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ABSTRACT

This monograph consists of five papers originating from a 1974 conference entitled, "Field-Based Teacher Education for the '80's." The first paper, "Public School-College Cooperation in the Field-Based Education of Teachers (FBTE)--A Historical Perspective," by James L. Slay, focuses on how the historical development of public school cooperation has contributed to the emergence of a variety of FBTE practices. The second paper, "Field-Based Teacher Education: What It Can Be," by Gene Bottoms, explores a view of field-based graduate teacher education substantially different from present practice. The third paper, "Decentralizing Graduate Education: A Case for the Field-Based Professor," by William C. Bruce, Ronald L. Hubright, and V. Eugene Yarbrough, looks at the Alma staff development program, used to revolutionize a rural educational system in Georgia. The fourth paper, "Community Involvement and Control in Higher Education," by V. Eugene Yarbrough, predicts the coming transformation in higher education with increasing use of previously untapped sources in the community. The fifth paper, "Graduate Curriculum Outcomes in the 1980's: A Design for Producing Practitioners," by William C. Bruce, shows how coordination of resources outside the university can reform graduate education. An appendix consisting of an FBTE contract is included.) (JS)

FIELD-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION:

PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

A Monograph

Based on the Conference Entitled

"Field-based Teacher Education for the '80's"

Held at St. Simons Island, Georgia, April 23-25, 1974

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The priorities in teacher education in the 1970's are shifting rapidly from pre-service to inservice training, and this has been particularly true of the Urban/Rural School Development Program, a U.S. Office of Education experiment in staff development programming funded for a six-year period (1970-76) in 26 urban and rural sites throughout the United States. Governed by site-specific school/community councils set up to design and implement innovative approaches to improving their schools, the rural sites in particular found, at the beginning of the program, that the training resources available to them were extremely limited by their distance from the kinds of institutions for training and higher education that are generally located in and around large metropolitan areas. For the rural sites the alternatives were few; generally these involved hiring outside consultants who could visit the site only for one or two days at a time. There had to be a better way, the designers of Urban/Rural programs theorized, to train teachers and to promote effective school/community partnership.

Out of this need, common to rural school systems throughout the country, came the concept of a university-affiliated, field-based professor who would live and work in the particular Urban/Rural project area, teach courses for school and community people, and consult in teachers' classrooms on an as-needed basis in order to ensure effective implementation of new methodologies and teaching approaches. The first Urban/Rural sites to implement this idea were Bacon County, Georgia and Wise County, Virginia. Later the idea spread to other sites who heard about it from the two Southeast sites during Urban/Rural national meetings or who actually observed the field-based resident professor concept in operation in the Southeast during site visits. By the 1973-74 academic year, four sites

in addition to the two original ones had either initiated field-based resident professor programs or were planning them for the forthcoming year. These sites were: Bayfield, Wisconsin; Crystal City, Texas; Hays/Lodge Pole, Montana; and Louisville, Kentucky. Interestingly, the latter is located in the midst of a densely populated urban area. Clearly, the notion of having an on-site resident professor who can have close contact with the school program and develop continuing relationships with school staff need not be limited to rural school systems.

Since the concept of the field-based professor runs counter to the common conception of the university as a center of learning and research, the field-based professor model has raised new questions about the structure and organization of academic offerings and their implementation in school systems that are often hundreds of miles from the parent institution. These problems and questions were sufficiently urgent to prompt staff members of the Urban/Rural Leadership Training Institute, at Stanford University, and program staff at the Southeast Urban/Rural sites to organize a three-day conference on the topic "Field-Based Teacher Education for the 80's." Addressing the potential problems of a decade hence, the conference planners believed, was very much to the point: field-based teacher education is, after all, a relatively recent development--one that, in the conference planners' view, anticipates trends that will change the face of teacher education in the next decade.

This monograph is a collection of ideas and models discussed at the conference, which was held at St. Simons Island, Georgia, April 23-25, 1974. Participants included teachers, project staff, and community people from the Bacon County, Wise County, and Clay County, Tennessee,Urban/Rural sites; U.S. Office of Education project officers;personnel from Georgia Southern College, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, and other institutions of higher education; representatives of several state departments of education; and staff of the Urban/Rural Leadership Training Institute. The principal authors--

William C. Bruce, Ronald L. Hubright, and V. Eugene Yarbrough, have served as resident professors at the Bacon County, Georgia, Urban/Rural project.

The historical perspective of public school-college relationships written by James L. Slay, a staff member of the Urban/Rural Leadership Training Institute, is included in this volume with the caveat that it is intended as a perspective only, and not as a history of field-based inservice teacher education, a relatively new development. Although the main emphasis of the perspective is on pre-service teacher education, the article is nonetheless instructive in illuminating public school-college relationships that have been similar to the ones now emerging in regard to the new concept of the field-based inservice teacher educator.

The single appendix item is the actual contract arranged between the Urban/Rural project in Wise County, Virginia, and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The purpose for including it here is to offer a concrete example of the nuts-and-bolts aspects of an innovation that holds much promise for the future of teacher education.

PUBLIC SCHOOL-COLLEGE COOPERATION IN THE FIELD-BASED EDUCATION OF TEACHERS A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

by James L. Slay

In an article published in 1961, two educators, Emmitt Smith, Director of Teacher Education at West Texas State College, and Fred Cunningham, Superintendent of Schools, Hereford, Texas, posed the following two questions that relate to the topic of this presentation: "Is the college ready to accept the cooperating public school as a fully responsible partner in the teacher education endeavour? (and) Is the cooperating public school ready to accept teacher education as a bonafide function of the public school?"[1] Based on their analysis of two nationwide surveys of teacher education programs, the two writers concluded in 1961, that on a national level public school-college cooperation in teacher education was just beginning.[2] Looking forward to the future, Smith and Cunningham expected the decade of the Seventies to be marked by an "endless parade of experimental efforts, demonstration programs, research endeavours, all designed to close the gap between the college and the school as they attempt to improve teacher preparation programs for teachers."[3]

Consistent with the expectations of these two advocates for public school-college cooperation in teacher education, the decade of the Seventies has indeed witnessed the appearance of a wide variety of cooperatively developed teacher education programs. One approach in particular, Field-Based Teacher Education (hereafter cited as FBTE), seems to hold much promise in being able

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NOTE: In general, the historical record does not include many references to public school-college cooperation in the in-service education of teachers. Examples of this kind of relationship were not systematically recorded on a nationwide basis until the mid-1960's (see E. Brooks Smith and Patrick Johnson, School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: Report of a National Survey of Cooperative Ventures, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1964). Since there appears to be more historical information concerning public school-college cooperation in the field-based pre-service education of teachers, the focus of the presentation will be on this topic.

to bridge the gap between schools and colleges in the training of teachers. Representing an endeavour to equip prospective and experienced teachers with a variety of school/community specific, teaching-learning competencies in off-campus, school-based settings, FBTE programs are being developed by schools and colleges across the country. Whether or not FBTE will succeed in preparing both aspiring and experienced teachers for the teacher-learning task has yet to be determined. Its success, however, will undoubtedly be influenced by the nature of the commitment existing between the institution of higher learning and the cooperating public schools and, in addition, by the support generated by school/communities whose educational interests FBTE programs are designed to serve.

The Purpose of This Presentation

Rather than discussing the contemporary public school-college programmatic variations of FBTE, this presentation will attempt to provide the reader with a perspective of how the historical development of public school-college cooperation has contributed to the emergence of a variety of FBTE practices[4] By focusing on the historical antecedents of public school-college cooperation, the reader hopefully will more clearly understand the historical background from which FBTE has emerged, and also will become aware that, although examples of cooperation between schools and colleges have appeared throughout the history of teacher education, public school-college cooperation in FBTE on a national level is a relatively recent phenomenon.

In attempting to accomplish the purpose of this paper, four major obstacles were encountered. First, there are few secondary sources that specifically refer to the historical development of public school-college cooperation. Secondly, there are no documents that purport to describe the historical origins of FBTE. Thirdly, there has been no systematic effort by

any association of professional educators to link conceptually the notion of FBTE to public school-college cooperation. And, finally, most of the historical materials used in this account do not provide a concise delineation of the "cooperative" responsibilities involved in the historical public school-college relationship. The historical and contemporary examples of public school-college cooperation chosen for inclusion in this account are those that appear to be characterized by at least one of the following attributes: joint decision-making, joint planning, joint financing, and joint assumption of the professional responsibility for teacher education.[5]

From the findings of this paper, it is hoped that the reader will be tempted to explore further the implications that public school-college cooperation has for teacher education and to anticipate for the future a more comprehensive and analytical study of this topic.

What is Field-Based Teacher Education?

A person in a library searching through the files of a card catalogue or looking in the listings of Education Index will, more than likely, not come across a category titled Field Based Teacher Education. For years, the phrase "field-based" has been used in conjunction with descriptions of off-campus teacher education programs. Yet, until recently, the phrase has not been distinctively identified by any group of educators.

A pioneering attempt to explain the meaning of FBTE was made during a U.S. Office of Education sponsored Urban/Rural School Development Program conference, April 19-22, 1974, at St. Simon's Island, Georgia. Attended by school and community representatives from the southeastern Urban/Rural sites, representatives from colleges in the region, and state and federal educators, the major theme of the conference was "Field Based Teacher Education for the 1980's."

Throughout the meeting all the papers attempted to promote the concept of public school-college cooperation as being vital to the successful formulation and implementation of a FBTE program. The presentation that dealt most extensively with explaining the rationale for a cooperatively developed FBTE program, however, was made by the representative from the Georgia State Department of Education, Dr. Gene Bottoms. (See page 34).

Specifically directing his comments to the implications that a field-based program might have for graduate teacher education, Bottoms listed four characteristics that encompassed what he considered to be appropriate "expectations" for any FBTE program. These expectations were:

1. Teacher education programs designed to facilitate achievement of student goals determined by local school systems.

2. Teacher education programs designed to assist educational personnel to translate new knowledge into improved practice.

3. Teacher education programs in which the staff resources of both the school district and college are being interfaced toward a common outcome.

4. Teacher education programs in which performance becomes an additional basis for excellence rather than just the acquisition of cognitive knowledge.

Echoing the sentiments of his co-speakers, Bottoms added that the term "field-based" not only implied that teacher education should be "geared to the individual educator's needs in his present setting," but also that it could best be accomplished when "developed jointly by a local school system and a teacher education system."

Neither Bottoms nor any of the other conference speakers proposed a definition of FBTE that might apply to contemporary as well as historical examples. Their remarks, however, helped to clarify the theory and practice of public school-college cooperation in FBTE and reflected a genuine concern to reform teacher education into becoming more of a joint enterprise between

the public schools and colleges.

The Historical Development of Public School-College Cooperation

Organized in Massachusetts during the late 1830's, the first publicly supported teacher training institutions in America were known as normal schools. Enthusiastically proclaimed by Horace Mann "as a new instrument of progress for the improvement of the human race," the normal schools were perceived by many educational reformers as a desirable alternative to common school teachers being trained in private academies.[6]

The advantage of the normal school, it was argued, was that unlike the private academies where there was usually no commitment on the part of the faculty to prepare teachers for "public purposes," in the state-supported normal institution there would be only one purpose to fulfill: the training of common school teachers.[7]

One important component of the normal school's training program was the model or laboratory school. Intended to serve "as a school for practice, in which the . . . pupils may learn, by actual experiment, the practical bearing of the principles which they have studied," the laboratory school gradually evolved into two different types of settings: the college-controlled laboratory school and a field-based surrogate, the cooperating school.[8]

The college-controlled school typically was "a school largely or entirely under the control of the college, organized for the specific purpose of preparing teachers, with staff and facilities designed to serve this purpose." (This definition would include schools sometimes called campus school, demonstration school, model school, or training school).[9] In contrast, the cooperating school was usually "a school used by the college to provide certain guided professional laboratory experiences for

college students. This school /was/ not administered, staffed, or under the major legal jurisdiction of the college." (This definition includes schools sometimes designated as off-campus schools).[10] While the college-controlled laboratory school eventually became and, until the 1930's, remained the predominant setting for teacher preparation, there were, during the formative years of teacher education, several attempts by public schools and colleges to cooperate in the field-based preparation of teachers.

One of the earliest examples of public school-college cooperation in teacher education involved the nation's first normal school. Originally founded in 1839 in Lexington, Massachusetts, the normal school was relocated in West Newton, Massachusetts. In 1851, a written contract providing for the joint management of a laboratory facility was drawn up between representatives of the State Normal School and the West Newton school district. According to the terms of the agreement:

> The district furnishes schoolroom, etc., and one permanent male teacher, approved by both parties, and such additions to their number, by pupils from abroad, on a small tuition as circumstances justify. The State Normal School a portion of apparatus, etc., and two assistant teachers, each to observe one week previous to teaching, and to teach two weeks under constant supervision.[11]

Later, in the same year, a second cooperative agreement was reached between the two parties that also provided for the connection of the West Newton primary school to the State Normal School.

A school district evaluation of the relationship between the cooperating public schools and State Normal School staff reported that

> it was expected that the management with the primary department would be a temporary one, each party reserving the right to give it up at any time. It is the opinion of the school committee of the town, and of the permanent teacher of the model school ... that the experiment has proved eminently successful, and that the general character of the school has essentially improved.[12]

The "eminent success" experienced in the Massachusetts public school-college cooperative relationship does not, however, appear to be typical of cooperative ventures attempted in other states. For example, an effort between the Ypsilanti, Michigan school district and the Michigan State Normal School to jointly finance a laboratory school proved to be less than satisfactory for both parties. In a proposal made in the early 1850's, the people of Ypsilanti offered land and money to secure the location of the school (Normal) in their city, and also proposed to defray for a time a large part of the expense of supporting the model or laboratory school.[13] Even though the gesture of the local populace was responded to by a decision to locate the normal school in Ypsilanti, the charitable attitude of the Ypsilantians toward the State Normal School soon changed to disillusionment. This change was evidenced in 1855 when the Secretary of the State Board of Education, Superintendent Ira Mayhew, protested,

> that model school pupils recieved instruction in elementary subjects only, and this without any aid from Normal pupils, and without their presence and attention to school arrangements, plans of government or method of instruction.[14]

Further discordance between the Michigan State Normal School and the Ypsilantians influenced the termination of another agreement made in 1870. This contract, which provided for "observation and limited practice" on the part of the State Normal School in the schools of Ypsilanti, was discontinued in 1872 by both parties because of "the distances which students were compelled to travel, the difficulty incurred in giving adequate supervision, and the aversion which parents felt toward having their children practiced upon by inexperienced teachers.[15]

Even the attempts of some states to unite legally the jurisdiction

of local school districts with the state normal school failed to generate a- -ed cooperation. For example, in 1860, the Minnesota legislature organized the first Board of Education in Winona, consisting of a school director elected from each of the three wards, the principal, and such members of the Normal School Board of Winona "as shall be residents of the city and properly qualified."[16] For reasons not specified in the literature, in 1867 the law was repealed and the plan of joint jurisdiction was discontinued. As a consequence, the model or laboratory school became independent of the local school system and "entirely under the control of the normal school and an integral part of it."[17]

These summarily described attempts at public school-college cooperation in teacher education were probably prompted by the desire of the local community to have trained teachers educate their children and by the need of the normal schools to have field-based school facilities to supplement their financially pressed teacher education programs. Also, as the first historical example of public school-college cooperation illustrates, both parties many times desired to cooperate as professional partners in the preparation of teachers. There still remains, however, the question as to what caused the discordance between the two groups of educators. One factor that appears to have contributed to the division between public schools and colleges was the issue of who should control the practical education of teachers--the college or the public school?

One of the earliest statements of a professional educational association concerning the control of laboratory schools was made in 1859 during the first annual convention of the American Normal School Association. The delegates at this convention resolved, without debate,

> that this education of teachers should not only be theoretical but also practical; and that, to this end, there should be a school of observation and practice in immediate connection with the normal school, and under the same Board of Control, or that there should be in other ways equivalent opportunities for observation and practice.[18]

The subsequent increase in the number of college-controlled laboratory schools left little doubt as to the preference of the teacher training institutions regarding who should control teacher training. A review of the data contained in the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education indicates, at intervals, the extent of the trend. For example, in 1873, 71.4% of the publicly supported normal schools operated their own laboratory schools; in 1883-84, 71%, and in 1893-94, 68.5%.[19] By the decade of the 1900's, a ten year (1903-1913) study of sixty representative state normal schools from across the nation indicated that 78% of the normal schools controlled their laboratory schools as compared with only 22% who used cooperating schools either of their own or adjoining school districts.[20]

During a meeting of the American Association of Teachers Colleges held in 1926, the passage of the following resolution further verified the intent of the colleges as to who should control the laboratory school. The resolution reads as follows:

> Each teachers college shall maintain a training school under its own control as a part of its organization, as a laboratory school, for purposes of observation, demonstration, and supervised teaching on the part of students. The use of an urban or rural school system, under sufficient control and supervision of the college to carry out the educational policy of the college to a sufficient degree for the conduct of effective student teaching, will satisfy this requirement. /italics mine/[21]

The advocacy position for college control of laboratory schools taken by the professional associations of teacher educators was not always taken by teacher organizations. For example, a report on the work of normal

schools published in 1899 by a Committee of the National Educational Association recommended the use of field-based or cooperating schools. The report stated:

> Since state normal schools are usually situated in cities possessing excellent systems of grade schools, it is recommended that such relations with the city schools be sought as will enable those student teachers who have successfully completed the major part of their training to serve as unpaid assistants under conditions which render such services mutually profitable.[22]

Even renowned teacher educators of the era like Meade and Bagley emphasized the value of using field-based facilities for teacher preparation. Whereas Meade suggested that "wherever possible, both public schools and schools controlled by the teacher training institution should be used," Bagley urged that "the local school system ... be related to the normal school in such a manner as to afford opportunity for extensive observation, participation, and practice under wholly normal conditions."[23]

Writing in 1920, E.L. Wellborn spoke directly to the issue of joint responsibility in public school-college when he said, "It is not justifiable for a normal school to make use of public schools, unless the latter derive benefits in proportion to the services rendered."[24] Wellborn's 1920 study of normal schools also distinguished three kinds of "control types" of cooperative relationships that, until that time, had characterized public school-college interaction. They were:

1. Unified administration of city schools and training schools by one individual who acted as director of training and superintendent of schools.
2. Public schools utilized under terms of written contract between the normal school and school board.
3. Public schools utilized through informal cooperation.[25]

The author described the first control type as involving a city school board and a board of trustees of a normal school in the election of an executive

responsible to both parties. The arrangement was typically informal, harmonious and, in 1920, had been realized in only two situations in the nation.[26]

The second control type, also infrequently used, was best exemplified in the teacher education program of Rhode Island State Normal School. Recognized by Meade and Bagley as a model for public school-college cooperation, the program provided for the establishment of "training stations through contracts with local authorities under which the critics were nominated by the normal school and elected by the school committees of the towns."[27] In 1920, there were 27 stations located in 15 towns and cities, and five stations in rural areas.[28]

The nature of the most frequently practiced type of control, informal cooperation, is illustrated in the comments made by the Director of Training of the Iowa State Teachers College. According to the Director:

> Cooperation is largely a personal matter ... Harmony is secured by a wise choice of critics and supervisors and of city systems with superintendents and school boards favorable to the college ... Superintendents of public schools often prefer to select their teaching force for the following year from the student teachers who have worked in their schools ... The College sometimes employs superintendents in its summer session. There is no written understanding on either of these points so that there is no obligation incurred.[29]

The significance of the informal or gentleman's agreement for public school-college cooperation soon gained prominence as colleges began to extend their practice teaching programs into the public schools.

Between 1928 and 1947, numerous surveys on student teaching revealed an increase in the number of cooperating schools used by teacher training institutions.[30] Beginning in the mid-Forties, additional studies indicated a corresponding decline in the number of college-controlled laboratory schools.

In 1928, Colebank's study of practice teaching in the colleges of the North Central Association discerned a clear tendency toward the increased use of cooperating schools.[31] Foster's research further revealed that by 1933 the use of the cooperating school had supplanted the college-controlled laboratory school as the most prevalent educational setting for practice teaching.[32] In 1942, Hammock's research led him to conclude that the use of the cooperating school for student teaching in secondary school was increasing, while Brink's research in 1945 confirmed that the cooperating school was bearing the heaviest brunt of student teaching at the elementary and secondary levels.[33] The studies of Blyer and Stiles, conducted separately in 1947, both noted the continuing increase of cooperating schools, as well as the decline of college-controlled laboratory schools.[34] By the late 1940's, it appeared as though the college-controlled laboratory school was gradually dying out.

Given the revelation of the surveys, the question remains as to what circumstances contributed to the widespread use of the cooperating school and to the decline in college-controlled laboratory schools. The opinions of some educators suggest several reasons. One explanation offered for the expanded use of off-campus facilities was the increasing number of teacher-candidates entering the teacher training colleges. With the college-controlled laboratory schools inundated with the overflow, many institutions of higher learning were forced to establish relations with cooperative schools where practice teaching could occur.[35] In the second place, economic factors complicated the problem because in many colleges there was an insufficient supply of funds to build, staff, and administer the number of college-controlled laboratory schools required to train the influx

of new students. As a result, many colleges responded by making greater use of the public schools near the campus.[36] Finally, for years many public school educators had argued that some of the practice teaching situations concocted in the laboratory school by theoretically-oriented, "ivory-towered" professors were not depicting the real world of the public school. Not until the practical training of teachers was situated in a field-based setting, it was argued, would the preparation of teachers begin to equip the teacher-candidate with the problem-solving strategies needed to cope with the complexities of the teaching-learning task.[37]

Thus, it appears that the receptivity of many public school educators to participate in the teacher preparation process facilitated the transition of teacher training colleges from campus-based to field-based facilities. As for control of field-based teacher education programs, however, there is little evidence during this transitional period that the college relinquished to the cooperating school any of its power over the teacher education program. The field-based relationship between the cooperating public school and college that emerged in the late 1940's seemed to symbolize more of a wedding of convenience rather than a wedding of conviction between educational allies. Not until solutions to an entirely new constellation of public school-college difficulties such as role definitions and responsibilities for decision-making were forthcoming, could the cooperating public schools and colleges begin to function fully as partners in the field-based preparation of teachers.[38]

Toward the end of the 1940's and throughout the decade of the Fifties and early Sixties, several concurrent developments interacted to generate in many educators across the country a heightened sensitivity to the need for public school-college cooperation in the field-based education of

teachers. Initially stimulated by the mounting enrollments and financial problems faced by teacher training colleges, this growing interest gained momentum from many factors, including the following: The Flowers Committee Report of 1948; the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS) the Ford and Carnegie foundations; and assistance from state departments of education.[39]

In 1945, the Committee on Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Teachers Colleges appointed a subcommittee to conduct a study of student teaching in the professional education of teachers. The members of the subcommittee--Chairman John C. Flowers, Allen D. Patterson, and Florence B. Stratemeyer--were charged to make recommendations for the revision of Standard VI, which for 25 years had served as the professional guideline governing student teaching. Concerned with the implementation of principles rather than specific techniques or patterns of student teaching, the report included several references to public school-college cooperation.[40]

The report, published in 1948, recognized "a need for laboratory facilities sufficiently extensive to provide for each student contact with normal situations; varied enough to provide contacts with different pupil groups, curriculum and administrative organizations; and located for student convenience and staff accessability."[41] To satisfy this need for laboratory facilities, the subcommittee recommended the organization of "one or more college-controlled schools ... available for use in connection with laboratory experiences related to a school and its community."[42] In this context, the subcommittee interpreted control as referring "to such relations with the college as to permit a reasonable influence by the college over policies relating to selection of staff and to procedures in curriculum development."[43] The report continued by saying, "While it is not impossible to build such cooperative relationships with off-campus schools, it is a recognized fact

that the farther removed from the campus such centers are, the more difficult it becomes to provide real coordination of the school and the college."[44]

Upon examination, the report of the Flower committee does not appear to represent an endorsement of joint public school-college management and control of the field-based teacher education program. It does, however, seem to signal on the part of the American Association of Teachers Colleges a more conciliatory and positive approach toward public school-college cooperation than had been manifested in the resolution adopted by the same organization in 1926. Furthermore, in the opinion of one teacher educator, the report's recommendation marked the beginning of the end for the traditional college-controlled laboratory school and symbolized the beginning of a new era in public school-college cooperation.[45]

Though slow in coming, the response of the public school sector to the era of cooperation was best reflected in the work of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Established in 1946 by the National Education Association, NCTEPS was given the responsibility to carry on a "continuing program for ... the advancement of professional standards, including standards for institutions that prepare teachers."[46] To accomplish this directive, the Commission sponsored a number of conferences and task forces to explore and discuss ideas and concepts pertinent to teacher education. The New Horizons Project Task Force was mandated in 1959 "to develop definitive statements ... that would serve as guides for action at the local, state, and national level by TEPS and other professional organizations and individuals, toward the complete professionalization of teaching."[47]

The first report of the New Horizons task force was published in 1961. In its pages were several references to public school-college cooperation

and teacher education. The task force first recommended the establishment of a probationary period during which professional competence should be jointly evaluated by the schools and the preparing institute before the teacher candidate be admitted to full practice.[48] Furthermore, the report concluded that the role of the cooperating school was to provide the direct laboratory experience for the teacher-candidate, while the college was primarily responsible "for contributing to the preparation of school personnel in their roles as teacher educators."[49]

More definitive in its remarks on public school-college cooperation was the Position Paper, which was published in 1963 by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. The Position Paper, regarded by some educators as an accurate reflection of the consensus of the teaching profession, did not equivocate as to the joint responsibility of schools and colleges to educate teachers. The following are four of the Position Paper's recommendations:

1. Each student needs a substantial period of student teaching, with skilled supervision by both school and college personnel in a program cooperatively planned and conducted by the schools and colleges.

2. An internship, jointly planned and supervised by the schools and colleges, should follow the regular five-year pre-service program of teacher education which includes student teaching.

3. Close coordination and cooperation among school districts, colleges and universities ... are essential to the planning, financing, and conducting of sound programs of continuing education. In each school district and in each state these groups should examine current policies and programs and plan cooperative efforts to achieve needed changes.

4. For all professional personnel in a local school district there should be cooperatively planned programs of continuing education which include a variety of opportunities. Workshops, institutes, independent study, travel, work on special curriculum projects ... can be as important to professional growth as formal course work.[50]

Although the nature of the impact of the New Horizons report and the Position Paper on public school-college cooperation cannot be measured, the recommendations in both do appear to indicate that teacher education as a joint enterprise involving public schools and colleges was perceived by the NEA as a desirable endeavor. A similar viewpoint was expressed in the contributions to teacher education made by two well-known philanthropic foundations--the Ford Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation.

In 1951, the Ford Foundation established the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Since its inception, the Fund has served as the primary vehicle for the allocation of money to institutions of higher learning throughout the United States. One of the best financed efforts in our educational history, the Fund granted more than nine million dollars to forty institutions betwen 1951 and 1959.[51] A major requirement for funding, however, was that the receiving institution develop at least one of the "trends" in teacher education espoused by the Ford Foundation. One of these trends was the accepting of teacher training through cooperative programs and financing as a joint-responsibility of colleges and local school systems.[52] To assist in the accomplishment of this objective, the Ford Foundation by the late 1960's had invested over seventy million dollars into a variety of "experimental" teacher education programs.[53]

Rather than infuse vast sums of money into the operation of schools and training institutions, the Carnegie Corporation approached the problem of teacher education from the standpoint of analysis and recommendation. This procedure involved the subsidization of one of the country's most respected commentators on educational affairs, James B. Conant.

In a series of studies of the American educational system, Conant attempted to probe the complexities of the schooling process. One book in particular, The Education of American Teachers, provided the context

for an innovative proposal that the author hoped would bridge the gap between the colleges and schools in the pre-service training of teachers. The proposal was the clinical professorship.[54]

Borrowed from the medical profession and applied to teacher education, the notion of the clinical professor of education was interpreted by Conant to be analogous to the role of the clinical professor of surgery. In both instances, Conant perceived their role to be characterized by an "emphasis on practice rather than theory."[55] The clinical professor of education, according to Conant, "must be an excellent school teacher; he would not be expected to do research or publish papers. He must from time to time return to the school classroom as a classroom teacher, /and/ he might serve the college either on a part-time basis or on a full-time basis."[56] To enhance the status of the classroom teacher, Conant also recommended that excellent classroom teachers be enlisted as clinical professors in order to serve both the college and the school at the same time. Functioning in this dual capacity, the former classroom teacher, now acting as a clinical professor, would have the opportunity to examine continually his or her perceptions of the teacher preparation process and minimize the intervention of theoretical points of view that had no relationship to the practice of teacher preparation.

Like so many other innovations in teacher education (i.e., the internship competency-based teacher education, the open classroom), the influence of the clinical professorship or public school-college cooperation is difficult to precisely measure. It seems reasonable to infer from the data at hand, however, that Conant's proposal for increased public school-college cooperation via the clinical professor has and will continue to affect teacher education practices for years to come.[57]

Any discussion of public school-college cooperation in teacher preparation would be incomplete without some mention of the nature of the relationship between the state and student teaching. Historically, the publicly supported teacher training institutions have been charged by the states with the task of producing teachers for the public schools. By establishing and enforcing teacher certification requirements, the state has exerted a minimum-level degree of control over the college teacher's education program. One of the teacher certification requirements, supervised student-teaching, has, however, typically been stipulated without any provision for state financial or supervisory assistance to the preparing institution. Similarly, even though the public school is financially and administratively linked to the state educational structure, the state has usually provided no monetary or supervisory assistance to facilitate the in-school implementation of the student teaching program.[58] As a consequence, several problem areas have been identified by educators that must be attended to by the states before public school-college cooperation in teacher education can become a full-fledged reality. These problem areas include:

1. The need of adequate financial compensation to the cooperating school.
2. The need to allocate laboratory resources among competing colleges.
3. The need to select and improve teacher training personnel and teacher training facilities and establish procedures for reciprocity in the supervision or coordination of student teaching.[59]

The need for a redefinition of the state's role in teacher education became especially apparent in the post-war years when the student teaching phase of teacher education was shifting from the campus to the field. In response to this trend, L.D. Haskew, writing in 1949, proposed that

> student teaching should become an integral part of the state's public school system ... It is assumed that the colleges, the public school system, and the state department of education would participate in planning and operating the total program, each on equal footing, and that policy decisions would be collective decisions.[60]

H.V. Williams, agreeing with the spirit of Haskew's admonition, further declared in 1954,

> that the state should subsidize (or pay in part) the student teaching program is not a new idea among legislators, since it is assumed that beginning teachers receive their best practical internship in actual situations in the public schools, and that fundamentally it is the responsibility of the state to provide efficient teachers for the public schools.[61]

The extent of the response by the state to the prevailing sentiment in favor of public school-college cooperation became evident in two surveys conducted during the early 1960's. The information gleaned from the surveys, which sought information from the state directors of teacher education in 49 states, formed the basis for these conclusions:

1. Eighteen to twenty states have shown definite leadership at the state level in attempts to solve problems related to administrative relationships between teacher education institutions and cooperating public schools related to the student teaching program.

2. Five states have cooperatively developed criteria for the selection of student teaching centers. In most cases, these criteria serve as guidance materials. Nearly all states expect student teaching to be done in schools which are accredited by the state.

3. Seven states have cooperatively built criteria for the selection of supervising teachers. Six states require state approval of a special certificate.

4. Practically all states provide financial support through a regular state college budget for the student teaching program. In many cases this money reaches the supervising teacher in the form of a small stipend. In no case does a state provide money directly to the public school to provide time for the supervising teacher to give to the supervision of student teaching.

5. Three states pay stipend money to the public school district.

6. The majority of the states include professional laboratory experiences in the standards for teacher education.

7. The states generally do not perform the approval function in teacher education.

8. Although several states require preparation in supervision for the supervising teacher, Georgia is the only one which describes in some detail the total preparation program for the supervising teacher.[62]

The national impact of state assistance and other developments in public school-college cooperation was further assessed between 1962 and 1965. In 1962, the Committee on Studies of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) directed the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education "to give its attention to the problem of cooperative relationships between college and schools in pre-service and in-service teacher education."[63] Complying with the directive, the Subcommittee developed a survey to identify nationwide examples of public school-college cooperation characterized by "equal partnership and actual cooperative school-college direction of student teaching activities, internship programs, in-service teacher education, or research development."[64] Taking the results of the survey, the Subcommittee published a report in 1965 that included a systematic categorization of the different kinds of public school-college cooperative ventures. Although field-based teacher education was not mentioned in the report, each of the thirteen categories represented a cooperative venture in which variations of field-based teacher education were assumed practices. The categories included the following:

1. Field Centers for Preparing Teachers To Work With the Culturally Deprived or With Children With Special Handicaps or Talents.

2. Cooperative Centers for Teacher Education.

3. State-Wide Cooperative Plans.

4. School-College Councils and Committees for Cooperation in Teacher Education and/or Research and Development.

5. Regional Inter-College and School Centers.

6. Teacher Internship and Teacher Aide Programs.

7. Joint Appointments and Rotation of Teachers Between the School and College.

8. In-Service Teacher Education Centers.

9. Jointly Developed Student Teaching Guides and Constitutions.

10. Cooperative Observation Programs.

11. Joint Selection and Preparation of Supervising Teachers.

12. Affiliated or Associated Schools.

13. Cooperative Supervision of Teaching.[65]

A second study discussing the rationale and practice of public school-college cooperation was conducted by the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education in 1966. This study not only provided a more in-depth treatment of existing teacher education programs and projects characterized by joint management and responsibility, but it also called attention to the role of the federal government as a possible agent to maintain and accelerate the movement for public school-college cooperation in teacher education.[66]

Until the mid-Sixties, the federal role in the historical development of public school-college cooperation was insignificant. Wayne Reed, an Associate Commissioner for Fereral-State Relations, addressed this topic in 1966 when he state ,

> The Federal government is not a pioneer in this matter /teacher education/; in fact the Federal government is not generally inclined to be the first to experiment with ideas in education. Any fires it tends are quite likely to have been set by sparks from other fires.[67]

There is little evidence in the historical record to contradict his opinion.

With the establishment of the Teacher Corps in 1965, however, the historically passive role of the federal government in teacher education began to change.[68] As the federal government's primary "change agent," the United States Office of Education channelled financial and manpower support to the movement for public school-college cooperation through a variety of programs and projects. In addition to the Teacher Corps, such programs and projects and the Elementary Teacher Education Models Project, the Urban/Rural School Development Program, and the Multi-State Consortium of Performance Based Teacher Education have been funded to promote closer coordination between schools and colleges in the pre- and in-service education of teachers.[69] While a discussion of how each of these programs has affected the public school-college relationship far exceeds the purpose of this paper, there is growing evidence that the impact of federal intervention has and will continue to affect the ongoing effort of public schools and colleges to become professional partners in the field-based education of teachers.

Conclusion

This historical perspective has attempted to indicate to the reader that the notion of public school-college cooperation in the field-based education of teachers is not a recent phenomenon. Ever since the establishment of this nation's first normal schools, public schools and teacher training instititions have attempted to cooperate in the operation of a wide variety of field-based teacher education programs. Prior to the late 1940's, however, it appears that in most of the relationships involving a college and a cooperating school, there were usually no commitments on the part of the institutions of higher learning to share with the cooperating

public school, any major responsibility for the planning and/or implementation of the FBTE programs. Such power determinations, consistent with the "gentlemen's agreements" made by the college with the cooperating school, were typically exercised by the college. Not until the decades of the Thirties and Forties did a series of developments, associated with increasing college enrollments, accompanying financial pressures, and a suspicion among public school educators as to the practical value of college-controlled laboratory schools, combine to create an atmosphere conducive to the emergence of a truly national effort to promote public school-college cooperation in the field-based education of teachers.

During the 1950's and early 1960's, rationales justifying and encouraging public school-college cooperation in teacher education were reflected in reports and statements issued by educational organizations such as the National Education Association and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Financial and manpower support promoting cooperative ventures in teacher education were also forthcoming from the Ford and Carnegie foundations. Even some state boards of education made efforts to facilitate ways as well as to provide means (financial) for state teacher training institutions to work on a partnership basis with local school district representatives in the planning and execution of a wide variety of FBTE programs. Another major impetus for cooperatively developed FBTE programs involved the role played by the federal government. Beginning in 1968 with the Teacher Corps and continued in such programs as the Urban/Rural School Development Program, the federal government has also done much to support the notion of public school-college cooperation and FBTE.

As to whether or not the national movement for public school-college cooperation in the field-based education of teachers will continue is by

no means clear. Certainly there is evidence to indicate that some of the contemporary cooperative ventures are moving in the direction of anticipated objectives (i.e., the ongoing cooperative enterprises involved in the Urban/Rural program). On the other hand, there are variables related to the ultimate success of the venture that neither state nor federal assistance can lastingly affect. These variables, indicated in the introduction to this paper, include the nature of the commitment to the FBTE program demonstrated by the cooperating public school and college; and, the support generated by the school-community whose educational interests the FBTE program is intended to serve.

One can only conclude that viewed in historical perspective, public schools and teacher training institutions have made significant strides toward a common goal. To men and women of vision, the goal has always been to provide for oncoming generations the best possible education that our resources and imagination could provide. To such persons, there are or should be no problems which can be neatly classified as teacher education or public school education to be solved by either group alone. The many problems of teacher education require a problem-solving approach that draw upon the combined resources of both the cooperating public school and the institution of higher learning.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Emitt D. Smith and Fred J. Cunningham, "Administrative Relationships Between Teacher Education Institutions and Cooperating Public Schools," in Teacher Education and the Public Schools, The Fortieth Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching, ed. C.M. Clarke (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., Inc., 1961) p.3.

[2]One survey was sponsored by the 1961 yearbook writing committee (The Association for Student Teaching), while the other was conducted in connection with the Texas Student Teacher Project. Information as to the design and results of the two surveys can be located in ibid. pp. 4-22 and Emmitt D. Smith and Fred J. Cunningham, "The State's Role in Providing Laboratory Facilities," Ibid., pp. 22-29.

[3]Smith and Cunningham, "The State's Role," p. 29.

[4]This account does not focus on historical examples of teacher education unilaterally controlled by the institution of higher learning (i.e., the college-controlled laboratory school), nor does it attempt to discuss any historical examples of FBTE exclusively controlled by the public school districts. For a discussion of the rationale supporting a school district controlled FBTE program see Paul A. Olsen et al, eds., The University Can't Train Teachers, A Symposium of School Administrators Discuss School-Based Undergraduate Education for Teachers (University of Nebraska: Nebraska Curriculum Development Center, 1972), pp. 1-153.

[5]The attributes of public school-college cooperation were taken from a summary report of a national survey of cooperative ventures in teacher education conducted in 1964. E. Brooks Smith and Patrick Johnson, School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: Report of A National Survey Of Cooperative Ventures, (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1964), Preface.

[6]Frederick M. Binder, The Age Of The Common School, 1830-1865 (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974), pp. 78-81.

[7]Ibid.

[8]Henry Barnard, Normal Schools, 2 vols. (Hartford, Conn: Case, Tiffany and Company, 1851), I: p. 128.

[9]Alex F. Perrodin, ed., Functions of Laboratory Schools in Teacher Education, Thirty-Fourth Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1955), pp. xi-xii.

[10]Ibid.

[11]Barnard, Normal Schools, I: p. 85.

[12]Ibid., pp. 85-86.

[13]E.I.F. Williams, The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions To Education, No. 846 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1942), p. 7.

[14]Ibid., pp. 7-8.

[15]Ibid., p. 8.

[16]Alex F. Perrodin, "The Development of Laboratory Schools in Teacher Education," in Functions of Laboratory Schools in Teacher Education, The Thirty-Fourth Yearbook of The Association For Student Teaching (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1955), p. 6.

[17]Ibid., p. 5.

[18]Ibid., p. 5.

[19]Williams, The Actual And Potential Use of Laboratory Schools, p. 12.

[20]Ibid.

[21]Ibid.

[22]E.L. Wellborn, "Co-operation with Local Schools in Student Teaching," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 33 (November, 1920): pp. 448-453.

[23]Ibid.

[24]Ibid.

[25]Ibid.

[26]The two examples of this "control type" existed in Fort Hays, Kansas, and the Northern Illinois State Normal School, ibid.

[27]Ibid.

[28]Ibid.

[29]Ibid.

[30]Esther J. Swenson and Robert C. Hammock, "Off-Campus Laboratory. Experiences: Their Growth, Importance, and Present Role in Teacher Education," in Off-Campus Student Teaching, The Thirtieth Yearbook of the Association For Student Teaching (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1951), pp. 18-27.

[31]Ibid., p. 20

[32]Ibid.

[33]Ibid.

[34]Dorothea Blyer, "Student Teaching in the American Association of Teachers Colleges," Education Administration and Supervision, Vol. 33 (February 1947): pp. 75-87. Lindley J. Stiles, "Organization of Student Teaching in Universities," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 40 (May 1947): pp. 706-712.

[35]William G. Brink, "The Administration of Student Teaching in Universities Which Use the Public Schools," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 31 (May 1947): pp. 706-712.

[36]Smith and Johnson, School-College Relationships in Teacher Education, Preface.

[37]Ibid.

[38]Ibid.

[39]Educational efforts by the Association For Student Teaching in the form of publications, workshops, and conferences, also attempted to promote public school-college cooperation. See the following: Morton S. Malter and Troy L. Stearns, eds., Off-Campus Student Teaching, Thirtieth Yearbook of the Association For Student Teaching (Ann Arbor, 1951), pp. 1-206; Gerold D. Holstine and Frank L. Steeves, eds., Facilities For Professional Laboratory Experiences In Teacher Education, the Thirty-Third Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching (Ann Arbor, 1954), pp. 1-228; Dwight K. Curtis, ed., Achieving Quality in Off-Campus Professional Laboratory Experiences, the Association of Student Teaching (Cedar Falls, 1957), pp. 1-80; M. Vere DeVault and Geneva Hanna, eds., "Studies In Professional Laboratory Experiences In Teacher Education (Selected Research 1940 to 1957)," in the Association For Student Teaching Research Bulletin Number 1 (Cedar Falls, 1957), pp. 1-74; Lois C. Blair, Dwight K. Curtis, A.C. Moon, The Purposes, Functions, and Uniqueness of the College-Controlled Laboratory Schools, the Association for Student Teaching, Bulletin No. 9 (Cedar Falls, 1958), pp. 1-59; Howard T. Batchelder, Richard E. Lawrence, and George R. Myers, A Guide For Off-Campus Student Teaching, the Association For Student Teaching, Bulletin No. 11 (Cedar Falls, 1959), pp. 1-69; and the previously cited references published by the Association For Student Teaching.

[40]John G. Flowers et al., School and Community Experiences In Teacher Education (New York: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948), p. 5.

[41]Ibid., p. 330.

[42]Ibid.

[43]Ibid.

[44]Ibid. p. 302.

[45]Smith and Johnson, School-College Relationships in Teacher Education, pp. 1-2.

[46]Margaret Lindsey, ed., New Horizons for the Teaching Profession, A Report of the Task Force On New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1961), p. vii.

[47]Ibid., pp. 8-9.

[48]Ibid., pp. 102-103.

[49]Ibid.

[50]National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, A Position Paper, The National Education Association (Washington, D.C., 1963), pp. 13-18.

[51]Walter K. Beggs, The Education of Teachers (New York: The Center for Applied Research, 1965), pp. 86-87.

[52]Paul Woodring, New Directions in Teacher Education (New York: The Fund For The Advancement of Education, 1967), pp. 3-17.

[53]Gerald Gutek, An Historical Introduction to American Education (New York: Thomas H. Crowell, 1970), p. 149. For an "impact analysis" of the Ford Foundation's contribution to teacher education, see James C. Stone, Breakthrough In Teacher Education (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1968), pp. 1-201.

[54]James Bryant Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), pp. 142-144.

[55]Ibid. p. 142.

[56]Ibid., pp. 143-144.

[57]A discussion of the nature, role, and implications of the clinical professorship in innovative programs of undergraduate teacher education is provid d in William R. Hazard, ed., The Clinical Professorship in Teacher Education, Report of a Conference At Northwestern University October 24-25, 1966 in cooperation with the Carnegie Corporation of New York (Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1967), pp. 3-139.

[58]Smith and Cunningham, "The State's Role in Providing Laboratory Facilities," p. 24.

[59]Ibid., p. 24.

[60]Ibid., p. 23.

[61]Ibid.

[62]Ibid., p. 25.

[63]Smith and Johnson, "School-College Relationships in Teacher Education," p.4.

[64]Ibid., p. 5.

[65]Ibid., pp. 1-56.

[66]E. Brooks Smith et al., eds., Partnership in Teacher Education, a joint publication of the American Association of Colleges for Teachers Education and the Association for Student Teaching (Washington, 1966), pp. 1-296.

[67]Wayne O. Reed, "The Federal Government and Teacher Education," in Parnership in Teacher Education, pp. 165-173.

[68]Teacher Corps, information document published by the Programs Branch, Teacher Corps (Washington, D.C. 1970), pp. 4-19.

[69]For discussions of the federal role in promoting performance or competency-based teacher education and the significance of CPTE on FBTE and public school-college cooperation, see Phyllis D. Hamilton, Competency-Based Teacher Education, Educational Policy Research Center (Stanford Research Institute, Menlo Park, 1973), pp. 1-5 and 9-15. For further reference read W. Robert Houston, ed., Exploring Competency Based Education (Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974), pp. 1-367.

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FIELD-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION: WHAT IT CAN BE

by Gene Bottoms

Whether field-based teacher education, particularly graduate level field-based teacher education, will be different from current practice depends on how it is conceived and applied. Some will see it merely as a way to make traditional courses more conveniently available to the student, changing only the setting in which the courses are offered. In this paper, I will explore a view of field-based graduate teacher education in which its purpose, structure, content, method, and development will be substantially different from present practice.

What Is It?

The term "field based" implies a teacher education program geared to the individual educator's needs in his current setting. It contains the promise that the focus of graduate teacher education will be to improve the performance of educators as practitioners. This optimistic view creates the expectation of a program with certain positive characteristics:

A. Teacher education programs designed to facilitate achievement of student goals determined by local school systems.

B. Teacher education programs designed to assist educational personnel to translate new knowledge into improved practice.

C. Teacher education programs in which the staff resources of both the school district and college are being interfaced toward a common outcome.

D. Teacher education program in which "performance" becomes an additional basis for excellence rather than just the acquisition of cognitive knowledge.

Why Have It?

Education is essential if one is to cope successfully as an adult in modern society. Therefore, schools today are under pressure from the community to increase their effectiveness with all students. Improving the preparation of educational personnel becomes one immediate way by which schools are made better. Field-based teacher education can provide a delivery system to improve significantly the preparation of educational personnel.

Educational leaders are concerned with the lag that exists between the discovery of new knowledge and its widespread application in schools. Properly designed field-based teacher education should narrow this gap.

Field-based teacher education can provide the means by which educational personnel can put new knowledge into practice. For example, for a teacher to know about positive reinforcement is different from his being able to implement the concept in the classroom. The skill of implementing a concept is often more difficult to learn than the facts of the concept. In addition, the skills and understandings needed by educators are probably more difficult to master than are those of other professions such as law or medicine because the skills needed by educators are complicated by human interaction.

Field-based teacher education offers the potential of focusing on improving whole schools as opposed to just individual personnel. Teacher progress made with individuals could soon widen to encompass the school.

How Is It To Be Developed?

Field-based graduate teacher education programs should be developed jointly by a local school system and a teacher education institution. They must be designed to supply those competencies needed by educational personnel

as determined by comprehensive local system student needs assessments. Teacher education programs that become supportive of local system educational plans will have significant impact upon educational improvement.

What Is Its Nature?

The inherent characteristics of a field-based teacher education program would include:

A. A program emphasis as opposed to selecting from a smorgasboard of courses.

B. A program tailored to the unique needs of the individual in his environment. This would necessitate considerable on-the-job assessment of the individual prior to formulating a prescribed program.

C. A team of college and local system personnel who work together with designated responsibilities for carrying out the program.

D. Completion of the program when the individual demonstrates adequate mastery of an acceptable number of broad based performance tasks.

E. At least 25 percent of the program consisting of an on-the-job phase that extends throughout the program. During this phase the individual would demonstrate mastery of selected performance tasks. The remainder of the program (seminar, lectures, readings, discussions, etc.) would be related to and supportive of the on-the-job phase.

F. Follow through assistance provided to the individual on the job to insure application of new knowledge and skills.

G. Assessment of mastery of a particular performance task by someone other than the persons providing the instruction.

Summary

Graduate level field-based teacher education has the potential to become supportive of local school systems' needs, goals, and objectives. Graduate level preparation could become the rule for educational personnel rather than the exception. It could truly make improved performance a major base for excellence, bringing into being a graduate level teacher preparation program uniquely related to the role of educator as a practitioner.

DECENTRALIZING GRADUATE EDUCATION: A CASE FOR THE FIELD-BASED PROFESSOR

by William C. Bruce, Ronald L. Hubright, V. Eugene Yarbrough

The teacher training institution is 100 miles away; the professor last worked with real live kids in 1934, the course outline is yellowed with age; the professor lectures for an hour about why teachers shouldn't lecture, there is nothing directly related to the teachers' classrooms, and even though the local school board asked their teachers to individualize instruction no one sees this as an opportunity to do relevant college work for credit. Yet, we wonder why the rural teacher is behind on recent developments and hasn't been back to college since 1951.

Rural educators have by-and-large been the forgotten people of recent history. Speaking before the Rural Education Conference in Oklahoma, Marty Cushman stated that "the rural areas of the nation have had a disproportionate share of teachers whose educational qualifications are below standard . . . It is a fact long well known and unfortunately accepted that rural school personnel have been badly prepared." Lacking any preparation for rural schools, many teachers from urban academic centers find the rural school unattractive. Such schools are often characterized by limited curriculum alternatives, staff, support services, student enrollment, and total budget. Narrow career development opportunities tend to perpetuate the problem. Struggling to adapt to the space age, rural students sit in antiquated buildings, ride tiring school buses, and learn about things that are completely unrelated to the future of their communties. The rural student is cast into a situation where narrow academics receive priority to the detriment of other areas such as vocational and technical studies.

The rural school system has obviously been in a disadvantaged position in bringing about change in teacher train' g. It can, however, affect needed innovations in grad ate educati' , innovations relying on training services based on local needs and d gned to develop site specific teacher competencies. One such innovation based on a system analysis approach is operating in a small rural community in Georgia. The commitment furnishing direction to the program is that effective in-service teacher training must be based on the needs of public school students rather than the isolated inclinations of college curriculum developers and "ivory tower" professors. The primary and potentially explosive element of this program is that the local community is unwilling to aborgate authority for educating their teachers and students to educators who know nothing of the community's needs and desires.

The Alma Model

The Alma staff development program evolved through several steps: the first and most important was a unique commitment by a Model Cities agency to revolutionize the entire educational system of the county. As a result of comprehensive community planning, an educational needs assessment was conducted, indicating several major deficiencies in the education of Bacon County children. The most glaring of the findings shows Alma-Bacon County children scoring two or three grade levels below national norms. Further analysis concluded that most classes contained students at five different grade levels making individual attention almost impossible with traditional teaching methods. The dropout ate was a serious problem in as much as forty percent of ninth grade students dropped out of school before they reached graduation.

In an attempt to alleviate the assessed deficiencies three educational programs were implemented in Bacon County. An Early Childhood program was instituted to provide day-care facilities and cognitive training in an attempt to improve the child's chances of success in school. Unique to this program was its planned curriculum developed by Westinghouse Learning Corporation to provide educational and social readiness. Secondly, Project P.L.A.N. was implemented in grades one through eight to provide teachers with a learning system designed to meet the needs of children at different achievement levels. P.L.A.N. is a computer based individualized instructional program operated by Westinghouse which assesses student needs through cognitive pre-tests and teacher-student judgments and provides needed modularized instruction. The computer functions as a clerical aide by grading pre-tests, generating a program of study, grading post-tests, determining mastery levels and giving periodic progress reports to the teacher. Each student progresses at his own rate, covering material designed for him and has a part in selecting his own learning style and material. The teacher must operate as a facilitator of learning rather than an arbitrator of vicarious learning experiences. In the high school, a quarter system has been introduced in grades nine through twelve in an attempt to reduce dropourts, increase course offerings, and provide teachers a more efficient allocation of time. During each quarter students take two, two and one-half hour courses. The teacher now has more time for activities other than lecture or discussion and has found old techniques difficult to sustain over a longer period of time.

Like many educational projects, the Alma experiments were introduced one month and implemented the next. Little attention was given initially to

the training of staff to operate within their newly defined roles. As a result, stress appeared. A site-specific staff development project built around resident teacher trainers provided by Georgia Southern College was envisioned. The local school board applied for and received a five year Urban/Rural School Development Program grant for teacher retraining. A contract with Georgia Southern was written to provide staff and resources for a Training Resource Center (TRC) for the Alma project.

The next step in the evolution of the model was the actual staffing of the TRC so spcific in-service activities could be planned and coordinated. A three step process was devised for the selection of the staff. The teacher trainers were interviewed by the School-Community Council and the College as well as receiving approval through the Georgia University System Board of Regents to teach graduate level courses. This cooperative effort resulted in the selection of a staff that fulfilled the needs of both parties: teacher trainers who could present relevant training and a vehicle for granting college credit for these activities.

New patterns of staff utilization were arranged with the college to insure site specific graduate study. The four resident professors could not operate in the same manner as the campus-housed faculty since graduate training was to be conducted with relevancy to the Alma classroom. Through negotiations, traditional class attendance procedures of the college were altered to meet local needs. Instead of attending a traditional five hour class it was agreed that the teacher would attend for only one and half hours of formal activity a week. The other three and a half hours of contact time required for credit would be accomplished through the professor working directly with teachers in their classrooms.

Classroom contact also made it possible for the resident professor to alter traditional course content. The professor could now establish a laboratory situation where new ideas were introduced in a formal activity and then implemented immediately. This process has led to a diagnostic teaching style and a performance based evaluation of graduate teacher education. In addition to graduate studies, teachers have been granted release time to attend regional and national conferences. An in-service point system has placed responsibility for professional growth in the hands of the professional staff. This program has allowed teachers not interested in graduate credit to receive recognition for independent study and curriculum projects. This has been brought about because the resident professor is not only responsible for graduate students but serves also as a curriculum development specialist.

Changes in institutionalized education are not accomplished without difficulty. Certainly, Alma and Georgia Southern had difficulties in arranging working relationships which met the diverse objectives of the two agencies. Both parties were involved in many sessions dealing with such mundane issues as: how many hours could be taken off campus, could the resident professor teach a certain course, what constitutes a full-time load for a field based professor, etc. These issues, however, had to be faced in order to make a theoretical teacher training model actually work in the field. The local community used its monetary resources as a wedge to get changes that would satisfy local objectives and the college used its power over graduate credit to guard against a watered-down graduate program. Quite often the resident professor was caught in the middle with divided loyalties. It was clear, however, that the resident staff, with a commitment to the objectives of both agencies, could arbitrate issues bringing about compromises satisfactory to the participants.

If successful change is to occur in rural education the college must take a step toward student-community oriented staff development, a step the graduate school cannot make as long as it remains isolated from the influence of the community and student. Indeed, neither the school nor the community can make the model work, while operating independently. The resident professor must act as a liaison between the community and college, combining the authority of both into a single agent.

The implications of the Alma model are far reaching. Reorientation of graduate studies in terms of local school needs and authority is the most substantive of the changes made. The growing importance of quantitative and qualitative extensions of formal education coupled with the needs of the rural school system dictates the urgent need to adopt a more community oriented and coordinated approach to graduate study. Implicit in the concept is a high degree of local on-site involvement, leadership, and autonomy. The importance of this concept will grow as rural schools attempt to realign priorities, a process essential in an age of shifting resources and population.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND CONTROL IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by V. Eugene Yarbrough

A transformation is over the horizon for American higher education. This transformation will not be led by red-eyed revolutionaries and student dissidents but will involve a basic reorientation in philosophy which will alter teacher preparation programs and American education in a dynamic way. This coming transformation will include an upsurge of community involvement and control of higher education of which Teacher Education Centers and Field Services Clusters are only advanced previews.

At the Public school level, one manifestation of this involvement is the school advisory board. In a paper presented at the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Anaheim, California, Albert Cartwright reported that "basically the school-community advisory idea is a valid and valuable one. It suggests that one can make use of previously untapped sources of strength in the community in order to improve the educative process." Cartwright suggests that:

> The local School-Community Advisory Council is not a miracle cure-all. Nor can it substitute for overdue system-wide improvements in educational programs and organization, particularly as they relate to children who are different. In the hands of a caring principal, the council can be a valuable tool for better diagnosis, relevant prescription and realistic preventive actions where local school practices are concerned.

Richard K. Hofstrand and Lloyd J. Phillips feel that advisory councils provide an avenue for the kinds of activities which will involve citizens in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of educational efforts. They suggest that the benefits of such councils are far-reaching.

> . . .for the learner--expanded and improved options, increased relevance, increased recognition, safety and service; . . .for the council member--involvement, status and vehicle for service; . . .for parents, school, and community--fulfilled needs, public relations and service.

The Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) was probably the earliest attempt in American education to involve people other than educators in working with children. Its narrow base, however, has mitigated against its effectiveness and only indirectly involves the community. What is needed is a broad involvement program incorporating individuals from many areas. Marcus Foster, late Superintendent of the Oakland, California, public schools, summed up this viewpoint when he said:

> In every society there have been at least five basic institutions in any community. And when I talk about community involvement, I'm talking about involving those five basic institutions . . . . family, business, government, religion, and education as an institution. I am saying that in order to be effective in educating youth, one has to be skillful in teasing out the educational input from these five institutions so that children are benefited.

Unfortunately, such community-oriented thought has not been prevalent on the college or university campus. Clinging to the perception of the university as a retreat from the workaday world, college and university personnel have made little attempt to include anyone beyond the campus in decision-making. The community itself has done little better. This is true for at least three reasons: (1) Communities have been characterized by a lack of knowledge on what to request from institutions of higher education; (2) there have been no specific avenues for communication with the college or university power structure; and (3) there has been no system to identify local needs and marshal broad based community opinions. With the advent of field-centered programs, particularly pre-service and inservice teacher education programs, this situation appears to be changing, in fact, accelerating toward more community involvement in and control over programs in higher education. What the full impact of this turn about in community attitude toward higher education will be in the future is difficult to ascertain. That it will be a revolutionary breach of Fortress academe seems apparent.

The community involvement movement will take much of the same orientation

as Alvin Toffler's "mentors". In speaking of the break-up in industrial era education Toffler suggests that ". . .mentors would not only transmit skills, but would show how the abstractions of the textbook are applied in life. Accountants, doctors, engineers, businessmen, carpenters, builders and planners might all become part of an 'outside faculty' in another dialectial swing, this time toward a new kind of apprenticeship." The first signs of this drive can already be seen on the university campus where groups of government leaders periodically work, forming almost a pool of talent for men of affairs. The movement toward the "outside faculty" is also aided by government research grants and restrictions which are slowly but inextricably changing the face of the community of scholars. But, community control of education will take place first off campus, then move on campus.

The traditional university need not be swept away in such a flood of community participation, however. It is likely that "Research Universities" will take their place. These institutions will be characterized by upper-level graduate programs and facilities for "pure" research. The teacher training institution which concentrates on the preparation of teachers at the bachelor's and master's degree level will, however, change radically.

What projections can be made for community involvement in higher education for the 1980's? Five propositions are listed.

Proposition I: Changes in Society will support Community Involvement in Education

Today, many colleges and universities are noticing a drop in undergraduate enrollment. This phenomenon can be explained in part by the rapid growth of community technical institutes. Employment secured after such training usually pays well. It is becoming more difficult to explain to a student why he should tie up four years in a traditional program in higher education when he can earn a good salary after spending half the time in training. Training, by the way, which is conducted in or near the student's community and which is responsive

to community needs. Secondly, the age distribution of communities is changing. Programs will of necessity be based less upon the supply of skills to a very young population and will have larger proportions of mature students. This situation will mean that the educational needs of the population will be more heterogeneous, more diverse. Thirdly, in response to a rapidly changing society, education programs must become concerned with retraining and additional skills development. This impetus will be encouraged by the need to provide on-going professional development and the demands for more information from mature elements in the population. For example, the retraining and development function of higher education will be encouraged by teachers who are in mid-career and want specific skills but cannot study for the doctorate. The same situation will hold for housewives with the bachelor's degree, industrial personnel, and businesses.

Proposition II: The College or University Campus is no longer adequate to meet the diverse needs of the Community.

Because of the rapid changes in society, the campus will no longer be sufficient to the tasks demanded of it. The College or University campus of today is still an anachronism from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. It was seen as a retreat where the student might search out truth. Today this image of the campus is no longer true. Yet, even with the influx of government research grants and other federal monies, the campus is closed for thousands of teachers. They lack the time and money to periodically return to the campus for retraining or certificate renewal. This situation, coupled with the need for system wide school improvement models, necessitates a more field-centered and flexible approach to in-service education which the University campus cannot meet.

Proposition III: There will be rapid growth in the "outside faculty."

Field-based approaches to pre-service and inservice education of teachers as exemplified by Teacher Education Centers, Field Services Clusters, and

various consortium arrangements will accelerate during the latter half of the 1970's and become fully implemented in the 1980's. Some models will be ad hoc centers moving location as needs are identified while others will be more permanently based in a rural or metropolitan area. The important difference from former models will be their field orientation. Competency based teacher education and accountability will be an integral part of these centers. As an outcome of these programs, incremental reward systems will be developed to reward teachers for achieving specific competencies in small units rather than recognition for a 3 or 4 year degree. The community will share in the planning, will have joint power over the desirability of appointees to field-based professorial roles, while teachers will determine their needs and the consequent direction of centers in the process.

Proposition IV: Coordinating Councils will link the community, public schools, and universities.

One of the most common forms of the coordinating council concept is the School-Community Council. Made up of parents, church leaders, business people, and educators, the council has varigated roles in assuring relevant training for teachers, marshalling community support, and working closely with public schools. The Coordinating Council concept has tremendous implications for accountability and community involvement. One possible direction which can be taken in this area will be the development of local Educational Development Boards who supervise educational improvement in specific areas.

Proposition V: Universities will provide alternative pre-service training Models for students.

Adding impetus to alternative teacher education strategies already underway, colleges and universities in the 1980's will increase their efforts to generate new programs. This will be brought about in part because of demands placed upon them by communities for relevant pre-service training which will necessitate

programs designed for those teachers planning to teach in urban, suburban, or rural areas. Not all teacher preparation programs will be characterized by these options; in fact, departments may become noted for their specialty in training either urban, rural, or suburban teachers. The accountability movement, as a s[illegible] force, should not be overlooked. In the search for models for competency based Teacher education, attention must be paid to those teacher-models who exhibit successful teaching abilities in different locations. It cannot be assumed that one model of the successful teacher will apply. Such a position might prevail if we speak about C/PBTE in generalities. A much different picture emerges, however, when we talk about specific competencies. It is this area which offers a wedge for community involvement in the teacher education process. The best, and perhaps, the only way of assuring local competencies will be programs which move students into the field for training. It may be the pre-service teachers will receive temporary certification in general areas on campus and specific local adaptations or part of an internship later.

Out of the projections above at least five means of community control and involvement are seen

1. Since more teacher training institutions are moving to field-based programs, community involvement and control will increase as these programs become fully implemented. Community support will be an essential element of these activities and will allow community control in planning and setting overall goals and objectives.

2. The community will be instrumental in determining the nature of skills and units of instruction to be offered.

3. The community will share joint responsibility with the teacher training institution for the appointment of field-based staff.

4. The community will play a significant role in the evaluation of field-based programs. The community and public school will serve as important gauges to the degree of transfer.

5. Joint appointment with community agencies will allow more community control, better integration of services, and sharing of costs.

GRADUATE CURRICULUM OUTCOMES IN THE 1980's:
A DESIGN FOR PRODUCING PRACTITIONERS

by William C. Bruce

This is sympathetically dedicated to teachers who have lasted through numerous lectures about why teachers shouldn't lecture to students; to those enduring four hours in a graduate class preoccupied with planning the next day's math class; to those receiving their Curriculum 601 grade and unable to conceive of uses for the irrelevancies of the course in teaching unmotivated students; to those suddenly realizing the professor has not taught anyone under 21 in 21 years; and to those playing "Uncle Tom" to the university.

For the benefit of all--community, university, and school-community, there must be a revolution in American graduate curriculum for educational practitioners, a revolution of form, substance and process. The need for pre-service training for teachers will continue to decrease as the supply of teachers alters the market place, necessitating a new look at the priorities of teacher training institutions. The increased demand for training and retraining of in-service teachers should have distressing effects on the university, especially as traditionally closeted scholars face the problems of working in a buyer's market with classroom practioners. The philosophic foundations presently used to justify the emphasis on training researchers and scholars will be increasingly questioned as it relates to the developing graduate curriculum for teachers. Growing out of this questioning should be the implementation of a viable option for developing in-service competencies; one providing opportunities for teachers to receive graduate credit for implementing techniques designed specifically to meet assessed needs of the local classroom. Consequently, the scope and sequence of graduate curriculum and the sources of authority over goals and objectives will undergo shifts toward decentralization and de-standardization. Graduate curriculum for practioners

built around field-based clusters of services may provide a vehicle for re-orienting and revolutionizing teacher training toward a more flexible university in the 1980's. This chapter is designed to indicate present and anticipated problems inherent in implementing a field-based graduate curriculum and to make suggestions for future development.

Curriculum in the Future Tense

There are powerful forces operating within developing technological societies which will bring revolutionary changes in society and education. If the American graduate school is to survive it must adjust to these revolutionary forces ultimately altering its curriculum for public school personnel. In a speech before the ASCD in March 1974 Alvin Toffler outlined the following developments:

> When I say that industrialism is in its final stage, I'm not using the term loosely. I'm talking about a system with distinct well-known characteristics. Industrialism is based on factory production--on mass production. It's based on a certain form of organization--bureaucratic organization. It's based on . . . standardization, on centralization, on mass communication . . . These are all pieces which combined form the industrial system. I believe it is these pieces that are beginning to break and the glue that holds this system together is now undergoing enormous pressure. Another aspect of this revolution is a sudden turn about. One of the fundamental characteristics of all industrial societies is the mass characteristic: mass production, mass consumption, mass communications, mass education . . . Industrialism tends to produce a society of masses. . . All of our social science for the past 75 years has taught us to expect increasing homogenation of the population. As a consequence of industrial technology and processes one of the most revolutionary turnabouts in our lives is the fact that we are now reversing this process. Instead of moving more and more toward densely massified society we are now moving toward fragmentation, heterogeneity, diversity and I believe this is largely a good direction to move in, but that it brings with it enormous difficulty; indeed, even in the school systems which are basically a major standardizing force in society. Mass education, we shall see, is a part of the structure of industrial society and is intended to standardize. Even in education we find important tendencies away from homogeneity and to heterogeneity. Individualization of instruction, voucher plans are discussed, community control, all sorts of experiments in the direction of breaking the traditional lock-step in education are attempted and these too I believe are good.

The American graduate school is a part of the mass oriented, homogeneous, standardized, bureaucratic industrial system with its glue supposedly well fortified against agents of erosion. Institutionalized mass graduate study is an independent internally accountable and governable entity with a rigid bureaucratic organization overseeing a curriculum standardized for mass production. Each student takes the same basic course (perhaps 80% of his total program) with content selected by the graduate council and professors with no prior knowledge of the public classroom circumstances of their yet unknown students. The curriculum once created is carefully guarded by Deans, Department Heads and professors to insure its application unalterably in the name of "standards." Unfortunately, the most difficult problem inherent in the bureaucratic situation is that the persons ruling over the "red tape" curriculum cannot see the need or desire for change because of their bureaucratic mind. The administrators have mastered the bureaucratic ethos while rising to a position of control over the curriculum. The system is in a position where the persons capable of de-standardizing the curriculum are most likely to work against change because of their power and bureaucratic intelligence.

There is evidence, however, that an educational movement toward individualized instruction and humanistic concepts may force the bureaucratic educator to change. The incongruity of teaching graduate and undergraduate students to individualize instruction while least exemplifying the model of the individually oriented teacher, should become more difficult for professors to reconcile. Internal agitation aided by the universities' increased dependence on securing in-service teacher/students and pushed by increased demands for community power may lead to the creation of graduate curriculum concerned with developing classroom competencies rather than one based on bureaucratically supported "red tape."

It appears that local education agencies could bring forces to bear upon universities to insure rapid expansion of field-based curriculum. Teachers and administrators taking graduate courses should take every opportunity to confront professors with the incongruence between what they teach and how they teach. A revolt by students against two ideas will also push for change: a revolt against the "paper chase" (the student will do anything to get the diploma) and the student as "nigger" (the student is a slave willing to play "Uncle Tom" to the masta). Educators should also pool their resources and through a type of educational cooperative purchase training packages from the college through contractual arrangements assuring curriculum designed to develop competencies that are defined by local needs assessments. As a part of contracts the community should demand that college professors and consultants work within public school classrooms on a regular basis to insure relevancy of material to actual situations. Additionally, the university must fill its bureaucratic positions with persons committed to a process of negotiating away power, rather than those who attempt to maintain status quo over a dying system. It is hoped that the structure of the 70's is not more powerful than the concerns for the 80's.

Sources of Curriculum Authority

An additional concern for field-based teacher education in the 1980's is that the sources of curriculum authority be expanded to include goals and objectives derived from sources other than the structure of knowledge as identified by the academic disciplines. Ideally, curriculum objectives should be drawn from three sources: the structure of knowledge, the nature of the individual and the nature of society. The structure of the disciplines is identified by scholars actively involved in scientific inquiry and usually included in the curriculum through their presence on the graduate council. Information concerning the nature of the individual is drawn from the behavorial

sciences' body of knowledge concerning developmental stages and psychological characteristics of humans. Additionally, the individual learner furnishes information to curriculum developers concerning needs, desire, and individual characteristics. Objectives concerning societal needs are drawn from the community directly or indirectly through expressions of popular values, desires, and needs. The coordination of the above three sources to construct and continually reinforce curriculum for educational practitioners is a necessity if the university is to develop relevant in-service training thereby increasing their number of graduate students.

Historically, however, graduate curriculum for educational practitioners has derived authority from the structure of the disciplines and the behavioral sciences. The curriculum development process in the American graduate school, because of its structure, has involved only faculty members at the controlling institution. Graduate councils run by academicians have produced curriculum scope and sequences representing their frame of reference--the training of scholars and researchers.

Neglected in the process is input from students and the accountability of the community. The pedantic fights of academia have been fought with the isolation of distance and the aloofness of superior intellect while the legitimacy of student and community interests are ignored. Consequently, numbers have been tagged to bits and pieces of knowledge with little concern for field conditions and these numbers become the teachers' "individualized" graduate program--which just happens to be like every other student's. (Perhaps the graduate council should face final orals in defense of the curriculum with classroom teachers asking the questions.) Through isolation from other sources of authority, the curriculum has been created outside the community milieu, therefore failing to recognize the relationship between local needs and in-service training. The university has largely ignored the

desires of parents in deciding how and what their children's teachers should be trained to teach. Consequently, with increased community and parent demand for control over their children's education, it will become necessary for the college to actively seek this support. Because the community and individual will demand greater participation the conclusion should not be drawn that they be included in the process just to pacify an unruly element--community and individual involvement is theoretically and philosophically sound.

To legitimize graduate curriculum for educational practitioners the community and the participating students should demand contractual arrangements with the university calling for the inclusion of students and community members on graduate councils when curriculum matters are decided. If the university is unwilling to make the above kinds of concessions it may find the local educational agencies creating their own in-service curriculum, implementing it through "pooled" and "shared" resources. If university coordinated field-based curriculum is to advance by the 1980's major expansion plus recognition of authority other than the universities will have to occur. The university will make a very pragmatic decision if this expansion is undertaken, thus improving the quality of graduate instruction.

A Model for Cooperative Curriculum

If revolutionary change in graduate curriculum is to occur, cooperative relationships between the college and school-community must be developed -- relationships based on mutual needs. There must be assurances by both parties of a desire for quality education based on involvement from all areas of expertise, local and college.

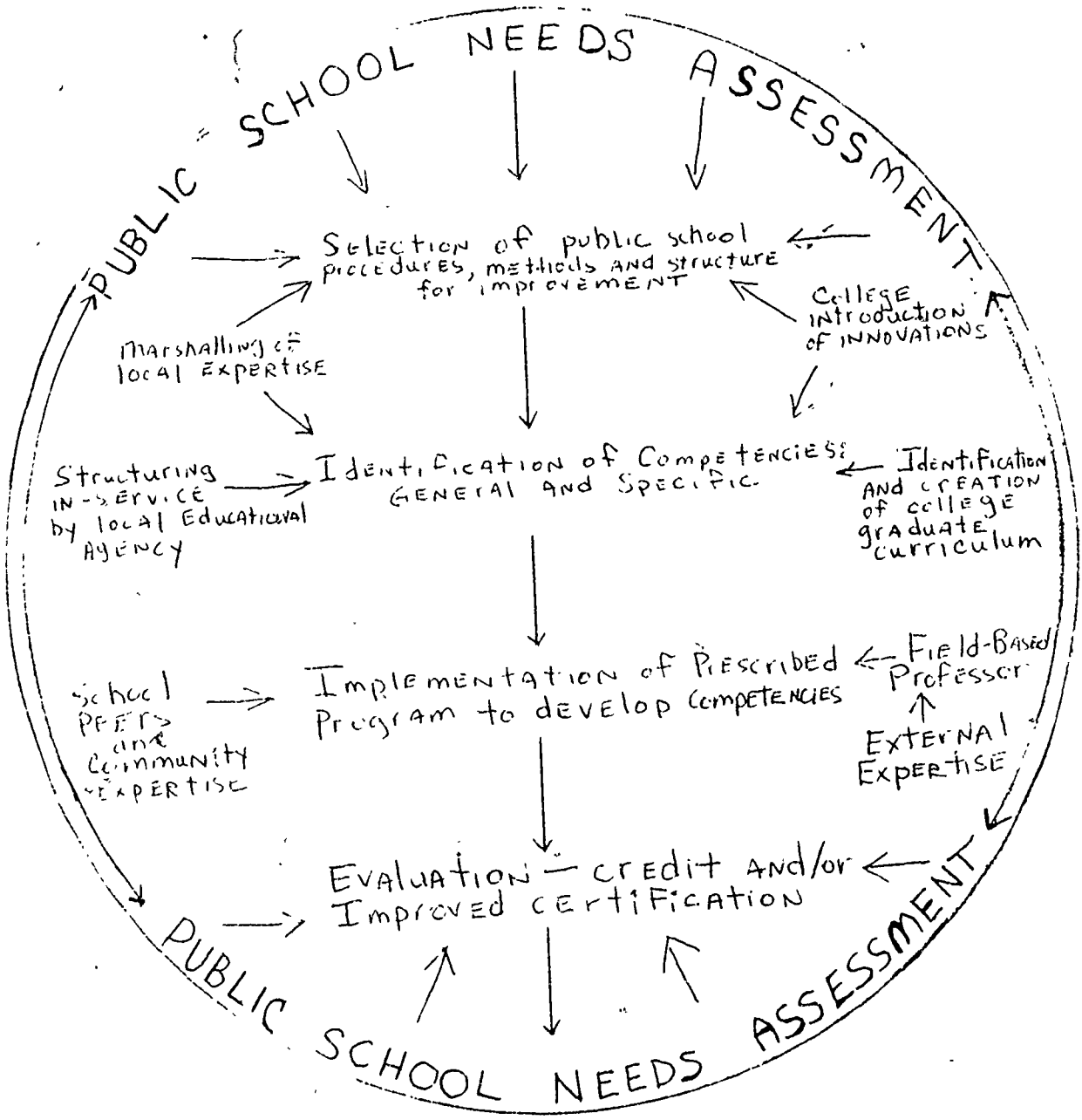
Graduate curriculum for educational practitioners should rely heavily upon needs assessments conducted by local school systems for structuring an

individual teacher's course of study. (See model) The identification of procedures, methods and organizational structures designed to rectify recognized deficiencies should grow from these continuous needs assessments as college and local personnel work cooperatively. Additionally, graduate credit should be extended to administrators and staff for developing and implementing competencies in conducting and interpreting results. This credit would be earned in actual daily working relationships with college professors, not in formal classroom situations.

Resulting recommendations from jointly conducted needs assessments would be utilized to define general and specific competencies needed by school personnel to implement needed educational change. The community, through some participatory device, should be involved in identifying competencies since some competencies would directly reflect community values and needs. This could be accomplished through inclusion of community members in all curriculum development activities on the local level as well as on the university's graduate council. The university would assure, upon the identification of needed competencies, that accrual of college credit would occur upon the evaluated mastery and implementation of competencies in the public school classroom. While formal college classroom learning situations might be needed in the model, a great deal of the instruction would occur through "modeling" and "interchange" with resident professors, consultants and classroom teachers in the public school classroom. The inclusion of resident professors in the process would help to assure a process where the college's curriculum could be implemented inside the teachers' classroom while furnishing feedback and guidance to the distant college. Unlike the suitcase professor-consultant, who comes in for a couple of days, makes esoteric suggestions in formal in-service settings,

A MODEL FOR GRADUATE CURRICULUM

IN THE 80's



and then departs, the resident professor would have constant and intimate contact with the public school classroom. The resident professor could also act as an intermediary between the college and the community to insure that local desires and complaints are heard and understood in the "ivory tower." Training and evaluative feedback performed in the above manner would assure a relevant graduate curriculum while bringing improvements to local schools.

Implementation of prescribed programs to correct assessed deficiencies through improved teacher and administrator competencies would consist of activities conducted by personnel from many different sources coordinated by resident professors. Local and college trainers would be utilized where appropriate and college credit would be controlled by the "gate-keeper" resident professors. This process would recognize and utilize the reality that not all expertise in educational matters is housed at the college but may be found in the local repair shop, newspaper or mayor's office. The college would be responsible for the inclusion of credit for these coordinated but revolutionary learning activities in the graduate courses of study for those local persons seeking improved certification. Additionally, the community would be responsible for the implementation of an in-service delivery system for these unique instructional procedures. Release time, after school, in-school, and before school sessions would be necessary in an instructional system of this nature.

Finally, the in-service instruction would be evaluated through continued needs assessment, thereby, furnishing new evidence to be utilized in identifying new needs and structuring new training. This process would insure both teacher and college curriculum accountability through a relationship between final product quality and initial needs assessment.

Assumptions and Recommendations for Developing Field-Based Curriculum in 1980's

The field-based graduate curriculum model for the 1980's should develop as a result of assumptions and predictions concerning future education and society. The following are some assumptions concerning anticipated developments (recommendations are intended to aid in the development of a future oriented movement in graduate curriculum):

I. The Purposes of Graduate Education

A. Assumptions
1. Graduate teacher education will include, as a separate component and alternative, the improvement of educational personnel as practitioners.
2. The current program of developing qualified staff in research and development in education will continue as one of the viable alternatives.
3. Pre-service instruction will be linked directly with in-service instruction as a continuous process (this assumes formal linkage between clusters of public school districts and schools of higher education).
4. The community and graduate students will have formal input in deciding the goals and objectives of the graduate school.
5. Graduate training is not currently producing effective practitioners. Excellence is defined upon competencies such as research capabilities.

B. Recommendations
1. For the practitioner degree, the college and State Department of Education should certify upon competencies.
2. On the job assessment of improved performance should be utilized to up-grade certification for both higher degrees and promotional achievements.
3. Colleges should develop a system granting meaningful membership to community members and students on the policy making body of the graduate school.

II. Program Design and Development

A. Assumptions
1. There are general competencies that apply in education and particular competencies that apply to particular specializations and geographic regions.
2. There are specific competencies that can be identified by local educators based upon needs assessments which will be in addition to general competencies.
3. The training of local instructional staff will be in programs of instruction built around local needs assessments rather than a group of separate unrelated courses selected by the graduate school or advisor.
4. The functions of the graduate school will be diffused throughout its service region.

III. Staffing and Program Implementation

A. Assumptions

1. Sources of expertise in implementing graduate practitioner programs are found at all levels of the profession and within the community as well as at colleges and universities.
2. The implementation of programs and the training of local staff will be done cooperatively among institutions, including local educational agencies and institutions of higher learning.
3. Instructional staff selection for conducting in-service and graduate credit should be based upon competencies defined by local needs assessment independent of an individual's degrees or level of certification.
4. Relevant graduate curriculum selected and evaluated according to local needs assessment can only be coordinated and implemented by professors who reside and work in the field.
5. Competencies need not be conveyed only through formal classroom instruction (modeling of behavior through demonstration is a vital method of instruction).
6. In-service graduate curriculum will utilize a wide variety of instructional resources and will not be based solely upon a single text.

B. Recommendations

1. In-service instructors should model the competencies that they instruct.
2. State, college and local educational agencies should pool resources to identify and secure a wide range of curriculum materials and experts to successfully teach desired local competencies.
3. Colleges should hire persons suited for field-based instruction and eliminate those unable to function in public school classrooms as models.
4. A process of identifying and utilizing resource persons at all levels should be implemented so local agencies have choices in selecting in-service instructional personnel.
5. Local educational agencies should form clusters with neighboring LEA's and contract with institutions of higher education to provide integrated preservice-inservice training programs to meet the local needs as defined by local needs assessments.

IV. Evaluation Activities

A. Assumptions

1. Evaluation will be continuous from pre-service through in-service.
2. Evaluation of graduate student practitioner performance will be based largely on needs assessments developed by cooperative college/school-community actions.

B. Recommendations

1. Insitutions of higher education should be responsible for follow-up evaluation of their graduates to improve their programs and assess in-service needs of their graduates in the field.
2. Non-university persons with defined competencies should serve with graduate faculty members in the evaluation of student programs.
3. Curriculum materials must be evaluated to assure that they do in fact teach the competencies for which they were designed.

APPENDIX

URBAN/RURAL SCHOOL/COMMUNITY COUNCIL

AND

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

STATEMENT OF AGREEMENT

Statement of Agreement covering cooperative action in implementing and operating a program of staff development in accordance with Financial Provisions and Sub-Contract Terms and Conditions as applied to the Wise County Staff Development Project.

Acting pursuant to the Financial Provisions and Sub-Contract Terms and Conditions as specified by the Wise County School Board for the Urban/Rural School Community Council and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, both parties enter into this agreement to offer joint services as outlined below.

ARTICLE I

Responsibility of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, College of Education

The Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, College of Education, agrees to perform the following functions:

To develop and conduct a staff development program as defined in the Wise County Urban/Rural Proposal and Critique of the project. Implement the Wise County Staff Development Program and assign the necessary staff (that are identified in the original proposal and critique to the project) for the period of time specified in the project.

Said program specifically includes:

1. To conduct in accordance with the specifications in the attached critique of the project:

   a. A nine-week summer workshop for 80 participants.

   b. A nine-week summer workshop at Mountain Empire Community College for six teacher aides who serve project classrooms (VPI staff, advisory only).

   c. Twenty hours of clinics for parents at the discretion of the School Community Council (schedule to be set no later than December 1, 1973).

   d. No less than nine credit quarter hours of staff development training for teachers who are identified as the "continuing group" during the 1973-74 school year.

   e. No less than twelve credit quarter hours of staff development training for teachers who are identified as the "new group" during the 1973-74 school year.

   f. A program for all teachers focused upon the relationship between career education and all other instructional programs taught by teachers.

   g. On-the-job monitoring and teacher assistance throughout the school year. (See Letter of Intent)

2. Said summer staff development program will be conducted according to the following schedule:

GROUP ONE - CONTINUING GROUP

June 18 - July 23	Sociology 505, Appalachian Sociology Sociology 504, Rural-Urban Ecology
August 1 - August 24	Sociology 407, Occupational Sociology EDCI 5021, Linguistic Theory & Reading

GROUP TWO - NEW GROUP

June 18 - July 23	EDCI 5060, Curriculum Construction EDCI 5091, Graduate Seminar: Utilizing Community Resources
August 1 - August 24	Sociology 407, Occupational Sociology EDAE 5066, Group Counseling and Guidance Procedures

3. To adhere to the following conditions or provisions:

   a. To provide off-campus training for the teachers, principals and teacher aides of the Big Stone Gap, East Stone Gap, and Appalachia Elementary Schools and offer a Master of Arts in Education as a by-product of that training. This training will not be considered as "off-campus," but an extension of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University's Master Degree program.

   b. Review and approval of this staff development agreement by a legal representative and project officer of the United States Office of Education.

4. Use of an Advisory Committee. Members of this committee will be determined by the Urban/Rural School Community Council. Said committee will meet at least once for pre-planning twice during the implementation of the training and once at the conclusion of the second year of the staff development program.

5. Evaluation of the program in terms of the behavioral objectives stated for the project.

6. The designation of a teacher educator on the staff who will coordinate educational matters for all the participants in the program.

7. A statement of staffing plans for the third year Staff Development Program from VPI&SU, College of Education, no less than thirty (30) days prior to the end of this contract.

8. The designation by name, title, and department, including the amount of time and inclusive dates, that each resident professor will be assigned to the project. This identification and designation shall be made no later than July 18, 1973.

9. The development of an organized plan for utilizing the resource expertise from several areas within the College of Education and Staff Development Program. This plan must be reviewed quarterly with the Urban/Rural School Community Council.

10. The identification of the specific staff resources by name, title, and department, including the amount of time and inclusive dates, each will be assigned to the project. This includes employment of two full-time staff members, and one half-time staff member with the qualifications designated in the proposal prospectus. These qualifications include no less than a doctorate degree in education.

11. To provide a Graduate Teaching Assistant to the project for a nine-month period for the purpose of providing more released time for the resident professors to work with individual program participants.

12. Participation in a join in-service training session in early August by the project staff and staff resources from other departments in the institution that are assisting the implementation of the Wide County Staff Development Project. The length of training, content, and agenda will be developed in cooperation with the Urban/Rural School Community Council, and the project advisory committee prior to August 10, 1973.

13. Identification of the competencies to be developed in each type of participant. These competencies must directly relate to implementing the programmatic goals of the respective schools within the cluster. Competencies selected for training focus during the summer workshops must be identified This includes specifying the learning activities to be used to develop these competencies. These items must be reviewed in a pre-planning meeting with the Urban/Rural School Community Council by August 10, 1973. (See Letter of Intent)

14. Developing training activities designed to teach participants to implement career education concepts as identified in the original critique of the project.

15. Preparing a detailed operational plan for conducting each course component of the training including specific dates and training sites.

16. The participants enrolled in the Staff Development Program will be exposed to all current concepts of career development.

17. The development of a detailed operational plan for conducting follow-up and technical assistance activities with the personnel participating in the summer training program. This includes specific dates and locations of scheduled activities. This plan would identify the additional competencies on which the follow-up activities will focus and specify the follow-up curriculum development activities. This overall plan for follow-up activities must be reviewed with the Urban/Rural School Community Council by September 1, 1973.

18. To participate in a two-day planning meeting in early September to plan training strategies with the Urban/Rural School Community Council and Project Advisory Committee. These strategies would be designed to rectify common weaknesses identified during the summer workshops.

19. To identify the specific responsibilities and activities of staff resources to accomplish the evaluation process.

20. To operate said program within the limits of the attached budget and specifically to operate within the limit of funds allocated in each sub-line item of said budget. Transfer of funds from one line item to another will not be allowed unless an amendment to said budget item is submitted to the Urban/Rural School Community Council, and subsequent approval to said amendment received.

21. To submit quarterly evaluation reports to the Urban/Rural School Community Council identifying program objectives that have been accomplished during said reporting period and the program objectives to be accomplished during the next reporting period. This includes a detailed quarterly plan that identifies the responsibilities and activities of all staff assigned to the project.

22. To evaluate the program and submit an overall report containing the program data and results to the Urban/Rural School Community Council within 30 days of the termination of the second year of the project.

23. To affirm that prior commitment established between Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University and the contractor, Urban/Rural School Community Council, concerning university credit arrangements and fiscal matters will be fulfilled.

24. To assure the development of educational software, including skills, objectives, learning activities, performance criteria, diagnostic tests, and supplemental materials over a multi-grade level range to be used in individualizing instruction in the areas of career education, reading and mathematics.

25. To furnish those documents required by the contractor for fulfillment of its staff development obligations.

26. To conduct the third year phase of the project with an equal level of man and resource effort for a project cost not to exceed $78,275.00 which includes consultant and staff travel and per diem and not less than $500.00 for instructional materials. Increased costs shall be subject to negotiation with the Urban/Rural School Community Council prior to the beginning of the third year phase.

27. To accept up to nine hours of transferred graduate credit earned by staff participants providing that credit is admissable by Virginia Polytechnic Institute Graduate School standards.

28. To grant a Master's degree at the completion of the proposed two-year staff development project to all participants who meet Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University standards as defined by written policies.

ARTICLE II

Responsibilities of the Urban/Rural School Community Council

The Urban/Rural School Community Council agrees to perform the following functions:

A. To reimburse Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University on a quarterly basis in accordance with the attached budget from funds awarded under the contract. Said reimbursement shall not exceed $78,275.00 for the period beginning June 10, 1973 through June 9, 1974. Said reimbursement is limited to expenditures incurred in the performance of the activities cited in Article I of this statement of agreement. Said expenditures incurred under this agreement must be in accordance with the terms and conditions of this contract between the Wise County School Board for the Urban/Rural School Community Council and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. For the purpose of this agreement the Wise County School Board shall act as fiscal agent.

B. To reimburse all participant travel, lodging and per diem expenses in the staff development program.

C. To purchase all instructional equipment needed for on-site teacher training.

D. To purchase all instructional materials and training needs for the staff development participants.

E. To reclaim all unexpended and unencumbered funds from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University at the end of the second fiscal year.

F. To provide office space and equipment, typewriters, and duplicating equipment for project staff and to provide classroom facilities and appropriate equipment necessary for conducting said training program.

G. To identify and select all staff development participants for the program as defined in the original proposal and critique of the project.

H. To coordinate and work with the project director in detailing the content and activities of the program.

I. To work jointly with the teacher education staff in conducting follow-up activities and technical assistance both through visitation and group meetings.

J. To arrange for other system personnel to learn about the new models and modifications being developed as a result of this program.

K. To withhold the final $5,000.00 of the federal funds awarded for this project until the final second year project director's report as required by the United States Office of Education has been submitted to the Urban/Rural School Community Council.

ARTICLE III

This agreement shall take place on the 10th day of June, 1973 and remain in effect for the duration of the project.

Whenever necessary, this agreement may be amended with the mutual consent of the Wise County School Board for the Urban/Rural School Community Council and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

This agreement is effective upon formal adoption of the Wise County School Board for the Urban/Rural School Community Council and official execution of the agreement by Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

STATEMENT OF INTENT

RE: STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROJECT
VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
URBAN/RURAL SCHOOL COMMUNITY COUNCIL

Based upon data received from the formative evaluation of the Staff Development Project, the following items represent statements of intent by the sub-contractor which were cooperatively derived from discussions between representatives of the College of Education, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, and the representative of the Urban/Rural School Community Council. We believe that these suggestions represent items, which if successfully initiated, can assist in maximizing potential benefits of the project to all concerned.

1. That significant efforts be made to identify the various groups of participants, e.g., administrators, special service personnel, aides, primary, intermediate and upper elementary personnel and that within human and financial resources available efforts be made to provide special interest or topical seminars directed toward their unique needs.
2. That individual conferences between resident faculty and each participant be conducted for the purposes of discussing individual progress, planning and expectations. Also that participants be evaluated on an individualized basis with the assumption that training and performance is related to prescriptive-diagnostic procedures leading to individualized training programs.

3. That increased time be devoted to participant sharing of ideas, discussion and interaction between participants in seminars and other less formal settings.

4. That resident faculty will provide additional assistance to participants in classroom planning and implementation strategies using such devices as demonstration teaching or video-tape analysis for follow-up discussions of instructional effectiveness.

5. That special consideration be given to the timing of major assignments, term projects, special reports, etc. to avoid conflict with major school related "peak periods."

6. That resident faculty will prepare a log schedule outlining activities proposed on a monthly basis and submit a log report monthly to College officials which outlines time distribution based upon specified categories of activities.

7. That training in the skills of developing individual learning packages be provided participants.

8. That additional specific training be designed and delivered regarding fusing basic learning skills with career education units.