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ABSTRACT

The first part of this learning package is a workbook designed to help teachers understand the concept of self-governance and appreciate the position that professional self-regulation is necessary to serve educational goals and teacher needs. Five units explore different aspects of the issue through pretest questions and answers, instructional objectives, assigned readings, role-playing exercises, brain-storming exercises, and other assigned tasks. The units cover (1) the meaning of self-governance; (2) arguments in opposition to self-governance; (3) self-governance in Iowa and elsewhere; (4) the relationship between self-governance and teacher needs, commitment, and accountability; and (5) the attitudes of various sectors of the educational community toward self-governance. A final test is provided to assess the reader's knowledge of the material covered. Although the goal of the packets is to present self-governance in the most positive light, opposing arguments are also explored. The second part of the learning package is a resource book which contains newspaper clippings, articles, and stories to be read in conjunction with the assignments in the workbook. (CD)

THE IOWA GOVERNANCE PACKET

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WORKBOOK

Prepared by the

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in cooperation with the

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PREFACE

The 1972 Delegate Assembly of the Iowa State Education Association (ISEA) passed a number of resolutions relating to teacher education and governance as prescribed by the ISEA, and appointed a Task Force to explore some delineated problem areas. One of the early needs identified by the Task Force was that of presenting governance of the education profession to the practitioner as a vital concept closely related to the day-to-day problems of teaching. The Iowa Governance Packet is an attempt to do that. The packet includes a Workbook of explanations and assignments and a Resource Book of selected readings cued to the assignments.

We are indebted to the original Task Force for the idea and first draft of the packet. The packet in its present form is the product of a later writing team of ISEA members who worked with staff from the ISEA and the National Education Association (NEA), both in Des Moines and in Washington, D. C.* It is our hope that those who use it will come to a clearer understanding of the relationship between self-governance and the needs of the profession. While several sections have been tailored to fit the Iowa situation, other state associations may find the packet adaptable to their own needs.

Richard L. Sweeney initiated and conducted the joint ISEA, Student ISEA, and NEA project to prepare the packet. Alpha Evans prepared the original materials and Richard W. Cortright of the NEA provided overall coordination. The packet was field tested at the University of Northern Iowa at Cedar Falls in the teacher preparation classes of William Dreier, Wayne P. Truesdell, and Thomas Berg, with the assistance of Clifford Bishop, chairperson of the original Task Force.

Walter L. Galvin, President
Iowa State Education Association

*See page 33 for names of members of the writing team.

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MAJOR CONCEPTS OF GOVERNANCE
OF THE EDUCATION PROFESSION

1. Governance applies in varying degrees to all levels of social organization.

2. Governance as it applies to the field of education refers to the orderly management of professional matters. Autonomy within the profession is covered by the term self-governance.

3. Many needs of educators can be met only if the educators are given the authority to make decisions about their profession.

4. Those involved in the work of schools have different opinions as to whether teachers must strive for self-governance of the profession.

5. A strong relationship exists between self-governance and the commitment of teachers to their profession, and also between self-governance and teacher acceptance of the concept of accountability.

RATIONALE

Within and outside the teaching profession there is considerable confusion as to the meaning of self-governance as it applies to teaching. Many see the push for self-governance as being a move to "control" education. It is important, therefore, that both preservice and in-service teachers take a careful look at the concept of self-governance in order that they may recognize that the teaching profession is a functioning entity in which unique roles are played by the participants. Those participants are only as effective as their independence and authority allows them to be.

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF THE IOWA GOVERNANCE PACKET

1. To acquire an understanding of the terms governance and self-governance as they apply to the teaching profession.

2. To become aware of the forces which oppose self-governance for the profession and to examine their premises.

3. To study the status of self-governance in Iowa in particular and the nation in general; to make comparisons between existing conditions of governance and the goal to be achieved.

4. To develop an awareness of the relationship between teacher needs and self-governance, between teacher commitment to the profession and self-governance, and between self-governance and teacher acceptance of the concept of accountability.

5. To recognize the role each unique professional group plays in identifying and dealing with the problems inherent in the work of schools, and to develop understanding as to what climate is most favorable for resolving those problems.

UNIT I

ASSESS WHAT YOU KNOW ABOUT THE TERMS GOVERNANCE AND SELF-GOVERNANCE

Before beginning Unit I, respond to the following statements by placing a check in the column of your choice. Check your response against the Answer Key on page 2.

TRUE	FALSE		
_____	_____	1.	The phrase governance of the profession is synonymous with the phrase control of education.
_____	_____	2.	Governance, self-regulation, and autonomy for the teaching profession are synonymous, all meaning the fixing of responsibility for professional decisions within the profession.
_____	_____	3.	The concept of governance is irrelevant to the solution of university problems relating to curriculum innovation.
_____	_____	4.	The local education association could be a force in bringing about governance of the profession.
_____	_____	5.	A responsibility of professional governance is to assure the competency of preservice and in-service teachers.

Answer Key

1. FALSE — Ultimate control of a publicly supported profession lies with the public.

2. TRUE

3. FALSE — Self-governance will mean that teachers will have direct influence on curriculum innovations and improvement.

4. TRUE — This is where change can be effected.

5. TRUE — That is a primary function of a state standards and practices board.

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF GOVERNANCE? OF SELF-GOVERNANCE?
HOW DO THESE DEFINITIONS APPLY TO THE TEACHING PROFESSION?

Instructional Objective

Upon completion of this unit the reader will be able to define in writing or by discussion the terms governance and self-governance as they are described in the readings listed and apply those definitions to conditions existing in the teaching profession today.

Learning Experiences

Task 1 Read a and b and one other resource.*

a. Darland, David D. "A Concept of the Profession." Teachers for the Real World. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. Excerpt from Chapter 11, pp. 136-40. (Resource 1.1)*

b. Excerpt from "What Does Governance Mean?" Today's Education 60: 20; December 1971. (Resource 1.2)

c. Jacoby, Susan. "What Happened When a High School Tried Self-Government." Saturday Review/Education 55: 49-53; April 1, 1972. Excerpts. (Resource 1.3)

d. Excerpt from "Governance for the Teaching Profession: A Working Paper." Washington, D. C.: National Education Assoication, November 1970. pp. 2-3. (Resource 1.4)

e. Sullivan, Neil V. "How Did We Lose the Wheel? Or: It's Time for a New System." Saturday Review/Education 55: 67; September 16, 1972. (Resource 1.5)

Task 2 a. Write a definition of the term governance.
Write a definition of the term self-governance.

b. Write a statement on how self-governance for the teaching profession could improve education.

c. If you are working with a group, share the opinion you gave in b with other members of the group.

*"Resource" references throughout this Workbook are keyed to the readings in the Resource Book.

Task 3 Read paragraphs a, b, and c below. Select one for discussion on the following bases: point of view of writer, implications for the profession, importance of these implications for you. If you are working independently, write a paragraph covering the three points; if you are working in a group, discuss them.

a. In nearly every state, the responsibility for the governance of the teaching profession lies with people who are not teachers. Decisions about teaching should be made, however, at the point of impact: the teacher. The profession is not yet governing itself; practitioners are not yet making determinations about the accreditation of teacher education programs.

"What To Tell Parents About Professional Self-Governance"
Today's Education, May 1973.

b. ...Since authority has to be earned, not imposed, in the last analysis, and its power lies in its capacity to gain acceptance, the kind of governance which will evoke such authority will have to be agreed upon. This may turn out to be something new -- maybe shockingly new....However, the assumption here is that while education may be too important to be left to the educators in one sense, it also requires too much experience and skill to be shared equally with alumni, public, or students.

Eldon L. Johnson
From Riot to Reason
University of Illinois Press

c. Practitioners, therefore, are actively seeking more responsibility for professional matters. They maintain it is neither feasible nor fair for them to be held accountable for whether or not Johnny and Jane and Hester and Paula learn to read or to understand math concepts or whatever until teachers also have the responsibility for making decisions about how reading teachers, math teachers, and other teachers should be trained, in what institutions they should study, who should be licensed to teach, and how teachers' skills can be kept up to date.

"What Does Governance Mean?"
Today's Education, December 1971

Task 4 Study the following summary on self-governance:

Self-governance means the teaching profession would have the right to establish and administer its own internal standards relating to:

- the licensing and advanced credentialing of all educational personnel.
- accreditation of institutions and programs of teacher education, including undergraduate, graduate, and in-service programs.
- the creation and adoption of a code of ethics and rules of procedure in accordance with established concepts of due process.
- protecting and guaranteeing the competent performance of members of the profession, again through established procedures.
- establishing the means of determining adequate conditions of learning and teaching.

"Self-Governance in Minnesota"
Minnesota Education Association

Task 5 Complete the following definitions. Base your definitions on the readings and activities carried out in previous tasks.

a. Governance of the profession means_____

_____

_____

_____

b. Self-governance of the profession means_____

_____

_____

_____

UNIT II

ASSESS WHAT YOU KNOW ABOUT OPPOSITION TO SELF-GOVERNANCE

Before beginning Unit II, respond to the following statements by placing a check in the column of your choice. Check your responses against the Answer Key on page 7.

TRUE	FALSE		
_____	_____	1.	If teachers are successful in achieving self-governance, the public will no longer control education or set school policy.
_____	_____	2.	All those involved in public education favor self-governance of the profession.
_____	_____	3.	All areas of governance are handled by a state standards and practices board.
_____	_____	4.	The achievement of self-governance will guarantee better education.
_____	_____	5.	Faculties of teacher education institutions support governance of the profession by K-12 teachers.

Answer Key

1. FALSE — Control ultimately resides with the public; it is only delegated to a state standards and practices board by law.

2. FALSE — Not yet.

3. FALSE — Governance also includes the work of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and regional accrediting commissions such as the North Central Association's Commission on Accreditation of Secondary Schools, and the implementation of professional negotiations.

4. FALSE — Better education for anyone cannot be guaranteed, but indications suggest that this is what will happen.

5. FALSE — Some faculties of teacher education institutions support self-governance of the profession. Some do not support K-12 classroom teachers as a majority group on a state standards and practices board.

WHAT FORCES OPPOSE SELF-GOVERNANCE OF THE EDUCATION PROFESSION? WHY? WHAT JUSTIFICATION DO THEY OFFER IN SUPPORT OF THEIR POSITION?

Instructional Objective

After having considered the statements, discussions, and readings, the reader will be able to identify the forces which oppose self-governance and what their objections are. He/she will be able to judge the quality and authenticity of each objection. The reader will further be able to recall reasons for opposition to self-governance.

Learning Experiences

Following are statements designed to illustrate some of the beliefs expressed by groups or individuals concerning self-governance of the teaching profession. Following each statement are discussions and readings. Read each statement, study the discussion statement and assigned reading, and complete the tasks. Each collection is utilized to justify a particular point of view.

A. School Problems

The teachers and schools are in trouble. Rather than solving their problems, which are not necessarily caused by those who govern the schools or by how they are governed, the teachers have turned their attention to such matters as self-governance to divert attention from the real issues.

Discussion

It is an understatement to say that we are living in troubled times as far as anything relating to education is concerned. All one has to do is to pick up, at random, books and journals written for the general public or for the profession of education, and one will become readily impressed with the extent of the problem and the publicity given it. Such books as Silberman's Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education or Weldon's Conflict in Our Schools are excellent examples. Numerous compilations, such as Controversy in American Education: An Anthology of Critical Issues, edited by Harold Full, or Crisis in Urban Education, edited by Lawrence A. Fink and Raymond A. Ducharme, or School Is Dead: Alternatives to Education by Everett Reimer, are examples of writing dealing with the many problems of the schools. And when the schools are in trouble, the teachers are in trouble and teacher education is in trouble.

Readings

Read Resource 2.1 -- Arguments Utilized To Justify Statement A.

Task 1

Reread statement A, then check the phrase which best expresses your reaction to it:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

B. Unified Profession

The so-called unified profession, or organized profession, is not really unified, nor does it represent all those individuals who make up the personnel involved in educational occupations at various levels. In fact, it could be argued that teaching is not, indeed, a profession!

Discussion

The organized teaching profession, as some educators call themselves, is trying desperately to become "organized" to fight the battles as the "profession" sees them. The term organized profession appears regularly in the literature of the largest of the teacher organizations, the National Education Association and its affiliates, who claim about 1,500,000 members. However, the newer term is united teaching profession. The next highest number of teachers belong to the American Federation of Teachers, whose enrollment probably totals around 400,000. These two organizations, either of which at times says otherwise, do not represent thousands of educators. For example, school administrators may not be represented. A token force of persons in higher education are accepted as being a part of the organized profession. For the purpose of this discussion, "the organized profession" refers to those who belong to such organizations as the National Education Association and specifically to the "leadership" of those groups.

The leadership of the organized profession is working at all levels with varying degrees of success on what they choose to call governance.

Readings

Read Resource 2.2 --

Chandler, B. J., et al. Education and the New Teacher. New York: Dodd, Mead, 1971. Excerpt from Chapter 12, "Teachers' Organizations," pp. 218-20.

(Optional)

a. Ibid., entire Chapter 12, pp. 217-28.

b. Campbell, Roald F., et al. The Organization and Control of American Schools. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970. Chapter 10, "The Teacher," pp. 270-300.

Task 2

Reread statement B. Check the phrase which best describes your reaction to statement B:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

C. Standards Board

The make-up of the professional standards board does not reflect proportional, broad representation of the various groups in the teaching profession.

Discussion

House File 573, introduced in the Iowa legislature in 1973, called for abolishment of the board of educational examiners and for establishment of a professional standards board to govern approval of teacher preparation programs and certification of teachers. (Another bill is to be introduced by the ISEA in 1975.)

Section I of House File 573 states that the standards board shall consist of the superintendent of public instruction, or his representative, who shall be a non-voting member, and fifteen members to be appointed by the governor, as follows: (1) two members from the education faculties of the public four-year colleges and universities which provide approved programs for teacher preparation; (2) one member from the education faculties of the private colleges and universities of the state which provide approved programs for teacher preparation; (3) two non-educator members, one of whom is a member of the state board of public instruction; (4) one superintendent of schools who holds appropriate certification and is actively engaged in administration; (5) one member who is a non-superintendent school administrator holding appropriate certification and who is actively engaged in administration in a secondary school of the state; (6) one member who is a non-superintendent school administrator holding appropriate certification and who is actively engaged in administration in an elementary school of the state; (7) seven members who are actively engaged in classroom teaching, which seven shall never include fewer than two elementary, two secondary, one area vocational school, and one area community college classroom teacher.

Any state organization representing members engaged in specified educational categories may nominate two persons for each appointment in the category. The governor is to give careful consideration to those nominated but is not restricted by the lists of nominees.

Readings

Read Resource 2.3 -- Background and History Utilized To Justify Statement C.

Task 3

Reread statement C. Check the phrase which best describes your reaction to the statement:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

D. Teacher/Teacher Education

Although the organized profession states that it wants to become completely involved in teacher education, it seldom gets involved with the total preparation program.

Discussion

Numerous resolutions have been proposed and passed by the National Education Association, by its various affiliates, and by other associations and bureaus that represent teachers. These are often filled with ambitious and optimistic statements about what teachers can do to make their voices heard on admissions to, preparation for, and retention in the profession. Little if any concrete evidence can be offered to date that much has actually been done to implement such positions.

Readings

Read Resource 2.4 -- Arguments Utilized To Justify Statement D.

(Optional)

Goodlad, John I. "The Reconstruction of Teacher Education." Teachers College Record 71: 61-72; September 1970. (Entire article, an excerpt from which is included in Resource 2.4) (Also in: Full, Harold, editor. Controversy in American Education. New York: Macmillan Co. 1972.)

Task 4

Reread statement D. Check the phrase which best describes your reaction to it:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

E. Society

Some parents of school children and youth, and the general public, feel that the teachers should deal only with problems of teaching and with the management of students. "We pay the teachers to teach our children, not to legislate; teachers do not have time to devote long hours to matters of self-governance."

Discussion

Most parents and the general public oppose teacher involvement in governance. This, in part, goes back to the feeling that the teaching profession at all levels is in a class with fire fighters, police officers, city clerks, and others paid from public funds: they should be public servants. Frankly, many citizens are afraid of the power tactics of such a group. Many feel also that if teachers have time to take part in self-governance, they should have time to teach more students and thus cut down the cost of education and their taxes.

Readings

Read Resource 2.5 --

O'Neil, Roy J. "A Role for Pupils, Parents, and Public." Counter-proposals for School Boards in Teacher Negotiations. Aurora, Ill.: Countersearch, 1972. pp. 195-96.

(Optional)

a. Ibid., Part I, "The Expanding Theory of Bargaining," pp. 1-4.

b. Ibid., Part VI, "The Opportunity of Crisis," pp. 181-227.

Task 5

Reread statement E. Check the phrase which best represents your feeling about the statement:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

F. Classroom Teachers

The individual classroom teacher is not really knowledgeable about or interested in self-governance. The paid personnel of the teacher organizations are the ones who are pushing the movement. Many teachers feel that there is more to be lost than gained.

Discussion

Self-governance is not usually at the top of the list of concerns of most teachers. They do not know exactly what it means or what is totally involved in self-governance. Many feel that the job of the teacher is to teach and not to govern. Most teachers are reluctant to take the responsibility necessary for true self-governance. The paid leadership of the professional organizations have been urging teachers to become involved in the promotion of self-governance and are quick to admit that the going is slow in selling the idea of self-governance to the average teacher.

Readings

Read Resource 2.6 -- Arguments Utilized To Justify Statement F.

Task 6

Reread statement F. Check the phrase which best describes your feeling about the statement:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

G. Administration

Some administrators and supervisors feel that their leadership roles are being threatened and consequently look at self-governance with disfavor; some feel that they could support self-governance if they were considered part of the profession.

Discussion

Many superintendents of schools, principals, supervisors, coordinators, guidance workers, school psychologists, and others agree with much that is advocated by teacher organizations. They would support self-governance if they could have what they themselves feel is their "rightful" part in policy making and in the execution of the policy.

Although the leadership of the NEA and its state affiliates list all of those groups mentioned previously as members of the profession and advertise that they are the united teaching profession, a rift has developed between the superintendents and principals and the NEA and its affiliates. Many persons and groups representing consultative and supervisory roles often feel they are "outsiders." Boards and commissions are being set up with few representatives of these groups.

Readings

Read Resource 2.7 -- Arguments Utilized To Justify Statement G.

(Optional)

Campbell, Roald F., et al. The Organization and Control of American Schools. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970. Chapter 7, "The Board of Education," pp. 166-99; Chapter 8, "The Superintendent of Schools," pp. 200-238.

Task 7

Reread statement G. Check the phrase which best describes your feeling about the statement:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

H. School Boards

Local school boards and school board associations in general feel that self-governance is intended to curtail the legal role of the boards of education, the legal representatives of the people who are taxpayers.

Discussion

Local school boards are generally opposed to self-governance by teachers. The school boards associations locally, statewide, and nationally have taken a stand against the concept. They contend that such a movement is intended to tie the hands of official boards who are the elected, legal representatives of the people. They, in some cases, permit professional negotiations -- perhaps as much as they feel absolutely must be allowed -- but they generally oppose the direction and extent of bargaining.

Readings

Read Resource 2.8 --

Damerell, Reginald, and Hillson, Maurie. "If Teachers Merge Into a National Union, They May Have To Work on Their 'Image.'" American School Board Journal 161: 61-63; January 1974.

(Optional)

O'Neil, Roy J. Counterproposals for School Boards in Teacher Negotiations. Aurora, Ill.: Countersearch, 1972. Part II, "Developing Legal and Quasi-Legal Approaches," pp. 23-53.

Task 8

Reread statement H. Check the phrase which most nearly represents your feeling about the statement:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

I. State Agencies

The state boards of education, state departments of public instruction, and state superintendents of schools feel that tneir legal roles of leadership will be taken over by teachers if the self-governance movement succeeds.

Discussion

State boards of education are composed of lay citizens who feel much the same as local school boards about autonomy for the teaching profession. They feel that their legal role is being threatened by professional employees who support self-governance. In addition to the general management of legal affairs affecting the elementary and secondary schools, they deal with such matters as accreditation of teacher education institutions -- public and private -- within the state. In some states their duties include the vocational-technical schools and junior colleges as well. In most states they have jurisdiction over licensure and certification of teachers. State boards are reluctant to delegate these responsibilities to another power base.

State departments of public instruction are composed of the professional educators employed by the state to carry out the educational programs of the state as formulated by the state board of education. They obviously feel that they have responsibility for many of the programs directed by the state board. These are professional educators who also feel they should be an integral part of decision-making groups within the profession.

Readings

Read Resource 2.9 --

DeYoung, Chris A., and Wynn, Richard. American Education. Seventh edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1972. Excerpts from Chapter 3, "State Systems of Education," pp. 98-108.

(Optional)

Ibid., entire Chapter 3, pp. 93-109.

Task 9

Reread statement I. Check the phrase which best describes your feeling about statement I:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

J. Higher Education

College and university accrediting agencies, organizations in higher education, and faculty members feel that their leadership is being challenged by teacher organizations that do not have teacher education as their main function and by those who are not familar with present-day teacher education.

Discussion

Teacher education faculty members and teacher education organizations are interested in improving standards for entrance to the teaching profession; they support the inclusion of training in the dynamics of intergroup communication and human relations; they have long advocated guidelines for qualifications of cooperating teachers; they have favored the formulation of standards for school systems receiving student teachers; and they favor steps being taken to improve the selection of persons entering the profession through more effective screening of applicants for the preprofessional practicum.

The leadership of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) has alerted their membership to the problem as they see it. One way of dealing with the problem would be to establish state units for AACTE to research and study the implications of self-governance

Readings

Read Resource 2.10 -- Arguments Utilized To Justify Statement J.

(Optional)

Denemark, George W., and Yff, Joost. Obligations for Reform. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1974. p. 52.

Task 10

Reread statement J. Check the phrase which best describes your reaction to statement J:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

K. Legislature

The legislators of the state feel that they are responsible for making the laws concerning the governance of teachers and schools and in setting up the machinery for enforcement. They feel that permitting the teachers to govern themselves would be an abdication of their rights and responsibilities.

Discussion

As with the boards of education, legislators think that self-governance is designed to take over the legal rights and responsibilities of those responsible for making the laws and enforcing them. They reason that teachers are public employees and as such should be under the direction of boards of education elected by the people to govern.

Readings

Read Resource 2.11 --

Vasconcellos, John. "Let's Do Something About Distrust Between Educators and Politicians." Compact 8: 2-4; May-June 1974.

Task 11

Reread statement K. Check the phrase which best describes your reaction to the statement:

a.___Mostly true b.___Partially true c.___Mostly false

UNIT III

ASSESS WHAT YOU KNOW ABOUT SELF-GOVERNANCE IN IOWA AND ELSEWHERE

Before beginning Unit III, respond to the following statements by placing a check in the column of your choice. Check your responses against the Answer Key on page 19.

TRUE	FALSE	
_____	_____	1. Iowa has an effective state standards board through which educators make the decisions.
_____	_____	2. No state has a board of members of the teaching profession that has been delegated the legal responsibility for licensure and accreditation.
_____	_____	3. The right to engage in professional negotiations is guaranteed by law to all teachers in Iowa.
_____	_____	4. The achievement of self-governance would allow teachers to determine in-service education.
_____	_____	5. Professional self-governance will relieve teachers of the responsibility for continuing education.

Answer Key

1. FALSE — As of February 1975, Iowa does not have a standards board.

2. FALSE — California and Oregon do (called "commission").

3. TRUE — The Public Employee Relations Act which allows for collective bargaining was adopted in 1974.

4. TRUE — In-service education as well as teacher centered professional development could be determined by teachers through their standards board.

5. FALSE — To the contrary, it should stimulate teachers to become more involved in relevant life-long continuing education because they will decide what that education will be.

WHAT IS THE STATUS OF SELF-GOVERNANCE IN IOWA?
HOW DOES THE STATUS OF SELF-GOVERNANCE IN IOWA COMPARE WITH THAT IN OTHER STATES?
WHAT SHOULD BE THE STATUS OF SELF-GOVERNANCE IN IOWA?

Instructional Objective

After having read about self-governance as it exists in Iowa and other states, the reader will be able to write a statement relative to the discrepancy existing between conditions of governance in Iowa and the goal to be achieved.

Learning Experiences

Task 1 Examine the following resources (if working in a group, divide them):

a ISEA Instruction and Professional Development. "Explanation of Professional Practices Commission and Professional Standards Board." Des Moines: Iowa State Education Association, 1972. (Resource 3.1)

b. Dittes, Ruth. "Establishing a Standards Board." Today's Education 60: 23; December 1971. (Resource 3.2)

c. NEA Instruction and Professional Development. Teacher Standards and Practices Commission: A Directory. Second edition. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1974. pp. 4-6, 15, 16, 18. (Resource 3.3)

d. "State of the Art: Teacher Knows (Teachers) Best," Learning 2: 12, October 1973; and "State of the Art: A Second Front in the Accountability Battle," Learning 2: 6, March 1974. (Reprinted by special permission of Learning, The Magazine for Creative Teaching, © 1973 and 1974 by Education Today Co., Inc., 530 University Avenue, Palo Alto, Calif. 94301.) Also: "Developments: Oregon Enacts Teacher Certification Act." Today's Education 62: 95; October 1973. (Resource 3.4)

Task 2 Complete the following activities in sequence:

a. View the NEA/IPD filmstrip-tape presentation, "Achieving Professional Governance." The filmstrip is available from the ISEA. (Script -- Resource 3.5)

b. Read one of the following resources:

Raskin, Bruce. "Teachers Helping Teachers." Learning 2: 29-32; September 1973. (Excerpt reprinted by special permission of Learning, The Magazine for Creative Teaching, © 1973 by Education Today Co., Inc., 530 University Avenue, Palo Alto, Calif. 94301.) (Resource 3.6)

c. O'Keefe, William. "Some Teacher-Centered In-Service Programs." Today's Education 63: 39-42; March-April 1974. (Resource 3.7)

"NEA Eyes Des Moines for Teacher-Training Project." Des Moines Daily Register. (Resource 3.8)

c. Examine Resource 3.9 -- House File 573, "A bill for an act to establish a professional standards board...," 1973. Then put into your own words -- in writing, or discuss in a group -- how you would tell another person about the proposed bill. Do you support the bill?

d. In 1975 the ISEA will support new governance legislation. Obtain a copy from the ISEA.

e. Read Resource 3.10 -- Wise, Helen. "Is Teacher Advocacy Compatible With Professionalism?" Today's Education 62: 4-5; September-October 1973.

Task 3 Complete the following activities in sequence:

a. If you are in a group, brainstorm what would happen if teachers gained autonomy over their profession. Record suggestions on newsprint or chalkboard. Limit yourself to five minutes. If you are working alone, record on paper all of the possibilities you can think of -- in five minutes.

b. Consider the possibilities recorded and prioritize them by placing a number (1, 2, 3, etc.) before each. Try to reach a consensus if in a group.

c. Place a check before those changes that are possible now under the existing governance structure in Iowa.

Task 4 Write a position statement expressing your feelings about the discrepancy existing between conditions of governance in Iowa and the goal to be achieved.

UNIT IV

ASSESS WHAT YOU KNOW ABOUT THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-GOVERNANCE AND TEACHER NEEDS, TEACHER COMMITMENT, AND TEACHER ACCEPTANCE OF THE CONCEPT OF ACCOUNTABILITY

Before beginning Unit IV, respond to the following statements by placing a check in the column of your choice. Check your responses against the Answer Key on page 23.

TRUE	FALSE	
_____	_____	1. To many teachers, self-esteem and commitment are directly related to the degree of self-governance they enjoy.
_____	_____	2. Decisions involving professionally technical matters such as certification of teachers are now made by the public.
_____	_____	3. Teaching is the only profession in which initial licensure standards are still in the hands of laymen rather then practitioners of the profession.
_____	_____	4. Self-governance has little relationship to teacher accountability.
_____	_____	5. Only the professional educator must be held accountable in the education process.

Answer Key

1. TRUE This may be the basic reason for needing self-governance.

2. TRUE Most members of state standards and practices boards are not professional educators.

3. TRUE Unfortunately.

4. FALSE Teachers cannot be fully accountable until they decide who enters the teaching profession.

5. FALSE School board members, legislators, and the public as well as professional educators should be held accountable.

HOW DOES THE SELF-GOVERNANCE ISSUE RELATE TO THE NEEDS OF TEACHERS?
TO THE COMMITMENT OF TEACHERS TO THE PROFESSION?
TO TEACHER ACCEPTANCE OF THE CONCEPT OF ACCOUNTABILITY?

Instructional Objective 1

After assessing the discrepancy between the existing governance structure superimposed on the profession and the ideal structure which would give autonomy to the profession, the reader will be able to list five needs which can be met through self-governance. He/she will be able to justify each need and be able to present reasonable proof that the need can be met through self-governance.

Learning Experiences

Task 1 Assess the existing governance structure by selecting and studying three of the following resources:

a. Haberman, Martin, and Stinnett, T. M. "Other Regulatory Processes" and "Analysis of Advisory Councils on Teacher Education and Certification." Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching. Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973. Excerpts from pp. 12-15. (Resource 4.1)

b. Ibid., excerpts from Chapter 2, "Legal Requirements for Teaching," pp. 17-24. (Resource 4.2)

c. Myers, Donald A. "A Conceptual Scheme." Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction. Dayton, Ohio: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970. pp. 6-13. (Resource 4.3)

d. "Licensure and Accreditation in Selected Professions." Today's Education 60: 2-3; December 1971. (Resource 4.4)

e. "Powers and Responsibilities of State Teacher Standards and Practices Commissions/Boards." Teacher Standards and Practices Commissions: A Directory. Second edition. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1974. Table 1, p. 15. (Resource 4.5)

f. "Oregon Teachers Take Control of Teacher Preparation and Licensing." Phi Delta Kappan 55: 646; May 1974. (Resource 4.6)

Task 2 Demonstrate your understanding of the existing system of governance by carrying out one of the activities listed below. If you are working with a group, use activity d.

a. Draw an essay-type cartoon ("Peanuts"-style) illustrating the power structures that would have to be dealt with in an instructional improvement project.

b. Draw an editorial-type cartoon reacting to the status of teacher certification and licensure in a state of your choice. Give your cartoon a caption.

c. Write a statement suggesting how problems could be solved by self-governance.

d. With others in your group, spend at least ten minutes in discussion of the references you read for task 1.

Task 3 Read two of the following resources:

a. Darland, David D. "A Design for a Self-Governing Entity." Teachers for the Real World. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. pp. 141-49. (Resource 4.7)

b. Hepburn, Mary. "A Case of Creeping Censorship, Georgia Style." Phi Delta Kappan 55: 611-13; May 1974. (Resource 4.8)

c. Haberman, Martin, and Stinnett, T. M. "Future Requirements" and "New Vistas." Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching. Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973. pp. 25-27. (Resource 4.9)

d. "How Will Governance Help Me Teach Better?" Today's Education 60: 24-25; December 1971. (Resource 4.10)

Task 4 Brainstorm as many teacher needs as you can in five minutes. Record them for future reference.

Task 5 Do the following activities in sequence:

a. Consider your list of needs recorded for task 4. Place a plus sign (+) before those you believe could be met under the existing governance structure in Iowa; place a minus sign (-) before those dependent on governance reform. If you are working in a group, try to reach consensus.

b. Prioritize your needs by placing numbers 1, 2, 3, etc., before them.

Task 6 To synthesize the information you have obtained from the readings, activities, and discussions, select one or more needs dependent on governance reform and write a justification for it/them. Include reasonable proof that the need(s) cannot be met under present governance conditions.

Instructional Objective 2

After having considered the evidence gained from a prescribed set of learning experiences, the reader will be able to make a decision as to the relationship between the commitment of teachers to the profession and the degree of autonomy they enjoy.

Learning Experiences

Task 1 Read a and one other resource:

a. Bunke, Joan. "Games Teachers Play." Des Moines Sunday Register, November 4, 1973. p. 6. (Resource 4.11)

b. Bailey, Stephen K. "Teachers' Centers: A British First." Phi Delta Kappan 52: 146-49; November 1971. (Resource 4.12)

c. Kimball, Roland B. "A Study of Rewards and Incentives for Teachers." Phi Delta Kappan 55: 637-38; May 1974. (Resource 4.13)

d. Lickona, Thomas. "Excellence in Teacher Education." Today's Education 62: 89-91; September-October 1973. (Resource 4.14)

e. Harris, James. "The Role of Professional Associations in the Improvement of Instruction." Today's Education 63: 5; September-October 1974. (Resource 4.15)

Task 2 Synthesize in writing the relationship between self-governance and commitment of teachers to the profession. Include in the statement the difference between governance of the profession and governance of education. If you are working with a group, discuss the relationship as you see it.

Instructional Objective 3

Upon completion of prescribed learning experiences the reader will be able to make a decision as to the relationship between self-governance and teacher acceptance of the concept of accountability.

Learning Experiences

Task 1 Discuss accountability as it relates to governance on the basis of the resources listed on the next page. If you are working independently, write your discussion.

a. Weingartner, Charles. "Some Ruminations on the Hazards of Trying To View What Lies Ahead by Squinting Through a Small Posterior Aperture." Media and Methods 9: 22-29, 119; February 1973. (Copyright 1973 by North American Publishing Co., Philadelphia.) (Resource 4.16)

b. Bain, Helen. "Self-Governance Must Come First, Then Accountability." Phi Delta Kappan 51: 413; April 1970. (Historic position of the NEA on accountability.) (Resource 4.17)

UNIT V

WHO ARE THE EDUCATION PROFESSIONALS? WHAT UNIQUE ROLES DO THEY ASSUME?
HOW DO THEY IDENTIFY AND DEAL WITH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION?
WHAT CLIMATE IS MOST FAVORABLE FOR DEALING WITH THOSE PROBLEMS?

Instructional Objective

After having experienced vicariously the roles which teachers, administrators, legislators, board members, state commissioners of education, teacher educators, and students play in educational decision making, the role-players will recognize the need for self-governance of the teaching profession and be able to give evidence of their understanding by participating in a discussion of autonomy for the profession.

Learning Experiences

Task 1 Read Resource 5.1 --

Myers, Donald A. "The Way Things Are--Decision Making in School Systems." Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction. Dayton, Ohio: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970. pp. 1-5.

Task 2 Complete the following activities in sequence:

a. Play the Governance Game. Games are available from the ISEA.

b. Tabulate and analyze the responses on the tally sheet on page 6 of the instruction folder in the Governance Game.

c. With the members of your group, discuss the significance of the Governance Game. Use the three questions in column 2, page 5 of the instruction folder as a basis for your discussion.

d. Engage in a discussion of at least five minutes on the resolution, "Teachers need to govern their own profession." Participants may assume their original Governance Game roles or shuffle the role cards and draw for new roles. The debate may be taped for play-back and critiquing.

Task 3 Read the following resources:

a. "What To Tell Parents About Professional Self-Governance." Today's Education 62: 26-27; May 1973. (Resource 5.2)

b. Jacoby, Susan. "Community Control Can Work." Learning 2: 51-54; December 1973. (Resource 5.3)

c. Richards, Arlene. "What Do Students Really Want?" Today's Education 60: 57-58; April 1971. (Resource 5.4)

Task 4 In one paragraph summarize the position of K-12 students or parents about self-governance of the profession.

Task 5 (Optional) Synthesize the information you gained from the references in tasks 1 and 3 by designing your own Governance Game. Make it a board game which takes the teacher down a winding path from Lay Control to Autonomy. Be sure to include both delay and advancement features; use either cards or a spinner to advance playing pieces. Examples of cards:

-- Your school board voted to cut back the kindergarten program, and the local association of which you are a member did nothing about it. Go back three spaces.

-- You have become mired in the Great Swamp of the Status Quo. Lose two turns.

-- Your state has just passed a public employees negotiations bill. Move ahead six spaces.

-- You are an active member of a professional association. Advance two spaces.

SUMMARY

ASSESS WHAT YOU NOW KNOW ABOUT GOVERNANCE OF THE PROFESSION

Respond to the following statements. Check your answers against the Answer Key on page 31.

TRUE	FALSE		
_____	_____	1.	To many teachers, self-esteem and commitment are directly related to the degree of self-governance they enjoy.
_____	_____	2.	The phrase governance of the profession is synonymous with the phrase control of education.
_____	_____	3.	The achievement of self-governance would allow teachers to determine in-service education.
_____	_____	4.	Decisions involving professionally technical matters such as certification of teachers are now made by the public.
_____	_____	5.	Iowa has an effective state standards board through which educators make the decisions.
_____	_____	6.	The right to engage in professional negotiations is guaranteed by law to all teachers in Iowa.
_____	_____	7.	Professional self-governance will relieve teachers of the responsibility for continuing education.
_____	_____	8.	The concept of governance is irrelevant to the solution of university problems relating to curriculum innovation.
_____	_____	9.	Governance, self-regulation, and autonomy for the teaching profession are synonymous, all meaning the fixing of responsibility for professional decisions within the profession.
_____	_____	10.	No state has a board of members of the teaching profession that has been delegated the legal responsibility for licensure and accreditation.
_____	_____	11.	Self-governance has little relationship to teacher accountability.

_____ _____ 12. Faculties of teacher education institutions support governance of the profession by K-12 teachers.

_____ _____ 13. A responsibility of professional governance is to assure the competency of preservice and in-service teachers.

_____ _____ 14. All areas of governance are handled by a state standards and practices board.

_____ _____ 15. Teaching is the only profession in which initial licensure standards are still in the hands of laymen rather than practitioners of the profession.

_____ _____ 16. The local education association could be a force in bringing about governance of the profession.

_____ _____ 17. The achievement of self-governance will guarantee better education.

_____ _____ 18. Only the professional educator must be held accountable in the education process.

_____ _____ 19. If teachers are successful in achieving self-governance, the public will no longer control education or set school policy.

_____ _____ 20. All those involved in public education favor self-governance of the profession.

Answer Key

1. TRUE This is perhaps the basic reason for needing self-governance.

2. FALSE Ultimate control of a publicly supported profession lies with the public.

3. TRUE In-service education as well as teacher centered professional development could then be determined by teachers through their state standards board.

4. TRUE Most members of state standards and practices boards are not professional educators.

5. FALSE As of February 1975, Iowa does not have a professional standards board.

6. TRUE The law was passed in 1974.

7. FALSE Rather, it should stimulate teachers to become more involved in relevant life-long continuing education because they will decide what that education will be.

8. FALSE Self-governance will mean that teachers will have direct influence on curriculum innovation and improvement.

9. TRUE

10. FALSE California and Oregon do (called "commission").

11. FALSE Teachers cannot be fully accountable until they decide who enters the teaching profession.

12. FALSE Some faculties of teacher education institutions support self-governance of the profession. Some do not support K-12 classroom teachers as a majority group on a state standards and practices board.

13. TRUE That is a primary function of a state standards board.

14. FALSE Governance also includes the work of NCATE and regional accrediting commissions, and negotiations.

15. TRUE Unfortunately.

16. TRUE This is where change can be effected.

17. FALSE Better education for anyone cannot be guaranteed, but indications suggest this is what will happen.

18. FALSE School board members, legislators, and the public as well as professional educators should be held accountable.

19. FALSE Control ultimately resides with the public; it is only delegated to a board by law.

20. FALSE Not yet.

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To the Reader

CONGRATULATIONS!

You have completed The Iowa Governance Packet. We would appreciate knowing what you think about it. Please write or phone:

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THE IOWA GOVERNANCE PACKET

****

RESOURCE BOOK

Prepared by the

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INTRODUCTION

The Iowa Governance Packet is a self-contained learning package which includes a Workbook and a Resource Book. The Workbook is a set of five units, each covering an important aspect of governance of the education profession. The units consist of a short pre-test (except Unit V), instructional objectives, learning experiences, and tasks to be completed. Among the tasks are assigned readings which are to be found in this Resource Book.

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Unit I

From: Darland, David D. "Preparation in the Governance of the Profession." Teachers for the Real World. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. Chapter 11.

A Concept of the Profession

If teachers are to have control of their own affairs, it is essential that a distinction be drawn between the control of education and the governance of the teaching profession. This assumes that this governance be delegated to a variety of professional organizations, agencies, boards, and commissions with clearly defined responsibilities. Such an entity will establish necessary checks and balances to protect the public interest as well as generate and disseminate the power of the teaching profession. Those who are the best qualified in any given aspect of a profession should be involved in the policy- and decision-making processes in the public interests. Contrary to popular opinion, public and professional interests are usually not in conflict.

The people of the United States are involved in a great social revolution. Teachers have habitually reflected, not led, the forces of society. The setting in which teachers find themselves today demands more dynamic and intelligent leadership, especially in the professionalization of teachers. Their professional integrity is at stake.

If the teaching profession is to acquire and maintain the intellectual strength and the political power necessary in these times, a new concept of the professional must be created. This concept must include new structures and functions—in short, a professional entity.

The importance of the control and proper support of education is inextricably involved with teaching. But the subject here is the teaching profession and its governance, rather than the control of education.

The social revolution in America directly affects the teaching profession. There are two concurrent, related power struggles. One is over who is to control education and the other is how and by whom the teaching profession is to be maintained and governed.

The teaching profession today is highly vulnerable. Because of its lack of maturity as a professional entity, there is neither the backlog of precedent nor adequate professional protection for those who wish to be heard on issues vital to education and the teacher. Of course, teachers should not control education, but they should be in a position to be heard, and they should govern their own profession.

Education at the elementary and secondary levels was organized before there was any semblance of an education profession. It became customary for lay boards not only to control education but to govern the profession of teaching. There was almost no distinction drawn between them. It is only recently that teachers have moved decisively toward professionalization. Yet in many areas laymen are still, today, having to make decisions of a professional nature. Control of the profession by laymen is so entrenched that it is very difficult to understand the importance of differentiating between control of education and governing of the profession. Acceptance of this difference is essential if the teaching profession is to function in the best interests of society.

It is this process of differentiation that is now causing so much concern. Precisely because teachers are moving rapidly toward maturing as a professional force, toward creating their own instruments of governance, is concern being voiced by the traditionalists.

The attention of teachers is easily diverted to the support of a professional organization as an end in itself. Jurisdictional conflicts are thus created. The organization becomes the end, and the internecine conflict among organizations consumes the energy and displaces constructive programs needed for development of an effective profession.

A concrete example is the AFT-NEA feud. This is not to say that the conflict is not real. It is. But it is peripheral to the issue of teaching becoming a professional entity, capable of responsible self-government. Organizations which use their energies to produce such an entity must ultimately receive the backing of the majority of teachers and of the American people. If this is true, there is strong reason for classroom teachers to recognize that jurisdictional battles are a waste of energy and that great professional issues go begging as long as this goal displacement prevails. When enough classroom teachers discover that it is they who are being weakened and divided, not school boards, college professors, or administrators, there will be a more vigorous thrust toward making teaching a professional entity.

Meanwhile, it is urgent that attention be given to evolving a conceptual design for a professional entity. This idea requires careful delineation and must be viewed in the context of its assumptions. Some of these assumptions are:

1. Teaching is a highly complex endeavor involving ever greater techniques and never-ending knowledge of the highest order.
2. Teaching requires continuous education relevant to the needs of the practitioner.
3. Teaching assumes the necessity of the involvement of practitioners in establishing their own patterns of self-improvement and patterns of professional governance. (Intrinsic motivation is essential.)
4. Teaching assumes that the vital point is what takes place between teacher and child or youth. (It involves both the affective and cognitive domains.)
5. Teaching assumes the need to have a supportive staff of specialists for the teacher to draw upon at all times for assistance.
6. Teaching assumes the inextricable relationship between the conditions in which children attempt to learn and a teacher to teach, and success in these endeavors.

The above list could be expanded but these assumptions are enough to illustrate the imperative need for the practitioners of all areas, levels, and specialties in the teaching profession to recognize that none of these can be accomplished unless there are ways to support them with continuing action programs. For example, perennial education for teachers will hardly be relevant to their needs unless teachers are involved in determining the nature of such education. And that requires professional government.

Currently, the teaching profession is composed of a loose federation of groups and individuals which operate quite independently. It is not uncommon for two groups to have a common, stated goal but, because of the professional anarchy which prevails, one group often neutralizes the other.

Ideally, the teaching profession should build an entity which ensures for all practitioners certain well defined rights and opportunities for effective service. Such an entity is not a single organization. It is rather a profession: a planned integration of interrelated individuals and groups with no fixed physical dimensions, each group with specialized functions, all directed toward common purposes.

In the teaching profession there are dozens of interests and forces to be reconciled. The anatomy or structure of the profession has

been defined to include the segments and the practitioners within each segment listed below.

1. Those who teach or carry out other professional activities in preschool programs and in elementary and secondary schools.
2. Those who teach or carry out other professional activities in colleges and universities.
3. Professional personnel in state departments of education and other governmental agencies such as the United States Office of Education.
4. Professional personnel in organizations directly related to teaching at any level.
5. Professional personnel in voluntary accrediting agencies involved with accreditation of educational institutions.[1]

Each of the groups mentioned functions in the setting of noncommercial institutions, professional agencies, or governmental agencies. The term "teacher" is used to include all members of the teaching profession and is differentiated from the term "classroom teacher."

The setting in which teachers are employed appears to have had rather profound influence on them. For example, a recent survey[2] reveals that persons employed in elementary and secondary settings tend first to be *loyal to their individual school (or system);* second, to their level or area of teaching; and only third to the precepts and commitment of the profession. One might be a little uneasy if one felt that such a condition prevailed in medicine.

There is considerable evidence that provincialism is a strong force among teachers: for example—

1. the mutual distrust between people from lower education and higher education,
2. the state and regional loyalties that emerge at any national educational forum,
3. the fact that the teaching profession tends to pattern its organization upon the way in which *education is organized* rather than create a new pattern which is independent and autonomous.

The last point is especially troublesome. Great reliance is placed upon the role of local teacher organizations and their relationships with local boards of education in matters which far transcend the capability of much of the currently established professional machinery. Of course, local professional groups could handle many of their own professional problems if they had clear, well defined, and fixed responsibilities. For example, they could develop and carry on an agreed-upon perennial education program, designed by and for teachers.

There is a multiplicity of professional matters that cannot be satisfactorily handled at a local level: for example, serious cases involving competence and ethics. Here the profession must depend upon peer judgment, but such judgment should be made by those outside the setting of the problem and not personally acquainted with or professionally related to the institution involved. Teachers must have professional protection and responsibilities and commitments which transcend their local systems, but there is still a great need for strong local professional groups. These require machinery for professional governance managed by professionals and sanctioned by law. Such a plan does not deny the important role of local groups but illustrates the importance of a design of operation different from and independent of the way education is organized and controlled.

Today there are few considerations more important to a profession than a standard of living which allows a practitioner to have job security and to build an adequate retirement. Security once vested

in property is now vested in job security and retirement, but so far the teaching profession has not adjusted to this change. In a country where teachers must be mobile, little attention is paid to the need for a universal retirement system which makes crossing state boundaries irrelevant. Few teachers even dream of independence in such matters. The best retirement plan for teachers to date sets up reciprocal relationships among states permitting teachers to transfer or buy into state retirement systems.

The teaching profession should design a true retirement system whereby employer and employee contributions are placed in individual accounts and held there until retirement or death. Some large business corporations do this without letting state boundaries inhibit them. But the teaching profession is so tied to the way education is organized that it behaves as though its own pattern must be consonant with that of the state system. After all, the thinking goes, education is a state function.

Teachers are equally inhibited by the fact that teaching is a "public" profession. Therefore, it follows that the "public" may decide upon professionally technical matters such as certification of teachers and evaluation of teachers. But these decisions should be made by the ones best qualified to make them in the interest of the public welfare. If teaching were already a professional entity, such decisions would be made without question by the professionals.

It is important to keep in mind that what is being advocated here is the idea that a profession should govern itself and assume the responsibility for decisions best made by professionals. Of course, the control of all professions is ultimately vested in the people. But the delegation of rights and responsibilities to a profession has substantial precedent in our society. To delegate such rights either by agreement, law, or precedent does not mean that the people give up these rights. It is, of course, implicit that when the right of professional governance is afforded any given profession, it be upon the premise of built-in guarantees, so that self-serving zeal does not supersede the public welfare. This is why the teaching profession must be a functioning entity rather than a monolithic organization. The very nature of successful teaching derives from the involvement which the process of self-government provides. This is the essence of intrinsic motivation which provides the dynamics of self-fulfillment, improvement, productive change, and intellectual liberation.

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SPECIAL FEATURE ON GOVERNANCE OF THE PROFESSION

What does governance mean?

☐ **Governance . . . self-regulation . . . autonomy for the** teaching profession. By whatever name, the meaning is the same: the fixing of responsibility for professional decisions with the teaching profession.*

As the largest group within the teaching profession, practitioners currently have two concerns: that the profession acquire legal responsibilities which it has not had in the past and that practitioners have parity in those responsibilities.

In the past, almost everybody but the teacher has called the tune in education. Teachers have traditionally taken direction from others—local and state school boards, legislators, parents, powerful community leaders. Because most teachers are paid from public funds, many think of them as public servants, and, as such, subject in all matters to the whims of the taxpayers.

That concept is changing. With the increased public demand that teachers be accountable for the learning of children, the entire teaching profession is taking a new look at what is needed to improve teaching and learning. And some members of the profession (among them leaders of NEA) are concluding that teachers are not able to teach as well as they know how to teach because they unfortunately have little control over their profession.

Practitioners, therefore, are actively seeking more responsibility for professional matters. They maintain it is neither feasible nor fair for them to be held accountable for whether or not Johnny and Jane and Hector and Paula learn to read or to understand math concepts or whatever until teachers also have the responsibility for making decisions about how reading teachers, math teachers, and other teachers should be trained, in what institutions they should study, who should be licensed to teach, and how teachers' skills can be kept up to date.

Evaluation, important in assessing both educational outcomes and practitioner performance, is an area in which teachers have never had parity. Teachers can and will evaluate their own and each other's teaching if such evaluation is for the diagnosing of teaching strengths and weaknesses rather than for the purpose of renewing or not renewing a contract. Of course, such matters as contract renewals have to be considered, but the main purpose of evaluation should be to improve teaching performance. In the past, teachers have rarely been helped by evaluation; they have merely been judged.

If education is to improve, school districts must tap the collective wisdom of local teachers associations. Frequently when school boards and/or administrators enter into a performance contract or a plan for differentiated staffing, they do not really involve teacher groups. Because teachers will be a vital part of the success or failure of such programs and because they know much about the advantages and pitfalls involved, they should be quarterbacking and carrying the ball, not sitting in the stands.

Teachers are insisting that school boards and administrators and the lay public recognize the professional expertise of practitioners. Teachers are beginning to negotiate contracts that include items related to improvement of instruction, such as teacher assignment, curriculum material evaluation, and nonprofessional duties. Teachers are also asking state legislatures to adopt standards and licensure legislation that will give the profession the legal right to govern itself.

The fact that teachers want to govern their profession does not mean that they want to control education. Tax-paying citizens (including teachers) are the ones who should decide on the goals and financing of schools, but professionals should decide on how the goals can best be accomplished....

Saturday Review/Education, April 1, 1972

WHAT HAPPENED WHEN A HIGH SCHOOL TRIED SELF-GOVERNMENT

by Susan Jacoby

An unusual high school governing board that includes students, teachers, and administrators was a major issue in a board of education campaign last fall in Westport, Connecticut. A conservative candidate, speaking before the students of Staples High School, said one reason for his opposition to the school's governing board was that student members could not possibly feel free to speak their minds in the presence of teachers.

"You're lying," said one student in the audience. "Some of my best friends are teachers."

One of the most tangible accomplishments of the Staples Governing Board (SGB), now in its third year, has been the discovery that students and teachers can work side by side as equals.

SGB is not a traditional student government, concerned primarily with proms and pep rallies. Composed of ten students, seven teachers, and three administrators, it is an attempt to give students a voice in cooperative educational decision-making. Subject to the general authority of the local school board, the SGB is authorized to legislate in a wide variety of areas: curriculum, student-behavior codes, school-community relations, and extracurricular activities.

The board exercises more influence than an outside observer would have expected from a group that includes both high school sophomores and vice principals. Voting does not break down along student-faculty lines; educational "conservatives" and "liberals" are found among both faculty and student representatives. Significantly, the inadequacies of the SGB resemble those of other local governing bodies more than those of a traditional student government. Because the board exercises some measure of real power, it is confronted with real governmental problems.

Last winter when the SGB passed a bill calling for major changes in the school's system of final examinations, the proposal aroused considerable opposition from both students and faculty. The principal exercised his right of a "suspensive veto," which can be overridden by a 75 per cent majority vote of the SGB. The governing board is now hard at work on an alternate proposal that would be more agreeable to all. "One day it all clicks," says Jeanne Spinner, a talkative senior who has served on the board since it was established. "You're listening to the radio about something going on in Congress and you think, 'Aha, I really know what they're talking about. I've been through something like it.' The SGB really gives you an idea of the pressures that exist in a democratic government."

SGB representatives have been invited to discuss their system with other schools and educational organizations. Most of the students feel a governing board similar to the SGB would work in a school with students of different races and economic levels. However, they do not feel the SGB would be exportable to a school system with hostile principals' or teachers' organizations.

One former staff member from Staples is now working with the New York City Board of Education to determine the feasibility of a governing board system in New York's troubled high schools. However, a quiet survey of ninety-four high school principals showed that more than two-thirds were "strongly resistant" to the idea and that only six were "enthusiastic." The United Federation of Teachers, with its fear of interference from both students and community organizations, might also be a stumbling block. In Westport the local chapter of the National Education Association strongly supported the SGB despite initial fears that it might extend its authority into areas the teachers think belong in contract negotiations.

"The real stumbling block is the principal," says Calkins. "If the principal and the administration aren't willing to take risks, this kind of system won't work. Running a school with a governing board is much less efficient than running a traditional school. You have to consult other people before you do something. Think about that. You actually have to consult other people." □

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GOVERNANCE FOR THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Schools today need to be improved--fast. Almost everyone agrees with that. But few people realize that the potential of the education profession, particularly teachers, has never been exploited for this purpose.

Why?

Because it has been traditional to assume that teachers take their direction from others: officials of the institutions in which they are prepared, school district and building administrators, local school boards after they begin to practice, state boards of education, legislators, parents, community leaders and other powerful laymen. The cry has been that education is too important to leave to educators--and multitudes of teachers have passively agreed.

The scene is changing, however. Both the public (laymen) and teachers are acknowledging that almost no institution in American society, including the school, is coping adequately with the needs and desires of the people. Schools harbor obsolescence; in many cases they are institutions isolated from the realities of the larger society.

Much of the blame for this situation is being placed on teachers. They are told they must prove that students are learning before more money will be invested in schools, and they are warned that the public, as never before, intends to hold them accountable for the achievement of their pupils.

Teachers are coming to grips with what their needs are before they can be held accountable for what happens in the schools. They must be in charge of some things, they say--some things they know the most about because of their professional expertise. This does not mean they want to control education. They simply want to be in charge of who gets into the profession, how those persons are prepared, how they will continue to be educated as they practice, how competent members of the profession can be protected and incompetent members weeded out, what are necessary working conditions for proper performance of duties, and what are the best methods of accomplishing the educational goals as determined by the citizenry (the public, including teacher-citizens).

Teachers must be liberated from their traditional role--fast--so they can assume their share of responsibility and use their expertise in helping the public to improve education. That is what self-governance is all about.

The teaching profession must have certain responsibilities delegated to it by the public if it is to contribute significantly to the improvement of education and to be accountable for what happens in the schools.

1.5

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HOW DID WE LOSE THE WHEEL?

Or: It's Time for a New System

By Neil V. Sullivan

It's no secret anymore: Our public schools are not working. In many cities a third of the kids are quitting; almost as many of those still registered simply don't attend. Regular teachers and administrators are retiring early; others are on strike. Taxpayers are rebelling at the escalating costs of running the schools; many large systems face bankruptcy. Splinter groups—free schools, alternative schools, private schools, street academies—are springing up everywhere. The system itself is literally coming apart at the seams.

Most school administrators and board members, meanwhile, say little or nothing. They are hanging on by the skin of their teeth—waiting to retire or be rescued. Many don't even have the opportunity to hang on. Last spring in Massachusetts alone six major cities (Boston, Lowell, Lawrence, Brockton, Revere, and Cambridge) dismissed—often in ignominy—the very men they had earlier chosen to "shape their educational destinies." Many large cities—from Philadelphia, which ousted the dynamic Mark Shedd, to San Francisco, which disappointed the talented Tom Shaheen—are now looking for new superintendents.

Why isn't the system working?

Because elected and appointed lay school boards cannot keep out of administration; because many superintendents are completely inept and unable to provide leadership; because school boards nearly everywhere make policy decisions in areas in which they are completely unqualified; because many board members are worn out before they arrive at meetings and then are physically and emotionally unable to cope with the problems at hand; and because many board members use their positions to win higher political office.

The system also isn't working because it has bred its own line of successors. Teachers have become principals, and principals have become superintendents. Many administrations have become characterized by empire building, rigid control, and a highly developed protective system. In many systems the superintendent has become the personification of the *status quo*.

What can be done?

I suggest a model based on the one that the late Sen. Robert Kennedy set up in 1963 for Prince Edward County, Virginia, when the county had closed its public schools rather than integrate them. White students attended private schools; most blacks were left without formal education at all.

The new model was simple. Kennedy selected a board of directors. They set broad policies and elected a chief executive who was responsible for the administration of the schools. The board met only a few times a year. At each meeting they asked the executive to report on progress toward meeting the objectives. Then they visited the schools.

The Prince Edward model worked. The executive knew what the policies were and knew he was accountable for meeting them. In turn, he worked with students and parents at the neighborhood level. They knew what they needed, and they determined their own future. The result: Schools operated twelve months a year, seven days a week, sixteen hours a day. The doors were open for programs for the elderly, for working mothers, for flexible arrangements with students, for breakfasts and hot lunches for all.

Such a model could work in every state. Here's how:

Each community would elect its own local school board. A city the size of Boston, for example, might be divided into ten local school boards. Each local board would nominate some of its own members as candidates for a regional board of directors. The Boston metropolitan area—again, only for purposes of illustration—might be governed by three or four regional boards of directors, crossing political, economic, and racial lines. The state supreme court would choose members of the regional boards from candidates nominated by the local boards. The regional boards would set broad policy objectives for their areas and would hire a chief executive to carry them out.

This model would take control away from the state legislatures and from unrepresentative, unresponsive, and often irresponsible school boards and would give a good deal of control to neighborhood and community groups. It also would make one executive responsible for the administration of the system. If he or she met the annual objectives of the board of directors, he or she would be retained. If the executive didn't meet them, the ax would fall, clearly and quickly.

Down the line, a committee of teachers, students, and parents should select the school principal and set objectives for that job. The principal, too, should be measured against them annually: His or her job would depend on successful performance.

Under the current system, the malaise of the public schools is complete. Only major change can cure it. There can be no gradual loosening of the structure, since the structure is already shredded. We need to replace the way our schools are governed. Only then will new schools —that work—emerge. □

Neil V. Sullivan writes about school governance from a perspective equaled by few administrators in the United States. As chief executive in Prince Edward County, Virginia, he reopened the public schools for blacks—and whites. As superintendent in Berkeley, California, he created perhaps the most completely desegregated school system in the country. For the last three years he has been the embattled state commissioner of education in Massachusetts. This fall he will teach at the University of California, Long Beach.

Unit II

ARGUMENTS UTILIZED TO JUSTIFY STATEMENT A

In introducing the subject of teacher militancy in the United States, Corwin write:

> Everyone knows that teaching is a troubled occupation. But few people are probably fully aware of just how widespread are its problems -- certainly they are more pervasive than the recent rash of well-publicized strikes, walkouts, and sanctions would indicate. These visible and covert indications of unrest have been bred within a much broader context of discontent that has swept this country in recent years. Existentialism, with its doctrine of personal commitment and decisive action, had finally come of age; this generation blames most of its problems on a self-conscious sense of alienation rooted in the failure of existing social arrangements -- large segments of the population complain of feeling a loss of a sense of meaningful control over their destiny. Growing militancy represents an alternative for people not content with this fate.*

With the existence of mass media, the problems of urban America, especially the voices of the Negro and the alienated adolescent, have finally broken through; other particularly disenfranchised groups are following suit. Militancy has become a common response to pervasive sociological tensions and a generic symptom of the future of existing social institutions. Teacher militancy must be understood in this context.

Directly related to the above is the fact that many students are unhappy with what they receive in school. Perhaps much of this is due to their disenfranchisement with society as well. At any rate, schools come in for their criticisms -- at least as part of that society. This is illustrated by Farber, who says that schools "exploit and enslave students...petrify society...make democracy unlikely...teach you by pushing you around, by stealing your will and your sense of power, by making timid, square, apathetic slaves out of you -- authority addicts."** He goes on for 41 pages explaining the statement in detail.

The above are only examples of numerous articles and books published in the past few years condemning the present schools, their administration, the public involved in control and management of the schools, and the teachers. Faber hints at a possible solution: students joining with teachers (as far as possible) to help teachers obtain greater self-determination and working to educate teachers about what is lacking in the school and what education can be. Other authors recommend everything from minor alterations to the complete process of throwing the blighters out!

*Corwin, Ronald G. "Teacher Militancy in the United States: Reflections on Its Sources and Prospects." Theory Into Practice 7: 96-102; April 1968.

**Farber, Jerry. "The Student and Society." The Student as Nigger. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., a division of Simon & Schuster, 1970.

2.2

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

The national teachers' organizations play a significant role in supporting the classroom instructor's demand for increased professional participation in the decision-making process. More than ever, teachers are looking to these organizations for assistance in implementing reforms on the local level.

The growth of teacher professionalism and the increased importance of the national teachers' associations in shaping new patterns of shared decision-making are among the most important developments in American education today. Both reflect the ferment of the times, and these complex trends will be analyzed in this chapter.

TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

Many different sets of criteria have been suggested which must be met in order to consider an occupational group professional.[2]

First, the profession must provide a unique and essential social service. It is assumed, also, that the professional is more concerned with service to be rendered than with economic advancement. The importance of the teacher has always been acknowledged, and the service he rendered considered essential. In this respect teaching has always been considered as a profession. However, the question persisted, especially in the 1960's, as to the actual decision-making role of the teacher. The traditional assumption that the teacher should passively submit to predetermined school policy and program is being seriously challenged.

The second qualification is that a professional must have had a prolonged education. He must have acquired extensive technical training and accumulated a body of theoretical knowledge to be used in the performance of his service. Education, like the other professions, has become increasingly rigorous in its requirements to maintain a high level of professional quality. Preparation requirements have become more specified. Those expecting to teach are now generally required to complete the equivalent of four years of college work in liberal arts and professional education courses. On the average, 50 hours of college courses are devoted to general education; 22 hours to professional education courses; 45 hours to academic teaching specialty and electives. In contrast to earlier times, when a general high school education or an unspecified number of years of additional education was sufficient, 91 percent of all teachers today have their bachelor's degree. Several states are considering making a fifth year of training mandatory, and eight states have already passed a law to that effect.

The final qualification is that of professional autonomy, the achievement of which is especially important to those involved in

[2] Criteria consolidated from Myron Lieberman, *Education as a Profession* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960), pp. 1–6; Paul Woodring, *Introduction to American Public Education* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1965), pp. 93–94; and William O. Stanley, "Issues in Professionalism," *Bulletin of the School of Education of Indiana University*, XL, No. 5 (September 1964), 4.

education. Lieberman defines professional autonomy as the range of decisions and behaviors which are left to the discretion of the professional group.[3] Any profession requires a comprehensive, autonomous organization of practitioners. The National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) are the two most significant representative organizations today. Neither of the organizations, however, has control over matters considered to be vital to professional growth. Such issues as accreditation, licensing, and ethical conduct are beyond the scope and responsibility of these groups. However, both organizations are involved in the current struggle for increased teacher independence, influence, and professional status.

Although teaching appears to be a profession in several aspects, there are many obstacles preventing full professionalization. Teachers seem to take a narrow view of their potential as contributors to the educational enterprise. Too often the teacher defines himself and his co-workers as classroom operators only. This limited definition does not recognize the valid contribution the teacher can and should make in such related areas as curriculum, instructional organization, evaluation, and methodology. If teachers fail to take initiative in these areas their role will be a limited one and their function defined by other sources.

Other obstacles preventing full professionalization include the lack of a sufficient number of men in teaching, a source of instability to the profession. Although no significant personality or intelligence differences exist between the sexes, women tend to enter teaching on a temporary basis. Men, in general, consider it as a permanent career. There is some evidence, however, that the number of men entering the field is increasing. Finally, the status and salary of teachers is not always consistent with the service rendered. Status can be defined as the amount of prestige one is granted by other members of his society. It depends to a large extent on one's occupational role and economic level.

Lack of status among teachers is partly a result of the nature of American public educational development. As the system developed, an increased need, primarily for elementary teachers, but also for instructors at other levels, was apparent. This situation forced the acceptance of untrained, unqualified individuals into the profession. There has always been a certain percentage of unqualified teachers operating in our schools because of a continual teacher shortage. The unhappy circularity of the problem is evident: modest salaries and low status for teachers limits the number of qualified applicants, which in turn opens the jobs to unqualified and underqualified applicants, which creates salaries and working conditions commensurate with underqualified professionals, which renders the occupation unattractive, etc.

[3] Lieberman, *ibid.*, p. 89.

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BACKGROUND AND HISTORY UTILIZED TO JUSTIFY STATEMENT C

How has Iowa fared in the matter of governance? In 1967 the Iowa General Assembly created the Professional Teaching Practice Act. The act defined the "profession of teaching" or the "teaching profession" as "persons in teaching or providing related administrative, supervising, or other services requiring certification from the state board of public instruction." The Act called for a professional teaching practices commission, which shall be included in the state Department of Public Instruction for administrative purposes and should consist of nine members to be appointed by the governor. To be appointed, the member must hold a certificate to teach in Iowa or be a member of the faculty of an approved teacher education institution in Iowa. There were to be appointed four classroom teachers, three administrators, one representing two-year colleges or Iowa colleges or universities approved for teacher education, and one member representing the state department of public instruction.

According to the Act, "The commission shall be financed by the members of the teaching profession in the amount necessary to carry out the purposes of the Act." And here lies the present problem. At the time of the establishment of the act, Governor Harold Hughes appointed the members of the Commission; the Commission met several times and began working on guidelines. However, the financial situation has been a tremendous problem. An appeal was made to various professional educational groups for support. The only one coming forth with financial support was the Iowa State Education Association. However, in 1968 the office of the Iowa Attorney General stated that the State of Iowa could not accept a figt from the ISEA to assist the Commission with its expenses. Members of the Commission who served have not received their per diem allowances, travel and other expenses for periods of service on the Commission. For this reason the Commission was inoperative from 1968 to the Spring of 1972 after the 64th General Assembly passed the Department of Public appropriations bill.

Several years ago ISEA introduced a bill calling for the creation of a Professional Standards Board. The original bill, as drafted by the Iowa Commission for Teacher Education and Professional Standards, had a broad representation of various groups in the profession; however, the membership on the Board was changed by someone against the wishes of the TEPS Commission and approved by the leadership of the ISEA strongly dominated by the classroom teachers. Note that Section 1 of the proposed act states: "There is established a professional standards board for governing approval of teacher preparation institutions and for certification of teachers in elementary and secondary schools, and area vocational and community colleges of the state." It also states further that the board of fifteen members (in addition to the state superintendent of public instruction, who is a non-voting member who acts as secretary) shall include: (1) Two members from faculties of public four-year colleges or universities who offer approved programs for teacher preparation; (2) One member from the instructional staff of private college or universities of the state which provide approved programs of teacher preparation; (3) One member from the institutional staffs of the area vocational schools and community colleges; (4) One school superintendent; (5) One secondary principal; (6) One elementary principal; (7) Eight certified classroom teachers who are actually engaged in classroom teaching in the elementary or secondary schools of the state." The arithmetic is easily understood. Eight classroom teachers (plus one each from representatives of "instructional staffs" of private four-year and vocational or community colleges) were named making a total of ten set up to outweigh five representing other parts of the profession. Members, to be selected by the governor, must be recommended by "any professional organization representing members engaged in any of the categories specified with no fewer than two persons for each appointment."

ARGUMENTS UTILIZED TO JUSTIFY STATEMENT D

An example of such a worthy statement can be found in the National Education Association "Proposed NEA Resolutions for 1972." In part, this proposal stated:

> The National Education Association believes that teachers and students must be directly involved in evaluating and improving the standards for teacher preparation and certification. The Association insists that teacher involvement is necessary in planning and implementing quality teacher education programs.
>
> The Association also believes that preprofessional practicum experience is an essential phase of teacher preparation. The responsibility for the practicum experience must be shared by the public schools, the institutions that prepare teachers, and professional associations.
>
> The Association urges its affiliates to ——
>
> a. Take immediate steps to evaluate and improve standards for entrance into the teaching profession.
>
> b. Support inclusion of training in the dynamics of inter-group communication and human relations courses in requirements for certification.
>
> c. Support legislation providing legal status and liability protection for student teachers.
>
> d. Develop guidelines for qualifications of cooperating teachers and college coordinators of student teachers.
>
> e. Formulate standards for school systems receiving student teachers.
>
> f. Take immediate steps to improve the selection of persons entering the profession through more effective screening of applicants for the preprofessional practicum.

There is no doubt that these are worthy causes. But those working with teacher education know that it is extremely difficult to get the teachers to take on added responsibilities for helping to educate teachers although many speak favorably concerning the importance of their being involved. For years teachers have discussed the importance of their becoming involved in the improvement of standards for entrance into the profession; few, however, have or would work on a committee to screen out those who would enter into the profession and practically never work on the task of eliminating those unworthy members from the profession. Much has been stated favoring pre-professional practicum and field experience, but few teacher education programs are overrun with members of the profession volunteering to take over the responsibility for such experience. Although teacher education leaders have long supported the idea of a fifth-year program of internship for admission to the teaching profession, generally speaking, teachers' organizations have not supported this plan.

The above is only an illustration of the problems that are prevalent in this field. One can readily see that there is definitely a dicotomy between what is stated in the resolutions and the writings of the teacher organizations and their actions. What they say is quite different from what they do.

From: Goodlad, John I. "The Reconstruction of Teacher Education." Teachers College Record 71: 61-72; September 1970.

Our study of sixty-seven elementary schools in the United States (footnote 1) revealed a formidable gap between the in-service educational pursuits of teachers and the critical problems of the schools as identified in interviews with principals and teachers. A substantial number was engaged in some kind of extra-school activity, such as an evening class in a neighboring university, a research project with a professor, or some kind of district committee seeking to make recommendations

for curricular improvement. But we found few instances of planned faculty attack on the vast array of problems identified by the staff as critical. In only four of sixty-seven schools was there anything resembling a critical mass of personnel engaged in systematic planned attack on these problems. It would appear then that relatively few school faculties are actively engaged in reconstruction. Given this fact, we cannot expect our schools to do a more effective job in their communities simply by doubling and redoubling the kind of in-service education currently under way. A more carefully designed strategy focused directly on the problems of the schools themselves is called for.

Conduct of Schooling

In the same way that certain conditions surrounding the professorship and the education of teachers in universities are not conducive to change, certain conditions surrounding the conduct of schooling contribute more to maintaining the *status quo* than to facilitating effective change. Education probably is the largest enterprise in the United States that does not provide for the systematic updating of its personnel. After basic requirements for certification are met, further study often is optional and at one's own expense. Forward-looking industries, by contrast, make certain that their employees are updated in the latest ideas and techniques, on company time and at company cost. Employees who do not take advantage of these opportunities find themselves unemployed or stalled on the advancement ladder.

Schooling is geared to self-maintenance and not to change. Tackling the problems facing schools today demands team work. But the principal and his staff are engaged in essentially individualistic activities which keep them occupied and separate from morning until late afternoon. It is unrealistic to expect a staff, with tag ends of energy left over, to enter enthusiastically and vigorously into the business of changing schools after school is out. Keeping school is, in itself, exceedingly demanding. It is not at all surprising, then, that the efforts of school staffs, under present conditions of limited time and energy, result in peripheral but not basic changes.

Studies suggest that principals are chosen, not because of their recognized leadership abilities, but with the expectation that they will maintain the system. A nationwide prejudice against women as administrators—changing very slowly—results in the selection of men over women regardless of qualifications. Many elementary school principals have had little or no experience in the classroom and simply are lacking in ability to help teachers with their pedagogical problems. In general, the training of school principals has not been directed toward the development of leadership skills needed for unleashing the creative talents of teachers. Consequently, the principal often tends to routine matters of keeping school while teachers work largely independent of each other in classroom cells. The time, setting, leadership, and resources for reconstructing the school too seldom come together in such a way as to produce the fundamental changes our times and problems demand.

Because only a few school faculties are systematically engaged in improving the school environment for learning, we have in this country surprisingly few models of what redesigned schools could and should be like. The thrust of significant changes recommended for American schooling during the past decade or two has been blunted on school and classroom door.

When one brings into perspective all of these conditions—pertaining to preservice teacher education, in-service education, and school improvement—one sees that the total system is designed for self-maintenance, not self-renewal. Teachers for schools of today and tomorrow are trained in settings encrusted in the mold of yesterday. Shaking free of this mold necessitates the injection of change into each component part of the system. Because envisioning and dealing with this system as a whole is so essential, each of us must make the effort to rise above myopic concentration on minuscule portions of immediate but relatively minor importance.

From: O'Neil, Roy J. Counterproposals for School Boards in Teacher Negotiations. Aurora, Ill.: Countersearch, 1972. pp. 195-96.

A ROLE FOR PUPILS, PARENTS, AND PUBLIC

. . The opening of new avenues of communication between board members, administrators, pupils, parents, and taxpayers obviously has become an imperative need. To move toward meeting this need the management team must first examine its policies and practices as they relate to realities of student concerns, then act resolutely and appropriately to fulfill those needs.

In so doing, the immediate goal must be to reorganize procedures and priorities in a manner which makes it irrefutably plain as to who represents whom in bargaining. The employment of counterproposals may be vital to this objective. Particularly important may be counterproposals, or outright board action, which address traditional but less than fair practices of teachers in matters of pupil discipline, homework, busy work, grading, and a host of others. Great inequities have existed for years in the performances of many teachers who have substituted homework for effective teaching, who have emphasized busy work at the expense of learning, who have used grades as measures of discipline, and who have used discipline in place of positive motivation.

Teachers who complain of being "sick and tired of failing to receive support from administrators and boards" in cases of pupil discipline may have legitimate complaints. There can be no legitimate complaint about such matters, however, once the bargained contract is asked because of this. The organization and the contract bargained for that purpose must be required to fulfill that need for the teacher. The administrator and the school board no longer represent the interests of the organizationally-protected teacher. They represent first and foremost the interest of the pupil, the parent, and the taxpayer. And it is those clients to whom their allegiance must be first given in every case. This principle has been a hard pill for some teachers to swallow where it has been invoked. Its invocation is important, however, as reinforcement to the knowledge that there is no free lunch, that the best of both worlds ends up being the worst of both, and that, in the Carl Sandburg idiom, negotiations is whole hog or none. If it is to be the whole hog, its advocates must chew as gratuitously on the rest of it as they do on the hams.

ARGUMENTS USED TO JUSTIFY STATEMENT F

From: O'Neil, Roy J. Counterproposals for School Boards in Teacher Negotiations. Aurora, Ill.: Countersearch, 1972. pp. 7-8, 185-87.

The Battleground: The Local School System

There is a tendency, it seems, for the school board or the administration (or both) in many school districts to take a *laissez-faire* or resigned attitude toward some of the basic problems and fundamental issues which have arisen in teacher negotiations.

"After all," they reason, "our responsibility is to manage the educational program in *this* district, which has enough of its own unique problems. How can we be expected to resolve in one local district the myriad problems being developed on a national scope by organizations such as NEA or AFT?"

As understandable as this rationale may appear, it overlooks one vital fact. That fact, proceeding from the conclusions that the NEA and AFT are locked in mortal combat for control of the teaching profession and of public education, is simply this: the battlefield on which that fateful struggle is being fought is the local school system.

Certainly there are skirmishes taking place in the national and state capitols as the public relations people and lobbyists of the multi-million dollar teacher organizations play their roles in the all-out fight.

The real spoils, however, are not to be found in legislative halls. They are in the classrooms of the nation's local school systems — its teachers. They are the members and potential members whose dues and votes are needed to create the power which one side must have to topple the other.

In order to win them to its side, either organization must give evidence or promises, or both, of its ability to produce results of tangible benefit to those teachers. And because such benefits can only come largely from their employing school board, it is from that source that the organization must pry them by means of bargaining.

The victor in the colossal struggle, then, will be the organization which succeeds in wringing out the most from the local board. If the NEA obtains fifty pounds of benefits from District A, the AFT must force out seventy-five pounds from District B next door, or it loses stature in the eyes of its potential members.

Membership of the majority of the teachers in the local system is the first goal of the field commanders. Only then can they advance to solid positions by obtaining bargained recognition as exclusive representatives of all teachers. Once such recognition is guaranteed the competing organization is locked out and teachers as individuals are effectively locked in by the recognized group.

At this point the local board becomes the target of merciless shelling -- even to the point of being brought to its knees if necessary -- to demonstrate for as many other locals as possible how effective that particular organization may be.

If a given school system falls as a consequence, the blame is immediately thrust upon the state legislature or Congress for failure to provide more funds. And if there are those who worry about the educational losses of children in that district, they are assured that such means are sometimes necessary to reach the desired end.

Once the organization has gained exclusive recognition as bargaining agent it is able to bring increasing control over its members as well as their employing board, chiefly by means of the contract. Typical examples are those clauses which forbid any teacher to

negotiate as an individual, or those which require agency shop, or union shop. Teachers and boards both find that many of the matters formerly decided on the basis of state code or local rules are frozen to change because control has been transferred out of traditional repositories and into the world of contract law.

The fate of the local school district to become the battleground has been as inevitable as is the need for the competing organizations to first win the membership of the teachers who work there.

It is only in the individual school that the enjoyment of the prize awaits the victor -- control of the teaching profession and of education itself...

What The Teacher Has Lost

Of all the organizational sales pitches to woo membership, in all the propaganda and promises, in all the "crises" created, the one glaring omission in the organization's promotion of collectivism among professional teachers is its failure to tell them what the total costs may be, what they may lose in one respect while attempting to gain in another.

The amount of dues they must pay is known to them, of course. And at time of strike or other test, the need to close ranks in unity (to sacrifice time, money, effort, and perhaps one's differing views) is another demand made upon them. Other than that, the teacher is led to believe that his submission to collectivism is filled with gains and is virtually without losses: that the laws of action and reaction do not apply: that the benefits he may expect are without corresponding costs; that, in short, he will be getting something for nothing.

For the record, let us examine some of the costs that the teacher subscribing to collectivism may have paid in terms of things lost.

1. *Respected image or status.* Beyond all shadow of a doubt the sometimes nasty campaigns waged by organizations in various communities have left the image of the public school teacher more tarnished than ever before. While some citizens were confused and uncertain of the issues when deluged by organizational propaganda, a very large number of them expressed indignation of both the naivete of the half-truths being advanced by the organization, and the insult to the intelligence of the general public in being expected to believe, for example, that all this was "for the sake of educating children."

2. *Educational leadership of the community.* In those communities wherein teachers closed the schools, or threatened to do so, while demanding benefits for themselves in the name of the children, public confidence has surely been shaken gravely. It is reasonable to expect henceforth that whatever teachers may ask, however appropriate and legitimate, it will be subject to suspicion and mistrust. The ability of the teacher to exercise educational leadership in the community has been sharply curtailed.

3. *Morale.* Perhaps no factor in job performance has been discussed more and understood less than morale. When all other arguments either for or aghinst a given idea appear to fall short of persuasive levels, morale is invoked as the deciding factor. Morale will be damaged or improved, it seems, according to whether the person invoking it is for or against the matter at hand. Recognizing this weakness, it is contended here that *by whatever scale morale may be measured, its levels in those school systems which have the strongest or richest bargained contracts are not higher than in those systems in which no bargained contract exists at all.* If this hypothesis is correct, collectivism is failing to achieve one of its highest goals - that of improving morale and, perhaps, those working conditions which affect job satisfaction. Instead, the teacher would be paying a price for a condition which has not been delivered.

4. *Positive, constructive relationships with administrative leadership.* Adversarial bargaining by definition throws down the gauntlet to management, drawing a sharp dividing line between often opposing interests. Organized teachers divorce themselves from collegiality with their administrative leaders, the vast majority of whom came from their own ranks by virtue of outstanding performances as teachers. In so doing, the body, in effect, is cutting itself off from the head. Or, by substituting the organization in the leadership role, the organism has ordered for itself a head transplant. The resulting distress has been felt keenly by great numbers of teachers. It has cost them dearly in this respect, and could be an important factor adversely affecting morale.

5. *Recognition as professional partners for improvement of education.* By separating themselves from the rest of the professional education community, organized teachers are losing their standing as important contributors to ideological and technological advancement of education. This is an inevitable consequence of the practice of coming to the bargaining table under the two flags of self-interest and pupil interest. The credibility of an interest in the educational welfare of pupils being afforded an equal or higher priority to self-interest is effectively nullified by the great potential present for the obvious conflict of those interests. Either interest is legitimate, of course, and teachers have enormous contributions to make in improving curriculum and other learning conditions. But brought together in one and the same forum, they have tacitly lost for organized teachers great amounts of two qualities formerly treasured – respect, and credibility.

6. *Professionalism itself.* This is perhaps the greatest loss that organized teachers are suffering as a consequence of the bargaining stance they have assumed. This development may be seen in numerous overt conditions and events which are worthy of far greater treatment than may be given here. An understanding of this loss must proceed, certainly, from an acceptable definition of professionalism. But whatever else may be included in this concept, if it also embraces *a transcending commitment to the improvement of mankind through improving the quality of performance in the service it renders,* teachers organized for bargaining are removing themselves in wholesale numbers from any true professional standing. Among other things, professionalism demands that each practitioner dedicate himself to service of others before self and that he accept no inhibition but truth in the full and free exercise of his intellect toward the improvement of the body of knowledge and service of his vocation. Collectivism does not free the individual to perform in such a manner; it inhibits him. It does not encourage him to expand the depth and scope of his work; rather, it limits him. It does not seek to extend the range of his performance; it tends to regress performance toward the mean. Professionalism is the antithesis of collectivism. The two are mutually exclusive. They are contradictions in which subscription to one effectively prohibits the full and free exercise of the other. Collectivism and professionalism are polar opposites.

Historically, there have been but three learned professions: theology, medicine, and law. Certainly, in modern times, education has risen in importance and in sophistication to easily comparable levels. It is to such levels of professionalism that the foregoing refers. There are today numerous other occupations, some honored and some not, to which the term "profession" is also applied. Clearly, however, it is the former, not the latter types of professionalism to which career teachers had risen – and from which their organizations are now bringing them back down.

It is a dilemma, the nature of which is often faced by those who would have the best of both worlds. It is a gnawing concern of many in the hierarchy of the organization itself, who would rectify and reconcile the matter if they could. Failing thus far,

however, the organization can only deny or down-play the fact that a real loss has been suffered by the individual teacher. It is not an idle phrase which may be found among the many demands which have been presented by teacher organization representatives at bargaining tables across the land: "The board recognizes that teaching is a profession."

That such recognition now must be demanded and bargained for, says it all.

Rotigel, David E. "Teacher Power, Teacher Unity, and Teacher Professionalism." Education 92: 76-78; February/March 1972.

Typically when teachers use the term "professional" or "professionalism," they do so in an effort to label what they are doing, and to call attention to the fact that what they are doing is good. When, for example, we present demands to a school board we shy away from labeling our actions "collective bargaining"—for everyone knows that a professional group would not stoop to labor union tactics! Rather we enter into "professional negotiation" with school boards. Similarly, we join "professional" organizations; attend "professional" meetings, and use the term "professional" to describe many of the other activities in which we engage.

Yet according to those who have investigated the concept of professionalism (in education as well as in other areas) there is something basically wrong with defining the concept by simply describing the activities of a certain vocation. And anyone who thinks about it, I am sure, will recognize the fallacy involved in turning a description into a prescription. Professional actions are, no doubt, good. But to simply label the activities of teachers "professional" (as we have done these many years) is not only a fruitless effort, it actually gets in the way of the achievement of professional status.

In considering the attainment of professional status, Phillip G. Smith has astutely observed that:

> Oddly enough, the group [seeking professional status] must usually demonstrate its readiness for professional autonomy by a long and determined fight for autonomy. It is as if the public were a great awkward giant who needs an agile professional to fight his battles for him, but who will not allow a professional to fight for him until the professional has first won a fight against him.[1]

To some individuals who are engaged in the enterprise of education, the words Smith uses to describe professionalism may seem odd indeed. The idea of educators becoming involved in a determined fight with, and eventually defeating the public may seem, at first, to be in contradiction with what we usually consider to be professional teacher action. And yet, upon close analysis, it may be found that Smith has correctly identified one of the major reasons that education has not yet become a profession. It may well be that it is the reluctance of teachers, as a group, to use their power collectively in such a way as to wrench the control of education away from the lay public—i.e., to defeat the awkward giant—that is the basic reason our vocation remains simply a vocation and not a profession.

Teachers have been reluctant to use their power to exert control over the educational process because of the connotations of the words "power" and "control" themselves. We seem to attribute evil intent to those with power, and we look with suspicion upon anyone who would seek to control public education. Yet the emotional overtone of these words (i.e., "power" and "control") should not, in itself, cause us to reject the idea of teacher determination with regard to matters educational. In his book, *Education for the Emerging Age: Newer Ends and Stronger Means*, Theodore Brameld states quite unequivocally that ". . . the word 'control' is entirely amoral. It connotes neither the good nor bad as such. It becomes good or bad only in the context of specific methods and purposes—in other words, according to *how* control is exercised and for *whose* purposes."[2] And, of course, it is a truism

[1]Philip G. Smith, *Philosophy of Education* (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), pp. 36-37.

[2]Theodore Brameld, *Education for the Emerging Age: Newer Ends and Stronger*

that there will always be control exerted over the enterprise of education. Thus, the question is never that of control vs. no control, but rather "who will control?" and "who should have the power to control?"

If teaching is to become a profession, it is evident that the power to control the educational process must be vested in teachers themselves. This conclusion, I submit, can be supported by an analysis of the meaning of the word "profession." Implicit in the meaning of this term (as it has been used by students of the subject—such men as Abraham Flexner, Myron Lieberman, Michael H. Moskov, L. B. Kinney and L. G. Thomas) is the idea of legitimate social power. As A. Stafford Clayton aptly puts it, "The professional not only knows his field; he applies his knowledge to the control and direction of some aspects of the lives of others."[3] In other words it is the *obligation* of professional persons, or groups (in light of the knowledge possessed) to exert control in their area of expertise.

The legitimate use of social power—which is central to this interpretation of professionalism—seems to have been the basis for the various lists or criteria for professionalism which have been formulated over the years. Though such lists are numerous, there is surprising similarity among them and it is evident that most students of the subject would accept the following as characteristics of a profession.

A profession renders a unique and essential service to society and this service is exalted above any personal gains to the practitioners. Further, the service rendered is grounded in a body of specialized knowledge, which can be acquired only by long and continuous training. Professional activities, while ultimately practical in nature nonetheless are subjected to rigorous intellectual analysis and re-evaluation. A profession selects its own candidates for admission to the profession, accredits its own professional schools, and has the power to license members for the profession. Also in a profession there is a great deal of autonomy with regard to the decision making process (on the part of the group and the individual). Because of this autonomy the profession and each practitioner is responsible for the consequences of the judgments made and acts performed. And a profession maintains an effective self-governing organization of the practitioners.

These commonly accepted characteristics, as Professor Clayton has pointed out,[4] derive from a common interpretation of professionalism—an interpretation which entails social power. These characteristics both presuppose that such power is vested in the professionate (e.g., there is a great deal of autonomy with regard to decision making) and suggest the legitimate ends for which the power may be exercised (e.g., for the sake of the social service to be rendered). It is sadly true, however, with regard to education that the power to direct the enterprise is not vested in teachers themselves.

This lack of social power creates several major problems for education—not the least of which centers upon the idea of accountability. The public is demanding with increasing emphasis that teachers be held accountable for their judgments and actions *qua* teachers. And, if Helen Bain (recent N.E.A. president) is correct, teachers also are beginning to demand greater teacher accountability—for they recognize that such accountability will eventuate in the improvement of education.[5] But accountability and the power of control are two sides of the same coin. Teachers can be held accountable for their judgments and acts only to the extent that they have the power to exert control over the process of education. And it is only too evident that "the classroom teacher has either too little control or no control over the factors which might render accountability either feasible or fair."[6]

Further, because teachers have had little or no control over matters educational, they have not been in a position to select candidates for the teaching field, accredit professional schools, license members, submit their activities to rigorous intellectual analysis (which may result in any meaningful reconstruction of the educational process) or to define or refine their social service. In short, the fact that teachers do not have the power to exercise control in their area of expertise is the most basic reason why teaching has not yet become a profession.

ARGUMENTS UTILIZED TO JUSTIFY STATEMENT G

▶ NEA's move toward a strong teacher bargaining posture has served to sever relations with yet another education group--the curriculum specialists. Gordon Cawelti, head of the Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), says his group will move out of the NEA building in February and will disaffiliate with NEA. Cawelti explains that there has been an "increasing incompatibility of NEA and ASCD efforts at the grass roots level since the advent of the negotiations process" which has placed curriculum supervisors in "an adversary relationship to teachers." But, Cawelti adds, "Nothing should be done at the national level to discourage administrators and teachers from working together on curriculum and instructional issues. Meaningful change in education will be less likely to occur if that happens." Several administrator groups--including the American Assn. of School Administrators, the National Assn. of Secondary School Principals and the National Assn. of Elementary School Principals--have already split from NEA.

Education U.S.A., January 14, 1974. (National School Public Relations Association)

"Poisoning The Waters"

by Jim Sutton
Director, Iowa Higher Education Association

It's our responsibility to see that the new Public Employment Relations Act (PERA) succeeds. ISEA locals will be bargaining one year before any other public employee group. The success or failure of PERA is square on our backs.

But, seeing that bargaining takes two, we thought that administrators and school boards also had special responsibilities. Unfortunately, some of Iowa's administrators and trustees seem to have a different agenda.

We have reports that persons who never had a contract are now being offered "administrative" contracts. We hear that the librarians are being classified as "administrators." We see schools offering to negotiate "comprehensive" agreements — without binding arbitration — prior to July 1, 1975.

We see school board "associations" hiring staff lawyers at public expense. We note conferences conducted by administrators who have been sued for unfair labor practices at their own schools.

Administrators and trustees will not be meeting their responsibilities if they prevent faculty from making their own choice about bargaining; if they seek to co-opt bargaining with pre-existing "agreements;" if they raise the ante by calling up outside professionals; or get their facts about bargaining from those who are having a hard time adjusting to it at home.

Bargaining in the schools is not a form of "industrial warfare." It's a way of making sure that the governed have an equal say in determining policies which govern them. It requires a willingness to share decision-making and a commitment to negotiate in good faith.

We hope administrators and trustees will work to share what has been, up to now, their exclusive authority. If they don't they could provoke the warfare which all of us are seeking to avoid.

ISEA Communique, August 1974. (Iowa State Education Association)

"The Remaking of the Principalship." (Editorial) National Elementary Principal 53: 6-7; March 1974.

Equally unrealistic, we believe, though at the other end of the spectrum, are those calls for the elimination of the principal or at least a serious reduction of his role. An interesting case in point is a recent NEA press release, in which Terry Herndon, executive secretary, states: "Our goal is to gain instructional leadership roles for teachers rather than administrators, foundations, government bureaucrats, textbook publishers, and paperback book experts." It would appear that Mr. Herndon would remove much of the world from any responsible role in education, or even will out of existence administrators, foundations, the U.S. government, and textbook publishers (both hardcover and softcover). Unfortunately for Mr. Herndon, these groups seem to have no inclination of going away, anymore than does the NEA. Willynilly, we are all in this together. Professional educators have intermeshing roles, and we don't believe any one role can be completely dealt with in isolation.

If teachers merge into a national union, they may have to work on their 'image'

By Reginald G. Damerell and Maurie Hillson

In fulfilling his obligation to the public, the educator . . . shall not knowingly distort or misrepresent the facts concerning educational matters in direct or indirect public expressions. —Code of Ethics of the Education Profession, National Education Association Handbook for Local, State, and National Association, 1970-71. .

Keep the above quote in mind as we talk a minute about teachers. Not a bad group at all. And let's face it, putting teachers in control of public education is not the equivalent of appointing Chairman Mao to the Joint Chiefs of Staff. But this much seems undeniable: Local, lay, public control of education and teacher control of education are incompatible; one or the other must dominate.

If teachers decide to put it all together (*it* being: a national union, a war chest, power moxie, and political influence) and go all out after control of the schools, then your job as school board member or administrator is going to be affected. Radically. The concept of local, lay, public control of the schools is going to be shaken. Severely. And face it: Teacher control of public education—whether it occurs *de facto*, *de jure*, or through *de contract*—is a possibility.

In discussing teachers' aspirations to gain political control of the schools, one must look at the *differences* between the two leading teacher organizations that now are negotiating a possible national merger. The National Education Association is older and (with more than one million members) nearly three times as large as the American Federation of Teachers, which is affiliated with the A.F.L.-C.I.O. and has concentrated strength in urban areas.

If the A.F.T. dominates a merger with the N.E.A., you and your teachers are going to be affected. The merger could result in an organization so large and unresponsive that those who should be natural allies—teachers and parents—will become adversaries locked in a struggle to control the schools.

The A.F.T. is unequivocally "union" in its concept and operation and is eager to merge with N.E.A., which sometimes acts the reluctant bride. For years, many N.E.A. teachers have at least *considered* themselves true professionals who are interested in working with other teachers, administrators, school boards, and college professors in efforts to improve the teaching profession.

These N.E.A. self-assessed professionals shun the "union" label that, to them, A.F.T. seems to offer, and they fear some of the things the label implies for education: legalistic bargaining, postures of "no contract-no work," attitudes of militancy, and goals that are concentrated on bread and butter issues for workers rather than on issues important to students and education.

The A.F.T., on the other fist, approaches the merger with N.E.A. as part of a trade union's classical struggle to organize all workers. To unionize N.E.A.'s mass of "unorganized" workers, A.F.T. must develop a strategy that emphasizes the benefits of union membership and softens N.E.A.'s reluctance to wear the union tag—while still holding onto the power and practices that make A.F.T. unattractive to some N.E.A. teachers in the first place.

While remaining pure union, A.F.T. must build an image that is convincingly pro-education.

A difficult task, because a teacher union's interests are not inter-twined like wires in a conduit with the interests of students, parents, and sound education. On some issues, the interests of student and union are separate and lead to different terminals.

Albert Shanker, president of the United Federation of Teachers, Local 2, A.F.T., A.F.L.-C.I.O., has clearly indicated his terminus. As head of the largest union local in the United States, his image building helped engineer a New York state merger between the N.E.A. and A.F.T. affiliates. Big, but not big enough. Shanker, the first teacher ever elected as vice-president of the A.F.L.-C.I.O., wants more.

If the N.E.A. and A.F.T. organize into a massive national union controlled by Shanker (and don't sneeze at that possibility) or someone like him, then the U.F.T. approach to education in New York could be just a preview of what can happen between organized teachers and public education throughout this country.

Shanker-A.F.T. control of a national teacher union also means, we think, that practitioners (teachers) and consumers (students and parents) could be put on a collision course that may cripple American education.

Let's see how U.F.T. builds its image in New York. The advertisement reprinted at the bottom of this page implies that U.F.T. gave $1 million of union money to high school seniors. Isn't that your impression of the ad's message? If it is, you've just been victimized by image building at its best. Or, we should say, image building at its worst, because U.F.T. did *not* give $1 million of its money to high school seniors.

The $1 million given scholarship winners was taxpayers' money funneled to the U.F.T. from the budget of the entire New York City public school system.

The U.F.T.'s $20,000 ad is not an outright lie. After an attorney for the New York City school board pointed out that the ad might be misleading, one short line was added to the advertisement: "Established through negotiations with the Board of Education, the United Federation of Teachers Scholarship Fund is an-

other community service of the United Federation of Teachers." Technically and legally correct, that disclaimer hardly makes clear that the $1 million came from taxpayers and not from the U.F.T. treasury.

This requires some explaining. In 1968, Albert Shanker and his U.F.T. picked up a "damned spot" of racism that they've been trying to wash out, ever since. The racist label was sewn on during the infamous teacher strike in the Ocean Hill-Brownsville ghetto district in Brooklyn—a strike that led to racial conflicts and confrontations that affected every school in New York and almost tore the city apart. Pushed by extremist actions on both sides, the clash was between the teacher union (white, Jewish) and experimental community boards (black and Puerto Rican).

(Six years after the initial charges of racism against Shanker, he still is being accused of using racial antagonism to acquire union and personal power. In July of 1973, Author Jonathon Kozol told N.E.A. teachers—at their national convention — that Shanker had "openly encouraged and exaggerated" hostility and animosity between blacks and Jews. Kozol was accosted by members of the New York delegation during a general commotion that followed his speech. According to a story in the *New York Times Magazine*, Andrew Donaldson, former community superintendent in the Bronx, said of Shaker: "No one individual in education has caused so much racial antagonism in the last generation.")

A year after the Ocean Hill-Brownsville debacle, Shanker negotiated a teacher contract that the *New York Daily News* called "the biggest steal in the history of municipal collective bargaining." Part of that 1969 contract was an agreement that the city school board would finance (with a payment of an extra $50 per union member) scholarships that the U.F.T. could administer unilaterally. Within certain limitations, the union was allowed to determine how this extra payment of more than $3 million would be spent. The U.F.T. decided to spend $1 million for the Scholarship Fund and retain twice that amount for additional benefits to teachers.

In this discussion you may have noticed a curious lack of reference to the New York City school board. Why, for example, would any school board knowingly allow a teacher union to mislead the public and claim credit for scholarships that were paid for with public funds? One answer: The U.F.T. perhaps is the single most powerful political force in New York City, and the New York school board is both victim and result of that political power.

The U.F.T. has so weakened the traditional employer-employe relationship between school board and union that, from 1969 on, the New York City board in some instances has been unable to protect the interests of taxpayers and children when those interests conflict with U.F.T. goals.

The union's goals receive considerable publicity in Albert Shanker's weekly advertisement in the *New York Times* Sunday edition.

The first of these ads (see example on page 61) appeared in December 1970, and they've continued ever since at an annual cost of more than $100,000 — approximately enough to pay for 30 more "U.F.T." scholarships. Understandably, Shanker's ads are self-serving. But more than that, he uses these editorial-look-alike ads to attack ideas he opposes and criticize people he thinks are threatening his interests. Few readers are able to separate the truth and half-truths between which the advertisements bob and weave.

Chancellor Harvey B. Scribner suffered U.F.T. wrath in Shanker's December 10, 1972, column: "Frustration at John Dewey High School . . . A fine Program 'Watered to Death.'"

The special appropriation for the innovative John Dewey High School had been reduced from $646,000 to $570,000 above the basic budget formula. Scribner made up most of the appropriation cut by giving the school an extra $76,000 for a summer teacher training program, plus four extra teaching positions for the school's independent study program. He also agreed that central headquarters could pay $38,000 for computer time costs.

Scribner placed the matter of computer time payment (a policy decision for the school board) before the board nearly seven weeks prior to Shanker's column in which he blamed Scribner for watering the Dewey program "to death," giving as evidence that "the school must now pay for it [computer time] by reducing its teaching staff."

Nine days after the column, according to the U.F.T. newspaper, "three thousand angry parents, students and teachers" from John Dewey demonstrated in front of central headquarters to protest "massive budget cuts" that would "effectively destroy" the school. Two days later, Scribner announced his intention to quit at the end of his contract.

The A.F.T. makes clear in its own literature that it is "first and foremost a union." A union existing to protect its members is one thing, but a union as a non-accountable political and private force in control of the public schools is quite another. □

Duties of State Boards

A state may have many boards for specific purposes. In most instances, however, the major educational responsibilities are assigned to one central agency, which is usually the general state board of education. Originally its chief task was the distribution of state "literary" funds and kindred duties. Today this board is invested with greatly enlarged powers, including the general oversight of the entire state public school system. Like the school board in the local district, it is usually the policy-forming body, determining state educational policies within the statutory framework provided by the legislature. Its major task in some states is the appointment of a state superintendent, who serves as the chief executive officer of the board. Like city boards, it also makes appointments recommended by the superintendent and approves budgets prepared by him. Relevantly, Frank W. Lutz in "The Politics of Education" writes: "Perhaps because education is a function of the separate states, there has been a greater interest in the state politics of education than in the local politics of education."[2]

Other State Education Boards

Many commonwealths assign to bodies other than the state board of education various aspects of the educational program. Among the several hundred special-purpose state educational boards or commissions are:

The curriculum commission, which recommends programs of studies

The textbook commission, which selects textbooks to be used in schools throughout the state

The board of trustees or regents, which manages the state university

The community college board, which presides over the affairs of the state community colleges

The board or boards of control, which have charge of one or more institutions of higher learning

The board for vocational rehabilitation, which collaborates with the federal board in reestablishing in industry persons injured or otherwise handicapped

The board for vocational education, which works with the federal government especially in promoting Smith-Hughes activities

The board of examiners, which prepares and conducts examinations for teachers seeking to be certified

The retirement or pension board, which collects the receipts and controls the distributions for teachers' pensions

The board of charities and corrections, which takes charge of, and provides for, the proper training of feebleminded, deaf, blind, crippled, and otherwise handicapped persons

The dormitory authority, which approves the construction of living and dining facilities on college campuses

In recent years one notes a tendency toward reducing the number of ancillary state boards and centralizing the control of educational affairs in the hands of a single state board of education, which has general supervision of all the schools. This may be supplemented by another board, which has charge of the institutions of higher learning in the state. One also detects a trend toward making the state superintendent the coordinator of all educational activities in the commonwealth.

[2]Frank W. Lutz, "The Politics of Education" in *The School Administrator*, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., August, 1970, p. 8.

Duties of State Superintendents

Most of the duties of state superintendents and their staffs fall into a few major categories:

Leadership
Drawing public attention to the state's educational needs and encouraging public action

Trusteeship
Reporting to the public on educational accomplishments; compiling data on school enrollments, expenditures, school construction, measures of academic progress, and so forth

Advisory
Giving counsel to local boards of education and administrators; interpreting school law to administrative officials; offering testimony on proposed legislation and regulations to state legislatures and other governmental bodies

Planning
Preparing required state plans for federally financed programs, such as vocational education, and planning intrastate programs

Experimenting
Innovating and implementing various pilot projects

Judicial
Resolving controversies within local school systems; hearing appeals in much the same manner as an appellate court

Ministerial
Regulating public and private elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, and universities; distributing state and some federal moneys; certifying teachers; approving school buildings; managing such diverse enterprises as museums, libraries, historical sites; and even, in some states, approving motion pictures and licensing barbers and beauticians

Coordinating
Attending meetings of various state boards and coalescing the various educational efforts of the state

Appointive
Filling vacancies in the state department of education, in county superintendencies, and in other positions

Evaluating
Participating in state and national assessment programs

ARGUMENTS UTILIZED TO JUSTIFY STATEMENT J

As for accreditation of teacher education institutions, national voluntary accreditation responsibilities have been given to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) who has developed Standards for Accreditation of Teacher Education which have gone through many revisions, the latest of which became manditory in the fall semester, 1971. The national accreditation of teacher education serves four major purposes:

1. To assure the public that particular institutions - those named in the Annual List - offer programs for the preparation of teachers and other professional school personnel that meet national standards of quality.

2. To ensure that children and youth are served by well-prepared school personnel.

3. To advance the teaching profession through the improvement of preparation programs.

4. To provide a practical basis for reciprocity among the states in certifying professional school personnel.

Standards have been established for (1) Basic Teacher Education Programs and (2) Advanced Programs in the following categories:

1. Curricula
2. Faculty
3. Students
4. Resources
5. Evaluation

The policy making body of NCATE represents the various groups of the profession, but perhaps the greatest amount of leadership has come from the colleges and universities themselves. NCATE is the "official" body set up to evaluate and improve teacher education. They plan to retain their responsibility; they do not plan to turn their mandate over to the organized profession without a fight.

In addition to regional accreditation, most states have some type of state accreditation for teacher education - most often under the leadership of the State Departments of Public Instruction discussed previously.

Compact, May/June 1974, published by the Education Commission of the States

LET'S DO SOMETHING ABOUT DISTRUST BETWEEN EDUCATORS AND POLITICIANS

by John Vasconcellos

Something is keeping state politicians and educators apart these days. There's a terrible lack of trust between them. I'm not sure which group distrusts the other more, and I guess that isn't so important. But it isn't helping education.

Many educators, for example, suspect that politicians want to run the schools and the colleges—that they're demagogues; that they're against academic freedom.

Politicians, on the other hand, have a lot of distrust for educators. A case in point was my experience several years ago at hearings of the California Assembly's school finance subcommittee. All of us on the committee — liberals and conservatives — agreed that every educator who testified had done more to hurt his cause than to help it.

The chairman of our education committee observed that when educators come before legislative committees, they usually talk about such things as employe rights and benefits, or things like structure and organization. But they seldom seem to mention the kids.

Many legislators strongly believe that educators aren't "with it" in terms of what's good for the kids, and that they're terribly caught up in questions of status and institutional prerogatives. This is as true of higher education as it is of elementary and secondary education. For instance, I get an entirely different picture about California's colleges and universities from second-level administrators — deans and vice presidents — than I get from the top. And the more I listen to the people who are closest to the students, the less sure I am that the institutions are responding to human needs.

One reason for the politicians' concern is that it often seems to be the policy of California educators that nobody is supposed to talk to legislators except the superintendent or the university president and his lobbyists. Teachers are discouraged from making contact with legislators or giving them any kind of input.

A friend of mine who is dean of a school of education was reprimanded recently for getting some information for me from a person on his staff. I'm very suspicious of processes that deny me, as a legislator, the chance to talk to whomever I want to in education.

Part of the problem is that for a long time educators were the experts we looked to for our training and our salvation, but they turned around and let it go to their heads. They took charge. They held their power and their information very close. And I think they felt that the less they let people know, the better off they were. That may well have been true several decades ago. They were dealing with a largely uneducated populace and an uneducated legislature.

Today, however, almost everybody has been through high school and one-third of the population has gone to college. These people — and especially the legislators — are no longer willing to blindly take the word of the educators.

In the California Assembly, for example, all of us have been through college. There are 30 lawyers out of 80. We've all had a lot of education ourselves and we're no longer willing to sit there and swallow whole whatever anyone tells us.

Too often the educators' approach has been, "Just give us more money and we'll make it okay." California has been fairly generous in giving money to educators, I think, and my perspective is that of a fairly liberal spender.

But I haven't seen money make much of a difference in education. The educators keep saying, "Give us more money . . .," and we do, but education isn't getting much better.

We begin to wonder just what the educators' concerns really are — and what depth of understanding they really have about the learning process and how to affect it.

Lately their plea has been less for money than for changes in the laws on employe rights and procedures and structure. But it seems the litany is never in terms of kids or educational reform or programs that recognize children's needs.

I'm not anti-employe. Yet the impression we're getting in the legislature is that school is not for the kids. It's somehow for all those people who are running it or who are employed by it — and that's not the kind of impression that readily builds trust.

Perhaps trust is largely a personal thing, and there isn't a lot of personal involvement between educators and politicians. They don't know one another very well. That's our biggest problem. We have to bridge this gap of distrust by moving out and sharing the experience of wondering about education with the educators. But it works both ways. The educators have to share, too.

I'm not talking about playing politics, but about trusting the politicians with information and having some sense of their good will.

A teacher I know asked her principal if she could invite parents to help out in the classroom and he said, "I don't want the people near the school — they might take over." I don't think that attitude will maintain or rebuild the credibility that education needs for support from the taxpaying public.

Another problem, at least at the university level, is that educational institutions often have the least information about themselves and the least willingness to be self-critical or self-evaluating. That also breeds distrust. The people I trust are those willing to ask questions and share doubts.

At the same time, many legislators aren't informed enough about education. They have a lot of mistaken ideas about what it is and what it ought to do. So I think educators should become more active personally in getting to know legislators. They should call our attention to the kinds of experiences, information and personal contacts that would enable us to make better decisions about education.

Most legislators would go along with that, but it takes some effort by educators sometimes to get us loose from

wherever else we are. We are not basically unfriendly, however, to education.

Education, American style, has been a sort of abstract process. It seems to be so mind-centered and unaware of the whole person that the further you go, the more remote you become from real people and real needs.

Educators need to have the faith and the courage to risk going out into the community and sharing their questions with the community. They need to admit their doubts and provide processes for parental involvement. In California, parent advisory councils are being built up across the state at all school levels.

I've also found that the more we go out and invite people to take part—and the more we share with them what we know and don't know—the more we diffuse the "unfriendly" element in the community. Much hostility toward the schools is based on feelings of being excluded.

Whenever I sit down with angry people and say, "Hey, what's happening?" and "Here's what I'm into and why," the heat almost always diminishes and things get easier.

My thing is psychology — not by training, but by personal need and curiosity. And I have a growing sense that the problems that beset us socially —whether it's drugs or violence or a breakdown of the family- -can be traced back to personal experiences early in life and can be searched out in human terms.

We can pass all the repressive laws we want, but that won't reduce the problems. The problems may shift, but they won't go away.

I've been concerned about trying to understand why people make the choices they do. We have to look at that if we want to prevent some of the problems. And I think the schools should be places where those explorations are undertaken.

When schools deal with kids as though parts of them are bad or shameful, or split them off from themselves, we get the alienation that underlies our major social problems.

Of course, the schools aren't the only institutions dealing with people that way. My sense is that the culture generally is not easy on people — that it operates on the assumption that something is wrong with people. It keeps sending people to institutions to get fixed up.

That whole negative assumption about people underlies a lot of problems that people have. It's sort of a self-fulfilling prophecy. To get to the root of our problems, we must redesign our institutions on an assumption that at least explores the character of being human and enables persons to have some self-esteem.

These are legitimate matters for discussion by legislators, educators, students and people in the community.

Of course, we cannot really legislate good education. We're too removed from it, and it's too personal and "spiritual" a process. What we can do is try not to get in the way of it. We can provide funds and the framework for the people who are there.

The state education department and educators generally can wonder a lot more about the purpose of the schools and whether their operational design helps kids grow or turns kids off.

By and large, the function of American schools has been to delimit persons so they could fit together and build a nation. Now we are witnessing a newly emerging individualism — self-awareness, self-determination, self-esteem — but the schools are still conditioning people away from themselves.

Educators really need to take the lead in questioning that. It's a painful and scary process for many reasons, personally and politically, but it has to be done.

If I could reallocate the state education budget, I'd use a large portion of it for teacher retraining and insist that teachers ask questions about how people live and learn and love and grow. I'd take another large part of the budget to provide more options for students and their families.

I would also try to assure that teachers and citizens participated periodically in conferences on the humanization of education. What is exciting is that this is beginning to happen now in California. The issue is about ready to break; it's on the minds and in the feelings of a lot of people.

Tying into that are community goals for education. In California we asked about goals and got back what we expected: people want achievement in reading, writing and arithmetic. But we also got back from every community — liberal and conservative, black and white — the point that people consider self-esteem to be one of the primary goals of the schools.

If only the educators and the politicians could get together on that basis.

Unit III

EXPLANATION OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHING PRACTICES COMMISSION
AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS BOARD

Efforts toward giving Iowa educators a greater voice in the governance of the education profession began shortly after the release of the report New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards in the early 1960's. The Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS) of the Iowa State Education Association appointed a committee to study recommendations from this report. Of special interest was the portion of the document which described the rationale for the governance of the teaching profession. A major thrust of the New Horizons project called for professional autonomy--that the teaching profession needed the power to govern those areas which are uniquely of concern to the profession. A basic characteristic of any recognized profession is self-direction and accountability: management of its own affairs within a broad framework established by public policy. A profession defines ethical conduct and standards of professional practice and sees that these standards are known and enforced. Moreover, it regulates standards for treatment of its members and establishes machinery for the enforcement of those standards. Specific delegation to the teaching profession of certain rights and responsibilities for decision-making is in the interest of both the public and the profession.

New Horizons described two groups which would become necessary for the teaching profession to establish in order to be responsible for its members.

(1) A professional practices commission: a legally recognized group composed of individual representatives of the teaching profession who are authorized to deal with standards and practices of ethics, competence, and academic freedom where protective or disciplinary action may be needed.

(2) A professional standards board: an official body at the state level to which responsibility is assigned for (a) developing requirements and policies governing accreditation of teacher education institutions, issuance of licenses, and assignment of professional personnel; and (b) conducting studies designed to improve standards of licensure, accreditation, and assignment.

In 1967 the Iowa General Assembly created the Professional Teaching Practices Commission. The text of this Act follows:

Section 1. This Act shall be known as the Professional Teaching Practices Act.

Section 2. For the purpose of this Act the "profession of teaching" or "teaching profession" shall mean persons engaged in teaching or providing related administrative, supervisory, or other services requiring certification from the State Board of Public Instruction.

Section 3. A professional teaching practices commission, which shall be included in the state department of public instruction for administrative purposes, is created consisting of nine (9) members who shall be appointed by the governor. A person, in order to be qualified for appointment to the commission, shall hold a certificate authorizing him to teach in the state of Iowa or be a member of the faculty of an approved teaching education institution in Iowa. The commission shall be composed of four (4) classroom teachers, three (3) school administrators, one (1) member of faculties representing two-year colleges or Iowa colleges or universities approved for teacher education, and one (1) member representing the state department of public instruction.

Initial appointments shall be: four (4) for one (1) year; three (3) for two (2) years; and two (2) for three (3) years. Thereafter, terms shall be for three (3) years. A member may be reappointed to the commission for only one (1) time.

Section 4. The members of the commission shall be allowed a per diem of thirty (30) dollars and their necessary travel and expense while engaged in their official duties.

Section 5. This commission shall have the authority to select its own chairman, establish procedures for its own government and for the development of standards, adopt rules and regulations, and secure legal and other services necessary to its function.

Section 6. The commission shall have the responsibility of developing criteria of professional practices including, but not limited to, such areas as: (1) contractual obligations; (2) competent performance of all members of the teaching profession; and (3) ethical practice toward other members of the profession, parents, students, and the community. However, membership or non-membership in any teachers' organization shall never be a criterion of an individual's professional standing. A violation, as determined by the commission following a hearing, of any of the criteria so adopted shall be deemed to be unprofessional practice and a legal basis for the suspension or revocation of a certificate by the state board of educational examiners.

The commission, in administering its responsibilities under this Act, after a hearing, shall exonerate, warn or reprimand the member of the profession or may recommend the holding of a certification suspension or revocation hearing by the state board of educational examiners.

Section 7. The commission shall be financed by the members of the teaching profession in the amount necessary to carry out the purposes of this Act.

The then Governor Harold Hughes appointed the members of the Commission, and the Commission met several times and began working on operational guidelines. Section 7 of the Act proved to be a problem. The statute provided that "the commission shall be financed by the members of the teaching profession in the amount necessary to carry out the purposes of this Act." The language, while identical to the language of a similar statute in Kentucky, created immediate difficulties. Members of the Professional Teaching Practices Commission appealed to many different educational groups for funds. The ISEA Executive Board responded to a plea for funds. However, in 1968, an opinion written from the office of the Iowa Attorney General stated that the State of Iowa could not accept a gift from the ISEA to assist the Professional Teaching Practices Commission with its expenses. Members of the Commission who served have still never received the per diem allowance of thirty (30) dollars, nor travel and other expense reimbursement for the period they served on the Commission. Deprived of any hope of obtaining funds, the Commission has been inoperative since 1968.

In June of 1971 the Iowa Legislature passed legislation raising the fee for a teaching certificate to $15. A portion of the revenue from this fee will pay the $30,000 appropriation for the operation of a Professional Teaching Practices Act.

Members of the Commission must be newly appointed by the Governor.

ISEA also introduced a bill calling for the creation of a Professional Standards Board in the 64th General Assembly. The proposal was drafted by a committee from the ISEA Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. (Defeated in the legislature)

The Professional Standards Board would develop requirements and policies governing approval of teacher preparation institutions and govern the issurance and endorsement of certificates to professional personnel in elementary, secondary schools, and area vocational and community colleges. The Professional Standards Board also would study and determine necessary changes in programs for teacher preparation and in requirements for certification. The membership of the standards board would represent the teaching profession at both the classroom and supervisory levels and the public and private universities and colleges preparing teachers.

While there is presently an advisory board established to perform these functions, the board has no real power. It may make recommendations only to the state board of public instruction, but some of its recommendations have never even been received by the board. Enactment of a professional standards bill would give the profession a greater voice in its governance. At the present time legislation is pending in House File 573.

Today's Education, December 1971

Establishing a standards board

RUTH DITTES, *1970-73 chairman, Minnesota Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards; business education teacher, Richfield (Minnesota) Senior High School.*

□ **In retrospect, this past year was a busy and profitable one for the Minnesota Education Association as a pilot state in the NEA governance project. Although we did not realize our goal of establishing a legally constituted professional standards board, we did achieve the following:**

1. MEA members are now cognizant of the need for, and highly supportive of, professional standards legislation.

2. State legislators and the public are aware that teachers are interested in greater accountability as well as in economic matters.

3. The NEA image was enhanced through our professional standards thrust.

A part-time staff assistant who coordinated the activities of the TEPS and Legislative commissions with those of our state president and our chief lobbyist was key to the success of our professional standards effort. Equally important was our pilot agreement with NEA which provided for mutual planning, cooperative development of materials, and the money necessary to campaign for a bill.

Without a doubt, securing a professional standards board is a long-range goal. Much groundwork must be laid to convince teachers, legislators, and the public that teachers are willing and capable of assuming responsibility for professionalism and accountability.

In Minnesota, our professional standards thrust began in February 1970 with the adoption of a position paper stating the intent of the MEA to seek legal establishment of an autonomous board to determine standards for certification of teachers, for accreditation of teacher preparation institutions, and for in-service and continuing education for teachers. Since Minnesota already has a legally constituted Professional Practices Commission, the new legislation dealt only with standards.

The following August, MEA trained 60 teacher-leaders to serve as a professional standards cadre. Their job was to contact teachers and legislators to discuss the importance of a professional standards board.

In November, local association presidents and chairmen of the TEPS, Legislative, and PR&R committees met in a statewide conference to prepare for the legislative push. NEA-TEPS provided a discussion guide, transparencies, and a filmstrip-tape on governance that presidents could take back to their locals.

After the statewide conference, participants held similar meetings in their locals prior to the opening of the state legislature in January. In the meantime, we found influential legislators to sponsor the bill and we identified a second cadre of association leaders to make personal contacts, at frequent intervals, with our legislators. Our state Legislative Commission and chief lobbyist set a high priority on this legislation.

When the legislative session began, MEA seemed to be in a powerful position with its members and with legislators on the question of the bill. Legislators were actually asking when the bill would be available. "Lobbyline," a telephone communication network, and *Window on Legislation*, a legislative newsletter, kept MEA members informed on the bill's progress.

With all of this going for us, we naturally assumed the bill would become law. Not so. When the education committees in the legislature discussed the bill, our opposition came out of the walls. Yes, state department staff, state board of education members, administrators of teacher education institutions, and school board association members suddenly felt this legislation was a real threat, since broadening the base of professional control to include elementary and secondary teachers would diminish the power of the groups presently in control.

Some school administrators and other educational specialists could not see their way clear to support the MEA's bill because they feared that elementary and secondary teachers would determine certification for them. MEA's coalition efforts with the opposition were weak and late.

MEA encountered another difficulty. The Minnesota Federation of Teachers submitted a weaker bill than the MEA's—one which sought only advisory power. Legislators believe the standards bill could have passed both the House and Senate committees by one or two votes had it not been for the Federation bill.

Even though the MEA bill did not come out of committee, the powerful legislator-authors were successful in steering it into interim study. Now, a committee of legislators will consider the whole professional standards issue, along with other education problems, in order to make recommendations to the next legislature. We consider this an advantage, since any recommendation by the interim committee is likely to have greater acceptance in the legislature than one coming from an association or organization.

In the next two years, MEA must prepare pungent testimony, with facts and figures, attesting to the need for a professional standards board. We must form an alliance with the groups which opposed our bill. Continued support from NEA is imperative.

Though the task of securing standards legislation is not easy, I contend that the time is now. □

Teacher Standards and Practices Commissions: A Directory. Second edition. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1974.

GEORGIA

Name:	PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES COMMISSION Established 1967 under the Professional Teaching Practices Act
Type:	Autonomous and advisory to State Board of Education and local school districts
Members:	17, nominated by groups representing professional departments, recommended by state superintendent, appointed by State Board of Education. 3-year terms staggered; eligible for reappointment once.
Officers:	Chairman, vice-chairman, executive committee
Budget/Source:	$75,000 state appropriation, plus grants
Staff:	2 professionals, support staff

HAWAII

No teacher standards and practices board or commission. Legislation being planned by state association.

IDAHO

Name:	PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS COMMISSION Established 1972 by statute combining Professional Standards Board with previously established Professional Practices Commission
Type:	Advisory to State Board of Education
Members:	17, nominated by organizations represented, appointed by State Board of Education. 3-year terms, staggered; eligible for reappointment any number of times.
Officers:	Chairman, vice-chairman, secretary
Meetings:	Quarterly and on call
Budget/Source:	$84,000 from certificate fees and surplus
Staff:	1 secretary

ILLINOIS

No teacher standards and practices board or commission. Legislation pending.

INDIANA

Name:	TEACHER TRAINING AND LICENSING COMMISSION Established 1945 by state statute
Type:	Part of State Board of Education (Board of Education consists of 3 commissions: Textbook Commission, General Commission, and Teacher Training and Licensing Commission)
Members:	7, appointed by governor. 4-year terms.
Officers:	Chairman, secretary
Meetings:	Monthly
Budget/Source:	State appropriation

IOWA

Name:	PROFESSIONAL TEACHING PRACTICES COMMISSION Established 1967 under the Professional Practices Act; operating appropriation passed in 1971
Type:	Advisory to State Board of Education
Members:	9, nominated by individuals and teacher associations or organizations, appointed by governor. Terms staggered; eligible for reappointment once.
Officers:	Chairman, vice-chairman, secretary
Meetings:	Monthly or on call
Budget/Source:	$40,000 (1973-75), from state appropriations
Staff:	1 support, part-time

KANSAS

Name: (a) PROFESSIONAL TEACHING STANDARDS BOARD
(b) PROFESSIONAL TEACHING PRACTICES COMMISSION
Established 1969 under the Kansas Professional Teaching Practices Act

Type: Advisory to State Board of Education

Members: (a) 35, (b) 17, nominated by teacher associations or organizations, appointed by State Board of Education. 3-year terms, staggered; eligible for reappointment once.

Officers: Chairman, vice-chairman, secretary

Meetings: On call

Budget/Source: $10,000, from state appropriation (in State Department of Education Budget) and per diem for members

KENTUCKY

Name: PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES COMMISSION
Established 1962

Type: Advisory to State Board of Education

Members: 12, nominated by teacher associations or organizations, appointed by governor. 3-year terms, staggered; eligible for reappointment once.

Officers: Chairman, vice-chairman, secretary

Meetings: On call

Budget/Source: $3,000, from the profession

Staff: 1 professional, 1 support; part-time

LOUISIANA

No teacher standards and practices board or commission.
No legislation planned by state association.

TABLE 1: POWERS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF STATE TEACHER STANDARDS AND PRACTICES COMMISSIONS/BOARDS

STATE	ESTABLISH CRITERIA FOR:						Adopt Rules, Regulations, Procedures	Hold Hearings	Subpoena Witnesses	Warn, Reprimand Professionals	Suspend, Revoke Reinstate Certificates	Conduct Studies
	Certification, Preparation	Teacher Education Accreditation	Performance, Competency	Teacher Contracts	Continuation In Profession	Ethical Conduct						
ALABAMA												
ALASKA	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	R	X
ARIZONA					X	X		X			X[a]	X
ARKANSAS												
CALIFORNIA	X	X	X[b]		X[b]	X	X[c]	X	X[d]	X[b]	X	X
COLORADO						X	X	X	X	X	R	X
CONNECTICUT	R										R	
DELAWARE												
FLORIDA	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	R	
GEORGIA			X			X	X	X	X		R[e]	X
HAWAII												
IDAHO			X			X	X	X	X	X	R	X
ILLINOIS												
INDIANA	X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X
IOWA			X	X	X	X	X	X				X
KANSAS	R				R	R	R	X	X	R	R	X
KENTUCKY						X	X	X	X	X		X
LOUISIANA												
MAINE	X	X			X			X				X
MARYLAND	X	X					X	X				X
MASSACHUSETTS	R	R										X
MICHIGAN												
MINNESOTA						X	X	X	X	X	R	
MISSISSIPPI												
MISSOURI												
MONTANA												
NEBRASKA			R		R	R	X	X	X	X	R	X
NEVADA												
NEW HAMPSHIRE	X		X		X		X	X		X	R	X
NEW JERSEY												
NEW MEXICO												
NEW YORK												
NORTH CAROLINA												
NORTH DAKOTA	X					X	X	X	X	X	R	X
OHIO												
OKLAHOMA	R	R					X	X	X	X	R	X
OREGON	X	X	X	R	X	R	X	X	X	X	X	X
PENNSYLVANIA	R	R			R		X	X	X			X
RHODE ISLAND												
SOUTH CAROLINA												
SOUTH DAKOTA			X			X	X	X	X	X		X
TENNESSEE												
TEXAS						X	X	X				
UTAH				R	X	X	X	X	X	X	R	X
VERMONT												
VIRGINIA												
WASHINGTON												
WEST VIRGINIA												
WISCONSIN												
WYOMING											-	

R= recommend. a/ Subject to confirmation by State Board of Education. b/ Applies to licensure only. c/ Subject to "stay" by State Board of Education. d/ Credentials Committee can. e/ Also denial of certificate.

TABLE 2: MEMBERSHIP OF STATE TEACHER STANDARDS AND PRACTICES COMMISSIONS/BOARDS ACCORDING TO GROUPS REPRESENTED

STATE	TEACHERS			SUPERVISORS	COUNSELORS/STUDENT PERSONNEL	ADMINISTRATORS			LOCAL BOARDS OF EDUCATION	STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION	STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION	LAY PUBLIC	HIGHER EDUCATION		PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS	OTHER	TOTAL
	ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY	JUNIOR COLLEGE			ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS	SECONDARY PRINCIPALS	SUPERINTENDENTS					PUBLIC	PRIVATE			
ALABAMA																	
ALASKA	5					1	1				1		1				9
ARIZONA	5	4				1	1	1		1					2	1	16
ARKANSAS																	
CALIFORNIA	4				1	1			2			3	4				15
COLORADO	4	5[a]				1	1	1									12
CONNECTICUT	4					3			3			3	1	1			15
DELAWARE																	
FLORIDA	4	4	1	1		1	1	1		1			1		4		19
GEORGIA	4	4				1	1	2			1				4		17
HAWAII																	
IDAHO	6				1	1	1	1	1		1		3[b]	1		1[a]	17
ILLINOIS																	
INDIANA	2	1			1			1		1			1				7
IOWA	2	2				1	1	1			1		1				9
KANSAS (Board)	3	7[a]	3[c]			1	2	4[d]			2	2	1	1			35
(Com'n)	3	4[a]	2			1	2	1			1					3[e]	17
KENTUCKY	5[a]			1	2	1	1	1					1				12
LOUISIANA																	
MAINE	9						3				3		3			3[f]	21[e]
MARYLAND	3	3			2[g]						1	2	2			2[h]	15
MASSACHUSETTS																	21[i]
MICHIGAN																	
MINNESOTA	4	4						1				2	2	1		1[j]	15
MISSISSIPPI																	

MISSOURI																	
MONTANA																	
NEBRASKA	4	4				1		1					2				12[j]
NEVADA																	
NEW HAMPSHIRE	4	5[a]				1	2	1			1	2		5			21
NEW JERSEY																	
NEW MEXICO																	
NEW YORK																	
NORTH CAROLINA																	
NORTH DAKOTA		4						3	2								9
OHIO																	
OKLAHOMA (Board)		8[a]				1	1	1	2			2	3	5	1	1	2[k] 27
(Com'n)																	16
OREGON	4	4				1	1	2[l]					3	1	1		17
PENNSYLVANIA		7				1		3					1	3			1[f] 16
RHODE ISLAND																	
SOUTH CAROLINA																	
SOUTH DAKOTA																	11[i]
TENNESSEE																	
TEXAS	3	3	1	1	2	1	1	2					1				15
UTAH		6		2	1	1	1										11
VERMONT																	
VIRGINIA																	
WASHINGTON																	
WEST VIRGINIA																	
WISCONSIN																	
WYOMING																	

[a]One vocational teacher/employee/representative.

[b]One must be a special education teacher.

[c]One junior college "representative."

[d]One nonpublic.

[e]Three nonvoting student members included.

[f]Teacher education student(s).

[g]Two from supervisors, elementary and secondary principals.

[h]Nonpublic school representatives.

[i]One "other" teacher.

[j]Category numbers not specified. Numbers shown are current membership.

[k]Chancellor of higher education and school nurse.

[l]One superintendent of intermediate district.

Learning, March 1974

STATE of the ART

A SECOND FRONT IN THE ACCOUNTABILITY BATTLE

The movement to require teachers to prove they really teach is becoming two-pronged. The first expression, accountability (see "The Heavy Hand of Accountability," page 24), has been around for some time; in essence, it demands that teachers, in order to hold their jobs, must prove they do indeed teach. The newest wrinkle is competency-based teacher education (CBTE), also called performance-based teacher education. It requires proof of classroom effectiveness *before* a teacher can get a job, i.e., in order to obtain certification.

CBTE is particularly big in California, where the state commission for teacher preparation and licensing was set apart two years ago from the state department of public instruction and made directly responsible to the state legislature. The second most populous state, New York, followed suit late last year. Its education department announced that it wants all state teacher-training institutions to move in stages toward performance-based education, a process to be completed in seven years.

With at least 15 other states involved in somewhat similar programs, CBTE is a matter of growing concern to teacher unions and many education professors. Their opposition was strengthened by a research memorandum recently prepared by the Stanford Research Institute for the U.S. Office of Education. "The lack of knowledge regarding the relationship of teacher behavior to pupil outcomes," says the memorandum, calls into question the whole concept of CBTE.

Learning, October 1973

STATE of the ART

TEACHER KNOWS (TEACHERS) BEST

A startling educational ideal seems to have taken first root, to wit, that teachers are in a better position than anyone else to establish and administer criteria and procedures both for teacher certification and for training programs. The breakthrough came in Oregon, the first state in the nation to assign responsibility for both functions to a board dominated by teachers. The panel, to be appointed by the State Board of Education, will include 14 educators and 3 laymen. State Superintendent Dale Parnell hailed the innovation as a way "to give educators the tools they need to be accountable for the performance of their profession."

Today's Education, September-October 1973

Oregon Enacts Teacher Certification Act

This past summer, Oregon enacted a teacher certification measure which NEA hailed as a "Magna Carta" for Oregon teachers and a blueprint for other states to follow.

The legislation assures the right for a statewide professional commission to certify teachers and provides authority for the teacher-dominated commission to regulate programs leading to certification and approval of teacher training programs in colleges and universities.

The statute transfers the authority for approving certification from the State Board of Education to the Teacher Standards and Practices Commission. Legislation passed earlier this year by Oregon lawmakers gives the Commission authority for certificate revocation.

The two measures give Oregon educators more autonomy in controlling the profession than teachers in any other states have.

3.5

ACHIEVING PROFESSIONAL GOVERNANCE

minnesota: GUIDE AND SCRIPT

COLOR FILMSTRIP WITH SOUND

1. Title frame

2. What is professional governance?

3. Is it educators controlling education?

4. Or is it educators setting standards for themselves as a part of accountability?

5. What precisely are the professional rights teachers want?

6. What precisely are the responsibilities that go with those rights?

7. What does governance mean to me as a teacher? What's in it for me?

8. What can we do to achieve professional governance?

9. These are some of the questions many teachers are asking about governance. Let's consider what governance is.

10. Governance exists now. Think about it. Somebody now controls the teaching profession. The question is - how is professional governance different from what we have now?

11. In most states the responsibility for governance of the teaching profession lies with state boards of lay citizens, not with teachers.

12. An NEA resolution says, "the profession must govern itself. Members of the profession through professional standards boards and professional practices commissions must set and enforce standards of license, practice, ethics, and competence."

13. In other words, members of the profession should be in charge of both preparation and initial entry into the profession and of continuing education and performance.

14. One way the profession should control preparation is by supervising accreditation of teacher education institutions and programs.

15. Also, professionals should govern continuing education during their career. They should evaluate their current teaching and then plan experiences that will keep them "in tune" with constantly changing educational needs.

16. And they should monitor their own teaching performance by setting standards of competence, and seeing to it that those standards are met.

17. Won't people object to educators' controlling education? After all, it's a public function paid for by the public.

18. We are not asking for control of education. That means setting policies, deciding what the schools should do. The public should have ultimate control over that.

19. Our job is to use what we know about teaching and learning to carry out public policies and reach public goals in the best possible way. To do that, we must have teachers who are both well prepared and can maintain their competence.

20. Other professionals who serve the public--for example doctors, dentists, architects, lawyers and engineers, to name a few--are licensed by state boards of examiners. However, all or most of the members of those boards are themselves doctors, dentists, architects, lawyers and engineers, not lay citizens. It's only in education that state boards are made up of laymen rather than practitioners.

21. We educators should be accountable through chosen professional representatives for the quality of our profession. One way we can do this is through a state teacher standards and licensure board that is delegated three aspects of professional governance. The three are, first, preparation and entry, second, continuing education, and third, maintenance of competence.

22 Tax-payers should like the accountability --they'd be getting better prepared teachers for their dollar.

23. A professional standards and licensure board would be accountable to the public through the state legislature. By delegating authority to the board, the legislature is simply finding a way to get one of its jobs done.

24. If the board did anything not in the public interest, like--try to keep the profession small so salaries would go up, the legislature could change the board's powers and duties.

25. Just who would be on a teacher standards and licensure board, anyway?

26. Representatives from the major segments of the teaching profession--teachers from schools for early childhood through college--and, of course, administrators who have the responsibility of making schools function properly.

27. The board would be accountable to all these groups because each one would nominate members to serve. The board would be accountable to the profession as well as to the public.

28. Of course, elementary and secondary teachers are closest to what is needed in the classroom, so a majority of the board members would be such teachers.

29. The law might provide that all licensed practitioners through their professional organizations or by petition nominate board members to represent them. If a state is small, teachers might vote on a possible panel of representatives. The governor should make final choices from the profession's nominees.

30. In any event, professional organizations which represent many educators will be able to serve as a check and balance by informing the board of their concerns. From time to time, they can insist that the board let organizations know what is being done.

31. After all, the board won't just stop at setting standards; it will see that they are enforced. It will also study problems and adjust regulations as circumstances change.

32. Tell me more about the professional governance powers teachers expect to achieve through these state boards.

33. First, the board would set the qualifications for licensing educators and would decide what kinds of licenses to issue. For example, they might agree there should be 3 kinds of licenses: assistant or intern, basic, and advanced or specialist.

34. Standards for licensing could be more flexible than they now are. Licenses might not be awarded on coursework alone. Demonstrated competence may well be an important part, too.

35. Maybe the details of an advanced credential after an initial license could be worked out locally by the professional organization and the school board.

36. The board could waive requirements in individual cases where there were exceptional reasons.

37. The second power a professional board should have is responsibility for standards for accreditation of institutions that prepare prospective teachers. The board could either originate its own standards or adopt some already in use, like those of the NCATE, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

38. Third, the board should be empowered to suspend or revoke licenses when necessary--or a separate professional practices group might do this. It should have the power to subpoena witnesses for hearings, too.

39. The fourth thing the board should do is design or promote studies to improve teacher education for both prospective and practicing teachers.

40. There must be a catch here someplace. What do I give up or take on when professional governance becomes a fact?

41. Good question. Professional governance means a lot of work for both individual educators and professional organizations.

42. For one thing, educators would have to hammer out positions so that the members of the standards and licensure board could truly represent their professional clientele.

43. Then, too, professional organizations rather than state boards should take responsibility for enforcing the code of ethics. Licensure boards would handle only infringements serious enough to involve expulsion from the profession--that is, license revocation.

44. The board or a professional practices commission could revoke licenses of practitioners only in extreme cases by employing due process. That way, the association would be free to act as advocate for an accused teacher if it chose to do so--without getting into a conflict of interest.

45. I like the idea of teachers governing our profession. It would give me a new sense of satisfaction in my job.

46. Yes, and you would know that the new teachers joining your school and your association were competent--meeting standards you'd helped to establish.

47. We could improve the preparation of our student teachers and interns, too.

48. Most of all, we'd have a share in planning our own continuing education to make sure it contributes to and matches our needs and interests instead of just accumulating course credits or studying what someone else prescribes.

49. That sounds good. What do we do to achieve professional governance?

50. The NEA has developed a model Teacher Standards and Licensure Act. If you don't have it already, get a copy from your state association--and study it.

51. You can also get information from the Division of Instruction and Professional Development clearinghouse on governance at the NEA Headquarters. For example, you can find out where different states stand on professional governance. A few states have already begun. Others are starting from scratch.

52. You can get in contact with teachers in other states with needs like yours, and exchange experiences and ideas. But you also need to examine your own state's special conditions and needs, its philosophical and political climate.

53. Organize your state and local instruction and legislative committees to work for passage of professional governance and negotiations laws, and for strong tenure protection. The education association is best fitted to work for the establishment of such laws that will benefit all members of the profession.

54. Once the board is established, support its activities and work to see that it functions properly.

55. We can use our negotiation power to improve instruction as well as for welfare purposes. Also, we can secure full involvement in evaluation, both program and performance.

56. Assume responsibility for designing continuing education programs, and for securing sound conditions for working with student teachers and interns.

57. You were right when you said professional self-goverance involves a lot of responsibility. But it means we can improve both our teaching and our learning--and be more accountable for quality education. That's good for the public and good for us, too.

58. Now that we've looked at professional governance generally, let's take a closer look at Minnesota.

59. Minnesota has been an NEA pilot state since 1970. At the time, the MEA Delegate Assembly formally set its sights on a new direction in education--the obtaining of a professional standards board for teachers.

60. Much has been accomplished since that beginning. Achieving that goal now lies just ahead.

61. Minnesota teachers believe that a professional standards board means self-governance, which includes the setting of standards for initial certification, recertification, continuing education, and in-service education.

62. In 1971 the State Legislature had its first look at the new bill, and in the 1973 legislative session the lawmakers will make a decision on this important educational issue.

63. A massive effort has gone into preparing for this crucial legislative session. Each year since 1970 the MEA Delegate Assembly and Board of Directors have reaffirmed their commitment to professional standards, reidentifying it as a top priority.

64. In phase one of the program, state division and local TEPS committees were busy designing governance workshops and developing materials.

65. Uni-Serv cluster meetings and local association meetings were held to involve the membership in this drive to obtain self-governance and professional autonomy.

66. Filmstrips, overlays, brochures and booklets were prepared, distributed and utilized in locals throughout the state.

67. Phase two of the program begins now. Local associations must accept the task of informing their local legislators, members of other educational agencies, and community groups in order to secure written commitment of support for a professional standards board.

68. Minnesota teachers should not be deceived by the notion that the new state continuing education regulation gives teachers self-governance. The wide range of problems facing the profession cannot be taken care of by one regulation.

69. Phase three of the program will begin in January 1973 when the legislative session convenes. Communications to the legislators will continue from the locals, and communications to the locals will continue from MEA.

70. Minnesota teachers believe that the time to accomplish this goal is now. The decision is yours. Can we count on your assistance in achieving real professional status for Minnesota teachers and improving the educational opportunities for Minnesota students?

71. (Music - Film Credits)

3.6

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TEACHERS HELPING TEACHERS

By Bruce Raskin

One steep flight of steps above a busy street in San Francisco sits a vast warehouse—though once inside no one would recognize it as such. Its walls are brightly painted and colorful carpets cover every inch of floor space. Interesting objects stretch as far as the eye can see—Styrofoam igloos, microscopes, couches, wooden blocks, books, kites suspended from the ceiling, real trees, plants, photographs and musical instruments. And there are people. In groups, talking animatedly; in pairs, discussing softly; alone, examining quietly. A calling card tacked on the door identifies this warehouse as the Teachers' Active Learning Center (TALC).

In a corner of a huge room sit eight people around a horseshoe configuration of tables. On one table are three big piles of what certainly looks like dirt. "But this is *not* dirt!" protests John Bryan, director of the city arboretum in San Francisco and guest leader of this workshop on plants for TALC. "It is sand, loam and peat moss--living planting soil." Bryan and the entire group roll up their sleeves, dig their hands into the soil and begin mixing.

"What is the ratio of ingredients?" asks one of the curious participants, releasing a flood of questions from the others.

"What?" "Why?" "How?" they ask, and Bryan answers them all.

Another ten people have wandered into the group. Bryan leads them toward a wall of windows, to a huge display of plants. Each person picks up a pot with his name on it and, once again, sits down. "How do I take the plant out of the pot?" asks Bryan.

"Dig it up?"

"Smash it?"

Bryan turns the pot upside down and gently taps the edge of the pot on the table. Out comes the plant into his hands completely intact. He points out how, in the week since the first session of this series of workshops, the plant has rooted. Each person proceeds to take his plant out of the pot. After shaking the soil loose, the roots are examined with hand lenses.

Seeds are examined. In a plastic bag half full of soil, an Idaho potato is planted and covered with still more soil. A large asparagus fern is liberated from its pot and delicately separated into several different plants. With a pot, wire cutters, a large plastic bag and a wire coat hanger to support the bag over the pot, Bryan makes a greenhouse in miniature. Another coat hanger and a plastic food container are magically transformed into a hanging basket. Everyone is doing something.

"This shows us what can be done in a classroom," says Bob Jimenez, principal of a San Fancisco elementary school, who has come along with four teachers from his school. "There is a whole attitude, a whole learning environment here."

In another area of this same large room sits another group of people. Math specialist Marilyn Burns points to several large potted trees standing nearby. "How tall are they?" People get up and with rulers, string, sticks and spans of the hand, they measure them. Back in their seats, graphs comparing the heights are made. There are other activities for those who finish quickly and for those who choose not to measure the trees. "Here are two things I can use in my classroom tomorrow," cries a teacher.

These are teachers . . . learning. Not from texts, not from lecturers, not from curriculum guides. They are learning by doing, by experimenting. This place is in San Francisco, but it might just as easily be the Advisory & Learning Exchange in Washington, D.C., or The Learning Center in St. Louis or the District Six Advisory Center in Philadelphia or the Advisory for Open Education in Cambridge. Or any of over 100 such places (no one seems to know the exact number) in the United States.

No two are exactly alike, but the loose name for them is "teacher centers." Though technically they resemble "in-service" training, they attempt to help teachers explore their own ongoing education in ways that are far different from most conventional methods. Says Amity Buxton, director of TALC, "At first, active participation is shocking to teachers because many of them have forgotten what it is like to be a learner. But most of them quickly loosen up and begin to like it."

The usual starting point is an informal but structured workshop. A monthly schedule of workshops from TALC, typical of the schedules of many centers, reads something like this:

The Game of Reading (K–6): Improvise and use new reading games for diagnosing reading problems. *Science/Crafts* (4–8): Make science apparatus. *A Pickel Is a Pain* (3–6): Make new and strange combinations of words. *Plants Are Like Children*: Start a garden in your classroom using materials found at home. *Mathematics Workshops:* Use a variety of manipulative materials in creative ways. *Photography:* Photograms and darkroom techniques. *Art—The Child's Self-Image:* Art materials and products that a child can use to portray himself. *Styrofoam:* Cut and fabricate an igloo, a hummingbird's nest or a beaver's home.

Other centers proffer their own tempting kaleidoscopes of workshop titles: Puppet Making, Changing the Classroom Environment, Natural Dyeing, Chinese Cookery in the Classroom, Cardboard Carpentry, Kite Making, Hoops and Bicycle Tires, Games in the Affective Domain, ESS Science—Peas and Particles, Record Keeping in the Open Classroom, African Storytelling and Games, What Do You Do With Junk That's Too Good to Throw Away? Behavior of Mealworms, Supermarket Math and Personal Measurement....

Today's Education, March-April 1974

SOME TEACHER-CENTERED IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

By William J. O'Keefe
Free-Lance Writer, Des Moines, Iowa

The National Education Association is presently spearheading a drive to make teacher-centered in-service education a regular ongoing part of a school district's program for the professional development of its staff.

The philosophy behind teacher-centered in-service teacher education, as defined by the NEA, is to serve the needs of the teacher so that the teacher can respond effectively to the educational demands of the students and society. To do this, the teachers must have sufficient control over their own training, development, and professional performance to make each school an optimum operation in its time and place.

In many respects, this approach to in-service teacher education is a break from the traditional past. Yesteryear, school board members usually felt that the authority for any teacher training programs should rest solely with the board or administration. But today, when the public is demanding accountability from its public education institutions, teachers are using negotiated agreements to fix the responsibilities for action.

In-service education, the NEA contends, must be substantially more than extension courses offered by a neighboring university. While these resources can undoubtedly be helpful, the most valuable and least used resources exist in the (teachers) peer group. Furthermore, the professional decisions need to be made at the building level—where the action is.

Effective in-service education affords teachers an opportunity to get together within a collegial setting (as contrasted with attending a college class) to discuss common problems and to pool their resources in development of new approaches to teaching.

For teachers, it is often a relearning experience that shifts attention from the *what* of teaching—the subject matter—to the *who* of teaching—the students and teachers themselves, who are the featured participants in the teaching-learning transaction. The real needs of both students and teachers influence the quality of life in school. And the quality of life in school plays an important role in the quality and quantity of learning.

The following examples seem to me to reflect the NEA approach to teacher-centered in-service programs.

Negotiations between the Cold Spring Harbor (New York) Teachers Association and the Board of Education last year resulted in the allocation of $38,000 for professional growth programs including one full-year and one half-year sabbatical leave. An additional $3,000 was negotiated as part of the reopened items for the second year of the contract, which runs through June 30 of this year.

After the school board agreed to spend the funds, a committee was established to monitor the distribution of the funds. The committee was composed of the superintendent or his designee, one elementary and one high school principal, the president of the teachers association or his designee, one elementary and one secondary school teacher.

Cecelia M. Collins of the Cold Spring Harbor Teachers Association reports: "Because the specific allocation gave the teachers an opportunity for professional growth which would reach a larger group of people than those who would normally take sabbatical leaves, the committee began to assume the role of an initiator of an atmosphere which would enable a teacher to devise a project for himself.

"Even more enticing than a teacher working alone was the possibility of having several teachers work in concert. Thus the professional growth fund would also provide the opportunity for improving and building collegial relationships."

As the result of the committee's considerations, applications were accepted for mini-grants in small group or individual proposals which offered a chance to retreat from the classroom and investigate an idea, approach, or project.

Since the inauguration of the expanded professional growth program at Cold Spring Harbor, several projects have been undertaken with vigorous enthusiasm and marked success. For example, the high school mathematics teacher took advantage of the mini-grant program to take a month's leave of absence to study established programs of individualized instruction of mathematics in other schools. Upon completion of his research, he returned to his classroom equipped with new insight on the problems of his classes and those of the mathematics department as a whole, as well as an awareness of the

prospects for individualized instruction.

Another in-service program at Cold Spring Harbor involved an elementary school librarian and a sixth grade teacher, who attended a two-week session at a Wisconsin Audubon Camp to study the environment and ecology. During their stay at the Audubon Camp, they participated in workshops, field trips, canoe trips, and evening seminars.

These experiences gave them an increased awareness and knowledge of a particular ecosystem. Since the two worked in different schools, the probability of increasing the coordination of environmentally related programs in the elementary school was definitely enhanced.

The program enabled an elementary reading specialist to attend the "Open Education in England" program sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the International Council on Education for Teaching in England. The understanding she gained of the underlying philosophy and actual classroom practice in operation in Britain's primary schools helped her redefine the reading specialist's role in the open classroom setting.

The 82 teachers in the Maine School Administrative District No. 3 at Unity, Maine, have an excellent in-service program which enables them to devote each Friday to various workshops and seminars to improve themselves professionally. They spend from 8 a.m. to noon that day attending workshops organized by teams of teachers, students, parents, and administrators.

Unity Superintendent Albert Brewster believes classroom reforms happen only if teachers have the time to learn about and plan new teaching strategies.

The Unity program, "Individualized Learning and Responsibility Development," is funded by ESEA Title III. The Maine State Department of Education granted the district a special dispensation to have students in school less than the number of required days to see if the positive effects of such a program would outweigh the negative effects. The workshops range from developing an elementary science studies program to developing new approaches in the teaching of language arts on the high school level.

According to David Day, special projects director for the school district, "At first the programs were primarily led by resource people (from the University of Maine, State Department of Education, other public schools and colleges, and independent educational consultants), but more and more, the staff and community have found the resources right here within the district."

Day says that students contribute to the in-service program by visiting other schools and working on curriculum with teachers, while other students work at jobs, study, rest, or plan field trips.

Day believes that if it is determined that the program, now in its third year, is definitely successful, it may be continued by the district.

Another example of an excellent in-service program is the Scarsdale Teachers Institute at Scarsdale, New York.

Now in its sixth year of operation, the Institute is part of a negotiated agreement between the Scarsdale Teachers Association and the Board of Education. "It is a splendid example of how teachers can take the initiative in promoting and participating in their own professional development," according to Min Koblitz, teacher and vice-chairwoman of the Instruction and Professional Development Council of the National Education Association.

Werner Feig, Institute chairman, explains that the goal of the Institute's programs is to identify and analyze current developments, which in turn will enable the participants to utilize the information gleaned "to strengthen or revitalize a given curriculum in the classroom. The teacher, like the student, is therefore engaged in information gathering, knowledge sharing, and direct feedback."

For a nominal fee, the Institute offers a broad range of courses on contemporary issues. Here are two examples:

"Stereotyping the Majority," which explores the extent of sexual bias, aims at helping school personnel and parents understand their individual sexual prejudices, the traditional means of establishing sex roles, the social pressures on and the expectations of individuals. In this particular workshop, the participants explore their attitudes, examine the materials they are using in their teaching, and try to change some of the school practices.

"Man and His Impact on the Environment" helps participants understand the various types of man-caused pollution, the efforts undertaken to curtail it, and the steps toward solving the critical worldwide problem today and in the future. The course investigates the effects of pollution on the social and economic well-being of all nations and explores governmental intervention on local and national levels.

The Benton (Arkansas) Education Association (BEA), in cooperation with the Arkansas Education Association (AEA) and the NEA, is carrying out a pilot project on program and performance evalua tion. An association committee composed of the assistant superintendent for instruction, a former school board member, and key association leaders

decided that in order to carry out the evaluation of teachers in Benton it was necessary for them—as professionals—to design their own evaluation procedures. They have done this by writing an evaluation instrument similar to that of the Denver Plan and the Fayetteville (Arkansas) Plan.

In addition, the AEA and the NEA worked with the BEA in setting up an arrangement with the University of Arkansas to provide University credit for all teachers and principals in the association who take part in the program. Members have a choice between a three-hour graduate workshop or independent study for variable credit of one to three hours. Course work is tailored to individual in-service needs identified in the evaluation. The plan has been written by the committee, approved by the superintendent, and is being implemented by the BEA. It is a fine example of teacher-designed in-service teacher education.

With the assistance of Lesley College, which has a small graduate program, the Massachusetts Teachers Association is now in the midst of planning an MTA Graduate Institute to provide credit courses in areas of study selected by teachers. The association gathered a think tank of some 90 teachers who in turn identified 30 areas in which courses should be developed. Once the courses are finalized, most will be taught by teacher-members of MTA and the MTA staff. In some instances, Lesley College may give MTA members and staff faculty appointments so that they can act as field agents for the college.

The MTA is also beginning to formulate a plan for a Master of Education degree in Organizational Leadership in two areas: one for administrators and the second for teacher-leaders.

Whether in Unity, Maine, or in Benton, Arkansas, teachers are discovering that there are many different roads to professional development and that their colleagues are the richest untapped resource available. With the support of the united teaching profession, teachers can become prime movers in their own career development. □

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Des Moines Daily Register

NEA Eyes Des Moines for Teacher Training Project

The National Education Asso-ion (NEA) is considering ıblishing an experimental professional development proj- for teachers in Des Moines.

he purpose of the pilot program would be to upgrade the ·aching skills of Des Moines chers.

Demonstration Projects

The NEA is considering a to- of nine cities and two states ı demonstration projects. Although decisions won't be made til Monday, an NEA spokes-n said Des Moines is certain to be chosen.

If Des Moines is selected, the s Moines Education Associ-ion (DMEA) would be responsible for planning and imple-menting the proposal.

It is hoped pilot projects can serve as models for similar teacher in-service training programs sponsored by ocal NEA-affiliated education associations across the U. S., said Robert A. Luke, an NEA staff member from Washington, D. C.

"We're trying to find local education associations willing to demonstrate what can be accomplished in this area," Luke explained.

A trend toward continuing life-long education is developing in the U. S., Luke said, and teachers want to be part of the trend.

Common In Industry

In-service training is common in industry, government and the armed services, he said, but in-service training in school districts often is limited and superficial.

Teachers frequently have little or no say in what is taught during such training sessions, Luke said.

"To be effective, in-service training has to have the involvement of teachers," he said. "Administrators don't know the frustrations, anx-

TRAINING—
Please turn to Page Three

Claims District Will Gladly Put Money Into Program

TRAINING---

Continued from Page One

ieties, problems and difficulties facing teachers."

If the Des Moines project is given a green light, it will be based on an "assessment of teacher instruction and professional development needs" conducted by NEA staff members.

Lois Karasik, an NEA staff member from Washington, D. C., who is administering the needs-assessment survey, said Des Moines teachers have been asked 90 questions about conditions in such areas as staffing, curriculum and administration. The teachers then were asked how they felt conditions should be.

"It is a way of getting at teacher perceptions of the way things are and the way they want them to be," Mrs. Karasik explained. "If there is a difference between what is and what they would like it to be, then that is a need.

"It is just a tool to identify teacher problems."

The Des Moines needs-assessment survey, when the results are tabulated in mid-May, will be invaluable in pinpointing areas that need attention during in-service training, she said.

The NEA has conducted needs-assessment surveys in 18 cities but Des Moines is the first city where it has been combined with efforts to start a teacher in-service training program, Mrs. Karasik said.

Different Uses

"We hope it will have many other kinds of uses," she said. The surveys already have proven helpful in influencing administrators because they are a measure of how teachers feel about conditions in their school district.

Eventually, the NEA hopes state education associations will take over this function and serve as the testing agency for local education associations, Mrs. Karasik said. The Iowa State Education Association has expressed interest in the concept and is watching the DMEA's experience closely.

If Des Moines is given the nod as a teacher training center, it would be at least 18 months before the program could get underway, according to Luke.

Funding would come from the local school district, he said. "The administration is going to find it gets so much extra teaching effectiveness, it is going to be glad to put money into the program."

Luke said he could not estimate how much money might be needed. "We really aren't that far along," he said.

Experimental Project

The experimental project, Luke stressed, would not take the place of further college work or school district in-service training aimed at retraining teachers for such changes as team teaching or open spaces.

Most of the in-service training under the pilot program would be conducted in the schools by fellow teachers. "Ideally it should reach all teachers and should be established in every school," he said. A permanent teacher training center is a long-range goal.

"We are very excited about this," George Hampel, jr., executive director of the DMEA, said of the proposal.

Supt. Dwight M. Davis said he favors the concept and thinks the idea has merit. He said, however, that he couldn't commit the district to funding at this early date.

APR 2 1973

STATE GOVERNMENT

HOUSE FILE 573

By STANLEY, PATCHETT, BUTLER, GRIFFEE, BITTLE, HORN and De JONG

Passed House, Date_____ Passed Senate, Date_____

Vote: Ayes_____ Nays_____ Vote: Ayes_____ Nays_____

Approved_____

A BILL FOR

An Act establishing a professional standards board governing approval of teacher preparation programs and certification of teachers and to abolish the board of educational examiners.

BE IT ENACTED BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE STATE OF IOWA:

Section 1. NEW SECTION. PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS BOARD. There is established a professional standards board for governing approval of teacher preparation programs and for certification of teachers in elementary and secondary schools and area vocational schools and community colleges of the state. The board shall consist of the superintendent of public instruction, or his representative, who shall be a nonvoting member and fifteen members to be appointed by the governor as follows:

1. Two members shall be appointed from the education faculties of the public four-year colleges and universities of the state which provide approved programs for teacher preparation.

2. One member shall be appointed from the education faculties of the private colleges and universities of the state which provide approved programs for teacher preparation.

3. Two noneducator members shall be appointed, one of whom shall be a member of the state board of public instruction.

4. One superintendent of schools shall be appointed who

holds appropriate certification and is actively engaged in school administration in Iowa.

5. One member shall be appointed who is a nonsuperintendent school administrator, holding appropriate certification, and who is actively engaged in administration in a secondary school of the state.

6. One member shall be appointed who is a nonsuperintendent school administrator, holding appropriate certification, and who is actively engaged in administration in an elementary school of the state.

7. Seven members shall be appointed who are appropriately certificated classroom teachers and who are actively engaged in classroom teaching. At no time shall these seven classroom teacher members include fewer than two elementary, two secondary, one area vocational school, and one area community college classroom teacher.

Sec. 2. NEW SECTION. NOMINATIONS. Any state organization representing members engaged in the educational categories specified in section one (1) of this Act may nominate two persons for each appointment in the category. Nominations for the noneducator appointees listed in section one (1) of this Act may be made by the state organizations which make nominations for the educational categories, the state board of public instruction, and state organizations which exist to promote the interest of education. Nominations shall be filed with the governor by May first preceding the appointment. The governor shall give careful consideration to those nominated, but shall not be restricted by the lists of nominees.

Sec. 3. NEW SECTION. TERM OF OFFICE. The terms of office shall be three years commencing on July first of the year of appointment, except that of the initial appointments, five shall be for one year and five shall be for two years.

Sec. 4. NEW SECTION. VACANCIES. In the event that a vacancy occurs during the term of office of a board member, the governor shall appoint a successor for the balance of the term. The successor shall be nominated and qualified in the same manner as the original appointee.

Sec. 5. NEW SECTION. COMPENSATION. The members of the board shall be paid thirty dollars per day while engaged in their official duties and their necessary travel and expenses.

Sec. 6. NEW SECTION. DUTIES OF THE BOARD. The board shall:

1. Approve professional education preparation programs for professional educators offered by institutions of higher learning, public and private, within and without the state. Such approval shall be necessary in order for the degree, credits, and courses of an institution of higher learning to be accepted for certification requirements.

2. Issue and renew certificates to professional educators. For the purposes of this Act "professional educator" means a teacher, administrator, or supervisor in elementary and secondary schools and area vocational schools and community colleges of the state. The board may establish reciprocity with other states regarding certification.

3. Establish reasonable fees for the issuance and renewal of certificates to professional educators. The fee for the issuance or renewal of any certificate shall not be less than fifteen dollars.

4. Revoke any certificate for good cause, after reasonable notice and opportunity for hearing.

5. Establish requirements for continuing education and approve continuing education programs for certificated professional educators.

6. Adopt rules for carrying out the provisions of this section, which shall include appropriate requirements, standards, and policies to assure adequate preparation, training, and qualifications for professional educators in order to provide education of higher quality for all students of the state. Rules and decisions regarding professional educators in the fields of vocational and technical education shall emphasize practical experience rather than formal requirements.

7. Conduct or direct studies to improve standards for preparation programs, professional standards certification, and renewal of certification.

Sec. 7. NEW SECTION. RULES. The board shall select its own officers. It shall adopt rules of procedure in the manner provided by chapter seventeen A (17A) of the Code, necessary or appropriate to effectuate the purpose of this Act.

Sec. 8. NEW SECTION. MEETINGS. The board shall meet quarterly and may hold such other meetings as it deems advisable. The initial meeting of the board shall be called by the superintendent of public instruction within ninety days following the appointment of the board members.

Sec. 9. NEW SECTION. DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. The board shall be included in the department of public instruction for administrative purposes, and the department of public instruction shall provide all necessary staff and supplies for the board.

Sec. 10. NEW SECTION. EXPENDITURES. All expenditures authorized to be made by the professional standards board shall be certified by the superintendent of public instruction to the state comptroller and, if found correct, he shall approve the same and draw warrants therefor upon the treasurer of state from the funds appropriated for that purpose.

Sec. 11. Sections two hundred sixty point one (260.1) and two hundred sixty point three (260.3) Code 1973, are repealed effective July 1, 1973. All other sections in chapter two hundred sixty (260) of the Code are repealed effective July 1, 1974.

Sec. 12. Section two hundred fifty-seven point ten (257.10), subsection eleven (11), Code 1973, is amended by striking the subsection.

Sec. 13. Section two hundred seventy-two A point six (272A.6), Code 1973, is amended to read as follows:

272A.6 CRITERIA OF PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES. The commission shall have the responsibility of developing criteria of professional practices including, but not limited to, such areas as: (1) Contractual obligations; (2) competent performance of all members of the teaching profession; and (3) ethical practice toward other members of the profession, parents, students, and the community. However, membership or nonmembership in any teachers' organization shall never be a criterion of an individual's professional standing. A

violation, as determined by the commission following a hearing, of any of the criteria so adopted shall be deemed to be unprofessional practice and a legal basis for the suspension or revocation of a certificate by the ~~state-board-of-educational-examiners~~ professional standards board.

The commission, in administering its responsibilities under this chapter, after a hearing, shall exonerate, warn or reprimand the member of the profession or may recommend the holding of a certification suspension or revocation hearing by the ~~state-board-of-educational-examiners~~ professional standards board.

EXPLANATION

This bill provides that the board of educational examiners is replaced by a professional standards board appointed by the governor. The board will govern teacher preparation and certification. The Professional Teaching Practices Commission will continue to develop criteria of professional practices (Ch. 272A).

Today's Education, September-October 1973

EDITORIAL

IS TEACHER ADVOCACY COMPATIBLE WITH PROFESSIONALISM?

By Helen D. Wise, NEA President

I am a teacher advocate.

For 18 years as a junior high teacher, I devoted my energy, time, and efforts toward the improvement of education and the teaching profession.

I worked outside the classroom representing teachers and inside the classroom on behalf of children.

I spent long hours at the bargaining table for my local association; I led a demonstration of thousands of teachers against a do-nothing legislature; I participated in dozens of strike rallies and all-night bargaining sessions; and I have been on many picket lines.

In short, I am a militant.

During this same period I was involved in hundreds of workshops and in-service programs. In the past 10 years, I completed my doctorate, developed an innovative program for individualized instruction using an articulated team approach, and wrote a course of study with text for slow learners. I sponsored student council activities, chaperoned school picnics and dances, and spent many hours counseling youngsters.

In other words, I am a professional teacher.

I maintain that spending time at the bargaining table working very hard to secure full rights for my fellow teachers as employees does not mean that I am less professional when I enter my classroom. By serving as an advocate for teachers through my organization, I do not lose or abandon my education, my experience, my ability, and my desire to communicate with children, or my commitment to those youngsters.

In fact, the reverse is true, for by applying my experience, knowledge, and support to my Association's determination to improve education and the profession, I fulfill a truly professional commitment.

I am an activist.

While it is recognized that many teachers throughout the nation are similarly dedicated, some would attempt to separate professionalism and militancy, contending that the NEA cannot be both an advocate organization and a professional society.

Those who make such a contention, I fear, have been intimidated too long by administrators and school boards that have branded teacher militancy as undignified. How many activist teachers have heard that trite expression, "I believe your attitude is unprofessional," from someone in the hierarchy when a colleague courageously voiced his convictions! To management, being professional is doing what you're told and not questioning higher authority.

Today, the teachers' concept of their role in society has changed, fortunately, and they have determined that their organization change with them. Accordingly, NEA is becoming as strong and powerful as it is large because it is responding to the needs and demands of the changed professionals it represents.

The professional classroom teacher is no longer the quiescent, compliant teacher of 30 or even 20 years ago. He is no longer automatically a professional because he is a teacher; he is a professional because he commands the respect of his peers, his students, and his community.

He has earned that respect because he is better prepared; he has more expert knowledge about the subject he teaches than does the school board member who seeks to rule him; he is determined to be involved in the policy decisions which affect his welfare as well as his teaching conditions; and, most importantly, he wants a career as a teacher, for he knows that to work in the classroom with children is to be at the heart of the educational process.

But reaching this stage has required militancy, for it has meant forcing two dramatic changes—moving people from a plane of apathy to a stage of activism and upsetting the power structure which has thwarted the teacher movement.

In a recent study, Ronald G. Corwin of Ohio State University found that the initiative-taking teachers—the truly professional teachers—were the most militant leaders. He concluded that one reason for this is the fact that specialization has given teachers more power: As teachers become more specialized, administrators and laymen become less competent to supervise them.

An examination of the growth of teacher organization strength bears out Corwin's findings. As teachers have become more activist-oriented, locals, state associations, and the NEA itself have become more powerful and influential.

Now, the muscle of teacher organizations must be used to become politically effective in every election throughout the country, to improve our professional status, and to establish and enforce standards in all areas which affect the quality of teaching and education.

In my home state of Pennsylvania, the state Chamber of Commerce singled out the Pennsylvania State Education Association as a prime example of "the types of services a state public employee organization can furnish to the local organization . . ."

It went on to say that "the Pennsylvania State Education Association offers to its members a staff of bargaining experts, salary schedule and contract enforcement, griev-

ance processing, retirement consultation, legal defense, budget analysis, personnel counseling, publications, protection of rights, and many other services. Among its professional staff, the PSEA has 48 field representatives who are seasoned negotiators with hundreds of hours of experience at the table. It is doubtful that a local public employer may be so fortunate in being able to call upon such a well-financed, well-staffed organization for similar services."

This is significant tribute from an organization which generally opposes PSEA activities.

At the same time as we become activists, our profession, like all others, must not reject the responsibility for the quality of what the individual practitioner does. Yet if teachers are to be held accountable, they must have the right to set standards and then have the authority to hold school boards responsible for adhering to them. A close examination of whether employers or employees are more likely to violate school laws reveals that teachers generally are the ones who uphold regulations, and, indeed, most laws are enacted to protect teachers and the public from unscrupulous actions by school boards.

It takes teacher activism to enact professional practices and standards legislation because school boards, school administrators, and state departments generally oppose such laws, preferring instead to have the freedom to manipulate certification regulations for their own purposes.

History shows that most of the improvements in the teaching profession have come about because teachers fought for them. That teachers have not done better up to now has been the result of an ineffective power base.

However, as teacher activism grows, teacher power is strengthened. While teachers continually seek improved financial and economic status—and will succeed in achieving these goals—they will not sit quietly by and accept intolerable teaching conditions or remain mute when school boards fail to provide adequate, up-to-date teaching materials and facilities.

Teachers must be adamant about improving education for all children. They must convince the public that it is very right and very professional for teachers and teacher organizations to stand up for what is best for education and the children they teach. In fact, it is my conviction that to do otherwise is unprofessional.

I am no less committed to good education because I have been on a picket line, nor am I less dedicated to good teaching because I have been labeled a militant or an activist.

I contend that activists are less willing to moonlight in order to feed their families, thus reducing their ability to teach adequately the next day; less willing to leave teaching as a career for better paying administrative positions or some other noneducational endeavor; and less willing to accept inadequate facilities and poor working conditions.

Conversely, activists are more dedicated, more committed, more determined, through their organizations, to bring about changes in the power structure of the educational hierarchy that they know must be achieved.

Professionalism is *not* synonymous with apathy, acquiescence, and passivity. The professionalism we espouse is one of deep personal and professional commitment which will determine the educational destiny of children. The NEA has greater opportunity than any other organization to work with parents, students, administrators, and the community to improve education for all children. The NEA must continue to be the single most important spokesman not only for teachers, but for the children they teach.

Thus it is my belief that teacher activism is more than compatible with professionalism—it is synonymous!

John F. Kennedy once said that our greatest adversary is our own unwillingness to do what must be done and, on another occasion, said that "things don't just happen, they are made to happen and they are made to happen by all of us."

One of the most important aspects of our professional activist responsibility is to provide the leadership to make things happen, to become involved, to get things done, to speak for all members. This means willingness to take stands, to make changes, to be different and creative, to provide answers to problems, to speak out—to be activists.

Our ultimate power and our responsibility will be determined by our choices. There can be no deviation from our singleness of purpose, no lack of commitment to truth. The task is great, but the alternatives are unthinkable. □

Unit IV

From: Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, by Martin Haberman and T. M. Stinnett. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Other Regulatory Processes

While efforts have been made to induce states to establish professional standards boards to recommend standards of selection, preparation, and certification of teachers, only two or three states have taken this step. The obvious reason is that other processes have been established, and states tend to resist setting up additional processes. For example, all states now have advisory councils on teacher education and certification, under that name or some other. These are legal (in 14 states) or extralegal bodies, consisting of members of the profession, that recommend to the state department or board of education standards for preparation and certification of teachers. Sixteen states have also established certification review committees made up of members of the profession. These review committees democratize the application of certification regulations by making exceptions that seem justified by substitution of courses or experience and other deviations that appear justified by the applicants' general and specific backgrounds.

Analysis of Advisory Councils on Teacher Education and Certification

As has been stated, every state now has a legal or a voluntary advisory council on teacher education and certification. These exist under a variety of names. The first was founded in 1933, in an effort to democratize the controls over teacher education and certification. In general these councils are, as their names imply, "advisory" to the state board or department of education. But they are quite powerful bodies whose recommendations are rarely vetoed by the state authority. In thirty-six states, the advisory body is a voluntary or extralegal one, usually created by the state board of education, with members appointed by the chief state school officer and approved by the board. Generally, the appointees are recommended by the professional associations in the state: the state education association, state federation of teachers, associations of administrators and supervisors, and associations of college professors.

In general, these advisory bodies make continuous studies of the needs of their states in the area of teacher education and certification. While their recommendations may be ignored, it is generally reported that their recommendations have great influence.

To cite one possibility, in 1970 there began a period of great teacher surpluses. A number of factors contributed to this situation, the first such oversupply since the depression years. All evidence points to mounting surpluses throughout the 1970s. Obviously, this is a period in which minimum preparation requirements for initial certification could be increased. There are still four states that do not require the bachelors degree for beginning elementary teachers; and only one state is enforcing the five-year requirement for high school

Table 1-1. Number of states enforcing degree requirements for elementary and secondary school teachers by decades 1900-1970[6]

Year	Number of States Enforcing	
	For Elementary School Teachers	*For Secondary School Teachers*
1900	0	2
1910	0	3
1920	0	10
1930	2	23
1940	11	40
1950	21	42
1960	39	51*
1970	48	52†

*District of Columbia and Puerto Rico are counted as "states in this calculation, making a total of 52.

†California, Arizona, and District of Columbia specify 5 years of preparation, but this requirement is fully operative in the District of Columbia.

teachers. The advisory councils are in strategic positions to increase quality requirements as well as to readjust the supply and demand for teachers. Requirements can be placed too high, of course. A good example is the lessened supply of doctors resulting, at least in part, from extremely long periods of preparation....

Other Factors

In addition to the right to participate in the determination of working conditions there are several other factors in the evolution of the new profession of teaching. One is the concerted defense of teachers against unfair dismissals from their positions without due process, i.e., without regard to the rights of the accused to know the charges against him, confront his accusers, have a public hearing, and summon witnesses in his behalf. Until about 1965 school boards could fire teachers almost at will for any reason they chose. During the late 1960s, however, the NEA Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities was empowered to intervene in such cases, and funds were made available for this purpose. The AFT, NAACP, and ACLU also intervened in many cases. Hundreds of firings have now been reversed by federal courts for lack of due process. In many such cases in recent years the charges have proved to be groundless, and the courts have ordered the teachers restored to their positions with back pay. The firing of a teacher is no longer a simple matter for boards exercising arbitrary and absolute power. This has given new dignity to the teaching profession.

From: Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, by Martin Haberman and T. M. Stinnett. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

LEGAL REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHING

Need for Licensure

As is true of virtually all professions, licensure by the state is required to enter and continue in the practice of teaching. This is mandatory for all teachers in all public schools and for some teachers in some private schools (for explanation see below).

There are good reasons for such requirements. The public must be safeguarded against the unqualified, the charlatan, and the quack. There must be a guarantee of high quality service to the public; otherwise the public's taxes or fee payments will be wasted. Moreover, the practitioner himself, who has spent years of his life preparing for competent service in a given profession, requires protection against the unqualified....

Present Certification

Who Must Secure

All professional personnel in the public elementary and secondary schools of all states are required by law or regulation to hold certificates issued by the designated authority. The authority is usually the state board of education or the state department of education, and the personnel include teachers; administrators; supervisors; and professional nonteaching personnel, such as supervisors and counselors. In forty-nine states kindergarten teachers are also required to secure certificates, if the kindergarten is publicly supported. A total of nineteen states require nursery school teachers to hold state certificates, if the schools are publically supported. (However, only eight states now provide nursery schools as a part of the public school system.) In addition, eight states require teachers and administrators in publicly supported junior colleges to hold certificates.

As for nonpublic schools, twenty-seven states (fourteen by law) require that teachers at some level or in some subjects hold state certificates. In addition, eleven states require certification of teachers in nonpublic schools, if the schools in which they teach are accredited by the state department of education. About twenty-three states have no provision for certifying teachers in nonpublic schools, but most will certify teachers who voluntarily request it.

The question of licensure for paraprofessionals and teacher aides is beginning to be debated. At the moment, only eight states have any provisions for regulating or licensing such personnel. But the probable increase in these types of personnel will doubtless lead to some kind of certification or control in the future.

Requirements

General Requirements

General requirements are those that every applicant, regardless of his field of teaching, must meet. For example: citizenship, license fee, good health, oath of allegiance, minimum age, and recommendation of his preparing college or last employer. Many of the general requirements have been dropped in recent years. The minimum age

requirement is one example. Present college preparation requirements have made this requirement obsolete. Also, the number of states requiring loyalty oaths have diminished in recent years. A total of twenty-one states now require no certification fee; in the other states fees range from $1 to $20.

Preparation Requirements

In 1973 all states required that beginning elementary teachers have at least a bachelors degree, with the prescribed work in professional courses....Thus, wherever one plans to teach, he should be prepared to meet the degree requirement.

For high school teachers, all states enforce the minimum of the bachelors degree including prescribed work in professional courses. The District of Columbia specifies the masters degree for senior and vocational high school certificates. Arizona and California specify the masters degree as a standard but are still certifying, temporarily at least, on the minimum of the bachelors degree. For administrators, the basic requirement is five years of preparation, with very few exceptions, and twenty-eight states require six years of preparation for superintendents. For teachers, a total of nineteen states now require the completion of a fifth year (or masters degree) in addition to a specified number of years of teaching on an initial certificate before issuing permanent certification.

Special Courses

About eight states require a special course that can usually only be secured within a given state: e.g., state constitution, state history, state and federal governments, and agriculture and conservation. About half of these states will accept prescribed scores on a proficiency examination, in lieu of the courses, to meet their special course requirements.

Types and Number of Certificates Issued

The usual practice is to issue separate elementary school and high school teaching certificates. The predominant practice for high school teachers is to issue certificates that specify the subjects or fields the holder is qualified to teach. For elementary school teachers, the predominant practice is to issue a certificate valid for grades one through six or one through eight. Certificates may be for terms of five-to-ten years, although five years is the predominant practice. A total of twenty-six states issue life or permanent certificates.

States still tend to issue too many separate name certificates. In 1970 the states issued a total of 539 separate certificates. This is about 11 separate certificates per state. This multiplicity of certificates tends to be confusing both to the profession and to the public. Most other professions issue only one legal certificate. The tendency to proliferate certificates is doubtless due in part to the constant development of new specialties in teaching; members of a newly emerging specialty frequently covet the status of a special certificate that sets them apart from other teachers.

Revocation of Certificates

The laws of each state spell out the conditions under which a teacher's certificate can be revoked. The most common are gross immorality, incompetence, insubordination (used decreasingly in recent years) and violation of the law (felony).

Some other causes mentioned in the laws of some states are aban-

donment of contract, unprofessional conduct, and negligence. A few states mention alcoholism, drug abuse, willful neglect of duty, falsification of credentials, and violation of rules of the board. Recent court cases, however, have tended to cluster the chief causes around the first three mentioned above: immorality, incompetence, and insubordination.

Reciprocity

One of the most persistent and vexing of teacher certification problems has been the lack of reciprocity among the states in issuing certificates to persons prepared in other states. A number of methods have been employed to overcome this weakness. One was the use of regional reciprocity compacts. But the mobility of teachers has long since outmoded this process.

Another method tried was national accreditation. The establishment of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education was intended to give states confidence in all credentials from any of the nationally accredited institutions. However, so few institutions preparing teachers were accredited by NCATE (515 out of 1,272) that its effectiveness was nullified to some degree. It should be pointed out, however, that these 515 accredited institutions prepare about 80 percent of the newly graduated teachers each year. About thirty states are now giving considerable weight in reciprocity to credentials from NCATE accredited institutions, and this number will probably grow.

A new process, developed in the last few years, is the interstate reciprocity compact, sponsored by the New York State Education Department. By enacting this model bill states would enter legally and formally into agreements to accept the certified graduates of the other cooperating states. About thirty-five states have now passed this law; it should extend reciprocity considerably.

Although the problem is not yet solved, enough progress has been made that a given teacher has a very good chance of having his credentials accepted for certification in a state other than the one where he prepared. If he is a graduate of a standard college approved for teacher education, and his college is accredited by NCATE or the appropriate regional accrediting association, there will be few instances in which he will have difficulty with certification.

4.3

From: Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction, by Donald A. Meyers.

A CONCEPTUAL SCHEME

The school is a complex organization. Superficially, it is a building where groups of children gather with teachers to learn the fundamentals of knowledge. The more knowledgeable person knows that the school is a formal organization which exists within a social system, that it requires an elaborate administrative network, and that it has a complex and often diverse curriculum.

To understand the school system and the roles of persons who make decisions concerning its educational program, it is necessary to understand several factors. First, the various structural levels of a formal organization within a social system need to be identified. Second, the means used to determine the objectives of an organization need to be understood. Third, the manner in which decisions are made needs to be examined. Fourth, these three areas must be placed within the framework of a conceptual scheme to bring them more unity and meaningfulness....

THE CONCEPT

A skeletal outline of a conceptual scheme in curriculum and instruction is presented in Figure 1. It should provide the reader with a conceptual map for the remainder of the monograph.

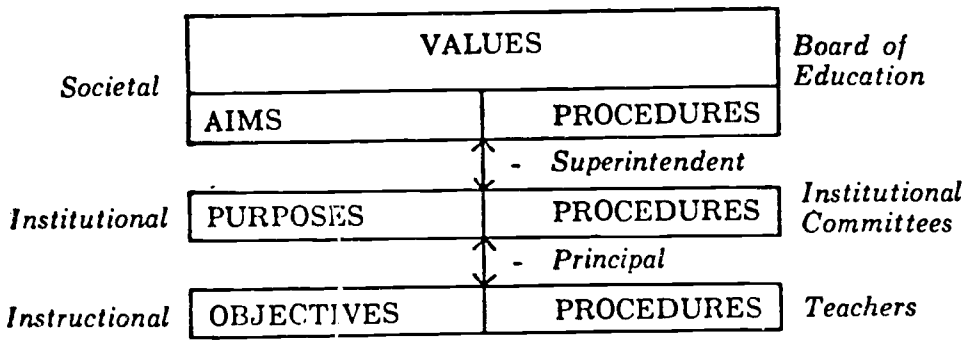

Figure 1. A Conceptual Scheme Showing the Relationship of the Values, Aims, and Procedures of the Board of Education to the Institutional and Instructional Levels of Decision Making. Using the Conceptual System Described and Developed by Goodlad in *The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction.*

Figure 1 shows the three levels of decision making Goodlad suggested — societal, institutional, and instructional. It also shows the relationship of the values, aims, and procedures of the board of education to the other two levels of decision making and to the various personnel in the organization. A hierarchy is involved in the sense that societal values, aims, and procedures govern and regulate to some extent the decisions made at the institutional and instructional levels.

Societal Level

The first box represents the societal level. The first responsibility of the board of education is to voice the values of the community. These values are pervasive in the sense that they govern all subsequent decisions of the board of education. Because most boards of education have not deliberately adopted certain values does not mean these values do not govern their actions and decisions. Individual members of boards of education may not realize the value position they espouse and may alter that position from meeting to meeting. Nonetheless, all board members have values that influence their decisions even though they are often not applied consciously or consistently. This is not difficult to understand because most persons go through life without an explicit value position and are seldom consistent from day to day.

The second responsibility of the board of education is to determine aims for the school district. There is considerable agreement on aims from one board of education to another in the United States, although some areas of disagreement exist. Some boards demand that graduates have a fairly high level of understanding of the principles that govern the nation's economy, while others ignore this area and stress aesthetic development.

The third responsibility of the board of education is to develop procedures for decision making. A significant difference exists between a board of education making the decisions, and a board of education developing procedures that must be followed by the professional staff in making a decision. There is a difference between a board of education deciding, for example, that the School Mathematics Study Group is the best mathematics program for the students, and the board of education insisting that rational procedures be used by the professional staff in their selection of the most appropriate mathematics program.

Institutional Level

The second box represents the institutional level, which is traditionally thought of as the central office. However, this intermediate unit can and, indeed, should include not only central office personnel but teachers and principals as well. The purpose of the intermediate unit is to refine the societal aims and procedures in such a way that a unified and integrated educational program results. The aims of the board of education are thereby made more specific and become institutional procedures. As Parsons indicates, the institutional level is concerned principally with mediating between the various parts of the organization and coordinating their efforts.

Instructional Level

The instructional level is represented by the third box. Here again, the institutional purposes are made more specific and become instructional objectives. Eventually, teachers formulate organizing centers to attain the objectives. Procedures, *per se*, are not developed or refined at the instructional level; rather they guide the teacher in making instructional decisions. Teachers, of course, may develop procedures for students for whom they are responsible.

Administrators

Administrators, operating between levels, serve both to ensure that the decisions reached at a "higher" level are implemented and to provide upward communication from the "lower" level. As Griffiths suggests, administrators do not make decisions themselves so much as they monitor the decision-making process of others. They exist as facilitators and expeditors rather than as immutable authorities. An administrator's principal responsibility is to ensure that procedures are followed by "subordinates" as these subordinates make decisions.

SUMMARY

The board of education at the societal level articulates the values (philosophy), develops the aims, and develops the procedures for the school district. The intermediate unit refines societal aims into institutional purposes and societal procedures into institutional procedures. Teachers at the instructional level make all instructional decisions; they are guided by the societal values and the institutional purposes and procedures in making these instructional decisions.

Administrators, operating between levels, serve to interpret and enforce policies of the higher level and act as an upward communication agent from the lower level to the higher level. While they have other responsibilities, their essential role is procedural, insisting that the lower level follows the procedures established at the higher level and providing data to revise the existing procedures in the light of actual practice.

Today's Education, December 1971

LICENSURE AND ACCREDITATION IN SELECTED PROFESSIONS

PROFESSION	INITIAL LEGAL LICENSURE	ACCREDITATION OF PREPARATION INSTITUTIONS
Accountancy	By state boards of accountancy, all or majority of whom are practitioners nominated by profession; examination plus experience necessary for licensure in most jurisdictions.	Accreditation by American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business or Regional Accrediting Association or State Board Review.
Dentistry	By state boards of dental examiners, all or majority of whom are practitioners appointed by governors —in many states on recommendation of state dental societies.	National by Council on Dental Education, American Dental Association. States require graduation from accredited institutions for licensure.
Medicine	By state boards of medical examiners, all or majority of whom are practitioners nominated by profession.	National by Liaison Council on Medical Education, American Medical Association and Association of American Medical Colleges. Required.
Law	By state boards of bar examiners, all or majority of whom are practitioners appointed by state supreme court.	National by Council of the Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar, American Bar Association. Required for licensure in most states.
Nursing	By state boards of nursing, all or majority of whom are practitioners nominated by profession.	State required by state board of nursing; national available on voluntary basis by National League for Nursing.
Osteopathic Medicine	By one of the following, depending on the state: State board of osteopathic examiners State board of medical examiners Composite board of medical and osteopathic examiners.	National by American Osteopathic Association. Required.
Teaching	In most states, licensure and accreditation functions for elementary and secondary teachers are controlled by state boards of education whose members are laymen, not practitioners. (College teachers are not licensed.) National accreditation of preparation institutions by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is voluntary. Members of state boards of education are either appointed by the governor or elected by the general citizenry.	
Engineering	By state boards of engineering examiners, all or majority of whom are practitioners nominated by profession; license granted on demonstrated competence, including examination.	National by Engineers' Council for Professional Development. Voluntary. State also voluntary.
Architecture	By state boards of architectural examiners, all or majority of whom are practitioners nominated by profession; license granted on examination.	National by National Architectural Accrediting Board, Inc. Voluntary.

Teacher Standards and Practices Commissions: A Directory. Second edition. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1974.

TABLE 1: POWERS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF STATE TEACHER STANDARDS AND PRACTICES COMMISSIONS/BOARDS

STATE	ESTABLISH CRITERIA FOR:						Adopt Rules, Regulations, Procedures	Hold Hearings	Subpoena Witnesses	Warn, Reprimand Professionals	Suspend, Revoke Reinstate Certificates	Conduct Studies
	Certification, Preparation	Teacher Education Accreditation	Performance, Competency	Teacher Contracts	Continuation In Profession	Ethical Conduct						
ALABAMA												
ALASKA	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	R	X
ARIZONA					X	X		X			X[a]	X
ARKANSAS												
CALIFORNIA	X	X	X[b]		X[b]	X	X[c]	X	X[d]	X[b]	X	X
COLORADO						X	X	X	X	X	R	X
CONNECTICUT	R										R	
DELAWARE												
FLORIDA	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	R	
GEORGIA			X			X	X	X	X		R[e]	X
HAWAII												
IDAHO			X			X	X	X	X	X	R	X
ILLINOIS												
INDIANA	X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X
IOWA			X	X	X	X	X	X				X
KANSAS	R				R	R	R	X	X	R	R	X
KENTUCKY						X	X	X	X	X		X
LOUISIANA												
MAINE	X	X			X			X				X
MARYLAND	X	X					X	X				X
MASSACHUSETTS	R	R										X
MICHIGAN												
MINNESOTA						X	X	X	X	X	R	
MISSISSIPPI												
MISSOURI												
MONTANA												
NEBRASKA			R		R	R	X	X	X	X	R	X
NEVADA												
NEW HAMPSHIRE	X		X		X		X	X		X	R	X
NEW JERSEY												
NEW MEXICO												
NEW YORK												
NORTH CAROLINA												
NORTH DAKOTA	X					X	X	X	X	X	R	X
OHIO												
OKLAHOMA	R	R					X	X	X	X	R	X
OREGON	X	X	X	R	X	R	X	X	X	X	X	X
PENNSYLVANIA	R	R			R		X	X	X			X
RHODE ISLAND												
SOUTH CAROLINA												
SOUTH DAKOTA			X			X	X	X	X	X		X
TENNESSEE												
TEXAS						X	X	X				
UTAH				R	X	X	X	X	X	X	R	X
VERMONT												
VIRGINIA												
WASHINGTON												
WEST VIRGINIA												
WISCONSIN												
WYOMING												

R= recommend. a/ Subject to confirmation by State Board of Education. b/ Applies to licensure only. c/ Subject to "stay" by State Board of Education. d/ Credentials Committee can. e/ Also denial of certificate.

Phi Delta Kappan, May 1974

Oregon Teachers Take Control of Teacher Preparation, Licensing

⩾ This year Oregon took a landmark step, the first of its kind in the nation, to speed the movement toward professionalism for educators and provide a positive response to the accountability dilemma.

The 1973 Oregon legislature transferred to a Teacher Standards and Practices Commission, made up predominantly of educators, full legal responsibility for teacher licensing, for license revocation and other discipline, and for accreditation of teacher education programs. Oregon thus became the first state in the country in which educators themselves have full legal control over two key elements in professionalism – preparation and licensing.

Fellow chief school officers have asked Oregon's superintendent of public instruction, Dale Parnell, why a state superintendent would support transfer of this power away from himself. Isn't this giving away the store? Says Parnell: "It is my belief that the accountability movement is a hopeful one. If education is to become a profession, its members must assume responsibility for their actions and for the results they achieve. If we expect the profession to clean its own house, the profession must have tools to do the job."

Among the tools given the newly fortified Oregon Teacher Standards and Practices Commission was a "Planning Statement on Educational Personnel Development" and two new sets of standards for teacher education programs. The commission has served as an advisory board since its creation in 1965. The planning statement outlines its new responsibilities in each of several critical areas listed for improvements – teacher recruitment and selection, equal opportunity, licensing, preservice and inservice preparation, competency-based programs, staffing patterns, and evaluation. Both sets of new standards assure that teachers, administrators, and other educational practitioners will be more fully involved in the planning, operation, and evaluation of teacher education programs.

Oregon is now in an enviable position in teacher preparation and licensing, notes Parnell. He enumerates the elements of "an unbeatable combination that makes real accountability possible" – a commission "which is moving rapidly and effectively to carry out its new responsibilities"; a long-range plan for educational personnel development; two new sets of standards for teacher preparation programs; and new certification regulations which provide, among other things, for licensing on the basis of demonstrated competence.

From: Darland, David D. "Preparation in the Governance of the Profession." Teachers for the Real World. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. Chapter 11.

A Design for a Self-Governing Entity

Since structure and machinery should accommodate function, we will begin with the essential functions of any profession in our society and attempt to evolve a workable concept of professional entity.

Function 1. Educating for the profession. A profession depends to a large degree on a wide range of intellectual abilities to carry on its services. Furthermore, professional education and training must be continuous if competency is to be maintained. Educating teachers should be viewed as a never-ending function of the profession, and designs for accomplishing such a function should be created.

The details involved are not relevant here but the great number of vested interests are. These include the interests of educational personnel from each of the settings in which teachers serve, as discussed above.

Local school personnel, especially classroom teachers, are particularly concerned, since they are often expected to supervise teachers-in-training in addition to carrying a full teaching load. Very little effort has been directed toward organizing programs for the initial preparation of teachers so that mature practitioners working with teachers-in-training, or interns, are assigned such responsibility as a part of their regular teaching load. This function is typically assigned to a teacher *in addition* to his regular teaching responsibilities. This would not be the case if the teaching profession had charge of its own affairs. Currently, there is some interest in providing school systems which assist in teacher preparation with a differential state grant of money for classroom teachers to work with prospective teachers as a part of their regular teaching load. This will be done only if the profession presses the issue; it serves here to illustrate the type of issue in which the organized teaching profession must become more involved.

In the future, some initial preparation of teachers should be done in training cadres of people for a variety of educational positions. The Education Professions Development Act emphasizes the importance of preparing education personnel in teams. This implies the acceptance of the concept of differentiation of staff and of experimentation with the deployment of educational talent, both designed to provide greater opportunity for individual programs of study and learning for children and youth.

Such a concept requires a new emphasis on the interrelationships between professional personnel in teacher education institutions and in the schools. Not only are such relationships necessary for the initial preparation of teachers, but they are necessary to build relevant perennial education programs for teachers. A profession should surely be responsible for policies governing the adequate initial preparation of personnel and those governing further education for its members.

Function 2. Maintaining machinery for policy formulation and decision making for the educating of teachers. The people have delegated the primary control of education to state legislatures and state departments of education. Local boards have been delegated certain parallel and specific powers. But the right to educate, certify teachers, and accredit teacher training institutions rests with the state government. It is important to remember here that local school boards are also the creations of the state government.

In the interests of the public welfare and the teaching profession, the following teacher education functions in each state should be delegated to the teaching profession:

1. the licensure of teachers
2. the revocation or suspension of license procedures
3. the review of waiver of any certification requirements
4. the accreditation of teacher education institutions
5. the power to develop suggested programs, studies, and research designed to improve teacher education, including advanced education of teachers.

These functions, with few exceptions, are now vested in the respective state departments of education* which are most often controlled by lay boards. The legal right and power to establish policies, develop procedures, and make decisions regarding the functions mentioned above should be vested in a professional standards board in every state. A few states have moved in this direction, but there is great reluctance to ask that such responsibilities be placed in the hands of professionals.

For purposes of interrelation and coordination, the administrative officer of such boards should be an ex-officio member of the staff of the state department of education, and the staff should be housed in state department offices. There should be clear recognition, however, of the importance of the staff's responsibility to the teaching profession. Rather detailed guidelines for establishing such boards[3] are already in existence.

It should be clear that the major responsibility of any such board would be policy formulation and decision-making power over the administrative machinery that carries out the above functions. Since these boards would be creatures of state legislatures, they would be under constant legislative review. This is a very substantial check on any profession. But the technical dimensions of the functions under consideration require the attention of the professionals who are wholly responsible.

Obviously, teacher education, certification, and accreditation are three separate functions and should be administered as such. Each should continue to have its separate machinery. Teacher education should be vested with higher education institutions in cooperation with the common schools. Institutions should be afforded greater autonomy and should be encouraged to experiment with new programs of teacher education. Teacher certification and the accreditation of preparatory institutions should reflect this flexibility.

An important function of a professional standards board would be to encourage the creation of study and research teams preparing teachers for the various educational levels and academic areas of teaching. This would provide opportunity for meaningful involvement of liberal arts personnel.

As teaching becomes a more mature profession, quite probably there will be only an initial licensure. Advanced standings in level of teaching or specialties will be administered and controlled by the appropriate specialty group. Professional standards boards should have the power to experiment with such procedures. It would be interesting, for example, if every state in the union had a broadly representative study and research team working on the improvement of programs for training mathematics teachers. The same could be said for all parallel academic and specialty groups.

* The state department of education, as used here, is a collective term including the chief state school officer, his professional staff, and the respective state boards of education (in states having such boards).

Everyone in teaching knows that accreditation of teacher education continues to be a complex problem. Recently the Mayor study[4] reaffirmed the need for the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Nevertheless, there is much foot-dragging in this matter. If the profession were really in charge of its own affairs in the various states, accreditation could probably become national, as in other professions.

Function 3. Establishing and maintaining machinery for protection of competent and ethical teachers, establishing tenure, and protecting the public welfare. Few things are more in the public interest than the protection of the continuity of service of competent and ethical teachers. This requires tenure laws as well as administrative machinery where the profession assumes responsibility for the protection and discipline of its own ranks.

There should be in each state an effective tenure law, administered by a legally established professional practices commission composed of personnel broadly representative of the profession. It is widely held that tenure laws overprotect the incompetent teacher. Many people charge, in tenure cases involving competence, that another person, often an administrator, is placed on trial rather than the accused. This may well be the case because there are few well established procedures for due process involving tenure cases. But the minimums for such due process are well known and well established in other areas of national life, although too often representative professional personnel are only indirectly involved.

Most tenure laws for teachers are obsolete; they need constant revision. But a backlog of useful precedent is developing, and there are some recent innovations which are proving helpful. One is a change in an Oregon law permitting a tenure teacher, who is charged, the right to a professional hearing before a body of his peers before any recommendation is made to the hiring agency. This procedure may be worth following elsewhere.

It is important that every teacher have the right of hearing before his peers. This can be accomplished by a legally established professional practices commission, in each state, with the power to subpoena witnesses and hold hearings as prescribed by law. This procedure can protect as well as discipline or eliminate the incompetent. An effective commission probably requires a frame of reference, such as a code of ethics, as a point of departure in ethics cases. A code which has been ratified by most educational groups whose members are likely to be involved already exists.

A frame of reference is also needed as an orientation in answering questions of competency. Such a framework would necessarily be broadly gauged because competency will vary with individual cases. There is not substantial precedent in this area, but a backlog of rulings will grow as commissions are established and begin to function effectively. Several states have made beginnings in this direction, but most of these do not connect tenure law with the responsibilities of such commissions.

Function 4. Establishing and maintaining the machinery for the profession to negotiate collectively with hiring agencies regarding matters of welfare, conditions of work, and all matters affecting the effectiveness of teachers. The right to collective bargaining or to professional negotiation is being universally demanded by teachers. The right of organizational jurisdiction for such collective action has become a most bitter battleground.

The great controversy in this matter has prompted some to consider adopting a plan now operating in eight provinces of Canada. In each province, all certified teachers must automatically belong to their respective provincial teachers' federation as well as to the Canadian Federation of Teachers. Provincial federations are authorized and directed to develop collective bargaining procedures and assist local units in bargaining. Provisions are made for impasses, but they seldom occur. It is interesting to note that in several provinces the same law requires the teachers' federation to lobby in the provincial legislature for better education.

With regard to the right to negotiate, few actions taken by teachers anywhere have incurred greater wrath. Teachers are being accused of turning their backs on the children. They are said to be militants without altruistic cause, interested only in their own welfare. But teachers have for years, through low salaries and the loss of adequate retirement, been subsidizing the education of their pupils. The economic plight of teachers is overt and obvious. Because of the close tie-in with the finance of education, property taxes, and local politics, teachers must necessarily be concerned with their own welfare.

However, there are many other aspects of teaching where collective action is needed and is proceeding. These include conditions of work, teacher assignment, perennial education, leave policies, clerical assistance, and the assistance of teacher aides.

Function 5. Maintaining effective professional organizations. Teachers' organizations in the United States are in a revolutionary transition. In both major national teacher groups—the NEA and the AFT and their affiliates—there is obvious turmoil. The one-man, one-vote Supreme Court decision will very likely change the nature of state legislative bodies. Urbanization will be more and more in evidence in these bodies. This will affect state educational organizations, their policies, and programs. Moreover, the breakthrough at the federal level, in more open-ended financial support, the civil rights laws, the 18-year-old vote movement, city renewal, the move for decentralization of city schools, and similar forces, will greatly condition the nature and programs of national education associations, learned societies, and other such organizations.

Moreover, as the evidence mounts that many public schools are not only inadequate but in many cases failing, especially in the inner city, teachers' organizations will realize that they must become more and more concerned with changing the system.

Teachers must become much more concerned with education in general, not merely formal and institutional education. The lack of adequate access to instruments of mass communication for educators is a major deterrent to more effective educational effort. Teachers have not felt enough professional security to battle effectively in the political arena. When issues are outside the halls of formal education, educational groups tend to follow a hands-off policy. Teachers' organizations have only recently been willing to be counted among vested interest groups, even though democracy depends and thrives on open and constant struggle among such groups.

Education associations are almost notorious in their defense of the *status quo* in education. Historically, they have spent much more

time in this endeavor than in helping teaching to become a major profession. Moreover, teachers seldom distinguish between education per se and the distinctly different matter of governing their profession. Even constructive criticism of schools is likely to be viewed by teachers as an attack upon themselves. The overwhelming percentage of education association budgets is spent on matters directly related to education and very little on putting the profession's house in order. Both are important, but teachers have neglected their own professionalization.

Accordingly, associations should place a higher priority upon creating a well defined and functioning entity for the teaching profession. These associations cannot carry out all the functions necessary for a self-governing profession, but they can create the design and cause such governance to be established.

There are certain minimum functions for which a profession must assume responsibility. These functions must be viewed ecologically and must be defined and fixed accordingly.

Teachers might work for the development and passage of, in each state legislature, a single professional regulations act for teachers which will do the following:

1. Establish a single organization for certified* educational personnel in each state in which membership is mandatory. This organization will be responsible for developing appropriate subunits, and will have the specified legal responsibility to:
   a. work to improve local, state, and national education,
   b. work for the welfare of teachers at the local, state, and national levels,
   c. negotiate with local boards for salaries and all welfare matters,
   d. negotiate with local boards regarding policies and conditions which influence teaching effectiveness,
   e. establish a system of grievance procedures,
   f. establish an equitable local, state, national dues system,
   g. maintain an appropriate and adequate professional staff, and
   h. carry on research in the improvement of the professional entity of the teaching profession.
2. Establish a professional standards board, broadly representative of the profession, appointed by the governor. This board should be autonomous and independent of any association, organization, or institution. Its function would be to establish and administer procedures for each of those responsibilities mentioned on page 142 related to licensure and accrediting of teacher education.
3. Establish tenure regulations and an autonomous and independent professional practices commission, broadly representative of the profession and appointed by the chief state school officer. This commission should administer tenure law and protect and discipline members of the profession when necessary.
4. Establish and authorize a universal retirement system for teachers.
5. Establish Save-Harmless Laws (affording protection to teachers in negligence cases).

* Membership should be open to noncertified personnel who are directly involved in any aspect of teacher education, governmental education work, or on accreditation staffs, or professional associations' staffs. (Includes all who teach at higher education levels.)

There are undoubtedly other practice regulations which would be added as times goes on. Items 1 through 5 above are an attempt to suggest a legal basis for the teaching profession as an entity.

It is suggested that state organizations be assigned responsibility for negotiating with local boards. This assumes the use of local negotiating teams. It is obvious that an appeal system of several levels is a necessity. There is a growing body of literature on this subject since several states have moved toward establishing local negotiating teams. The idea of negotiation assumes mutual trust, and decision making should be kept at the level of those directly involved. However, if an impasse occurs, there should be machinery provided to cope with it. But such machinery should encourage diligent negotiation at the initial level.

To date, no state has established the legal requirements of one single organization as indicated in item 1, but the idea is being discussed and, though very controversial, it is not without precedent.

It has been stated here that a professional entity is more than an organization. There should be no monolithic control over a profession. Accordingly, items 2 and 3 recommend *two separate, autonomous, independent bodies*, one appointed by the governor to deal with licensure and accreditation of teacher education, and the other appointed by the chief state school officer to deal with tenure, competence, and ethics. These would provide the necessary system of checks and balances.

Obviously, any professional regulations act will have to be carefully written so that various boards and commissions do not have conflicting legal jurisdictions. The number of such state bodies should be held to a minimum. This also argues for a single act covering all the practice regulations for teachers, including the financing and administration of such activities.

But if teaching has a legal undergirding this does not mean that there exists a professional entity. There is a multiplicity of functions which are voluntary, extralegal, and assigned by tradition: for example, the initial preparation of teachers, research activities, lobbying for better education, and curriculum improvement. In short, there are roles and responsibilities being accepted by several types of institutions, agencies, and organizations in the interests of the teaching profession. There is a need for all of these, but their roles and responsibilities must be rethought. The roles and responsibilities of teacher organizations are in great transition. No one doubts that all levels of organization are essential, but clarification of roles, interrelationships, and responsibilities is direly needed. If states were to systematize the legal undergirding of the teaching profession this would give new emphasis to organizational élan.

If something like the above were established in each state,* then the work at the national association level would assume new dimensions and would be more assertive in other areas. A profession has universal dimensions. Accordingly, some national accreditation of teacher education must become universal, but states must be involved.

*Several states have some of the above already established, but no state requires a single organization and mandatory membership. Some confusion exists as to interrelationships of existing bodies.

If each state did have a professional standards board, such a board might endorse accreditation of teacher preparation institutions by NCATE. NCATE is already approved by the majority of state departments of education in the United States. It should be remembered that NCATE is governed by an independent and broadly representative professional group. Accordingly, under such adjusted auspices for accreditation of teacher education in states, the national association's work would take on renewed importance in encouraging more productive procedures, studies, and experimentation.

A national association should meet the exigencies of unexpected problems related to the profession. This requires much greater agility than has been the case. Such an association would continuously run seminars directed to anticipate problems. In addition, financial reserves should be held to facilitate the convening of *ad hoc* professional specialists to meet exigencies. No professional staff can accommodate all such needs. But, when problems arise which are outside its competence, the staff should know the best and wisest persons to consult. Such organizational agility will require some serious rethinking on the part of most members of the teaching profession.

At the moment there is considerable emphasis upon a variety of forms of decentralization of inner-city schools. The implication of this for teachers is considerable. To cope with related professional problems will require strong local, state, and national approaches. Each level will have a role to play. But teachers need not fear such educational reforms if they are organized to protect the precepts of the profession.

It is the individual practitioner who needs desperately to be heard on the variety of professional matters which affect him. He cannot hope to be heard without established channels and procedures. A major function of organization should be to bring into being a professional entity. This process has begun, but it is being done piecemeal and often without a view of the whole. Teaching will never be as effective as it should be until it governs itself.

Phi Delta Kappan, May 1974

A CASE OF CREEPING CENSORSHIP, GEORGIA STYLE

Mary A. Hepburn

A right-wing group has succeeded in banning Edwin Fenton's social studies inquiry series.

In Georgia the established role of the teaching profession in textbook selection and curriculum planning is currently being undermined by the quiet but relentless efforts of a small right-wing pressure group. This group has successfully promoted its own views in schools throughout the state by exerting its influence on the highest educational policy-making body of the state. Its arguments persuaded the State Board of Education to reject decisions of its own appointed professional textbook committee and to reduce considerably the choice of instructional material available to social studies teachers in the state. The group has also pressured state legislators to mandate portions of the science curriculum in an attempt to minimize options in the selection and presentation of content by science teachers of the state.

The Textbook Selection Process

The standard procedure for textbook review and adoption in Georgia is for the 10-member State Board of Education, which is appointed by the governor, to appoint the Professional Textbook Selection Committee to review, compare, rate, and recommend textbooks. The 12 members of the Professional Textbook Committee are appointed annually, one teacher from each congressional district and two who represent the state at large. Depending on the subject area up for adoption in any particular year, committee members obtain evaluations of the textbooks from appropriate teachers in their districts. The committee then reviews and rates the books on a 1,000-point scale which takes into account authorship, organization, general content, illustrations, and instructional aids. A book must receive at least 750 points to be recommended.

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Recommendations of the Professional Textbook Committee are forwarded to the State Board of Education for final approval. The state board normally accepts the list of textbooks for a particular subject area as recommended by the professionals. The list is then published in an official volume, the *Georgia Textbook List*, which is sent out to districts throughout the state.

Only books on this list can be purchased with state funds allocated to school districts. Books not on the list must be purchased from additional funds raised within the school district. Currently about 80% of total textbook expenditures in the state come from state funds. Many county school districts do not have any other funds for textbook purchase. Thus the recommended list, by what it includes or excludes, has far-reaching influence over curriculum and instruction throughout the state.

The Social Studies Controversy

The 1972-73 list of social studies textbooks recommended by the Professional Textbook Committee came before the State Board of Education on December 16, 1971. One board member attacked a single book, *The Americans* (an eighth-grade history book for slow learners edited by Edwin Fenton). The board member, Kenneth Kilpatrick, alleged that the book "injects some things that I don't think have anything to do with the subject of history." He further contended that the book would create "disruption and dissension in our society."[1] Kilpatrick moved that the recommended list be approved, with the exception of *all* books authored by, edited by, or containing information by Edwin Fenton. The attack on Fenton evidently was based on a personal review of only one of the 10 different textbooks on the list which had been edited by Edwin Fenton. Since board members normally do not conduct their own investigations of the books reviewed by the professional committee, the other board members at the meeting apparently accepted one man's opinion of the book and its editor when they voted unanimously in favor of the motion. The Fenton books were then referred back to the professional committee for further study.

When news of this action was read in the press, a number of surprised social studies educators wondered what might have motivated Kilpatrick to single out *The Americans* for criticism from the long list of recommended social studies books. Even more puzzling was the wholesale attack on anything written or edited by Fenton. Recently it has come to light that a group which calls itself the Georgia Basic Education Council aroused the initial opposition to the Fenton books. A copy of a polemic written by the chairman of the Georgia Basic Education Council, Al Leake, opposing "all books authored or edited by Ed Fenton" reveals that it was directed to "members of the State Board of Education" for distribution before the December meeting.[2] Moreover, in a letter to Edwin Fenton the next month, Leake said, "It was my objections that caused the state board members to make their own independent study that precipitated their rejection of your textbooks. . . ."[3]

(The Georgia Basic Education Council should not be confused with and is not in any way connected with the national organization of educators, citizens, and scholars known as the Council for Basic Education, which encourages strengthening of the basic school subjects.)

In early January the Professional Textbook Selection Committee met, reconsidered, and reaffirmed the recommendation of all 10 of the history, social science, and humanities textbooks edited by Fenton. The books had been rated 900 on the 1,000-point scale, and members of the professional committee

planned to defend their recommendations at the state board meeting later that month. It should be noted that this series of textbooks, like other materials in the "new social studies," emphasizes the teaching of inquiry skills from history and social science. Inquiry involves hypothesis formation and a proof process based on analytical questions. Fenton has expressed the view that a useful, independent citizen must develop skills of inquiry to "separate truth from falsehood and acquire dependable new knowledge."[4]

On January 20, after some heated discussion of the content of the American history books, members of the State Board of Education voted 5 to 4 to uphold the recommendation of the Professional Textbook Committee. The 10 books were returned to the state adoption list, and they were printed on the official *Georgia Textbook List* published and distributed within the next few months.

The issue was not settled, however. Apparently outside pressure and internal agitation against the Fenton books continued into the spring. The issue surfaced again at the mid-May state board meeting, which the *Atlanta Journal* described as a "stormy session." A board member who had been hospitalized at the time of the January meeting joined with the four opponents of the Fenton books to vote 5 to 4 to reverse the January decision. This time the chairman of the state board did not vote. The 10 books were thus officially "removed" from the already published and distributed state-approved list.

During the June meeting of the state board, at the recommendation of an ad hoc committee composed of three members who had opposed the Fenton inquiry books, the board mandated a prescribed course of study for a year of history and government for the eleventh or twelfth grade. In addition, they restricted the use of state funds for textbooks for that particular course to four history books. These four history books had been selected from 39 history and government books on the state-adopted list. Many highly rated textbooks were eliminated. Not one American government textbook was included. The accepted textbooks were noninquiry-type chronological histories.

Perhaps the strongest and best publicized protest against the board's tampering with the list of state-adopted textbooks occurred in July at the annual conference of the Georgia Association of School Superintendents with the state's elementary and secondary school principals. Objecting on economic grounds, rather than on grounds of unwarranted censorship, the superintendents complained that implementation of the June ruling of the state board would cost "hundreds of thousands of dollars in needless expense" to replace books already selected and ordered from the earlier approved list.[6]

The State Board of Education held its July meeting just a few days after the superintendents' conference. The board then voted to postpone until 1973-74 the implementation of the rule of restriction to one of four textbooks for the prescribed American history and government course.

Meanwhile, social studies educators in schools and colleges had been expressing their concern to each other, to members of the State Board of Education, and to their legislators. The Georgia Council for the Social Sciences communicated the details to its membership in the fall of 1972. A resolution adopted by the GCSS urged removal of all laws which restrict the diversity of instructional materials of their professional selection, arguing that "teachers must select instructional material without censorship."[7]

Legislative action was realized. A bill which passed the Georgia General Assembly in the early part of 1973 removed the state board's power to specifically reduce the official textbook list for the required American history and government course. It appeared that *some* progress had been made. However, the wording of the act raised questions among state board members as to whether the law had totally removed the board's authority to approve textbooks in the broad subject areas, and in April, 1973, the Georgia attorney general was asked to clarify the law.

Last fall the attorney general ruled that the Georgia State Board of Education retains the power to approve the recommendations of the professional committee which evaluates instructional materials. As it stands now, the various social studies books edited by Edwin Fenton are still excluded from purchase with state funds, and the State Board of Education retains undiminished power to override professional evaluations by majority vote and, in effect, to censor selected volumes.

Tampering with the Science Curriculum

In recent months the Georgia Basic Education Council, with Al Leake as its chief spokesman, has been lobbying hard and heavy in an effort to abridge the professional freedom of Georgia science teachers. They demand "equal time" for the teaching of their specific religious belief in special creation in all science classes where the scientific theory of evolution is studied.

Under the guise of a measure to "assure academic freedom," a bill to require the teaching of divine creation according to *Genesis* in science classes passed the Georgia Senate last year. The bill was sent to the House Education Committee, which set up a special committee to hold hearings on the bill in several cities of the state. Georgia Basic Education Council leadership was prominent and outspoken at some of these meetings.[8]

The bill provided that when science students examine scientific theories and various scientific evidence that living organisms undergo change over time in adapting to their environment, then they must also be presented with the biblical account of special creation. Science teachers would then have to teach a particular religious belief in their classes. The bill also mandated that textbooks, course outlines, and visual aids would have to provide this joint teaching of scientific theory and religious belief.

Members of the Georgia Science Teachers Association protested vigorously against the bill at the hearings and through their legislators. They argued that the bill legislated the curriculum and that it would require science teachers to teach theology.[9]

Meanwhile, State Board of Education members were apparently under some pressure to provide textbook material which would teach divine creation in science classes. For in January it was revealed to the House committee studying the creation bill that a biology textbook which treats divine creation along with scientific studies had been added to the state-adopted list by the State Board of Education in November, 1973.[10] The biology textbook is published by the Zondervan Publishing House in Grand Rapids, Michigan, and is reportedly sponsored by the Creation Research Society, which is "dedicated to research and publication in support of creation versus evolution as the most likely explanation of origins."[11]

The addition of the special biology book to the list evidently relieved pressures to force a change in the science curriculum. In late January the creation bill was killed by a 13-7 vote of the Georgia House Education Committee. Several legislators on the committee expressed their own personal belief in

divine creation, but noted that they had some reservations about legislating the curriculum.[12]

Analysis of the Issue

Neither Georgia nor the southern region is unique in its periodic reactions to fears of subversion in the public schools. Loyalty oaths, banned textbooks, and mandated curricula are state-level reactions which have not been confined to the South. The South has shown, however, a unique kind of xenophobic provincialism which has made it particularly vulnerable to arguments that orthodox beliefs are being undermined in public school education. Southerners have been notably receptive to reactionary arguments that alien or subversive philosophies such as communism, internationalism, welfare-statism, "race mixing," progressivism, and, perhaps now, "inquiry" are being forced on their children in school.

Probably the last major demonstration of arbitrary action based on such fears occurred in the early fifties. In 1951 a single member of the Georgia State School Board, who was also active in the DAR, launched an attack on Frank A. Magruder's widely accepted textbook, *American Government*. Claiming that the book played up world government and played down the American form of government, she succeeded in persuading her colleagues on the board to suspend the book from the state-adopted list. Board members acted hastily on hearsay. Fortunately, that suspension lasted only five months before it was retracted.[13]

In the 1951 case, and again in the recent banning of the Fenton textbooks, a majority of the state board preferred to reject the recommendations of professionals who evaluate books by a set of stated standards, and listened instead to a self-appointed committee of one or a few.

In the 1951 case of textbook censorship there was clear evidence of pressures exerted by a few well-organized, persistent far-right groups who wanted their own viewpoints taught as the truth. Currently, at least one such group is dogging both the state board and certain state legislators. An examination of the *Citizens Education Review*, a publication of the Georgia Basic Education Council, indicates that this group was attacking the inquiry approach, especially as used in the Fenton books, ar back as 1969.[14] The subjects of ogy and anthropology, because of r concern with scientific theories of adaptation and evolution, have also been attacked by this group throughout the past few years.

Public news coverage on these issues has been minimal and limited mainly to the Atlanta area.[15] It has been the organized social studies teachers who have publicized the issue to their colleagues and have risen up in defense of professional textbook review. Likewise, it has been the organized science teachers who have resisted legislation affecting the science curriculum. Membership in the Georgia Council for the Social Sciences and in the Georgia Science Teachers Association has increased remarkably during the past few years. However, it is still a minority of teachers of each subject area who keep informed on these issues. Moreover, on the barely visible surface, the encroachment on professional curriculum development in science hardly shows its connection with the interference with professional textbook selection in the social studies. Yet in each case there is evidence that the persistent efforts of the same small far-right faction have been seminal.

These are times when educators might well focus their efforts on such needs as improving instruction for the disadvantaged, developing effective environmental education programs, and promoting a reawakening in the humanities. In Georgia, however, educators must first attend to the defense of their own professional qualifications for providing a major input into the educational decision-making process. Unless educators of all subject areas can join together to beat back the attempts to minimize the teacher's academic freedom and to undermine the process of professional curriculum planning and textbook selection, the movement away from professional determination is likely to snowball.

Educators themselves comprise an interest group, but it is just this special interest in curriculum and instruction which best qualifies them to serve on public committees which examine and recommend instructional materials and policy. Nevertheless, the whole education community – students, parents, and teachers alike – should be wary of the attempts of *any* special interest group which would restrict or edit instructional materials or legislate curriculum in an effort to teach its own special beliefs.

The difference between educational decisions based on systematic, informed evaluations by professionals and those educational decisions which are based on personal biases or beliefs of persons with influence must not be underestimated. It is the important difference between professional determination and censorship. Educators in every state should attend to the forms of creeping censorship in Georgia and in some other states such as Tennessee, Arizona, and California.[16] Measures which prohibit intellectual inquiry in the schools are not only counterprofessional, they are antidemocratic in that they impose the beliefs of a special interest on all students and teachers.

1. Reported in *The Atlanta Constitution*, December 17, 1971.
2. The letter to members of the State Board of Education urged members: "When approving the textbook list, please exclude all books authored or edited by Ed Fenton." The letter is dated November 24, 1971.
3. Letter from A. B. Leake to Edwin Fenton dated January 12, 1972.
4. Edwin Fenton, "The New Social Studies: Implications for School Administration," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*," March, 1967, pp. 62-73.
5. *The Atlanta Journal*, May 19, 1972.
6. *The Atlanta Journal*, July 18, 1972.
7. The resolution was circulated in *News and Notes*, official newsletter of the Georgia Council for the Social Sciences, fall, 1972.
8. *The Atlanta Journal*, November 7, 1973.
9. *The Georgia Science Teacher*, official publication of the Georgia Science Teachers Association, fall, 1973, and winter, 1973.
10. Reported in *The Atlanta Journal*, January 3, 1974.
11. See *The Atlanta Constitution*, January 29, 1974. The spring, 1974, *Georgia Science Teacher* contains a detailed review by biologists and science educators of the newly adopted book, *Biology: A Search for Order in Complexity*.
12. *The Atlanta Constitution*, January 29, 1974.
13. A detailed account of these events is found in Philip Lee Secrist, "The Public Pays the Piper: The People and Social Studies in Georgia Schools, 1930-1970," doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1971.
14. *Citizen's Education Review*, quarterly publication of the Georgia Basic Education Council, College Park, Ga. Second quarter, 1969.
15. For assistance in gathering information for this case study, the author is grateful to Derwyn McElroy, editor of *News and Notes*, newsletter of the Georgia Council for the Social Sciences; Ronald Simpson, editor of *The Georgia Science Teacher*; Edwin Fenton, editor of the Holt, Rinehart and Winston secondary social studies series; and Gwen Hutcheson, Georgia social science consultant.
16. See Clifford A. Hardy, "Censorship and the Curriculum," *Educational Leadership*, October, 1973, pp. 10-13; M. M. Gubser, "Accountability as a Smoke Screen for Political Indoctrination in Arizona," *Phi Delta Kappan*, September, 1973, pp. 64, 65; and Donald H. Layton, "Science Versus Fundamentalists: The California Compromise," *Phi Delta Kappan*, June, 1973, pp. 696, 697 for discussions of the Tennessee, Arizona, and California situations. □

From: Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, by Martin Haberman and T. M. Stinnett. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Future Requirements

While no one can know for sure, it appears from the evidence at hand that minimum state requirements for initial certification will be stepped up rapidly toward the requirement of five years of preparation (the masters degree). We are now producing a vast surplus of teachers who will not find employment. Some estimates for the school year 1971-72 ran as high as 200,000 fully qualified teachers who could not find jobs. After the extreme teacher shortages that have plagued our schools for almost half a century, this is a new and startling development. Part of the problem is economic: when financial pinches come, schools tend to increase the size of classes or the number of pupils per teacher, rather than the size of the faculty. Moreover, since 1957 the birth rate has shown a surprising and persistent decline. This means that fewer teachers are needed each year to service the total school enrollment. The decreasing enrollment has temporarily hit elementary schools hardest, but it will eventually include high schools.

Two ways a profession can reduce the supply of qualified practitioners is to inaugurate more rigorous and selective admission practices or so lengthen the period of preparation that fewer fully qualified candidates are produced each year. Better guidance and counseling of prospective teachers and higher standards for admission and graduation are also helpful.

We cannot expect the suggested lengthening of the preparation period to come overnight. It will probably come gradually, not by adding a full additional year all at once, but by adding portions of years. Students already in preparation or teachers in service need not worry about increased requirements since new requirements would not be retroactive.

New Vistas

Another development is the universal adoption of the approved programs approach, by which institutions design their own programs of preparation, in accordance with their philosophies, faculties, facilities, and clientele, and then submit the proposed programs to their state educational agency for approval. Once approved, each graduate's certification is based on his institution's recommendation rather than his transcript and course credits.

A third proposed innovation is for institutions to develop performance criteria for each position for which they are preparing teachers. Qualification would then depend on demonstrating the achievement of stated objectives rather than on completing a specific conglomerate of courses.

These innovations will take time to be accepted and developed, but they are in process and will eventually give the profession more control over certification. They should also make the public more confident about the competence of teachers.

Today's Education, December 1971

HOW WILL GOVERNANCE HELP ME TEACH BETTER?

□ **So you went to a conference last weekend on my dues and discussed governance. How's that going to help me teach better?**

Are you satisfied with the evaluation you're getting this year?

What do you mean, evaluation? I went on tenure last year, and the principal doesn't have to visit me for at least three more years.

Could an evaluation help you teach the kids in your class better?

I suppose so. I could learn a thing or two if some of the good teachers in my building were doing the evaluation.

That's peer evaluation. Why isn't it in your negotiated contract?

Oh, you mean we can negotiate teachers' getting in on action like that?

Yes. That's what governance is all about: Teachers' getting in on many activities they've not been in on before.

Like what?

Like deciding on their own in-service training, for instance. Most of what they get now is a waste of time.

You're certainly right about that! I want to teach more minority group literature, but nobody around here seems to know anything about it or to care about giving me some help.

Are there other teachers who feel the same way?

Of course.

Then why shouldn't all of you govern your own in-service education? That would help you teach better.

Speaking of teaching better, I have a student teacher who has no preparation in minority literature, either, and we're working with a class that is twenty-five percent black. What can I do about that?

In the future you can insist, through your association, that practitioners have a say in teacher preparation and teacher placement.

You mean teachers should decide when a person is ready to be licensed?

Yes. In almost every other profession the practitioners do.

Who decides that for teachers now?

Mostly state boards of education—citizens who have been appointed by a governor or elected by the people. They have the legal power to decide who can be licensed as a teacher and which colleges may prepare them.

. But don't these boards ask the teaching profession for advice?

State boards of education must necessarily depend upon staff professionals. But they in turn often refer to advisory bodies, chiefly college people, again appointed by the state board instead of selected by the organized teaching profession.

Are you saying that the teaching profession should have control over public education? What about the fact that we are public employees? The public pays the bills. Isn't education their baby?

We're not trying to control public education. Citizens should determine the goals and financing of education. But they should fix certain responsibilities (like licensing) with groups (like the teaching profession) that are best able to carry them out.

But aren't teachers one group and college professors another and state education department people another? How does the public decide which group does what?

That's why groups within the teaching profession need to get together. When we say "the teaching profession" we mean teachers, primarily, but also college professors, administrators, and professional personnel in state departments and in accrediting agencies.

Which group in the teaching profession is the largest?

Two-thirds of the profession are elementary and secondary teachers. And they've had little say in most of the decisions made about themselves and their profession. Oh, here and there, there's been a token elementary or secondary teacher on some advisory committee—but it's been pretty token.

Why have so many teachers put up with this?

That's hard to say. It may have something to do with the question that you asked earlier about the public thinking that education is their baby because they pay the bills and therefore they feel that teachers should be told what to do. Somehow many teachers just didn't raise questions about who governed the profession until they began to see that schools had to be changed and that they weren't able to do anything about changing what they knew was wrong with them.

You mean I could have something to say about who'll teach next to me and why student teaching is outmoded?

Right! That's governance.

How can teachers like me have something to say about certification?

You and your colleagues can see that the legislature delegates the responsibility for standards and licensing to teachers by creating a Teacher Standards and Licensure Commission.

How would individuals get on that Commission?

They would be nominated by people who have teaching certificates.

Would members keep their regular jobs?

Yes.

Who would pay expenses for travel to and from meetings of the Commission and the salary for substitutes who would have to take the Commissioners' places on days they attended these meetings?

Expenses would come from state funds—probably from a portion of the certification fee which teachers already pay in most states.

Would the teachers on the Commission try to enforce a code of ethics for all teachers?

No. Ethics would come into the picture only when infractions serious enough for possible license revocation occurred.

Then, who is responsible for seeing that teachers subscribe to a code of ethics?

Associations of teachers—state and local.

Would the licensing commission have the power to revoke licenses?

Yes, when necessary. But revocation is only a small part of the whole licensing procedure—and the responsibility for all licensing is what the profession wants.

I have a friend in the legislature who says that we ought to clean our own house before we ask for anything more. What do I say to him?

You tell him that we don't have the legal power to do that now. We haven't had responsibility for deciding who got into the profession or how they were trained, so how can we be responsible for performance?

So we're not being jockeyed into any witch-hunts?

That's right. We have a much greater contribution to make.

Will we do a better job with standards and licensing than is being done now?

I'm sure you'll agree that the persons who are closest to something and most involved in it care the most about it. The central aspect of education is still the teacher. But he's been treated like Galatea, not a professional. People have done things to or for the teacher without involving him. It's the teacher who really cares about standards because they not only have an impact on his effectiveness in the classroom but they also affect the status of his chosen profession. Of course, teachers will make some mistakes, too, but they do have knowledge and expertise about their profession that the layman doesn't have.

If we can control entry into teaching, won't we tend to keep our numbers small so salaries will be high?

This could be a possibility, I suppose, but there will be checks and balances within the profession that will undoubtedly prevent this. A Standards and Licensure Commission should be required by the law that creates it to report to the entire profession and to the legislature annually. And besides, delegated authority can be withdrawn if it is used irresponsibly....

PAGE 6—DES MOINES SUNDAY REGISTER—NOVEMBER 4 1973

By Joan Bunke
(Editor, Picture Magazine)

STEREOTYPES die hard. But there's a program in Iowa that looks as if it is single-handedly killing the image of the teacher as stick-in-the-mud.

What it is, is an idea factory and a horizon expander for teachers eager to sharpen up the tricks of their trade. The program comes with the usual jaw-buster title—Mobile In-Service Training Lab, but, acronymed MISTL, it is a rocket-like program whose power-packed vitality puts teachers into orbit—idea orbit.

One Friday late in September, the first of the five MISTL programs scheduled for the 1973-74 academic year rocketed a collection of 230 north central Iowa teachers off the ground, flying high with ideas in a session at Emmetsburg Community High School.

Games, talk, ideas, enthusiasm and eager participation were the order of the day at the lab, part of a five-year-old program underwritten by the Iowa State Education Association (ISEA). The "module" sessions came with very heavy titles, some of them, but "Humanizing" and "Individualizing" and "Accountability" turned into lively give-and-take meetings in which teachers learned from other teachers, circulating ideas and techniques, brainstorming to find new ways to enliven and enrich education.

Ideas and enthusiasm pour out of teacher-instructors like O. J. Fargo, who teaches eighth-grade English at Davenport's J. B. Young Junior High School. "I don't think anybody leaves a lab the same way he came in," Fargo said, lauding the non-stop participation that turned his whole first lab session into a brainstorming confabulation that ran into the lunch hour.

Fargo has adapted a battery-run electric "light-up" game board to use in the English classroom, to learn the parts of speech, for example, and the gadget can be shifted to other subjects, other classrooms.

The beauty of the games-for-teaching that Fargo talks about is that "there's no hassle about money," he says. The entire kit and caboodle of a score or so games can be put together for something like $30. The whole object of the game setup, he tells his lab sessions, is: "If you ever want to teach kids something that's a little tough to learn, make a game of it." Find out what youngsters are interested in, then invent a way to use their interests to get the teaching message across, he advises. The enthusiastic Fargo himself found the Emmetsburg lab sessions so "fantastic, enthusiastic" that they induced a sort of "natural high," he said.

That kind of high was shared by teachers attending the sessions. Mrs. Judy McDowall, who teaches seventh-grade English at Emmetsburg Junior High School, found "lots of ideas" in two "fabulous" morning meetings she attended, rediscovering that learning can be fun for pupils and teachers alike and "that this idea of work-sheeting kids to death is outdated."

Eagle Grove's Shirley Sadler is one of a cadre of 20 teachers from around the state who run the MISTL labs. "We're hoping that we're bringing creative ideas and innovative ideas to participants," she says, and "we hope the participants will go home with ideas from each session that they can use within their own classroom." The cadre, she adds, tries to get its instruction and rap sessions "down on a very personal basis," offering ideas that can really be used.

Of the games involved in the instruction sessions, Mrs. Sadler, who teaches seventh-grade mathematics at Eagle Grove Middle School, explains: "These are things that are not just fun and games, but instructive devices" that reinforce and build retention.

The ISEA'S Richard Sweeney, the instruction and professional development specialist who is director of the entire lab program, says the cadre of teachers who run the labs wind up learning as much as the teachers they're working with. The labs, he agrees, are an idea factory, but they're much more than that, he says. Under the theme "Teachers Helping Teachers," they are designed to encourage "professional development and growth on the part of everybody involved."

The program, which this year will cost about $15,000 and which is underwritten by the teachers themselves through the ISEA, helps teachers "break out of a shell," he says. New ideas and innovative techniques are served up, chewed over and digested by teachers, who "get an opportunity to really get out and see what's happening in other parts of the state and other parts of the country."

The laboratory program is open to all educators in Iowa, Sweeney says, and the four other sessions for the school year, each expected to draw something like 400 to 450 teachers, have been scheduled thusly: Washington Junior High School, Washington, Ia. (held last Friday), Creston High School, Dec. 7; Boone High School, Jan. 25, 1974, and Sumner High School, in northeast Iowa, Mar. 1, 1974.

Phi Delta Kappan, November 1971

TEACHERS' CENTERS: A BRITISH FIRST

by Stephen K. Bailey

Effective change comes from teachers, not from their critics or superiors.

Ever since DeWitt Clinton called America's attention a century and a half ago to the British infant schools as worthy of emulation, this country has derived policy nourishment from educational experimentation in the United Kingdom. In the 1960's the British open school received particular attention, serving as a basis for many of the reforms featured in the writings of distinguished American educators – including especially Charles Silberman's *Crisis in the Classroom.*

Perhaps the most significant potential British contribution to American education, however, is only now being identified and discussed: the development of teachers' centers. British experience with these centers, at least in their present form, is a matter of three or four years only. But the idea is so simple, so obvious, so psychologically sound, as to make one wonder why teachers' centers have not dotted the educational landscape for decades.

Teachers' centers are just what the term implies: local physical facilities and self-improvement programs organized and run by the teachers themselves for purposes of upgrading educational performance. Their primary function is to make possible a review of existing curricula and other educational practices by groups of teachers and to encourage teacher attempts to bring about changes.

Stimulated by a working paper on school-leaving age prepared by Britain's Schools Council* in 1965, and by a variety of *ad hoc* study groups and curriculum-development committees in the middle sixties, teachers' centers have mushroomed in the past half decade. Today there are approximately 500 centers located throughout England and Wales, over half with full-time leaders. The centers vary greatly in size, governance, scope of work, and the quality of tea and biscuits, but most of them are engaged in exciting and profoundly significant educational activities.

The underlying rationale for teachers' centers may be stated succinctly in terms of three interlocking propositions: 1) Fundamental educational reform will come only through those charged with the basic educational responsibility: to wit, the teachers; 2) teachers are unlikely to change their ways of doing things just because imperious, theoretical reformers – whether successions of Rickovers or Illiches or high-powered R & D missionaries from central educational systems – tell them to shape up; 3) teachers will take reform seriously only when they are responsible for defining their own educational problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving help on their own terms and turf.

The more these intertwining propositions buzz around the brain, the more apparent their validity becomes. In the United States, for example, we have developed in the past several years a slew of educational R & D centers, Title III supplementary centers, and educational laboratories, each in its own way designed to discover and disseminate new educational truths. Most of these centers and laboratories have done important work. But the impact of this work upon continuing teacher performance (and pupil performance) in the classroom has been miniscule. And well before federal largess was directed toward inducing educational reform through a trickle-down theory, many state and local education departments and teachers colleges had developed curriculum-improvement supervisors charged with being "change agents" through workshops and in-service training. But the initiative was almost always from the bureaucrat or the educrat, rather than from the teachers themselves....

*The Schools Council is an independent body with a majority of teacher members. Its purpose is to undertake in England and Wales research and development work in curricula, teaching methods, and examination in schools, and in other ways to help teachers decide what to teach and how. The council is financed by equal contributions from the local educational authorities on the one hand and the Department of Education and Science of the national government on the other.

For the first time, local teachers are not low on the totem pole. They are prime movers in reforming an inevitably sluggish system. The reforms are not imposed by the arrogance of ministries, authorities, supervisors, or academicians. The reforms emerge from the teachers' own experiences and creative impulses. Through the field officers of the Schools Council and through the outreach of the local leadership of the teachers' centers, important educational innovations from whatever sources can be scrutinized and tested; but, once again, this is done on the teachers' own terms and turf.

Who pays? Local education authorities and, through contributions of time and materials, the teachers themselves. Capital improvements, major equipment and facilities, and basic operating costs come from the education committees of local authorities. But without significant inputs of time and talent (as well as marginal voluntary donations to help defray the costs of social food and beverages), teachers' centers could not exist – at least in their present form.

Depending on the size of the center, annual budgets may run from a few to thousands of pounds. In some cases, where teachers' centers agree to serve as area distribution headquarters for educational A-V materials, their local-authority budget may be sweetened substantially.

Experience with the center idea is still meager. But their stunning proliferation is testament to their meeting a felt need among teachers and among those who understand the futility of attempts to reform British education without the teachers being directly and importantly involved.

In 1970, the Schools Council sponsored three national conferences on teachers' centers in the United Kingdom. A total of 300 people attended. The liveliness of discussions and debates was indicative of the variety of opinions, experiences, and goals that inform the teachers' center idea. The conference spectrum ranged from the total enthusiast to the cynic.

Among the most insistent questions raised at the conferences were the following:

–How many of the center activities should be on an "in-school" as against an "after-school" basis?

–Should the "wardens" or "leaders" of the centers be part-time or full-time? And how should they be selected and trained? Is a new kind of profession emerging (i.e., teachers' center wardens)?

–Should teachers' centers encourage membership from those who are nonteachers?

–Should teachers' centers concentrate special attention upon the evaluation of, and experimentation with, new educational technology?

–How can more teachers be induced to use the centers – especially the apathetic who need the centers the most?

–What are the best methods for spreading the word of experts or even of "Charlie Jones's" good ideas?

The greatest problem seen by all members was the demand of development work on the time and energy of teachers. Although some of the work is presently done during school hours, much of it takes place after 4 p.m. The financial and logistical problems associated with this central issue are at the heart of the possibilities for long-range success and survival of teachers' centers in Britain.

Even at their best and most creative, teachers' centers are still tentative. New regional linkages and national information networks will surely be needed to supplement local insights and resources. At the moment, there is an inadequate flow of information about what is going on in other centers and areas; and extant knowledge and research directly related to locally defined problems is inadequately collected and disseminated. The Schools Council is sponsoring a series of regional conferences this coming year in order to address many of these issues.

But the basic concept remains structurally and psychologically sound, and our British cousins have good reason for being enthusiastic.

Fortunately, the idea is beginning to catch on in the United States. Don Davies, acting deputy commissioner for development in the U.S. Office of Education, is actively promoting the notion of a major network of local teachers' centers. Leaders in both the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers have shown considerable interest in the teachers' centers concept.

Would it not be wonderful if, after years of telling teachers what to do and where to go, American educational savants and officials suddenly discovered that the only real and lasting reforms in education in fact come about when teachers themselves are given facilities and released time "to do their own thing"? Perhaps in the not too distant future, following the pioneering experiment voted by the Unity, Maine, School District for the fall of 1971, a four-day week for teachers in the classroom will be standard. On the fifth day, the teachers will be in their teachers' centers, rapping about their common problems, studying new ways to teach and to understand students, imbibing a Coke or Pepsi, talking shop over billiards, and cheerfully allowing management to check off dues, parts of which will be assigned to defray the operating costs of the federally or state-funded teachers' center facilities. Linked through regional associations, informed by the R & D activities of a National Institute of Education, teachers' centers could form the essential but presently missing link between innovative ideas and pupil performance in the classroom. □

Phi Delta Kappan, May 1974

A STUDY OF REWARDS AND INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS

by Roland B. Kimball

"Accountability" is now one of the catchwords in public education. Schools are expected to take a close look at what they are attempting to accomplish, and to assess their effectiveness in achieving the intended objectives. One implication of this position is that rewards and incentives should be selected in such a way that the best teachers are encouraged. But what types of rewards and incentives will serve that purpose?

This research study identified the rewards teachers perceived in use in "high-achieving schools" and in "low-achieving schools." Statistically significant differences were evident. Teachers in the high-achieving schools reported the use of intrinsic rewards more frequently than would be expected. These self-assigned rewards included a sense of personal achievement, increased self-confidence, and satisfaction in a job well done. On the other hand, teachers in low-achieving schools reported the use of formal, extrinsic rewards (job security, salary increases, etc.) more frequently than would be expected. Teachers in the low-achieving schools also indicated that certain types of teacher behavior normally associated with effective teaching are more frequently ignored or treated as unimportant. Apparently administrative indifference to teacher performance, manifested by a failure to respond to this behavior in any recognizable manner, occurs in low-achieving schools more often than it does in high achieving schools.

However, when teachers were asked to indicate the incentive value of various kinds of rewards which might be provided, no differences of significance were found between the responses from teachers in high-achieving and low-achieving schools. For all teachers, a sense of personal achievement and self-confidence was identified as the best incentive to improve teaching.

Because these are intrinsic rewards, school administrators cannot dispense them directly. But it may be possible for administrators to create situations which enhance the likelihood that teachers will more frequently and more explicitly perceive these intrinsic rewards and be motivated by them. Accomplishment of such an outcome requires the administrator to go beyond the conventional "human relations" approach. Teachers need a work environment rich with opportunities for responsibility, initiative, and achievement, and characterized by feedback systems which continuously inform them of possibilities and accomplishments. Teachers must own "full shares" in the business of the school if an intrinsic reward system is to develop.

Nothing in the study suggests that extrinsic motivation is unimportant, simply that it is less important. Teachers in both categories of schools identified certain extrinsic rewards as motivating. Among the more important were basic job security, ample support, effective technical assistance, overt encouragement, and regular salary adjustments. In contrast, negative rewards were reported as having virtually no influence.

This study also examined the pattern of rewards associated with the two major categories of values which might be rewarded in a school. 1) *Organizational values* are related to that teacher behavior which makes the school neater, quieter, more predictable, easier to manage. 2) *Educational values* indicate concern for learning by the students, for improving teaching methods, and for achieving the educational goals of the school.

Regardless of the type of value under consideration, the same pattern held. Any notion that formal extrinsic rewards tend to be associated with organizational values and intrinsic rewards with educational values is not supported by these findings. On the contrary, teachers in the high-achieving schools reported greater use of intrinsic rewards for both organizational and educational values; teachers in the low-achieving schools reported greater use of extrinsic rewards.

The preceding findings are based on data collected by personal interviews and written questionnaires administered in 12 nonurban schools in New Hampshire and eight urban schools located in four large cities in the northeastern portion of the nation. Schools were paired, one being categorized as "high achieving" and one as "low achieving" in each pair. Selection of the high-achieving and low-achieving schools was done by comparing actual achievement on standardized tests of reading and arithmetic with achievement scores predicted in the light of the mental ability scores of the pupils. All schools in the system were considered in order to assure a maximum spread between high- and low-achieving schools. Obviously, the use of reading and arithmetic achievement scores as the sole criterion of "school success" is a limiting factor. Nonetheless, most educators and parents probably agree that high performance in these areas is one major outcome expected of good schools.

No claim can be made that the use of intrinsic rewards produces more effective schools. All that can be said is that the use of such rewards is more frequently associated with high-achieving schools and less frequently associated with low-achieving schools. But this relationship warrants careful thought by school administrators and supervisors. □

Today's Education, September-October 1973

EXCELLENCE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Awarded a multi-year grant in 1970 by the U.S. Office of Education, Project Change at the State University College at Cortland, New York, was charged first with the task of developing from scratch a new kind of teacher education program at the master's level for teachers of three-to-nine-year-old children. The second job was to go where many of Cortland's graduates are—regional schools—to find people who would help us develop a program that would serve the needs of teachers and schools interested in striking out in new directions.

Somewhere along the way, we decided that the same principles that hold for children's learning and development also hold true for teachers' learning and development.

If development is basically the same process for children and adults, we reasoned that teachers, like children, should be active learners rather than passive—pooling their resources rather than competing; experimenting and creating; making choices; taking a good deal of responsibility for their own learning.

We also came to believe that teachers, like children, are most likely to succeed if they have a strong sense of personal control over their environment—if they feel that they can make an impact on their environment, that they have within themselves the resources for success. It seemed clear, therefore, that increasing the teacher's sense of personal control should be a basic objective of teacher education.

This meant creating the conditions under which teachers develop a different view of themselves and their profession, a feeling, as one person in our program headily expressed it, that "I, as a teacher, can try almost anything. I don't have to sit back and take anyone's word for anything."

Putting these principles into practice at Cortland takes the form of having our Project Change students (93 percent of whom are women) direct a good deal of their own learning. There is a structural framework —a five-week Summer Institute in Open Education and a spate of courses, such as Programs and Theories in Early Childhood Education and Classroom Evaluation—but within this framework teachers are free to choose from a wide range of "knowledge and behavioral competencies" those which best fit their own interests and needs.

In the course, Coping with Individual Differences, for example, a student first chooses the content areas (e.g., self-concept and psychomotor development) in which to do competency projects. She then selects a particular problem within each of those areas (e.g., a child she teaches is a sociometric isolate) and proceeds to diagnose the problem, design a strategy for coping with it, implement the strategy with the child, and evaluate its effectiveness. This comprises a "behavioral competency" project.

As a corresponding "knowledge competency" project, the teacher might choose to prepare an annotated bibliography relevant to her content area that would be useful to other teachers or conduct a workshop in her behavioral competency for members of the class.

In its two years of operation, the program has taken on a strong child-development orientation, centered on the work of Piaget and its implications for teaching.

The part of the program that does the most to develop teachers as leaders of change in their schools is a course in Teacher Strategies for Change.

Teachers in the course learn how to effect change. They develop hard skills and strategies in diagnosis, communication, gathering resources, organizing a support group, gaining favorable publicity, and taking action. Change projects have ranged from writing a proposal (later funded) for a new multi-age program to creating an adventure playground.

When asked the question, What have you gained from the Strategies course? one student replied: "Skills in working with other people, a much better understanding of the problems and processes of change, greater patience, and confidence in my own ability to bring about change. I gained much courage."

This fall, a staff member will begin teaching a year-long course based in a local school. Many of the students enrolled will be teachers in that school, and their purpose in the course will be to develop an integrated approach to reading and the language arts that they will put into practice in their own classrooms.

A critical phase of the program is providing support for teachers in their classroom both during and after their experience at the College. The Project's full-time follow-through coordinator functions as an itinerant resource person, crisscrossing the nine-county region served by the program and helping teachers to create a climate for change in their schools.

Another basic strength of the program, we think, has been its expectation that students will share the responsibility for developing a good teacher education program. The result is honest feedback, a flow of concrete suggestions for improvement, and an atmosphere of equality and mutual respect.

The program has deepened our regard for the value of high expectations. One third-grade teacher, flushed with triumph after persuading her board of education of the virtues of Project Change, wrote, "Presenting at a board meeting is admittedly a fearful experience, but exhilarating, too! I came away feeling dauntless and believing more strongly than ever that we can all do so much more than we think we can."

Another Project teacher, a nursery school director, says simply, "I have discovered talents I never knew I had." Once "terrified" of public speaking, she now does 30 workshops a year and is a part-time early childhood instructor at Cortland and at Cornell University.

Bent on converting the unbelievers, Project staff and teachers do workshops in the region year-round. They cap the effort at the end of each year with a marathon three-day conference on open education, jointly sponsored by the College's Campus School and the Education Department and attended by hundreds of teachers and teacher educators. Project Change also disseminates—both regionally and nationally—a "Mini-Book-a-Month" packed with practical classroom ideas contributed by Project teachers.

Evaluating the Project's person-centered approach to performance-based teacher education has included a comparative study of the openness of Project graduates' classroom teaching style vs. that of teachers judged exemplary by their principals but not exposed to Cortland's early childhood program. The results have shown significant differences favoring the Project Change graduates.

With the wind of this year's AACTE Distinguished Achievement Award at its back, Project Change rides into the sunset of federal funding confident that the day will dawn on a permanent Center for Early Childhood Education at Cortland. Supported from the outset by the College's administration, the Project envisions an autonomous, free-wheeling enterprise involved in follow-through with the expanding network of Project schools, continuing open education research, development of innovative teacher resource centers in the region, and early childhood programs at the graduate and undergraduate levels—the latter just now beginning.

—**Thomas Lickona**, *director, Project Change, State University of New York College at Cortland.*

Today's Education, September-October 1974

The Role of Professional Associations in the Improvement of Instruction

By JAMES A. HARRIS
NEA President.

Helping you be successful as a teacher must be a major function of NEA as a teacher advocate organization. To establish the conditions necessary for teaching success requires greater effort on the part of NEA and your state and local associations.

Since our professional development problems are so diverse and complex, appropriate and agreed-upon roles must be established for national, state, and local action. And these roles must be integrated into a dynamic, active teacher movement across this land.

The NEA has suggested the following roles for itself:

1. Insuring the adequacy of teacher involvement in decision making, policy formulation, and program implementation in all matters related to instruction and professional development.

2. Keeping members alert to developments which significantly affect their practice.

3. Anticipating emerging problems and issues so that the organized profession can deal with them effectively.

4. Supporting affiliates—especially the states—in efforts to solve their critical professional development problems.

Although teachers can negotiate local agreements for the improvement of instruction with a local board, the nature and scope of such negotiations depend upon state law.

In addition, while problems with regard to teaching children are definitely local, the chances of succeeding at the same local level are increasingly tied directly to activities that are state and national in scope. Consider, for example, the accountability movement. In most states this has state assessment at its core. However, it is a state program which is being carefully nurtured by the U.S. Office of Education. So far, state assessment tends to reduce itself to evaluation, which has often become a narrowly conceived testing program. As a result, teacher organizations are forced to use their time, resources, and effort trying to neutralize a bad movement. The Michigan assessment program illustrates what can happen. (For details, see the May 1974 *NEA Reporter.*)

Associations must generate the power, knowledge, and programs which will guarantee that classroom teachers do have control over the conditions necessary for success. Moreover, associations must be capable of clearly delineating to boards, parents, and others the nature of these conditions. In order to do this, they must ascertain what teachers need and then develop action programs to fulfill such needs. What associations cannot and should not be expected to do is to pay for implementation of programs designed to improve instruction. This should be a public responsibility, not a private one.

The NEA has a major objective to establish publicly financed and practitioner-designed in-service programs. To obtain such programs will require new contract rights in the case of most local associations. Nationwide planning by teachers is also essential so that organizational roles will be clearly established to avoid duplication and conflict.

To bring about instructional improvement involves specific information, knowledge, and power to undertake educational reform. Because our school systems are a part of a larger social system, little or no reform is likely to take place unless national priorities are geared to the necessity of changing the teaching and learning environments. Furthermore, intelligent reform simply does not occur by fiat. When teachers acquire the resources, power, and right to control their teaching environment, the problems of self-improvement will be self-evident and specific. That is why we need to transform our teacher associations into a dynamic system capable of producing conditions necessary for individual professional improvement of members.

Just for openers, we must commit ourselves to becoming more effective as an organized national group in matters such as the following:

1. The direct participation in the devising of federal programs and guidelines which directly affect instruction and professional development of individual members. This includes all levels of teacher preparation as well as research and development.

2. The development of more positive and realistic forms of state programs designed to assist teachers in improving instruction. This includes not only funding but substantive expert assistance upon request.

3. The creation of a system of local, publicly financed teacher-renewal centers designed and controlled by teachers for assisting individual practitioners on a continuous day-to-day basis.

If we move vigorously in these directions, teachers will soon have a national system for (a) controlling their own professional standards, entrance into the profession, and advanced training; (b) certifying their own self-renewal programs; (c) providing exchange experiences for teachers as well as exchanging proven and workable teacher-produced teaching materials and certifying commercial ones; and (d) providing sabbatical leaves.

Most important, teachers will have a new self-respect —the most powerful human force on this earth. □

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SOME RUMINATIONS ON THE HAZARDS OF TRYING TO VIEW WHAT LIES AHEAD BY SQUINTING THROUGH A SMALL POSTERIOR APERTURE

by Charles Weingartner— Regression is one of the most popular responses to stress—moving back to an earlier perception and an earlier form of behavior that seems to have been gratifying at the time. Moving backwards into an illusion is, and apparently always has been, much more popular than dealing with an uncongenial immediate reality. In a book titled *The Crazy Ape* (which is about you and me), Albert Szent-Gyorgyi, a Nobel prize-winner in medicine, reminds us:

We live in a new cosmic world which man was not made for. His survival now depends on how well and how fast he can adapt himself to it, rebuilding all his ideas, all his social and economic and political structures. His existence depends on the question of whether he can adapt himself faster than the hostile forces can destroy him. At present, he is clearly losing out.

We are forced to face this situation with our caveman's brain, a brain that has not changed much since it was formed. We face it with our out-dated thinking, institutions and methods, with political leaders who have their roots in the old, prescientific world and think the only way to solve these formidable problems is by trickery and double talk.

Of course, it is much easier to become out-dated these days than it used to be—not long ago—when change occurred at a much, much slower rate. All we have to do to become anachronistic and irrelevant is to stay the same, or try to; we don't even have to regress, though many of us do because we have the increasing feeling that everything is out of control—which of course it is. It always has been, but it was easier to maintain illusions to the contrary when things seemed much the same from day to day and year to year—you know, back in "The good old days."

Quiet Please, Old Thinkers at Work

Josh Billings once observed that "The trouble ain't that people are ignorant; it's that they know so much that ain't so." We have so many examples of the truth of that statement that it would take a book just to list the most crucial. I was reminded of Billings' observation last winter when the following AP wire service story appeared in the *Tampa Tribune-Times* (2-13-72):

WASHINGTON (AP) More than deficits, interest rates and monetary supply worry the chief of the nation's central bank. "If only life would quiet down for a while, economic moves might work better," Arthur F. Burns declared at a congressional hearing.

Burns, chairman of the Federal Reserve Board, last week digressed from testimony before a congressional Joint Economic Committee hearing on weighty economic issues to make these observations:

"I think that something has happened to the American people, something has happened to our system of responses, to both consumers and business people.

"They are not reacting to classical remedies the way they did because they are living in a disturbed world and they themselves are disturbed and are, to a large degree, confused....

"If only life would quiet down for a while.

"If only both the administration and Congress became just a little less active in pushing new reforms for a while. If some of my academic colleagues would just keep quiet for a while . . ."

". . . Something has happened to the American people, something has happened to our system of responses . . ." Yes, Mr. Burns, and you don't seem to know what it is, nor do we—because our system of schooling has trained us to look backwards as we move into the future. "If only life would quiet down for a while." Mr. Burns is in for even more distress when and if he figures out that life right now is about as quiet as it is ever going to be, and the probability is that today will seem mighty tranquil five years from now. Lincoln noted more than 100 years ago that "The dogmas of a quiet past are inadequate to the stormy present." Arthur Burns, and all those who think like him, provide wistful evidence of the fact that Lincoln's observation is increasingly true as what we call "progress" overwhelms us.

The most obvious thing to say about those who use the past as a reference point for the present and the future is that they are of no help in dealing with the new and unprecedented. They simply do not know how to think in ways that permit them to deal fruitfully with change and the novel circumstances that comprise it.

Past-oriented thought produces "solutions" to problems which intensify rather than solve them because past-oriented thought is "logical," that is, linear and syllogistic, which means that its solutions are merely analogic extensions of earlier "solutions" to problems that *seem* similar when viewed as abstractions rather than in context of current realities. Here are some common illustrations:

"In order for us to get on with the task of redefining ourselves, we must—somehow—unlearn stuff that simply is not true."

We have to figure out some way of having the time to redefine ourselves and our functions as teachers so that we are not merely responding to some regressive urge abroad in the society at the moment, but are assuming responsibility for identifying an education task that *must* be fulfilled by us as teachers if it is to be fulfilled at all.

And we have a lot to unlearn in the process. Remember that Josh Billings line? In order for us to get on with the task of redefining ourselves, we must—somehow—unlearn stuff that simply is not true.

As a society we suffer from "old-think." "Old-thinkers" justify every one of George Orwell's ominous predictions about militarized-technocratic-bureaucracies. One of the classic remarks of an "old-thinker" in recent years referred to an event in Vietnam. He said, seriously, "We had to destroy the town in order to save it." "Old-think" types are self-condemned to keep coming up with *quantitative* "solutions" to new problems requiring different kinds of *qualitative* answers. The old-thinkers now comprise an intellectual garbage collection, accumulating in all of our institutions—political, religious, economic, and educational, and in most "radical" and "militant" groups too. Since old-thinkers have not learned how to state the new problems, we are mired in solutions that consist essentially of cosmetic rhetoric intended to obscure the symptoms of internal decay. These efforts divert us from recognizing old-think itself as the primary cause of most of our "problems."

The prognosis for re-educating old-thinkers is nil since it is not possible to help someone learn something he thinks he already knows.

Design an Educational Edsel

In the October 1972 issue of *Phi Delta Kappan*, there appeared a description of old-thinkers in action, and how they failed because they all knew too many things that just weren't so. In this article ("How We all Failed at Performance Contracting") Ellis B. Page recounts the findings of an OEO study which is the most thorough and complete assessment of the effect of performance contracting which has been done to date. Performance contracting provides the best illustration of "performance based criteria" and "behavioral objectives" systems in operation.

The best evidence we have of how completely the systems people involved in this study believed things that weren't so is provided by their eagerness, not willingness, *eagerness* to participate in the study in order to demonstrate the effectiveness of their "instructional systems." They were, of course, dumbfounded when the study revealed that despite all of the systems rhetoric, special concessions in instructional environment, specially produced material, clearly stated behavioral and performance based objectives, *no effect on the students involved could be discerned.*

Let me quote a few lines from the study report:

. . . The performance of students in the experimental group does not appear disappointing just because students in the control group did unexpectedly well. In fact, neither group did well. In only two of the 20 possible

Problem	Presumed Solution	What Happens	Final Result
A road is over crowded with cars.	Enlarge the road.	More drivers are attracted to the bigger road.	The new road is even more crowded than the old one.
Transportation System is losing money.	Raise the fares.	Fewer passengers.	The system loses more money than ever.
People in cities live in poverty.	Build houses and make them available at low rent for poor people.	More poor people move into the low income area. Due to labor surplus in area, they can't get jobs, but are too poor to move.	More people in cities are living in poverty.

cases was the mean gain of either the control or experimental students as much as one grade level In all cases, the average achievement level of children in the experimental group was well below the norm for their grade level In all cases, in terms of grade equivalents, the average slipped behind during the year...There is no evidence that performance contracting had differential results for the lowest or highest achieving students in the sample...Not only did both groups do equally poorly in terms of over-all averages, but also these averages were very nearly the same in each grade, in each subject, for the best and worst students in the sample, and, with few exceptions, in each site. Indeed, the most interesting aspect of these conclusions is their very consistency...

Now remembering "old-think," what would you suspect the response to this study would be? An examination of the underlying assumptions? Or an intensified effort to "prove" that a systems approach *will* work, and will work more efficiently and economically at that?

Oddly enough the behavior modification people do not learn much from their own failures, and it seems not to occur to anyone else that the behavior of the systems advocates is itself evidence of why a systems approach won't work in the business of learning—even of learning mickey mouse stuff, as it goes on in the schools. Skinner's disciples forget that he had the animals he subjected to operant conditioning under total control 24 hours per day, and that the rewards he offered to reinforce their behavior consisted of food that they liked in the first place, and that he starved them in the second place. "Little details" like that are worth remembering when there is talk of "behavior modification" through a "system of rewards" in the schools.

Isn't it possible that all of the maundering about "accountability" springs less from a concern about improving the education of our youth than from a need for the public to just kick the hell out of something—anything—in sheer frustration and anger at not seeming to be able to strike back at whatever it is that is screwing everything up? We are the most affluent society on earth, yet we are beset by the most serious emotional problems of any society on earth. Mental illness is our number one health problem. There are more Americans hospitalized with mental illness than with all other illnesses combined. No telling how many mentally ill are not only not hospitalized, but are occupying public office. They are elected because they articulate the anxiety and paranoia of their constituents. It's one of the hazards of democracy that our forefathers did not anticipate because they were such sane and intelligent men, who lived in a much simpler time and place. In those days it was actually possible to identify the source of a problem—like the British—and to do something about it—like shoot them. Most of our problems are so complex there really is no way even to state them. That's one of the little cost overrides we pay on our contract with what we still call "progress." We have so much progress that we are dying from it—physically and psychically.

So "accountability" is a manifestation of anxiety, a primitive regression to an illusion of the ability to control *something* in a world that is out of control. It is not the result of any complex philosophy. It is not even the result of a simple educational philosophy.

Here, for example, is an actual quote from a confidential memo sent by a staff member of the budget committee of a state legislature to the members of the education committee of that legislature: "Educational accountability has sex appeal...like quality education and equalization of opportunity, it sounds good." Note that the memo orginated with the *budget committee*, not the education committee, and that it states the motivation behind the decision to "push" accountability. "Accountability" itself does not state a single instructional objective that springs from concern about what students might need most to know in order to survive in a rapidly changing world.

Of course, we school people have invited this sort of mindless intrusion on the part of politicians by our own mindlessness. We really aren't very good at coming up with substantive reasons for doing whatever it is we are doing in the schools—and we seem never to have been very good at this. We concern ourselves mostly with "How?" questions on those occasions when we ask ourselves any questions at all, rather than with "Why?" questions. And now, for reasons that we have no control over, there are increasing pressures for us to come up with some answers to "Why?" This needn't be a catastrophe, but it will be unless we turn it into an opportunity. It will be a catastrophe if we simply let it come to mean more intensive coaching of kids in order to raise their scores on standardized tests. That would be catastrophic not only for the kids; it would be for us too, because it would mean that we have been totally reduced to a function that can be filled—right now—much more adequately, efficiently, and economically by a machine. And, if all we are doing as teachers is something that can be done better by a machine, then we *should* be out of business.

Recognizing this as the central meaning in all of the rhetoric about accountability provides us with an opportunity to figure out what it is that our kids most need to know to survive—in all of the human senses of that term—here and now, and beyond the year 2001.

The machine approach, incidentally, has many advantages over live teachers when it comes to instruction in closed systems. It is ironic that most kids would enjoy much more individualized instruction if they *had* access to a machine system than they do in the present machineless *factory* that we call a school. The factory, alas, is the source of much of the language and assumptions about schools, as we all know. We talk about "school plant" and students as "products." The basic problem with that is that human beings are simply not interchangeable parts. The assembly line approach, mass instruction, standardized courses, standardized textbooks, standardized tests, with everyone expected to learn the same thing, in the same way, at the same time, and to be tested on it in the same way, at the same time, merely requires that we ignore—outrageously ignore—everything that is known about human beings and human learning. The school-as-a-factory never made any sense—never—to anybody anywhere. That's why stating objectives, "behavioral" or otherwise, or diddling with curriculum, or units, or even "instructional materials" never seems to make much difference. People—just look around—are different from each other, and the psychic differences make the physical differences seem insignificant by comparison. With all of the talk about "individual differences," most of the energy and resources of the schools are directed at forcing all of us—teachers and kids—to pretend that we are fungible.

The first thing, then, that we really have to unlearn (and the best way to tell whether we have done that is to see whether we *behave* as if we have unlearned it) is that we are not interchangeable. We are not fungible. Our slogan—if we need one, and we probably do—can be "Fight Fungibility!"...

Phi Delta Kappan, April 1970

Self-Governance Must Come First, Then Accountability

Guest Editorial, by HELEN BAIN

The NEA president-elect announces a campaign to establish professional practices boards, by state statute, to give teachers more control over teacher education, licensure, in-service education, and the ethical conduct of their peers.

Currently, the National Education Association, many of its state and local associations, and dozens of other organizations are demanding greater teacher accountability in order to improve education. But it is pure myth that classroom teachers can ever be held accountable, with justice, under existing conditions. The classroom teacher has either too little control or no control over the factors which might render accountability either feasible or fair.

Teachers constitute the greatest resource of educational expertise in this country. Yet they are often looked upon as hired hands. They are expected to respond like Pavlov's dogs to rewards and punishment. As a result, their expertise is denied and the most powerful of human forces — intrinsic motivation — is thwarted.

I contend, therefore, that most, if not all, of the possibilities for educational improvement are directly related to self-governance for the teaching profession. Corrective measures should be taken immediately.

As a beginning, the teaching profession must be afforded those legal rights necessary for it to assume responsibility and accountability for its own professional destiny. At a minimum, this includes transferring to the profession the following: 1) authority over issuing, suspending, revoking, or reinstating the legal licensure of educational personnel, 2) authority to establish and administer standards of professional practice and ethics for all educational personnel, 3) authority to accredit teacher preparation institutions; and 4) authority to govern in-service and continuing education for teachers.

Obviously, if we are to achieve these goals we will need new legal machinery at the outset. Currently, no state has delegated the necessary legal responsibilities to the profession. Teachers are kept in a perennial advisory posture, even in matters that concern them most directly. (Let us be clear, however, that the idea of self-governance for teaching does not imply control of all aspects of education, only the governance of a profession.)

The concept of self-governance is finally generating considerable interest among teachers. Hence one of the major priorities of the NEA for the 70's is the achievement of self-governance for the teaching profession. A first concern is the creation, by statute, of independent professional practices boards or commissions in each state. These boards must be broadly representative of the profession and must give teachers the legal right to do at least the following:

1. Make and enforce policy decisions related to initial licensure and advanced credentialling of all educational personnel.

2. Determine, adopt, and enforce accreditation standards for initial, graduate, and in-service teacher education.

3. Develop and adopt a code of ethics and rules of procedure in accordance with established concepts of due process.

4. Enforce standards of teaching practice and ethical conduct.

Professional practices boards for teachers should be financed through the general budget of the state, as is true of other professional boards.

Obviously, legal authorization is only the beginning of self-governance. When such boards are established, the profession must devote much study to the problems of governance, for they are perennial. Teachers will be performing new functions. They will need new training and must understand their new responsibilities.

The idea of self-governance for the profession will not be easily implemented for at least two reasons. First, the tradition of lay decision making in professional matters is deeply ingrained. It will require understanding, patience, and persistence to convince state legislatures of the need for a shift in authority. Secondly, self-governance will require a re-division of authority within the teaching profession itself. For example, consider the area of certification. Certification responsibility is now firmly vested in an established bureaucracy that will, with but a few enlightened exceptions, fight to maintain the status quo.

There is a further internal problem. Teachers are reluctant to make peer judgments in the public interest. With self-governance, they will have to face up to this responsibility. It doesn't necessarily mean judging peers in one's own administrative jurisdiction. It does mean we must develop a sophisticated understanding of competence, ethics, due process, and the public welfare.

The NEA will soon launch a phase-by-phase program to establish self-governance for the teaching profession. The association has a clear mandate to do so. Every teacher must become informed concerning the rationale and implications of this venture, not only for selfish reasons but because its potential for improving American education is so great.

To make the easy assumption that teachers are primarily responsible for the quality of education today is absurdly naive. But teachers *could be held accountable* if this society were to see the wisdom of helping the profession devise its own self-governance. Such governance would serve both the profession and the public. It won't be a panacea, but if teachers are given the power to control the professional aspects of teaching, even the most cynical critics may be surprised. □

MRS. BAIN, a classroom teacher in Nashville, Tenn., will become president of the NEA at the organization's 1970 convention, to be held the first week of July at San Francisco.

Unit V

THE WAY THINGS ARE — DECISION MAKING IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

What is the responsibility of the local board of education in curriculum and instruction? What is the responsibility of the board's chief administrative officer, the superintendent of schools, as well as the superintendent's staff, the principals, and the teachers? Should the board of education be able to make any decisions regarding the educational program in the schools? Should the superintendent and his staff be free to determine the type of educational program in each school? Should the principal make instructional decisions? Is the teacher sacrosanct in the classroom?

These questions are considered thoroughly on the following pages. Specifically, the nature of decision making at the societal level (board of education), the institutional level (the intermediate unit between the board of education and the teacher), and the instructional level (teachers) is discussed. Consideration is also given to an analysis of decision making by administrators who operate essentially between these levels. Finally, there is a discussion of the role conflicts that occur as a result of the confusion in decision making.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

There is considerable confusion regarding the responsibilities of boards of education in curriculum and instruction. What is considered an appropriate decision by one *member* of a board of education is considered an inappropriate decision by another board of education member; futhermore, what is considered an appropriate decision by one *board* of education may not be considered an appropriate one by another board of education.

Local boards of education consistently make decisions at the societal, institutional, and instructional levels just discussed. In fact, it is almost impossible to suggest an educational decision that boards of education have not made. For several years, many boards categorically rejected all modern mathematics programs or all modern science programs. Today, many school boards demand graded schools; others demand nongraded schools. One board of education in an outstanding suburban school district adjacent to Washington, D. C., recently directed its superintendent of schools to institute the Amidon plan in four elementary schools. The author is not questioning the wisdom of these decisions, but he is suggesting that a board of education should not make decisions in these areas.

One legitimate responsibility of boards of education is the development of aims for the school district. In actual practice, few boards of education are engaged in this task. When they concern themselves with the determination of aims, they often confuse their responsibility and make institutional decisions, such as prescribing specific courses in economics, foreign language, or civics.

Occasionally a board of education makes instructional decisions, such as adopting a reading program with particular emphasis on phonics. Sometimes it adopts a policy that demands a single type of school organization throughout the school district. There are school districts, for example, where the board of education has made decisions concerning how to organize the school and the classroom by ruling that there shall be no team teaching or nongraded schools. A board of education that establishes a particular type of reading program or a specific method of school organization is acting inadvisably, not because the members of the board have limited data concerning the students, content, and pedagogy, but because boards should not make decisions at the institutional and instructional levels of the organization. It should rely on the professional staff to make decisions at these levels. The board should concentrate on defining general aims and policies. The structural levels of a formal organization within a social system are discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 2.

THE INTERMEDIATE UNIT

At the intermediate unit or institutional level, the superintendent and his staff (or teachers and principals operating together in an institutional capacity) often make decisions that are inappropriate for that level. In a surprising number of cases, the superintendent or one of his assistants makes decisions that should be made at the instructional level; for example, selecting a science program, choosing a textbook, or deciding upon a method of organizing the teachers or learners.

It is becoming less common for an administrative official at the institutional level to make decisions regarding instructional practices, curricula, or instructional materials without consulting with a group of teachers prior to the decision. Frequently, the group of teachers is carefully selected, has a thorough understanding of the problem under consideration, and spends many hours considering alternative programs and practices. In this case, the group essentially makes the decision concerning the area under study even though the ultimate approval comes from the superintendent of schools. Committees, however, make the same error as individuals when they decide that *one* program should be universally adopted throughout the school district. In this regard, the teacher who wishes to use another program or a combination of several programs suffers the same consequences, regardless of whether the decision is made by an individual or a group. If it is inadvisable for individual administrative officials at the institutional level to make instructional decisions, then it is similarly inadvisable for a group of teachers at the institutional level to make instructional decisions.

The practice of making instructional decisions at the institutional level, by individual administrative officials or groups of teachers, has become so widespread in America today that when teachers are allowed, indeed encouraged, to make instructional decisions, they often are not competent to fulfill the role and tend to resist what many consider to be an inappropriate role.

THE TEACHERS

Teachers operate at the "bottom" of a hierarchical structure, and often do not have the opportunity to make decisions that should be made by persons who occupy positions at higher levels in the hierarchy. Lacking power, teachers are unable to enter into decision making at these levels, except by default; i.e., when others, for a variety of reasons, do not make decisions designated as appropriate for their positions. Possession of power, combined with a misunderstanding of the function of a particular level in an organization, results in instructional decisions being made at other than appropriate levels.

One reason for the confusion associated with teacher decision making is that teachers have more voice in decision making than ever before. Paradoxically, they never have been more vocal in their demands for a louder voice in the affairs of the school. Professional educational associations, such as the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association, have become increasingly powerful and militant. A superficial analysis of this militancy leaves the impression that teachers, like other "rank-and-file" employees of large organizations, are striving for higher salaries and better working conditions. This is often true, but it is only part of the truth. In addition to working toward higher salaries and better working conditions, teachers have increased their demands for autonomy and higher professional status. Teachers are coming close to demanding professional autonomy; this will reduce the restrictions and controls of administrators, boards of education, and laymen in general.

While teachers will increase the scope of their decision making, it does not follow that teachers will gain authority completely free of institutional restrictions. Until a larger percentage of teachers qualify as professionals or until an effective system of control within the profession can be developed, management (the board of education and the school administrators) will find it necessary to retain some control. Teachers will never be given complete autonomy because schools exist, at least in part, as a vehicle for perpetuating society.

THE ADMINISTRATORS

It seems almost inconceivable that additional confusion could be generated concerning the decision-making province of superintendents and principals. Superintendents readily assume the board's responsibility to develop aims. More often than not, no aims exist and neither the board nor the superintendent is particularly concerned. Some superintendents submit formal recommendations along with a supporting rationale to the board of education, while other superintendents consider this improper and act only as a data source for the board. Superintendents often make instructional decisions and, in the process, bypass the central office staff, the principals, and the teachers.

The practice of centralized budgeting and staffing best illustrates the extent to which superintendents of schools control the decision making of principals. In virtually all school districts, the superintendent determines the budget for each school after consultation with other administrators. A given elementary school may be allocated a budget of $6,000 for instructional materials, but the actual selection of the instructional materials takes place at the intermediate level, not the instructional level. Generally, a textbook adoption in one subject area each year takes a majority of the funds. Faculties in individual schools are not given the option of using a different and perhaps less expensive textbook; choosing no textbook but, instead, buying books for the library; or buying one of these books for every five children, plus four different books. The size of the budget over which a principal has actual control is often $200 or $300, and almost always is less than $1,000.

Staffing each school is handled nearly the same way. The superintendent of schools and the administrative staff decide the number of staff members for each school. An elementary school, for example, is assigned 22 teaching positions. Normally, these positions must be filled by full-time teachers. The principal and his staff cannot decide to fill a teacher vacancy with three teacher aides even though the combined salary is the same as a teacher's salary. Nor can the principal and his staff decide to use a reading, a mathematics, or an instructional materials specialist instead of a full-time classroom teacher. The freedom for principals to make decisions in most school districts is extremely limited — so limited in fact, that in many school districts it is a waste of human resources to have a competent person occupy the office.

Often a superintendent will have groups of teachers assist in developing policies that govern the entire school district. This practice is superior to the superintendent and his immediate staff making the decision alone. As was mentioned earlier, however, a committee composed of teachers can be just as authoritative as an individual. The point is that superintendents and officials at the intermediate unit above the individual school should permit the principal and teacher to spend the funds allocated to them in the manner appropriate for their particular school.

It would be satisfying, but inaccurate, to believe that all principals desire increased freedom in decision making. The truth is that many are content to have their superiors make decisions for them. Most principals ask only to be involved in discussions that lead to decisions which affect them. It would also be inaccurate to believe that principals seek more decision-making authority for teachers. Many principals, in fact, tend to feel threatened at the rising authority of teachers.

When the superintendent of schools restricts the decision making of principals, principals respond by restricting the decision making of teachers. It is, unfortunately, all too common for a principal to literally "run the school." Data to support this assertion can be found in most schools on any Monday at 3:00 p.m., the time traditionally established for what are inaccurately termed faculty meetings. These meetings reveal that most significant decisions in schools are made by principals or by officials who control the principals' decisions. Teachers often complain about principals who decide not only how the teachers and learners are to be organized for instruction, but how the reading and mathematics programs are going to be scheduled, and in some cases how they are going to be taught.

The prevailing situation indicates a lack of clear understanding or agreement concerning the decision-making responsibilities of persons in education. As a result, role conflicts develop. When responsibilities for decision making are not made explicit, the obvious outcome is that few persons in the organization can be certain what decisions are legitimate for the position they occupy. Consequently, it is difficult for anyone to accurately define his role. Incongruities in expectations develop between individuals and groups producing administrative failure that leads to a loss of productivity for the individual and the organization.

Productivity loss resulting from role conflict is usually not noticeable from day-to-day or even month-to-month. As a matter of fact, such conflict within most organizations is viewed as an unfortunate but inevitable part of life. Conflict is seldom thought of in terms of the loss of productivity in 100,000 schools representing over 25,000 school districts. The loss at the institutional and personal dimensions is enormous, its effect on the psyche of individuals within the organization as well as on the degree to which the organization succeeds in accomplishing its objective of maximum education for each learner is incalculable.

Research in the area of role conflict, while far from definitive, is sufficiently conclusive to support the assertion that clarity of role definition within an organization is important for the effective and efficient operation of that organization. Furthermore, any school system characterized by clarity of role assignment, other factors being equal, is likely to have a considerable advantage.

Today's Education, May 1973

What to tell parents about
Professional Self-Governance

□ **Responsible parents—like responsible members of** *the united teaching profession—want the best possible education for all students. A major way in which the united teaching profession is working to bring about the "best" education is by providing support for the passage of laws that will establish state standards and practices commissions. Most parents—and other laymen—know little or nothing about the need for such commissions. You can help to generate support for state commissions by speaking to parents in your parent-teacher conferences—and with friends outside the united teaching profession. Write to Information on Professional Excellence, NEA Center, for materials on self-governance of the teaching profession, including a model teacher standards and practices act.*

The public wants the best . . .

At birth we are attended by a *professional* doctor.

Later we attend schools designed by *professional* architects.

We drive on highways planned by *professional* engineers.

We are advised on tax problems by *professional* accountants.

BUT

We went to schools where teachers were not full *professionals.*

Our children and grandchildren now go to schools where teachers are still not full *professionals.*

What does it mean to be a fully professional teacher?

It means that until the teaching profession regulates itself and judges the competence of its own members, its members are not fully professional.

Doctors, architects, engineers, and accountants, for example, are responsible for their own profession. They are full professionals because their competence is regulated and judged by their professional peers.

Are teachers, therefore, inadequate?

No. Most are competent. Some do extremely well. But they carry out professional responsibilities under the burden of not being considered true professionals who have major responsibility for determining professional concerns. Consequently, they cannot be held fully accountable to the public until they are recognized *by law* as professionals.

How can teachers become true professionals?

The best way is to place teaching, just like law, architecture, engineering, or accounting, under state law. Specifically, this means that each state legislature should pass a law delegating to the teaching profession responsibility for determining standards and practices through the creation of a Professional Standards and Practices Commission.

What would such commissions do that is not being done now?

In nearly every state, the responsibility for the governance of the teaching profession lies with people who are *not* teachers. Decisions about teaching should be made, however, at the point of impact: the teacher. The profession is not yet governing itself; practitioners are not yet making determinations about the accreditation of teacher education programs. A state Professional Standards and Practices Commission would allow teachers to decide (a) who becomes a teacher and (b) who remains a teacher.

Does this mean that teachers will control education?

Definitely not. By state law, the public controls education and sets school policy. The proposed laws do mean that teachers will become truly responsible and accountable, and therefore professional. *Taxpayers will get more for their money* because only well-prepared competent individuals will be prepared for and then allowed to practice in the teaching profession.

WHAT EVERY CITIZEN CAN DO

The citizen who wants better schools and better teaching in his community so that his dollars are spent with the best effect should support a state professional standards and practices act. Here are three specific actions he may wish to take:

1. Phone or write his state education association or the NEA for information on the status of a state standards and practices act in his state. Teachers can supply the addresses of these organizations.
2. Decide whether he favors a state act. If so, he should contact his state legislators *now* and ask them to support a bill in the state legislature.
3. Invite a teacher to speak on the merits of the bill at meetings of local organizations to which he belongs, such as businessmen's clubs, civic associations, labor unions, PTA's, or political organizations. Lead a discussion on the merits of the act following the presentation.

The accompanying chart gives information by state about current teacher standards and practices boards.

—Adapted from a current publication of the Pennsylvania State Education Association and the National Education Association.

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COMMUNITY CONTROL CAN WORK

by Susan Jacoby

"Community control" is a phrase that conjures up frightening images for many teachers—vigilante parents intruding on the daily classroom routine, fierce racial and political tensions in the schools, vulnerability to the educational whims of "nonprofessionals." There is also the gut fear that community school boards may pose a direct threat to the hard-won job security of teachers by introducing, or reintroducing, a spoils system in public education.

But in a setting where concern for education prevails over inflated rhetoric, community control has a chance to succeed. The Morgan Community School, located about a mile from the White House in a troubled area of Washington's inner city, offers an example of both the potential successes and limitations of neighborhood control as a tool for improving public education.

Until 1967, Morgan was an indistinguishable cog in the District of Columbia public school system, probably best known for its poor reputation among the neighborhood parents. Today, Morgan is in its seventh year as a community school, run by a locally elected, 15-member board which manages its own affairs under a contract with the city's central board of education.

The school's immediate neighborhood is largely poor and black, although a small number of young white families moved into the area about a decade ago and began restoring old houses. The impetus for local control came from black neighborhood leaders angry over the poor education their children were receiving, and from white parents anxious to avoid the usual alternative of affluent liberals, the private school. The two groups successfully presented their case to the District of Columbia board of education, and shortly thereafter, the local board entered into an agreement with Antioch College to provide the professional skills all concerned hoped would help them bring about desired educational change.

No educator could have quarreled with the complaints Morgan parents were then voicing about the school. I recorded some of those comments at a workshop for parents before school opened under the auspices of the community board in the late summer of 1967:

Teachers won't let kids take their reading books home because they say the books will get marked up.

Do those teachers really want the kids to learn to read? If the kids could read, maybe the teachers couldn't call them dumb anymore. I want to see my kids bringing books home this year.

I have two boys going into fifth grade and they can't read first grade books. That's just not right. . . . all I want is for them to read.

My kids were passed on to the next grade on account of their age. I saw their report cards with D's and E's. It don't seem right to pass them when they don't know nothing.

In the years since, community control has not fulfilled all of the high hopes and expectations expressed by parents at the outset of the Morgan experiment. But neither has it fulfilled any doomsday prophecy. It is easy to find parents in the neighborhood who say they turned down chances to move to better apartments in another part of the city because they wanted to remain in the Morgan attendance zone. Morgan teachers offer widely differing opinions about the quality of the school, but they are a dedicated group of men and women who arrive early and leave long after the end of the official day. And above all, the children seem to like school. When I visited Morgan in the fall of 1967, its students were predictably suspicious and uncommunicative in the presence of most adults. In 1973, the youngsters communicate pride and enthusiasm; they hug strangers as well as their own teachers, show off whatever they are working on, unself-consciously ask for help with their exercises.

"Honey, when a kid isn't scared to ask for help, that's progress," says Kathryn Briley Lewis, an expansive woman who has worked in the school as a community intern since the project began.

The community board is comprised of seven parents with children attending Morgan, two school staff representatives, three neighborhood residents between the ages of 16 and 23, and three residents over 23. The board has the vital power to establish spending priorities within the school after receiving a lump-sum allotment from the central D.C. board, which in turn gets its appropriation from the U.S. Congress. Like most urban schools, others in Washington have virtually no budgetary discretion; the sums they receive are strictly earmarked. The Morgan board also has substantial control over curriculum planning and extracurricular activities, but naturally can do nothing that violates the legally determined policies of the central board, including the system's contract with the Washington Teachers Union. Teachers applying for jobs at Morgan are interviewed by community board representatives, but they meet the same central licensing standards and receive the same contract guarantees as teachers in any other school.

The teachers' union—in sharp contrast to New York City's United Federation of Teachers—took a positive attitude toward experiments in community control. The union leadership felt—correctly, as it turned out—that teachers who objected to local control could easily transfer to other schools and that Morgan would attract those teachers eager to work with a community board.

In the classroom, community control is reflected more in terms of a general tone than in specific guidelines for teachers.

"It certainly doesn't mean that somebody is looking over your shoulder all the time," says Patricia Pryde, who began teaching at Morgan in 1971. "On the whole, I find less interference with the teacher's judgment here than in other schools where I have taught. And here you get to know more people in the community. Things aren't perfect, but I feel they are a little more possible."

Pat Pryde is a sparkling young woman with a modified Afro hairdo—the kind of teacher a small boy would be inclined to fall in love with and a small girl to imitate. She works with four- and five-year-olds in the school's federally financed Follow Through program. Morgan's other Follow Through teacher is Sister Agnes Kelly, one of the many young nuns who has left convent-run schools for work in the inner city. Sister Agnes and Pryde work as a team, although their separate classrooms are across the hall from each other.

Pryde and Sister Agnes agree that their curriculum should stress both black identity and the development of linguistic skills, two goals which are considered extremely important by the community school board. "Reading is the most important thing," says Sister Agnes. "If we don't give them that by third or fourth grade, it's all over. The parents in this community feel

this very urgently. It's not something that comes from the school. We hear this over and over when we talk to the mothers and fathers of our children."

Another direct product of local control is Morgan's effective community intern program. The interns are all neighborhood residents who are paid approximately $5,500 a year each; in combination with the teachers, they enable the school to provide a ratio of three adults to 30 children. The role of the interns varies, depending both on their own competence and the willingness of the teachers to use them. Some interns seem occupied mainly with custodial and secretarial chores, while others are capable of providing high-quality teaching for an individual child or an entire class.

One of the interns who does just that is Kathryn Lewis, who spends most of her time doing the work of a remedial reading specialist. She is not a licensed teacher, although she taught as a substitute many years ago in a segregated school in South Carolina. She is tough, outspoken and totally dedicated to improving the education of the children in her neighborhood.

"I used to feel sick when I'd see 13-year-old kids who couldn't make out the letters of the alphabet," Lewis says. "I'd know they were smart, because out on the street they were the cleverest kids alive, but somehow they were failing to learn the things in school that they would need to survive later on. Morgan hasn't accomplished everything I wanted it to, but I can say with certainty that we've cut down the number of kids who used to leave this school as illiterates."

Lewis can be found most days at a table in the basement, working with children who have special problems in reading or math. She simultaneously lavishes praise and affection on them and demands their total attention.

"Come on now," she tells one girl. "I know you know the difference between vowels and consonants—you got them all right yesterday. You just aren't paying attention to the shapes and sounds of the letters." To a boy: "This is the first time you've gotten all the vowels right without my help. I was talking to your daddy about you in the grocery store the other day—he'll be so proud of you. You tell him first thing when you go home, and I'll tell him when I run into him next week."

Lewis says that "the best thing about Morgan is you reach the kids any way you can. Last year I had a Spanish-speaking boy who just didn't function in English. I wasn't getting anywhere with him until I noticed he liked to draw. So I had him draw pictures and make up stories to go with them. He would draw a picture of a sports car and—surprise, surprise—he knew a lot of heavyweight English words to go with it. Then I would use the words he gave me in his reading lesson. That child was reading English by the end of the year. You use the kids' experiences to teach them skills. If they're pitching horseshoes or shooting ce, you teach them math right along with it."

Morgan's principal, John H. Anthony, shares the philosophy that everyday experiences should be used to help children learn. In one inspired move, he enlisted the help of a neighborhood crapshooter in a plan to teach addition, subtraction, multiplication and division through the card games that are familiar to Morgan's children from an early age. "Well, you're asking the right man," the neighborhood expert gravely told him.

"Why should I be jealous of 'nonprofessionals' helping me do a good job?" asked one teacher. "Of course, there are plenty of community people who haven't got a brain in their heads and shouldn't be working with kids. There are plenty of brainless teachers, too. That isn't the point. The point is what every good teacher in an urban school knows—we have so much work here, so many kids who need individual help, that there's more than enough to do for everyone with a head and a heart. It doesn't matter who has a license and who doesn't."

Along with its successes, Morgan has the usual array of serious urban school problems. Standardized reading and math test scores showed a slight improvement between 1970 and 1972, but the school thus far has been unable to reverse the familiar pattern of poor black children falling further and further below national norms with each year they spend in school. But Morgan counselor Eddie C. Wright thinks that's only a part of the story and would like to do a long-term study of those children who have attended Morgan throughout their elementary school years. "This would give us an accurate idea of just how much difference it makes for a child to be in this particular school," Wright says. "Many of us teachers feel that the achievement of our kids has improved significantly from year to year. But a standardized score that includes hundreds of students who may be brand new to Morgan doesn't really tell you about the quality of the school."

The Morgan community board members know that if the quality is to be improved still more, staff development must be given top priority. But it is one thing to state the problem and another to solve it. It is difficult to retrain teachers when community control at Morgan has always been intertwined with a continuing conflict over the extent to which the school should depart from traditional teaching methods and classroom organization. From the first, many of the black leaders who have been the strongest supporters of community control have also been the staunchest conservatives in regard to discipline and traditional teaching of the three R's. In the face of their intransigence, a number of the young blacks and whites who were active in the early days of the fight for local control and helped work out the original agreement with Antioch College threw up their hands and departed. After one year, so did Antioch; the staff had been badly prepared to cope with the neighborhood educational politics and with the real educational problems of children and teachers in the classroom.

The school's first principal, Kenneth Haskins, is a highly respected black educator who was committed to innovation and change but who also understood the views of those black parents who wanted more traditional classrooms. "Sometimes the parents will walk down the hall and hear noise coming from a roomful of six-year-olds," Haskins told me while he was still at Morgan. "Then they'll come to me and ask how education can be going on when the children are making so much noise. Well, it takes time and patience to get across the idea that noise and education can go together."

Haskins' departure for a Harvard fellowship in the spring of 1969 was a blow to Morgan's innovators. A year later, more than a dozen teachers who felt the community board was too conservative also left. But the situation seems to have stabilized since 1970; although there are still disagreements over educational policy, teacher turnover has been almost nonexistent. Some teachers, like Pat Pryde and Sister Agnes, work as a team and are moving rapidly toward an open classroom; others run traditional self-contained classes. There are good and bad teachers in both categories.

The current community board stands somewhere between the more liberal originators of the Morgan experiment and the old-line tradi-

tionalists. One recent day, Marv French, one of the board's founding members, sat and talked about the need for more discipline as she disapprovingly watched teacher Sarah V. Miles Day, who was giving up her own time after school to work with a sixth grade modern dance group. "Now that's one thing that should stop," French asserted stoutly. "Classical ballet would be much better for them; it would really give them a sense of discipline." (The sixth graders are so professional that they have performed before a large audience at Washington's Constitution Hall.) But another conservative board member, sitting nearby, chided her gently. "Now, Mary, I don't agree with you about this. That teacher gives up her own time. She even sees that the children get home after the dancing is over. A teacher who is that dedicated is an asset to the school."

One distinctly encouraging fact about Morgan today is that the staff and community board members are at least publicly civil about their disagreements. The contrast between Morgan and the situation in New York City, where furious, unbridled rhetoric has made a fiasco out of community control efforts, is startling. There appear to be four basic reasons for that:

1. In Washington, the scale of the problems has been kept manageable. At first, only Morgan was under community control; today, so is nearby Adams School. But the number of students, teachers and parents involved is still very small compared to the hundreds of thousands involved in the New York experiment.

2. In New York, more than half the students in community control schools were black or Puerto Rican—and more than 90 percent of the teachers were white. Racial conflict was thus virtually built into the situation. At Morgan, most of both the students and the teachers are black. "We have proved," says a Morgan community leader, "that blacks can shoot it out with blacks over issues that would turn into a black-white quarrel in other places."

3. The Washington Teachers Union supports community control; the New York union opposes it.

4. At Morgan, most of the important policy battles were fought out inside the local community. No one has tried to use the Morgan experiment as a springboard to political office.

Policy battles undoubtedly will, and should, continue at Morgan. But Robert E. Brown, the 26-year-old chairman of the Morgan board, says he believes there is "general agreement" among parents and teachers on the need for both tighter discipline and a move toward a schoolwide open classroom system. Moreover, he thinks that delicate balancing act can be brought off. "A true open classroom involves great self-discipline on the part of students and teachers," he says. "Staff development is the key to achieving it."

Symbolic of what community control has brought Morgan is the fact that in 1974 the school will be housed in a spanking new $6.3 million building designed for open classrooms and team teaching. The Morgan board had a major say in both the design and the site selection—something, the members all agree, that would have been out of the question before community control came into being in 1967.

So would the sort of campaign for parental involvement in school affairs waged last spring. Community interns from Morgan fanned out through the neighborhood carrying with them a detailed financial report on how the school had spent every last penny of its budget—teacher salaries, field trips for the children, textbooks, whatever. Before they were done, they had reached nearly every family in the school area.

It all adds up to a promising, though far from perfect, experiment in community control. Hilda Mason, a member of the central board of education in Washington and formerly number two administrator at Morgan, puts it this way:

"How do you measure progress in a school? The education at Morgan is unquestionably better than it was before community control. And Morgan is ahead of every other school in the city in terms of local management—which I firmly believe is the key to improving schools. Morgan isn't everything we wanted it to be at the beginning. But progress comes by inches, and you can see it happening there." ■

Susan Jacoby, a free-lance writer, began covering the Morgan Community School experiment in 1967, when she was an education reporter with the Washington Post. *She is currently writing a book on Soviet education, to be published in 1974 by Hill & Wang.*

Today's Education, April 1971

WHAT DO STUDENTS REALLY WANT?

ARLENE RICHARDS, *adjunct assistant professor of psychology and education, New York University.*

□ **High schools across the country have suffered** from tensions and unrest. What is wrong? Why aren't students able to accept the schools as they are? How could the governance of the school foster civic responsibility? What could be done to make the schools better able to prepare involved, energetic citizens of our American democracy? Can democracy withstand the disruptions that students seem to be involved with both in and out of school? Can the school system survive through the seventies?

From 1968 to 1970, the Center for Research and Education in American Liberties at Columbia University conducted a study of the objectives for civic education in the 1970's to attempt to answer these questions. Professor John DeCecco and I directed the study, and it has been written up as a research monograph.

Most of the schools and students in the study were from the New York area, but a study of nationwide newspaper reports of high school unrest has indicated that the same issues and problems are coming up everywhere in the United States.

Our study had an interview format. Since administrators and teachers already (hopefully!) have the power to express their ideas about school governance, we tried to get the thinking of students.

We collected almost 7,000 interviews written by urban and suburban high school students. All of them were asked the same basic question:

> Sometimes a group has trouble being as democratic as its members would like it to be. Sometimes a person is not sure what is the democratic thing to do. Other times it seems as if no one can change the way things are enough to make a democracy work in a place like a school or a town. When someone wants to do new things or do things in a new way, it can start a fuss. Please write about one time when something like this happened to you or you saw something like this happen in your group or your school.

Follow-up questions were asked to make sure students included as much information as they could on how the problem they discussed was resolved, how else it could have been resolved, and who participated in its resolution.

The major finding of the study was that students are demanding participation in decision making in their schools. They are asking to be allowed to do what citizens do in a democratic government: They want to help set up the rules they live by.

In my opinion, such rules could be set up by negotiation between the students and the school. An open forum where all students (and not just the "nice kids") could regularly present ideas for changes in rules would be useful. Many of those who don't speak up are bitter. They are unwilling to participate in decision making because they don't believe adults are genuinely interested in their participation.

An outside mediator or change agent, an adult who is impartial, could help establish trust. Sometimes it might even be necessary to use an outsider to arbitrate. When a dispute gets bitter enough, the only way to resolve it may be for both sides to agree on a person they can trust to hear them fairly and make the decision for them. For schools already so troubled that students and adults cannot maintain a dialogue, the outside arbitrator may be the best solution.

Sometimes many students must abide by the same rule. In that case, face-to-face negotiations may not be feasible and the referendum and formal elections are most appropriate. Open debate, campaigning, trading off, and discussion of alternatives and their possible consequences can all be important ways of learning by doing. Those who care can influence others by defending their points of view.

Many students in our sample said issues of importance to them involved equality of opportunity or treatment, due process in the enforcement of rules, and tolerance of dissent. By allowing students to participate in the enforcement of rules through a student-faculty-administration court with real power, the school can at least attempt to give equal justice to all students accused of breaking the school rules. By encouraging students to state their grievances openly, their right to dissent can be protected. Dissent need not imply that students will take over. Lawlessness need not be feared if students are involved in both making and enforcing laws.

The study concluded that high schools produced three kinds of attitudes in students: (a) the bored, apathetic, indifferent attitude; (b) the critical, angry, and protesting attitude; and (c) the active, reasonably satisfied, caring attitude.

Each attitude is typical of a different kind of school experience. During a protest, a student in a suburban high school expressed the bored, apathetic attitude.

> I think this whole thing is stupid. The kids that are sitting in the main lobby now are very ridiculous. They are not going to get what they want if they sit there all day. . . .
>
> I don't think the police have a right to tell us to get inside the building or we will be arrested. We really have no freedom now and never will again. The only reason I'm not in the lobby now is I think it's worthless. . . .

The student is telling us that he doesn't want to try to gain what he sees as his rights. He wants only to withdraw, to buy peace at the price of giving up his rights, since he feels he can't get his rights anyway.

A student who actively complained about the governance of his school, displayed the second attitude:

A few months ago I was suspended from classes because of my dress. S --! I really can't see how dress has any connection with education. Blue jeans, barefooted, and tee shirts will not wreck my study habits. It's such a hassel to come well-groomed to school. Also my hair was quite long and I was forced to get a trim. Wow like who the hell do they think they are. Your dress and the length of your hair have no connection with the individual's education.

The third attitude, a positive concern for democratic values and procedures, was expressed by one student this way:

The G.O. president nominating (process) is not democratic. In this school, we the students don't nominate a G.O. president. An appointed nominating committee selects our candidates. I think that is unfair. I feel that the student body should be able to nominate persons for the position instead of having someone do it for us! ! !

This student doesn't agree with the way her school is governed but she does have a positive regard for democracy and a very concrete idea for changing the political process in school in order to make it more democratic.

The transfer of such attitudes to the political arena outside the school can lead to truly responsible democratic behavior. The following comment from a high school student who circulated a petition in the community illustrates this point:

I was really expecting everybody to sign up but a lot of people didn't. They asked us how old we were. Then they said it was just what they expected, a bunch of 15-year-old kids trying to tell them what to do. They wouldn't listen to anything we had to say. But a lot more signed. There are a lot of people against the war. I guess it really did some good that we went.

The most distressing finding of our study was that students rarely could state alternatives to their actions. When asked to describe how else they could have resolved the issues in their incidents, most students didn't know what else they could have done.

Open debate with discussion of alternatives about real school issues might well help them to learn to think in terms of articulating alternative solutions to problems.

Teaching students to resolve issues in terms of the good of the entire group rather than in strictly egocentric terms should also be a long-term goal of the schools. High school students frequently mentioned issues in which their group came into conflict with authorities; junior high students were more likely to focus on individual quarrels with their peers.

By allowing open debate and confrontation, schools could encourage students to understand their antagonists' point of view. For the individual teacher, opening the classroom to debate can be difficult and may necessitate getting permission from some of the school's administrators before discussing a really important issue. Including administrators in formulation of class rules with students can help the administrators to understand the students' point of view. Often, they will be surprised by the relatively modest requests that students express.

By calling them "demands" and engaging in confrontation tactics, students may make their wishes for change seem more radical than they really are. Teachers and administrators might well practice listening to students' meaning, not their rhetoric. Then we may find that students are capable of becoming rational citizens by engaging in rational civic behavior in high school. ■