may provide feedback. The nature of this supervision will be elaborated in the next chapter.[10] The prospective teacher-leader also needs practice in the analysis of teaching and he needs a good conceptual framework for this analysis. There are several instruments or systems for the analysis of teaching, such as those by Flanders-Amidon, B.O. Smith, Bellack, Gallagher-Aschner, and Midley and Mitzel. These systems appear to suffer from one or more of the following weaknesses: (1) difficult to understand and cumbersome to use by beginning teachers. Some have been developed for research purposes; (2) limited in focus: may focus on social climate, emotional components, logical tasks or verbal interaction but seldom provide a comprehensive view of teaching; (3) biased toward one or another teaching method or instructional quality. For example, the Flanders system is interpreted by educators as biased toward what Flanders and Amidon define as indirect teaching.

For the preliminary skill development phase of the analysis of teaching, a broad, simple, unbiased but insightful perspective is needed, both for the definition and analysis of alternative methods, and for analysis of the student's own teaching.

Having acquired a conceptual framework for the analysis of teaching, *the prospective teacher-leader should be able to apply the framework to actual classroom situations, including his own teaching.*

He should be encouraged to solve analysis schemes of his own and to use these as well. He should be encouraged to work with other teachers in the analysis of teaching.[11]

Knowledge of School Curriculum

This chapter has been devoted to some of the requirements for competent performance as a teacher-leader. The competent performer as a teacher-leader must possess knowledge of curriculum materials available in his area of instruction.[12]

---

[10] See Chapter 6.

[11] An analysis of teaching is discussed in the two chapters which follow.

[12] Strategies for gaining this knowledge are presented next.

Chapter 6
STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING TEACHER-LEADERS

The basis for description of teacher development strategies has been set in previous chapters. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part is a discussion of general strategies in teacher education. The second part is a description of specific strategies for development of teacher-leaders.

Part 1 - General Strategies in Teacher Education

STUDENT TEACHING: THE SACRED COW

Every educator is doubtless familiar with the feedback indicating that students see student teaching as the most influential and useful part of preservice preparation programs. This is quite understandable in traditional teacher preparation models where general theory courses precede an apprenticeship. The knowledge is notoriously unrelated, in the eyes of the student, to the task of teaching. Nonetheless, we as teacher educators continue to think that students *should* see that content we teach is relevant. The apprenticeship is the real world of teaching and it is there that students feel they find relevance. They also find contradictions in ideal goals and methods. The few believers who were not turned off from theory courses by a prevailing negative preconception of education courses are usually turned off by their interaction with reality.

In a sense, part of formal preservice programs is a waste of time — an endeavor with little or no evidence in change of behavior of teachers. Student teaching emerges as the only apparently relevant experience. However, its status is gained more from default than from its own merits. It is, as stated before, a socialization into the status quo. Included in its weaknesses are the following:

(1) Unphased, total immersion into complex demands of teaching.
(2) Little skill training as preparation.
(3) High personal threat with no direct attention to personal needs of student teachers.
(4) Conflicting expectations from universities and schools.
(5) Little professional or peer support.
(6) Little direct knowledge of the variety of children in schools.
(7) Lack of understanding of institutional power and expectations.
(8) A theoretical orientation to models which are alien to preferred models in the schools.
(9) Little knowledge of realistic or workable models of institutional change.
(10) No reserve of professional confidence or self-esteem as a teacher.
(11) It is typically at the end of a preparation program with no early

opportunity to explore the demands of training. If it's not for you, you've just wasted a year or two.

In *Teachers for the Real World*, B.O. Smith and his associates criticized student teaching, concluding: "At best, student teaching is a reality from which the trainee learns by trial and error and a minimum of feedback."[1]

The first of three alternatives to be given is as follows:

(1) Eliminate student teaching altogether and let students do the same kind of trial and error learning during their first year. This suggestion is rejected by administrators who use student teachers as a screening process to identify those who can adequately adapt to role expectations. Secondly, eliminating student teaching, which is allegedly the best part of conventional teacher education programs, would lead logically to the elimination of the remainder of the professional program. With the exception of a mass of unemployed educators to deal with, one is left to wonder if any appreciable effect would be evidenced on the way children are treated in schools.

(2) Replace much of student teaching and formal course work with skill training. This is, of course, the answer of the behavioral camp in teacher preparation.[2] In *Teachers for the Real World*, the concept of training is central, although not the exclusive concern in teacher preparation. In their words:

> The absence of a training component in teacher education is perhaps its principal defect. This component has not been devised because theoretical courses combined with student teaching have been considered adequate in principle and because the essentials of training have not been explicitly thought through.
>
> ***
>
> To train someone is to guide him to acquire certain skill. The trainee is put in a situation where he can perform the skill, then is stimulated to perform it. His performance is analyzed and assessed. He and the trainer suggest changes in his performance. The more acceptable performance is supported through reinforcement by the trainer. Reduced to its formal structure, the training process must include the following elements:
>
> - establishment of the practice situation
> - performance of the specific behavior
> - feedback of information about the performance
> - modification of the performance in the light of the feedback
> - performance-feedback-correction-practice schedule continued until desirable skillfulness is achieved

---

[1] Smith, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p.70.

[2] See Chapter 2.

> In order to train new teachers and to continue the training of those in service, it is necessary to design a program and sets of training materials that will incorporate each of the above elements.[3]

This model of simulated and "real world" skill development is central in funding policies of the United States Office of Education. Competency Based Education, as it is called, involves acquisition of sequential, specific skills and concentrates on practical experience. If Silberman's criticism of "mindlessness"[4] in schools, teachers and educators is to be taken seriously, then this technician-oriented training approach has severe limitations, for it neglects attention to the analysis of alternatives and the concern for purpose. If there is a need for new educational models and exploration of new classroom procedures, then a status quo, task-analysis approach to teacher education seems a questionable solution.

(3) Develop a multiphase experiential component in teacher preparation. Combine interpretive and practicable knowledge with a phased mixture of exploratory experience, experimental teaching, demonstrating testing of a variety of models and hypotheses, skill development training, and full-time teaching.

It should be clear from previous discussions that this third alternative is the one selected for the preservice development of teacher-leaders.

THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION

Conventional models of supervision, either college based preservice or school supported in-service, are designed for two purposes: increasing teaching skill and evaluation of teacher performance. The threat of the evaluation function conflicts, in many cases, with skill development and effective behavioral change. Teachers see supervisors first as evaluators. Anxiety from threat of failure and professional advancement creates a barrier to honest discussion of teaching problems and effective help. Supervisors who are able to resolve this role conflict are rare.

Generally, supervision is carried on through several observation and evaluation sessions during a semester or year. The supervisor may set directions for desired change, but he is seldom available to help plan and try out these changes. The supervisor is likely viewed as an outsider, unaware of contextual problems and the true balance of teaching successes and failures. Seldom is the supervisor a partner in planning. Supervision as a teaching function is largely didactic and deductive, offering feedback and prescription from a preconceived standard of good teaching. Expert advice and suggestions can provide a very useful function. Outside evaluation serves a real need for many who wish an external standard to judge their performance. Nonetheless, the personal nature of teaching makes it extremely difficult to accept external, critical feedback, no matter how thoroughly diluted with praise. Teachers report feelings that supervision is nearly always critical. Indeed, many supervisors compound this feeling by offering long lists of specific criticisms and only a few perfunctory and general commendations. Good pedagogy should alert the supervisor that any real behavioral change can best be accomplished by focusing on one aspect of performance at a time. Much is being done to bring traditional supervisory practices in line with behavioral learning theory, giving attention to one behavior at a time, emphasizing positive behavior, and using praise for successful reinforcement. Effective supervision of this kind will be a useful component in the development of skills of teacher-leaders.

---

[3] Smith, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp.70-71.

[4] Silberman, *op. cit.*, p.14.

The central theme in leadership development is on personal choice from alternatives, a positive professional identity, enthusiastic commitment, insightful analysis of teaching, and self-directed growth. To meet these needs, new supervisory functions must take precedence over a behavioral model.

Supervisors must be supportive persons. They need not indiscriminately praise a teacher's performance, but must offer continual, positive support to teachers as persons and to teachers' efforts in evolving effective teaching strategies. To carry out this role, supervisors must be available when support is needed. Periodic visits do little to meet this need.

They should facilitate the development of enthusiastic commitment in teachers. This kind of commitment is developed from passion, excitement, and involvement of supervisors. This can best be communicated when the supervisor is himself a colleague in teaching. Enthusiastic commitment comes also from an experimental, no-holds-barred atmosphere for teaching. This atmosphere can pervade an entire school and can be supported by group planning and analysis of teaching.

Also, supervisors must have expertise in inductive, student-centered teaching style. They must help students to analyze and evaluate performance and reach conclusions.

Supervisors must do more than help students outline a direction for change. They must serve as a guide in planning and implementing change.

All of these functions call for an on-the-job supervisor with strong interpersonal skills, expertise in the analysis of teaching, and experience with inductive teaching strategies. Ideal supervisors should also be skilled in the appropriate use of behavioral, deductive and expository teaching. This model of master-teacher, resident supervisor will substitute for other kinds of supervision in the teacher-leader development program.

PRESERVICE AND INSERVICE VS. CONTINUOUS GROWTH

One dichotomy in professional training of educators is in preservice and inservice training. The two are almost totally unrelated. Preservice preparation has been thoroughly discussed in previous pages. Inservice programs are generally a smorgasbord of unrelated education courses. Often extensions of preservice theory areas are amassed in response to certification requirements and salary scale inducements offered for quantitative accumulation of credits. Colleges offering inservice courses often bemoan the lack of scholarly interest and aptitude on the part of teachers. Teachers reject the abstract and scholarly excesses on the part of colleges and universities.

Fortunately, this pattern is beginning to change with a revision of certification requirements in some states. The most productive trend is probably toward certification credit for experiences arranged to meet the needs of local groups of teachers and a separation of these important inservice needs from specialized graduate programs in education. The fact that this trend will eliminate a large number of education courses is probably a great blessing.

Perhaps the worst features of the preservice-inservice dichotomy is that it leaves the beginning teacher — after the limited preparation he has had — with no in-school support or continuing program for his development. The student has graduated and is no longer considered the responsibility of the college or university. He has passed theory courses and memorized knowledge, so he will — ipso facto — become a good teacher. In the school's eyes he has completed his professional training, and though admittedly inadequate that was the college's job, not the school's. Even the most casual observer could see the fallacy in this approach. The teacher is abandoned when he has the greatest need for support. The gap between theoretical constructs and practical reality must be bridged. Ideals must be examined, pressures to conform must be withstood, an atmosphere of experimentation must be maintained if the novice is to achieve his own best teaching style and continue his growth. Analysis of teaching with feedback must proceed. Above all, confidence and self-esteem as a teacher must emerge. Too often the result is socialization and conformity to status quo; or the frustration and defeat that leads to withdrawal from the profession and a bitter, enduring resentment of professional preparation, the schools, or both.

The teacher-leader program requires a new partnership between schools and teacher preparation institutions for joint responsibility for the continuing support and growth of teachers. It also requires an upper-level development program for the further education of the teacher-leader.[5]

A promising possibility for the continuing education of teachers is the Teaching Center. The proposed teacher-leadership program utilizes the Teaching Center concept. A teaching center is a regional resource center of curriculum and instructional materials for use by preservice and inservice teachers. Short-term workshops, courses, conferences, individual and group study can be undertaken in teaching centers. Teaching centers contribute to the elimination of the need for curriculum and methods courses and provide a resource for teacher's inservice requirements.

In general, areas of study identified for teacher development will be developed in modular or mini-course form with the activities taking place in local school settings for joint participation by preservice and inservice personnel.

---

[5] A program to attract novice teacher-leaders is described in the next chapter.

SIMULATED EXPERIENCE FOR THE TEACHER

One of the newest and most popularized strategies for teacher development is the use of simulated teaching situations. Broadly interpreted, simulated experiences include techniques other than in-school experience, designed to recreate some school teaching-learning situation. Three examples include college students in methods courses: (1) role-playing students of a particular age group while a peer tries out teaching strategies and techniques; (2) microteaching —practice of teaching skills with small groups of "hired" students for short periods of time with immediate feedback; and (3) filmed or taped selections of teacher and student behavior requiring trainee participation.

Simulation in teacher education has been primarily justified on the basis of three factors: (1) lack of ready access to classrooms during preparation programs; (2) need to control the number of variables in the study and practice of teaching; and (3) ability to provide immediate feedback. P.J. Tansey[6] reviews the use of simulation in teacher preparation and offers a number of examples of simulated teaching situations and problems. Trainees are confronted with situations and their responses are usually rated in comparison to predetermined, "correct" responses. Tansey summarizes the advantages of simulation as follows:

> It permits realism and relevance to enter the instructional system by making situations problem-based. It permits participants to assume roles that will be theirs in the future and to gain experience in those roles. It enables complex problems to be made simple, by abstracting from the realities only those elements that are relative to the teaching situation. It changes the social conditions under which learning takes place as the tutor is not active with his students passively acquiring knowledge — all are actively engaged. It uses techniques of cooperation rather than those of competition. It has diagnostic and prognostic potential, and may well usurp the interview as a selective procedure.[7]

Tansey points out that development of simulation materials is time consuming and expensive. He admits a lack of research evidence supporting effectiveness.

"The setting up of simulation exercises is a laborious and often expensive process and we urgently need accurate information in order that we can feel a measure of certainty that is worthwhile."[8]

Since simulation may involve filmed, taped, or written recreations and directions, there has been considerable interest from the business sector in packaging and selling simulation packages or technical equipment for use in educational simulation. Marketing of video-tape equipment has probably been most profitable and popular in this regard. Simulation experiences offer the environmental control to break teaching down into small sub-skills, incidents or problems. Thus simulation fits nicely into a behavioral learning model. Simulation techniques have evolved from a behavioral approach to teacher preparation. The combination of hardware-software requirements and the presently popular behavioral learning models have made an attractive package for sales promotion. Simulation is an educational fad. It is also a profitable one. For these reasons one must be careful in analyzing the usefulness of simulation in a teacher preparation program. One must separate out the profit motivated promotion from the educational value. In carrying out such an evaluative task, behaviorally oriented simulation approaches have one very strong asset: they usually stress immediate performance changes which are measurable. Accountability is a valuable feature of the behavioral model for teacher preparation.[9] As indicated above, there is little evidence on the overall effects of simulation techniques in teacher education.

---

[6] Tansey, P.J., *Simulation and Games, An International Journal of Theory, Design and Research* Volume 1, Number 3. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1970. pp.281-302.

[7] Tansey, *op. cit.*, p.301.

[8] Tansey, *op. cit.*, p.300.

In the proposed teacher-leader development program, micro-teaching and simulation have a logical and useful place. They effectively promote development of the basic skills of alternative teaching models. They effectively aid the individual in refining these skills which fit models in which he chooses to develop expertise. However, the use of micro-teaching in a program based only on task analysis, modeling and skill building does not fit the philosophy of the leadership development program.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

Micro-teaching and other simulation experiences are one desirable segment of methods instruction. The methodological goals of the teacher-leader program were summarized in the last chapter. Actual strategies for their achievement remain to be described.

Traditionally, the main part of methods instruction has been carried on in the methods courses. Perennial dissatisfaction on the part of many students and professors has caused a variety of attempts at restructuring and juggling the effectiveness of these attempts at providing good methods instruction through formal courses.

Increasing support has been mounting for systematic instruction in teaching models and skills as an integral part of a clinical experience. Shaplin argues that "if practice occurs simultaneously with other instruction, the teacher can try out the principles, concepts and content in his own teaching."[10] Robinson and Stone write, "Neither teaching experience nor related professional content alone is adequate as a curriculum . . . ; but when 'practice' and 'theory' are interwoven and interrelated, the contribution of each to the intern's professional growth should be greatly increased."[11]

---

[9] See Chapter 2.

[10] Shaplin, Judson. "Practice in Teaching," *A Re-appraisal of the Professional Aspects of Teacher Education*. Elmer B. Smith, editor. Palo Alto, California: pre-publication copy, 1960. p.102.

The *Forty-first Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching* presented 13 guidelines for professional lab experiences. Direct references to combining instruction and practice were noted. In guideline XI was the statement: "The theory and practice of education can only be productively developed simultaneously."[12] This statement was followed by support for a "theory-practice-theory cycle" which would combine a seminar with a focused laboratory experience.

It is this approach to methods instruction that will be incorporated with simulation activities and specific strategies for analysis and skill development in the teacher-leader program. *Traditional methods courses will be abandoned as instructional strategies.*

GRADUATE VERSUS UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS

No distinctions have been made in this discussion between preservice graduate or preservice undergraduate preparation. None is intended. The rationale and strategy presented here are offered as basic components for any preservice phase of the teacher-leader development program. There is little evidence that MAT programs have done more to improve teaching than attract liberal arts graduates into the profession. This is, of course, an important contribution, but the nature of MAT instruction has not offered an exceptional model. In fact, criticisms of MAT programs are growing more numerous. Smith, Cohen and Pearl offer this criticism:

> More recent programs, for example, the MAT (Master of Arts in Teaching)-type programs, differ little from conventional ones, except in their disregard for theory. They reduce theoretical to almost nothing and place great emphasis upon learning on the job. Concepts and principles are discussed in seminars, along with the trainee's problems and observations. These programs suffer from lack of thoroughness and from inadequate diagnostic and remedial techniques of training. The behavior of the student teacher in a classroom situation cannot be described except from the student's memory or the supervisor's notes. This type of information is notoriously inadequate. The fact that the trainee's memory and the supervisor's record often do not coincide threatens their rapport. Inadequate information and conflicting views on what happened are not conducive to learning. Furthermore, these more recent programs incorporate the worst features of opportunistic instruction. The supervisor of the stu-

---

[11] Stone, James C. and Robinson, Clark N., *The Graduate Internship Program in Teacher Education*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1965. p. 37.

[12] Association for Student Teaching. *The Outlook in Student Teaching: Forty-first Yearbook, 1962*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1962. p.151.

> dent teacher typically works without a systematic conceptual framework to help him analyze and guide the trainee's performance.[13]

This criticism may be unfair. Nonetheless, the distinction between MAT graduates and other certified teachers is somewhat unjust. Teachers with similar preparation and expertise but without the Masters degree often are at the disadvantage in the job market and on the salary scale. The example of program sequence given at the end of this chapter suggests an integrated, undergraduate-graduate program culminating in a Masters degree. This pattern would award the Masters degree to all candidates who completed the preservice phase of teacher-leader development regardless of their entry point.

INDIVIDUALIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

Broadly defined, individualization of instruction seeks to more fully recognize the individual student's learning style, interests, and needs. This definition offers four avenues for individualization:

(1) Individualizing the *rate* at which students progress through the total program and through individual segments of the program. This is the common meaning when educators refer to individualized instruction.
(2) Individualization of program *sequence*.
(3) Individualization of *methodology* to meet program goals.
(4) Individualization of choice of content.

The overall philosophy of the teacher-leader program and the specific strategies to be described will emphasize individualization in a variety of ways. Included are the following three ways:

Student Choice and Responsiblity in Structuring and Arranging his Total Program

Students are expected to develop their own renegotiable sequence and timetable for progress through the teacher development program. The sequence of activities is flexible.

They will be expected to help arrange and structure their own first field introduction to teaching.

Also, students will take responsibility for arranging their own internship from a variety of appropriate sites.

Student Responsibility for Content, Method and Rate of Progress

The development of skill in self-chosen teaching styles will be the responsibility of the student. He may avail himself of individualized laboratory opportunities in simulation, micro-teaching, and certain methods workshops. He will share responsiblility for choosing the resident supervisor and internship site which most closely meet the needs of his preferred style.

Students will assume responsiblility for instruction in specific school curricula and may choose among short-term curriculum workshops on various topics and curriculum materials in the curriculum laboratory of a teaching center.

---

[13] Smith, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p.70.

Both preservice and inservice students will have a choice of options in content within any major subject area in the teacher development program. These choices will be in the form of alternative field sites, courses, workshops, or modules within a program area.

In addition, individualization of content, rate and method may develop as a characteristic of the instruction within any of the program components that might be chosen.

Content Has Built-in Structure for Individualization

The content theme throughout the program is choice among alternatives. Educational ideologies and teaching models have been described in previous chapters as alternatives. Individual synthesis of an educational philosophy will be encouraged by the development of "theses" outlining personal philosophy.

LIMITATIONS ON INDIVIDUALIZATION

Due to the practical constraints on program possibilities, only a limited number of options can be developed to meet any of the program goals. This may limit some students. Where possible a unique program should be negotiated for these individuals.

There is some bias in the program toward group work and team participation. T' is strategy is designed to maximize learning interchange as well as to meet the program goal of developing interpersonal and group process skills. The prospective teacher-leader must prepare himself for leadership. This includes the ability to work effectively with groups.

Part II - Possible Program Components: Specific Strategies for Development of Teacher-Leaders

THE INTEGRATIVE SEMINAR

A small group encounter is a recurring segment throughout much of the teacher development program. It serves as a discussion group for 10-15 students engaged in the same clinically oriented experiences. It would run parallel with four components to be described below:

(1) Exploring teaching
(2) Exploring teaching models
(3) Studying children
(4) Internship

The integrative seminar would have a seminar leader whose major focus and expertise would be on the human elements — facilitating honest communication, developing effective group process, discussing students' personally relevant experiences and problems from the clinical experience (e.g., student-teacher relationships, etc.) and dealing with emerging professional identity conflicts. The seminar would also provide for feedback and evaluation of the teacher-leader program itself.

Because students are encouraged to design their own sequences and timetable for completing the program, the seminar membership will not remain constant. A seminar will serve as the reference group for people engaged in the same clinical experience. In most cases the seminar will be made from teams of students and teachers who are working together as a teaching team or research team.

Program goals emphasized in the integrative seminar:

> The teacher-leader should possess skills and attitudes or qualities which allow him to convey a positive, supportive attitude toward others — both colleagues and children. He should also possess skills of group leadership which promote honest communication. He should be able to communicate openly himself and encourage the same from members of a group.[14]
>
> The teacher-leader should have a positive identity as a teacher.[15]

This kind of seminar is not characteristic of traditional teacher education programs. It is critical for personalizing, interpreting and synthesizing the individual's own experiences, as well as being a means for dealing directly with the humanistic goals of the program.

EXPLORING TEACHING

Exploring teaching is an individually arranged, or team arranged, first experience in schools. It would occur at any time in a student's career. It might be elected as a freshman or as a graduate student. It might be open to secondary school students or adults with an interest in exploring teaching. The intent is to provide personal insight into the school as an institution, the teacher's role and the nature of children. Students engage in a variety of school experiences: tutoring, teacher-aide duties, and teaching. Experience might be in a variety of sites with children of a variety of ages, cultural and special problem backgrounds. Experiences would not be confined to formal school settings. Intensity of this initial experience would vary, but would typically involve around 60 hours of field experience over a semester. The integrative seminar would serve as a reference group during this experience.

The experience, exploring teaching, would offer an introduction to the socialization pressures of the school and the realities and constraints of the teacher's role. It would also offer an introduction to the study of children, teaching modes, the school and change strategies. It would come as an introductory experience. It would be exploratory and free from the threat of failure. It would terminate before socialization pressures entrapped participants.

---

[14] See Chapter 3, p. 52.

[15] See Chapter 3, p. 41.

Also, exploring teaching could provide a self-screening experience for students before committing them to the remainder of the teacher-leader program.

Again, the teacher-innovator program described by Bruce Joyce[16] suggests an initial clinical experience exactly paralleling the one suggested here. Further support has appeared from student feedback at teacher preparation institutions. Students in traditionally oriented programs feel a need for early practical experience which helps them to see the school from the eyes of a teacher, and to appraise the role of the teacher in contemporary schools.

Exploring Educational Ideologies — A Foundation in the Nature of the Field of Education

Exploring ideologies is an academic experience which outlines and discusses some clear formulation of alternative educational ideologies.[17]

As a course, exploring ideologies would be comprehensive and rigorous, requiring considerable reading, exposition and demonstration. Great attention should be given to presenting each ideology in a manner consistent with that ideology. The teaching of the course should be the best possible model of each ideology. The course series of mini-courses should be free from the often heard criticism that education professors' actions belie their prescriptions.

Exploring ideologies could come at any time in the program although it might most logically occur before exploring teaching models and before internship.

STUDYING CHILDREN

Studying children may encompass a variety of seminar and field study experiences where teams of students with expert supervisors carry out research on children and discuss characteristics, development and background of different groups of children. The leadership for these experiences would be an instructor or team of instructors skilled in observation and analysis of children and knowledgeable of child development characteristics. A variety of seminars might be available offering specialization to study children of different ages and cultural backgrounds.

EXPLORING TEACHING MODELS

Exploring teaching models is a clinically based experience in which students participate in the demonstration and analysis of a variety of teaching methods. Master teachers work with teaching teams in a controlled practicum setting. This might be an experimental summer school, a year-long laboratory-type school, or an experimentally oriented public or private school. Various simulation activities might augment actual classroom experience.

Methods may be subdivided into a variety of models representative of the several educational ideologies. These ideologies would also serve as a context within which to consider the applications of different methods for the nature of education. Methods instruction must do more than describe teaching strategies or develop teaching skills. It must connect different methods with concomitant goals, with views of children, with perspectives on evaluation; indeed, with the total mixture of components which shape educational experience. Teaching effectively within any ideology requires considerable experience and skill. Master teachers should take the lead in planning prescriptive first teaching experiences to optimize students' success and to provide an authentic experience. At this time, specific training in techniques and skills of teaching should begin as an integral part of student teaching. It is suggested that this time be used to strengthen skills in the analysis of teaching. Micro-teaching and simulation experiences for skill development are relevant here.

---

[16] Joyce, *op. cit.*, *passim*.

[17] An example of content and structuring was given in Chapter 4.

Since controlled practice is a first experience in which planning is dominated by the master teacher, it would seem reasonable to criticize the planning and appropriateness of the models more than the student's performance. Every effort should be made to plan relatively successful first experiences. The practicum situation representing varied alternatives should be flooded with the richest assortment of materials peculiar to that teaching model. Audio-visual equipment, lab facilities, student resource centers, provision for computer-aided instruction, programed instruction with teaching machines, teacher preparation center — or whatever resources which are germane — should exist in the teaching laboratory. Equally important would be a diversity of pupils and an atmosphere supporting innovation.

Some framework for the analysis of teaching would be introduced and used during this phase of the program. Training teams could move from master teacher to master teacher.

Supervisory emphasis in plan-teach-analyze cycle would be on analysis of the method rather than the teacher. Stress would be on inductive, student-centered appraisal of teaching. The following three procedures summarize activities which might be offered:

(1) To develop basic teaching skills
  (a) micro-teaching laboratory
  (b) supervised experiences with a variety of methods which include attention to basic skills
(2) To develop skill in analysis of instruction
  (a) seminars for development of knowledge and skill in analysis
  (b) master teachers and resident supervising teachers trained in instructional analysis help trainees develop skills in analysis
(3) Observation and experience in a wide range of teaching methods
  (a) library of tapes and films of teaching methods
  (b) workshops on teaching methods for preservice and inservice teachers
  (c) visitation, observation and short-term apprenticeship with variety of master teachers
  (d) experimental summer school
  (e) library of resources on teaching
  (f) educational resource service teams available to cooperating schools

(teams to provide a plan for prospective teachers to gain experience in various methods)

Exploring teaching models would precede internship and in most cases would be preceded by exploring alternative educational ideologies. Many options in this area could be offered for inservice as well as preservice training.

THE SCHOOL AND INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE

This component takes the form of experiences dealing with power distribution, change strategies, role definition and the variety of expectations which make up most public schools. Instructional change and the roles of the teacher in change are stressed.

A variety of mini-courses and individualized experiences open to both preservice and inservice personnel might make up the alternatives in this area. There need be no rigid sequence within the preservice program.

INTERNSHIP

The internship would be a paid, in-school experience, selected and arranged by the student in conjunction with cooperating schools. Interns would be encouraged to work in teams with paid resident supervisors or teacher-leaders. Successful completion of internship will be determined on the basis of performance and the major responsibility for evaluation of internship will rest with resident supervisors.

The internship emphasis would be on further experimentation with teaching techniques, models and style and on skill mastery within chosen teaching styles. The resident supervisor, trained for his role and given time to carry it out, would emphasize planning and analysis of teaching to foster self-directed growth. He would provide feedback, offer alternatives, assist with skill development, and above all, be a supportive, sensitive, perceptive person.

Opportunities should be available for half year internships in two different school settings. The internship will normally be part of a 15 month, fifth year Master's program although the option will be available for fifth year internships for certification without admission to the Master's program for students who have completed other components of the preservice program.

The fifth year Master's program will lead to an MAT degree and the program will be individualized to allow for varying mixtures of subject field specializations and professional courses depending on the undergraduate program pursued. Students who have completed all professional courses as undergraduates except internship would generally continue graduate courses in their subject field with internship.

Students with no previous courses in the professional areas could enter the teacher development program at the graduate level, as do current MAT students. Their master's program would be made up largely of the professional courses in the program. An experimental summer program in local public schools would continue and expand, allowing opportunities for exploring teaching, alternative teaching models and other professional components to be gained in the summer.

THE TEACHING CENTER OR CURRICULUM INSTRUCTIONAL LABORATORY

The curriculum-instructional laboratory is a resource center supplied with the richest possible array of instructional materials for use by preservice and inservice teachers. The laboratory would provide individual or group investigation of curricular materials and instructional media and methods. Included in such a facility would be micro-teaching and simulation centers, libraries of video-taped teaching models, commercially available curriculum packages, textbooks, science laboratory equipment for demonstration and trial, instructional media, instructional programs, project and idea books in all subject areas, professional journals and catalogues of instructional materials.

Students and inservice teachers would use such a center for preview and development of instructional materials, for development of certain instructional skills, and for short-term workshops in specific areas of curriculum or methodology.

Use of the curriculum-instructional laboratory plus curriculum and methods instruction taught as an integral part of clinical experience would supplant introductory courses in curriculum and methods.

Summary of Program Emphases

The strategies and total program described above are designed to promote new emphases in teacher education.[18] In contrast to usual teacher education programs, there should be the following fourteen changes:

1. greater focus on learning through real world experience and clinical synthesis of theory and practice
2. dispersal of practical experiences throughout the total program
3. greater attention to the study of children
4. broad and unbiased exploration and experience in educational alternatives
5. greater attention to the analysis of alternatives and personal decision making
6. greater school-college cooperation in teacher education and integration of preservice and inservice activities
7. greater emphasis on the continuing development of teachers
8. greater individual responsibility and freedom of choice for the teacher in training
9. greater individual responsibility and autonomy for the teacher in schools
10. greater emphasis on self-directed growth as a professional
11. greater emphasis on the teacher's responsibility for the professional growth of colleagues
12. greater emphasis on positive personal/professional identity
13. greater emphasis on professional commitment
14. greater emphasis on the teacher's role in group leadership and institutional and curricular change.

---

[18] See also Chapter 2.

Chapter 7
THE EMERGENCE OF LEADERSHIP

The best way to continue the growth of the teacher-leader is to create in the schools and in preservice preparation programs a functional position for teacher leadership and give that job, along with relevant training, to the promising teacher. Although previous chapters have provided a base for leadership development, the emergence of large numbers of teacher-leaders depends on the treatment of teachers as leaders and on an effective partnership among schools, colleges, and other agencies to further develop leadership and use potential.

There has always been support for the notion that teachers need assistance for continual professional growth. The usual pattern for continuation of the teacher's learning has been criticized in previous chapters. To summarize, formal education beyond preservice education is the buying of credits by the teacher to meet certification requirements, to gain salary increases, and to seek the prestige of an advanced degree.

The colleges and universities often respond with second rate, night, weekend and "road show" courses which have neither intellectual substance, nor planning to meet the real needs of the classroom teacher.

A second avenue of assistance to continual growth is school supported inservice assistance. This avenue has been in many schools a virtual dead-end of one or two day a year professional "workshops." Curriculum coordinators or supervisors misoperate as planners, decision makers and evaluators to withhold the leadership role from the classroom teacher.

Other schools have responded imaginatively with useful workshops, extended periods of teacher-led curriculum planning, and well developed courses to meet teachers' needs, and to provide certification credit.

Continuing education of the teacher should be educationally functional. It should make an impact on the teaching performance. It should serve to change schools for the better. Such an approach requires commitment of funds, cooperation, planning and implementation by a variety of agencies: colleges and universities, schools and communities, state departments of education and teachers' organizations.

In the preservice segment of the teacher-leader program a basic framework in knowledge and skills has been set forth, with the intention of facilitating continued growth. The beginning teacher is not saddled with a narrow point of view regarding educational philosophy or practice. Indeed, he has a broad basis for personal decision making and change. He should also possess the basic attitudes of competence and commitment, two requisites for the internal motivation of personal growth. Furthermore, the beginning teacher-leader should possess skills in the analysis of teaching, enabling him to gather relevant feedback and to direct changes in his teaching style.

In the second phase of leadership development — the first years of teaching experience — the teacher needs the continued support and guidance of a professional teacher who has time, recognition and preparation for this supportive role. Such a role seems a logical duty for the teacher-leader himself. The classroom teacher also requires the kinds of workshops, seminars and courses which fit his needs. In part, the modular or mini-course framework suggested for preservice experiences will also serve the inservice classroom teacher. These experiences will often exist for joint participation by preservice and inservice teachers. In addition, cooperative mechanisms between colleges, schools and state departments must be organized to respond to the needs felt by local groups of teachers and individuals. More responsibility must be given to local schools for design of recognized inservice experiences for recertification purposes. Likewise more assistance must be given by colleges in providing services which the local schools demand. One state board of education has given inservice responsibility to local schools. One consortium of schools, colleges and state department of education has been formed to improve teacher development programs.[1]

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER-LEADERS

The third phase of the proposed teacher development model suggests a specific program for selecting, preparing and using outstanding teachers in new teaching-leadership positions in the schools.

The Role of the Teacher-Leader

The teacher-leader exercises his leadership by assisting the professional growth of other teachers and by initiating curriculum change. He carries out his duty for preservice experimenters, for teams of interns, and for beginning teachers who have completed their preservice preparation.[2] He is also a master teacher and curriculum leader, devoting some of his talents to stimulating planning and implementation of curricular change. His responsibilities for professional growth of colleagues must be supported as much by the school itself as by teacher preparation institutions. Because he provides major functions in teacher preparation, the teacher-leader must operate as a bona fide member of the college or university faculty. He must identify with the institution and enjoy first-class status in it. He must participate in faculty meetings, in program planning, and development, and serve as a liaison between the college and his teaching colleagues. An effective partnership will not develop where the hidden determinants of status and colleagueship are withheld from the teacher-leader and where he sees himself as only providing a part-time service for a college. Effective partnership also depends on a significant portion of salary being contributed by the college or university. Yearly services for two, single-semester teams of interns, plus a summer role as master teacher in exploring teaching models might constitute 25 percent of the teacher-leader's annual salary.

---

[1] The Southern New Hampshire Staff Development Cooperative is currently implementing ideas put forth in this book.

[2] See p. 49 (exploring teaching) and p. 50 (exploring teaching models).

Financing Teacher-Leadership Functions

The role of the teacher-leader in directing the early clinical experience of preservice preparation would be supported by the college or university. Teacher-leaders would be recruited to function as master teachers in the controlled environment of exploring teaching models, or the less structured supervision of exploring teaching (a teacher aide, student teacher kind of experience) and for the inservice leadership of a team of interns. Schools would necessarily agree to release proportionate amounts of the teacher-leader's duties for these tasks. Supervision of exploring teaching would probably require no extra time or financial support.

The school, with possible state or federal assistance, would agree to compensate the teacher-leader for the proportion of his time dedicated to assistance to beginning teachers, primarily first and second year teachers. State and federal assistance is suggested here to relieve the local taxpayer's burden for additional school services. However, the local school system should make some commitment to the responsibility for the continuing growth of teachers.

Selecting the Teacher-Leader

An effective partnership requires shared power and responsibility. Selection of candidates for the final phase of formal preparation for leadership positions in the school should be a joint endeavor. Although teacher-leaders may be recruited into a system, it is desirable to provide a career development pathway within a system. To develop effective programs, teacher preparation institutions will need to develop lasting partnerships with innovative and quality oriented school systems.

Joint agreement in selection of prospective teacher-leaders to finish formal training and to occupy a teacher-leadership role seems the best approach. Such a partnership insures that teacher-leaders have the respect of their colleagues and an available leadership role in the school. The unilateral selection by colleges of candidates for advanced work in education does not do enough to build a functional leadership role in the schools or the sharing of responsibility and accountability in the development of educational leadership.

The Developmental Team — A Variation of Differentiated Staffing

The idea of differentiated staff and teaching teams is an old one. No review of its well known history will be attempted here. In many cases, the notion of differentiated staff teams has been prescribed as an administrative shuffling of personnel in accordance with job distinctions, but with no clearly related professional training or concern for growth.

The differentiated team should arise here as a logical end-product of a sequence of formal preparation which revolves around the teacher-leader and the support of continuing professional growth.

The teacher-leader has major responsibilities for the growth of other teachers. This includes assistance for teachers in the process of becoming teacher-leaders. Significant portions of the pre-service preparation of teacher-leaders would require the services of the mature teacher-leaders. A full "developmental team" might consist of a teacher-leader, an assistant teacher-leader in phase three — the final stage of a formal training program — several first and second year teachers, a team of three interns and a team of short-term aides enrolled in the exploring teaching experience. While differentiated functions naturally emerge, the focus of this kind of team is on the professional development of autonomous teacher-leaders — not on a locked-in separation of educational tasks.

Phase III — The Formal Graduate Program for Teacher-Leadership

In Phase II the prospective teacher-leader receives inservice guidance from a resident supervisor, a teacher-leader. Promising teachers, in Phase II who wish to continue their career development are then selected by colleges in collaboration with the schools. The final phase of the formal program would then develop the following two goals:

(1) Further interpretive and practicable knowledge in the following areas:
  a. Institutional change strategies in education with particular emphasis on group processes for cooperative decision making, implementing curriculum change and effecting change in teaching performance and teacher growth.
  b. Curriculum alternatives in specialized fields.
  c. Alternative curriculum development procedures (behavioral — task analysis models, conceptual — knowledge centered models, models for individualizing instruction).
  d. The analysis of teaching and instructional theory (research on teacher effectiveness, and alternate models for teaching analysis).
(2) Specific skill development using bodies of interpretive and practicable knowledge:
  a. Group leadership.
  b. Observation and assistance to others in the analysis of teaching.
  c. Curriculum development procedures.

These two goals would be carried out in an atmosphere stressing the same attitudinal qualities stressed in the preservice program: autonomy, commitment, and flexibility.

A teacher-leader must have freedom to develop his leadership style, *but with one important constraint – a teacher-leader must have a style which fosters autonomy, competence and individuality in those with whom he works.* This is the basic conflict in the philosophy of developing autonomous leadership. Leadership development fosters individuality and thereby limits its own nature. Although this may be a logical conflict, it is also a necessity.

Methods for Achieving Goals

The specific courses, experiences, and methods in this phase of leadership

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

development will be briefly listed. A framework and general philosophy has been created in previous chapters. Following are four suggested courses and experiences:

Courses

1. A seminar involving research, demonstration, discussion and practice of institutional change strategies, emphasizing group process, curriculum change, and supervision.
2. A seminar and field work in curriculum alternatives and curriculum development strategies.
3. A seminar-practicum in the analysis of teaching and instructional theory.
4. An integrative seminar to parallel teacher-leader experiences.

Experiences

1. Assistant master teacher in exploring teaching models.
2. Responsibility to run short-term workshops in the curriculum-instructional laboratory for preservice and inservice teachers. Workshops might be in specialized areas of curriculum, curriculum development, or instructional technology.
3. Assist in organizing the exploring teaching experience and in giving leadership in integrative seminars.
4. Serve as an assistant teacher-leader.

These experiences involve the emerging teacher-leader in the earlier phases of the leadership program. All of these experiences would not be necessary. Flexibility and individualization of program should be encouraged. Completion of Phase III might require twelve months of full-time work and would result in acknowledgement of accomplishment — either a certificate of advanced graduate study or partial completion of a doctorate in education.

Summary

The teacher-leader emerges from the proposed program with a functional role in his school and in the continuing process of leadership development. In many ways he replaces functions carried on by professional educators. This has been the intent. The teacher-leader *is* the true functional partnership between the schools and colleges. He is the person who can integrate theory and practice. In this model, the college based supervisor and methods instructor cease to exist. More of the efforts of professional educators might then be directed to the development of creative and well researched new educational alternatives — a vital source of change.

The entire leadership development program has attempted to promote a continued redefinition of educational purpose which will lead to the generation of new educational practice. Emphasis on well reasoned choice from educational alternatives provides the basis for constant evolution of personal philosophy. An attempt has been made to find a proper balance between the intellectual substance of academic analysis and the practical concerns of the world of teaching.

SELECTED REFERENCES

1. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. *A Readers' Guide to the Comprehensive Models for Preparing Elementary Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1969.
2. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. *AACTE Dissemination Project Newsletter.* Washington, D.C.: AACTE, June 1970.
3. Andrew, Michael D. *Teachers Should be Human Too.* Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1972.
4. Association for Student Teaching. *The Outlook in Student Teaching: Forty-first Yearbook, 1962.* Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., Inc., 1962.
5. Bruner, Jerome S. *The Process of Education.* New York: Random House, 1960.
6. Combs, Arthur W. *The Professional Education of Teachers.* Houston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965.
7. Heil, Louis M., Powell, Marion and Feifer, Irwin. *Characteristics of Teacher Behavior Related to the Achievement of Children in Several Elementary Grades.* Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1960.
8. Joyce, Bruce. *The Teacher-Innovator: A Program to Prepare Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1968.
9. Nelson, L. "Developing the Creative Process and Product," *National Elementary Principal* 44:39; May 1965.
10. Rogers, Carl R. *Freedom to Learn.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1969.
11. Rogers, Vincent. *Teaching in the British Primary Schools.* Toronto: The Macmillan Company, Collier-Macmillan, Canada, 1970.
12. Ryans, David G. *Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness.* J. Biddle and William J. Ellena, Editors. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.
13. Shaplin, Judson. "Practice in Teaching," *A Re-Appraisal of the Professional Aspects of Teacher Education.* Elmer B. Smith, Ed. Palo Alto, California: pre-publication copy, 1960.
14. Silberman, Charles E. *Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education.* New York: Random House, 1970.
15. Smith, B.O., Cohen, Saul B. and Pearl, Arthur. *Teachers for the Real World.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969.
16. Stone, James C. and Robinson, Clark N. *The Graduate Internship Program in Teacher Education.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1965.
17. Tansey, P.J. *Simulation and Games, An International Journal of Theory, Design and Research,* Vol. 1, No. 3. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1970.
18. Wilhelms, Fred T. "Realignments for Teacher Education." Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1970.