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ABSTRACT

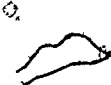
This paper on the future of preservice teacher education examines the question of whether a crisis exists today in schools and in teacher education. It is noted that judgments vary, given different perspectives and vantage points for observation, and that a reliable assessment of the current health of schooling and teacher education is difficult. Possible future directions for teacher education are suggested, and discernable conditions and events on the horizon are examined. A major conclusion is that the only way heightened or extended expectations can reasonably be accommodated are through more formalized and shared responsibilities by schools with other socially responsible parties. No major reform is envisioned in initial teacher education. Emphasis in this paper is placed on a multi-faceted approach to incremental improvements in the quality of teachers and teaching. Strategies for improving the quality of teaching are identified: (1) improve methods and procedures for recruiting and selecting teachers; (2) upgrade the quality of and/or extend, programs for preparing teachers; (3) improve evaluation of teachers and teacher education programs; and (4) critically reexamine teachers' role expectations and school conditions. (JD)

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CHARTING DIRECTIONS FOR
PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

A Position Paper Prepared For
The National Commission On Excellence
In Education



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OVERVIEW

This paper is concerned with the preservice education of teachers. It begins by first examining the question of whether a crisis exists today in schools and in teacher education. The picture is not altogether clear and judgements vary given different perspectives and vantage points for observation. Even if we could reliably assess and portray the current health of schooling and teacher education, future events are likely to soon alter this picture. This paper is intended to suggest possible future directions for teacher education and thus some attention to discernable conditions and events on the horizon is the next matter of business in the paper. A major conclusion is that the only way heightened or extended expectations can reasonably be accommodated are through more formalized and shared responsibilities by those in schools with others. This suggests some role alterations for many teachers.

Nonetheless, no major reform is envisioned in initial teacher education. Emphasis in the paper is placed rather on a multi-faceted approach to incremental improvements in the quality of teachers and teaching. Four major strategies for improving the quality of teaching are identified. These include: 1) improving methods and procedures for recruiting and selecting teachers, 2) upgrading the quality of and/or extending programs for preparing teachers, 3) improving the evaluation of teachers and programs which prepare them and 4) engaging in a critical reexamination of the role-expectations for teachers and the school conditions in which they work.

The General Health of Schooling

One way to gauge the general impact of education provided in our public schools is to examine it relative to the education provided in other contemporary societies. A common contention is that our public school curricula are not as rigorous as those provided students, especially secondary students, in other highly industrialized countries. On the other hand our public schools educate a higher percentage of youth to a higher level of educational achievement than any other country in the world. Hodgkinson (1982) elaborates on this point:

Reading scores are improving in most of the major cities in the United States, and most math scores are showing improvement as well. This is not a consequence of any ideological shift, nor of "back-to-basic" advocates (anyone who visits schools knows that the commitment to basic skills never declined in most schools), but rather to better school management and better training and retraining of teachers

However, as we move toward educating "the last child"--the most difficult environments and the lowest ability and achievement levels-- costs go up to very high levels. No agency, from the President to Congress has told us whom to neglect. Until someone does, we must continue the mission we have been given. It is increasingly clear that we are doing an outstanding job with our current mission: Everyone in the "top three quarters" may not perform as well as did the "top quarter" who graduated from high school in 1950, but it is impossible for everyone to perform above average. (Hodgkinson, 1982: 42)

I found the testimony of Gary Fenstermacher before the Commission to be most insightful. As you recall he made the point that debate over the purposes of our public schools and the results which they achieve is hardly new. It has gone on from the time of Thomas Jefferson, through Horace Mann, John Dewey, and James Conant. Fenstermacher made the following point:

What is, I believe, different about the debate we are now engaged in is that it is taking place at state and federal levels, rather than primarily at local and state levels. It is magnified and emphasized by print and broadcast media which exercise enormous national influence. And this is the first time in history that we have argued the issues with so much concrete data from testing and evaluation programs. The combination of national scale, influential media, and voluminous data contribute to our perception that matters may be worse than ever. Yet it may also be that schooling is rather much like it has always been, doing pretty much what it has always done, with only the context and surrounding circumstances different from those in earlier times.
(Fenstermacher, 1982: 5)

He goes on to make two related points. First he contends that a great amount of what any young person learns or fails to learn is attributable to factors outside the control of schools and teachers. This seems to be to be ultimate common sense. The powerful influence of peer group affiliations is but one example of this. He also notes the gradual erosion of services to the education of youth by other social institutions such as the home, community, and work place. The consequence of this has been a considerably augmented school curriculum; one which concerns itself with much more than the acquisition of cognitive skills. He concludes then that the "crisis in learning" may well not be as profound and pervasive as many would have us believe. Contentions about the state of the health of schools may be as much reflections on the nation's state of health and the nature of our social condition.

Some historical perspective is also helpful here. Schlecty (1982) notes, for example, that it was but a little over thirty years ago, in 1950, that only 21 of our states required elementary teachers to have a baccalaureate degree. Even with those low standards he points out that there were many teachers who were still underqualified and teaching with non-standard certificates. This statistic stands in somewhat stark contrast to the condition that exists today where the majority of teachers in public school possess not only a bachelors but a masters degree. While the impact of this considerably extended education for teachers is unclear, one could nonetheless make a strong case on rational grounds that the education of teachers has improved considerably in a relatively short time.

Teacher Education: The State of the Art

If we are not all together clear about the state of the health of schooling, a similar uncertainty exists relative to initial teacher education. This writer was a co-investigator in a recent national survey of policies and practices in preservice teacher education (Joyce, Yarger, & Howey, 1977). At that time I was able to extrapolate two different, even conflicting, scenarios from the same data base:

Scenario One: Education professors generally are familiar with the daily activity, the curriculum issues, and the problems of schools. Education students generally are able to practice in classroom situations throughout their initial preparation. These same students at the completion of their programs generally are satisfied. They perceive themselves as competent to begin teaching. In spite of common retrenchments in personnel and resources, individual faculty are continuing to refine and even expand curricular offerings to accommodate changes in the schools.

Scenario Two: For all their prior experience and current familiarity in schools, professors generally appear to influence but minimally those changes they often call for. For all their experiences in schools, student teachers receive but periodic and general feedback about their development. For all their confidence, a high attrition rate of beginning teachers suggests many may well have a false sense of confidence. The beginning teacher may be ready to teach in the suburban school; his or her readiness to assume responsibility in many schools in the core of our major cities is more questionable. Beginning teachers generally appear neither well prepared nor especially interested in confronting those problems attendant to the economically disadvantaged or culturally different. While teacher education professors spend more time in counseling, advising, and teaching undergraduates than they are generally given credit for, there is little individual or collective effort to study current practice. The empirical data to support what is done in preservice training is minimal. Coherent and comprehensive program reform, such as that initiated by many institutions under the "competency-based" umbrella, has rarely been achieved; and it appears that momentum for such effort has been lost. (Howey et.al., 1978: 7,8)

While accreditation standards and certification requirements have contributed to a relative homogeneity in terms of the organization and structure of teacher education programs in this country, there nonetheless remains a considerable diversity in terms of both the type and quality of programs offered. There are over 1300 institutions of higher education which offer programs of initial teacher education. These institutions range from basically one person faculties in small private institutions, to large comprehensive colleges where teacher education is the primary program, to programs nested in colleges within multi-versity settings. Cyr (1981) identifies 8 different types of institutions which prepare teachers in Table One below,

Table 1 A

Estimates of Education Degree Production
and Number of SCDE Faculty

Category	Percent of Population	Education Degrees		SCDE Faculty	
		Number	Percent of Total	Number	Percent of Total
1. Public Doctoral Level Institution	8.2	91,450	28.8	11,380	33.6
2. Private Doctoral Level Institution	3.7	18,475	5.8	1,568	4.6
3. Public Masters Level, Main Campus	18.0	134,437	42.3	15,051*	44.5
4. Public Regional Masters Level	2.3	6,962	2.2	N.A.	N.A.
5. Private Masters Level	20.4	31,062	9.8	2,503	7.4
6. Public Bachelors Level, Main Campus	4.9	9,312	2.9	807**	2.4
7. Public Regional Bachelors Level	1.9	1,800	.6	N.A.	N.A.
8. Private Bachelors Level	40.6	24,112	7.6	2,532	7.5

* Combined with Category 4

** Combined with Category 7

A Taken from _____ Policy For the Education of Educators: Issues and Implications (Georgiana Appignani Editor), American Association of Colleges For Teacher Education, Washington, D.C. 1981: p.16

As can be seen from these data there are clearly identifiable categories of teacher education institutions based on demographic characteristics. It appears that the preparation of teachers is largely a function of public institutions and especially those which offer doctoral and masters level programs as well.

There seems little doubt that there are more teacher education programs in existence than are needed. Certainly, one of the strategies towards improved teacher education is increased quality control and a general reduction of the marginal or (at the lower end) poorly equipped institutions which prepare teachers.

This is not to say that there is a widespread teacher surplus at the present time. While many districts are still forced to cut back teachers (especially elementary and secondary teachers) because of a combination of reduced student enrollment and economic retrenchment, there are other districts where there are major teacher shortages. The number of new teachers entering the field each year has dropped from over 300,000 in 1972 to approximately 170,000 in 1980 (Cronin, 1982). Shortages of qualified teachers of science, mathematics, industrial arts, vocational, and agricultural education are common. The specter of provisional credentials common in the baby boom of the 50's appears on the horizon again. There are also considerable dislocations in terms of the types of teachers needed in different geographic regions, and the kinds of persons pursuing a particular teacher role. Cronin makes this observation relative to the problems of attracting competent teachers (this is a matter which will be discussed in more detail later) and the

improvement of teacher education:

If reform requires adding requirements, the best time may be during surpluses of enthusiastic prospects to a profession. But if candidates are in short supply, the addition of new hurdles or a longer training time may actually contribute to future shortages.

The payment of teachers by law and tradition and more recently by contract does not generally permit a "free market" type of competition. If math teachers can double their income by becoming computer programmers, few schools can alter the pay scales either to hold or to lure them back into the classroom. Economists deplore the rigidities of teacher salary scales for the lack of responsiveness to market requirements. The question is what types of reform can be made in the 1980's when salaries lag behind cost of living increases and surpluses of qualified candidates fade away. (Cronin, 1981: 14,15)

The Immediate Future

While it is obvious we do not have an entirely clear picture of the state of the art either in schools or in programs of teacher education at the present time, we can be assured that conditions and events on the immediate horizon may well call for changes. What of the future? What are some of the conditions which are likely to have implications for modifications in school curricula and programs of teacher education? Hodgkinson (1982) notes that there are definite trends demographically that will affect schools. First, there is the pattern of increased birthrates and in-migration in the West and Southwest regions of the United States with a concomitant decrease and out-migration in the New England area and the frost belt around the great lakes. The question of where increased revenues will come to support the rapidly growing school enrollments in different portions of the sun belt is compounded by the fact that less than 20 years ago 60 percent and more of households

in the United States had at least one child in public schools. That figure is now less than 30 percent and this does not suggest strong political support for schools. Yet another discernible factor is that the increase in birthrates is mainly in our minority populations. Hodgkinson predicts dramatic increases in the 1980's for Blacks, Spanish, American Indians, and Orientals. In the mean time births for caucasians have dropped from 3.6 million to 2.6 million per year. The implications of these trends are manifold. The dramatic increase in minority births relative to the caucasian population stands in stark contrast to the fact that 97 percent of teacher education candidates are monolingual and in many ways provincial. In reporting on our Preservice study, we concluded the following with respect to the typical teacher candidate:

A discussion with this average teacher candidate about her background creates several impressions. One is of provincialism. She tends to come from a small city or from a rural area. She and her colleagues are clearly monolingual, with only three percent stating that they could use either Spanish or French as a medium for instruction (fewer than one percent specified any other language). Five out of six of the students attended college in their home state, with an amazing two-thirds attending college within 100 miles of their home. She and most of her colleagues selected their teacher training institution because of the programs that were available, the cost factor, convenience to home, and what was perceived as adequate job prospects upon graduation.
(Yarger et.al., 1977:34)

Keppel (1981) in a plea for more cogent policy analysis identifies four factors which he believes will increasingly play a role in the future formation of educational policy development. The first of these is the increasing availability of data on the results of schooling. He underscores that it has been only recently that we have had measures of what pupils learn in common school subjects across the country

(National Assessment of Educational Progress). Thus for the first time trend line data in certain subjects exist as a measure of progress over time and as a way of setting targets for schools. The implication of this is that educational policies will increasingly have to be justified on the basis of data that serve as indicators of quality.

The second major factor he identifies is the increased unionization of educational personnel. Major policies and decisions about education increasingly are subject to aspects of collective bargaining.

A third factor he addresses is the limited productivity which exists in this country relative to other developed, industrial societies. The affects of this low productivity on our balance of trade, the value of the dollar, and its contribution to inflation are acutely obvious. Given the dissatisfaction with public schools in many sectors (setting aside the question of the extent to which this judgement is warranted), one obvious implication of this diminished productivity is for those in institutions preparing teachers is to establish priorities relative to certain subjects and skills related to the problem, particularly the sciences and engineering. Keppel suggests the following:

To take part in a national effort to raise the rate of productivity by education and training will obviously require more than just instruction in teaching methods on educational policy. Scientific understanding and technical knowledge will be needed; these will presumably have to come from professors in these fields as well as from personnel from industrial and service sectors of society. Forging new links and cooperative programs will be necessary. Obviously, schools, colleges and departments of education, now on the defensive and under vigorous attack from many sectors of society, will have to plan a new strategy with regard to both intrauniversity and external relations. A continuation of present arrangements will result in further erosion of the academic standing and influence of the education profession. (Keppel, 1981: 7)

A final factor which Keppel attends to is that of our interdependence with other societies in this global community. Issues that used to be described largely in domestic terms such as inflation, energy, productivity, and cultural development have now become integrally tied to conditions and events around the world. Once again this condition has multiple implications for both school and teacher education curricula.

Certainly one cannot look to the future without at least mention of the personal computer. The hardware are economically feasible for many families at present and it is widely agreed that by the end of the 1980's the personal computer will be a part of most families' lives in the United States. Hodgkinson predicts that the blossoming of software for the micro-computer in the 1980's can be compared to the Gutenberg revolution in printed materials. John Dunworth spoke to the implications of this new technology for teacher education programs almost ten years ago when he said:

Tomorrow's teacher's college can no longer be an annex to the 'hally of ivy.' It cannot be dominated by university senates and elitist scholars. It must be more responsive and have greater expectations for both its students and the society it serves. Our lip service to academic excellence must be replaced with honest commitment to the development of competencies...

The problems in teacher education will not be solved in the isolation of traditional academia. There, vision is too limited, knowledge and professional expertise too tarnished with time, the almost absolute power too intoxicating. The world of work and the world of education must merge.

Why cannot higher education go to the public schools, to the private sector, and to the community at large and build a program that involves each agency as a meaningful contributor to the total process of teacher education? The vast know-how and resources of industry are virtually untapped. Modern education will depend upon technology, and the development of educational technology will depend upon creative, inquiring teachers and students working side by side with industry's scientists, engineers, and workers. Industry can learn and teach in the same process. (Dunworth, 1975: 18)

This author (1982) in attempting to project a future agenda for research into teacher education portrayed a continuing weak, often volatile economy for the immediate future with a correlary heightened social unrest. The net result of these conditions will be mixed and broadened expectations for schools but with no great prospect for augmented resources. While it is obviously difficult to predict how those in schools will respond to these conditions in the years ahead, I suggested four possible responses as listed below:

1. There will be greater emphasis on delineating those functions which the school can reasonably and appropriately assume. A likely outcome, especially in our larger cities, will be more formalized linkages between schools and other agencies, to provide instruction and services which at this time are provided largely by schools. Increasingly 'extra curricular' endeavors such as driver and career education opportunities or involvement in various arts, and, yes, even athletics, are likely to be coordinated with other public and private agents. Teachers will increasingly be involved in communicating and planning with persons outside the school context.
2. Schools at all levels will increasingly incorporate into their instruction the use of microwave and cable television. There will be a rapid expansion in the development of software for microcomputers which can be used by students in the home and community center environments.
3. Schools, especially at the elementary level, will increasingly be organized in different ways. Not only will there be a more explicit division of labor among teachers, assuming different and more specialized responsibilities, but there will be more clearly delineated functions for schools to attend to at different times. Both expanded day and expanded year concepts will be more prevalent. Cost-effective accounting schemes will influence schools to meet different goals in specific programs for specific students.

4. The increased concern for competent teachers could contribute to more protracted initial preparation especially in terms of formalized support for teachers during their first years of teaching. The increased realization by the teachers' organizations that salary increases and job benefits are in many respects tied to (the perceived) level of professional competence should provide additional impetus for a more expanded initial preparation for teachers and a further move away from inservice efforts which may in any way be viewed as remediative in nature. This could result in more differentiation in teacher roles and responsibilities at different stages of their careers than occurs at present with selected experienced teachers assuming more leadership responsibilities and beginning teachers more specialized functions initially. (Howey, 1982: 3,4)

By now it should be obvious that from this writer's perspective (as well as that of several others) that the future will likely demand a more cooperative approach to the education of teachers than exists at present. The position taken here is that teacher education cannot continue to evolve in a relatively unplanned fashion; neither are there real prospects for, nor likely need of a major revolution. What appears needed is an orientation which calls for a planned gradual improvement in the quality of teaching on multiple fronts. An incremental and inter-related approach is stressed in this paper. Plans and policies for strengthening programs which prepare teachers and for accommodating the future events which will effect schools should be built upon a catholic view of education and the recognition that there are no simple nor easy solutions to improving teacher education. New and/or stronger relationships have to be forged by those in institutions of teacher education not only with their colleagues in other parts of academia but also in the private sector as noted above. Most assuredly, more extended involvement by those in local districts and the teaching professions is needed in the initial preparation of teachers. Likewise, the need for

state and regional coordination will become increasingly obvious. The cost and benefits associated with any change strategy should be weighed in terms of all role groups with a vested interest in teacher education. The question is neither whether a considerably expanded role is needed for those in higher education nor as others would suggest whether teacher education should be turned largely over to the schools-but rather how new and hopefully more powerful working relationships can be developed. There are critical responsibilities which can be extended for both parties.

I suggest that the major strategies for enhancing the quality of teaching are interrelated and at least four in number. The first of these has to do with improving the recruitment and selection of teachers into teacher education. An alarming picture can be portrayed at present relative to those who are choosing teaching as a vocation and remain in that role. The second major strategy has to do with upgrading the quality and examining the scope of preparation which teachers engage in initially. Certainly included are considerations of more formal arrangements for the induction of teachers into their first teaching assignment. The third strategy revolves around developing more rigorous procedures and improved technologies for both the evaluation of individual teachers and the programs and persons who prepare them for teaching. Directly related to this matter is the need for an enlarged empirical base on teaching and schooling effectiveness. Finally, the quality of teaching is very much related to the conditions in which teachers work, the manner in which their role is defined and the range of responsibilities given over to them. Again, this final matter should not only be of major concern to those in K-12

schools but also to teacher educators as it has major implications for the education of teachers as well.

These global strategies for dealing with improved teaching and teacher education must be considered in terms of a number of inter-related conditions. In a brief paper prepared earlier for the Commission, this writer identified seven major problems which have to be attended to if progress in teacher education is to be made. Those problems are repeated here again in the form of questions as they provide direction to the remainder of this paper. The questions are as follows:

- 1) What is an appropriate and realistic scope of responsibilities for an individual teacher to effectively assume?
- 2) Why is there such meager research and development associated with teacher education?
- 3) How can the various education professions and other parties with a vested interest more closely cooperate in the education of teachers?
- 4) How can the desired quality and diversity of teachers be attracted into and remain in teaching?
- 5) What are the most effective means of improving programs of teacher education?
- 6) How can more effective evaluation be achieved at critical benchmarks throughout initial education?
- 7) How, given the considerable variation in the way initial teacher education is provided across over 1,000 institutions, can minimal quality standards be affected and monitored?

The Role and Responsibilities of Teachers

The way in which the role of a teacher is defined and the scope of responsibilities he or she assumes, provides basic direction to programs of preservice teacher education. Increasingly, the argument is made

that conditions in many schools are such that expectations for the teacher are unrealistic. Thus, a core issue for teacher education is whether conditions in schools might be modified to create more realistic and effective teacher roles. This has implications for the recruitment as well as actual training of teachers. Fundamental questions which have not been adequately studied include:

- 1) would some type of graduated sequence or hierarchy of responsibilities over time result in attracting and retaining better teachers?
- 2) would this promote increased teacher effectiveness?
- 3) would more specialized and differentiated teacher assignments in team teaching arrangements provide overall better instruction for youngsters?
- 4) it is possible that preparing more teachers in a more limited technical role under the tutelage of master teachers is a viable model for the improvement of instruction; especially in the current economy?

Martin Haberman, the editor of the Journal of Teacher Education in a recent lead article for that journal addressed the problem of the continually expanding curriculum in many schools. He provided the reader with a topical sketch of that curriculum to illustrate how the 'anyplace' school has responded to a variety of external pressures and demands. He sketched numerous new areas in the curriculum.

I will not elaborate upon those various curricular areas but merely list them below;

Sex Education
Gender Equity Education
Race
Human Relations Education
International Education
Citizenship Education
Environmental Education
Energy Education
Drug Abuse
Health and Safety Education
Consumerism and Basic Economic Education
Marriage and the Family
Basic Skills
Marketable Skills
Job Search Skills
Music
Art
Gifted Education
Handicapped (Haberma, 1981: 5,6)

This same Martin Haberman in the 1982 distinguished Hunt lecture presented at the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, presented the other side of the coin. He quoted from a report prepared by the Citizen's League of Minneapolis. Among other things this document states:

It may be time to slow the trend toward... professionals doing things for other people and to re-emphasize the ability of people to do things for themselves...

He then went on to share his perception of what this report is saying:

...What the Citizen's League in Minneapolis, as well as most other Americans, are now saying to government agencies--including schools and universities--is, "Stop trying to involve us as partners. We haven't gotten the results we hoped for from you with voice or producer democracy. We want to reserve our right to exert exit or consumer democracy." In addition, there is the very clear message that government and professionals will have to do less for people and that difficult priorities will be set; that some things will be left undone is inevitable.

This is very difficult for educators to understand, let alone accept. Most of us in universities and public schools don't even recognize that when the public discusses government expense and public employees they mean us!

I would contend that the fourth legacy of teacher education--relevance to social issues--is going to be reshaped. We as teacher educators will be asked to turn down our rhetoric and simultaneously demonstrate we can have greater impact on school goals. (Haberman, 1982; 52,53)

I strongly concur that the long existing tension between unmet social needs and a reasonable scope of responsibility for schools and the teachers who work within them is likely to be heightened and the dialogue about this matter sharpened in the near future. The perspective taken here varies somewhat with Haberman's projected outcome. I perceive more of a compromise where aspects of this everyman's curricula will be offered on an optional, extended day, or extended year basis. One way which public schools can attempt to respond to a growing, often conflicting, set of expectations is to offer options both within and between schools. This suggests then that what will be needed in terms of teacher education is not an attempt to greatly expand the capacity or competencies of individual teachers as such but rather efforts to better delineate some planned variations where specific and relatively new teacher roles can be developed in pilot teacher education programs. There will certainly remain the need to prepare elementary teachers to assume multi-purpose roles. Nonetheless, as I indicated earlier, there should increasingly be preservice education with an emphasis on teachers working in collaborative teams based upon some division of labor. Elementary teachers especially could have specialized skill in diagnosis and assessment, or in counseling skills, or in curriculum design, where

they could contribute in a specialized way to a team of teachers who collectively can accommodate a range of expectations. This teaming concept appears to be a rational response to accommodating increased demands rather than expecting all teachers to be all things to their students.

There are also those who make the case for a human services type of teacher preparation. This concept is elaborated upon by Burch (1980) in discussing new missions for colleges of education. She addresses this concept as follows:

Reading the professional literature across the various fields illustrates the confusion surrounding the term "human services." At the community, state and federal levels of human services delivery, the term refers to systems such as health, mental health, children and family services, corrections, and similar areas. Field practitioners apply the term to a combination of helping systems. Universities typically have referred to a single department where each faculty tends to think of human services as its field, for example, social work, criminal justice or urban studies. It is generally agreed that "the frame of reference in human services education must be the total network of systems in education, health, mental health, employment and human resources, government, law, law enforcement and corrections, religion, communications, transportation, housing, the arts, recreation, and political, economic, and social systems of all kinds. Obviously one does not need to be an expert in each of these areas; indeed, it is the common elements across systems that are a major concern in human services." "Human services," then, by definition relate to life-span development in all settings, and "human services professionals" touch on educational, psychological, social, medical, rehabilitative, and legal facets of human activity. (Burch, 1980: 3)

This human services concept deserves to be piloted and studied. Certainly, the concept of having a professional educator who can work across multiple agencies concerned with the education of youth has been lacking. If Haberman is correct in his assessment that the school as a

social institution will focus its energies more specifically on the cognitive aspects of the curriculum in the future than increased inter-institutional relationships between schools and other agencies are likely to occur and a teacher familiar with a range of human service agencies and functions would be increasingly important.

Yet another way to view the role of the teacher is to look at in terms of a hierarchical career ladder. Schlechty and Vance (1982) speak to this point:

Some studies indicate, for example, that those who are in the upper quarter of an entering cohort in terms of measured academic ability are twice as likely to leave as those who score in the lower quarter (Schlechty and Vance, 1981; Vance and Schlechty, 1982). Thus whatever selectivity there is following entry into teaching tends to favor the academically less able.

These data lead us to suggest that it is meaningless to discuss the issue of selectivity in teaching until we have first addressed the question of retention. Furthermore, we would suggest that our first recommendation regarding alterations in the recruitment process will be largely meaningless until and unless the issue of retention is addressed. What is most important to understand is that the issue of retention is embedded in the workplace (i.e., the schools) and the structure of the occupation. It is not embedded in teacher education institutions. Indeed, our analysis leads us to conclude that those who would improve teacher education by the simple mechanism of causing teacher education institutions to become more stringent in their admission requirements miss the point. The point is that the ability to recruit academically able teachers and/or to select teachers from among the academically able depends in large measure on the ability of schools to provide environments and career opportunities that are attractive to the academically able in the first place.

(Perhaps, the reason past efforts to improve the academic quality of the teaching corps have failed is because these efforts have concentrated primarily on recruiting more able people to teacher education and on changing the quality of teacher education programs themselves rather than attending to the structure of schools in ways that would be attractive to these increasingly able candidates.) In spite of what the critics say, schools and departments of education now produce many more academically able teachers than schools employ, and those academically able teachers who are employed tend to leave the occupation early.

(Schlechty and Vance, 1982:48,49)

This writer (1981) has been involved in recent years in an on-going effort to conceptualize programs which would allow teachers to assume leadership roles in inservice education at the school site. This teacher education function is just one of several leadership roles that might be conceptualized to provide increased responsibility and variation in role for the career teacher. Certainly, the idea of teachers proceeding in career ladder is not a new one. There was, in fact, a major experiment with this concept sponsored by the federal government titled Career Opportunities Program. This program initiated in the late 1960's ran through the mid 1970's at some 150 sites across the United States. Basically what this program did is recruit para-professionals to work in school systems, rural and urban, serving children from low income families. These para-professionals were provided with an education along with experience in the schools to 1) increase their performance, 2) enable them to progress through a career ladder in the school, and 3) eventually obtain a baccalaureate degree and a teacher's certificate. They were recruited largely from minority groups. Some 14,000 participants were trained in the career opportunities program.

Over 50 percent of the participants were Black, another 15 percent were Spanish-speaking and another 3 percent were Native Americans. Also, almost 80 percent of those who participated in the program were women with the considerable majority 35 years of age and over.

Costa, Gillooly, and Gross (1975) evaluated graduates of the Career Opportunity Program as first year teachers. They compared Career Opportunity graduates with other first year teachers in terms of their attitudes

and effect on children. They reported:

The data reveal a series of consistent more positive scores by the COP-trained teachers. They possess a more favorable set of attitudes (toward low-income children and their potential for learning). They demonstrate in the classroom the behaviors considered to be the more desirable ones for children's learning. Their supervisors rank them more favorably. The children in their classes think better of themselves, and with the exception of the score on one sub-scale, the children's parents believe those in the classrooms of the COP-trained teachers have better attitudes. The slight difference in achievement test scores favors the COP-trained teachers' students (Costa, Gillooly, and Gross, 1975:124).

Given the economic constraints associated with much of our public education endeavors it may well be that a model of schooling which employs a limited number of master teachers with a variety of specializations working with a number of people who with minimal training assume quite specific instructional tasks deserves re-study or perhaps more accurately study, especially in pilot elementary schools.

In summary, then how the role of the teacher is defined and the scope of responsibilities he or she assumes are critical questions relative to the direction preservice teacher education will take. The point that is emphasized here is that far too little attention has been given to the critical matter of teacher role and responsibility. A priority should be the pilot testing of a variety of teacher roles. What is needed are a number of well-conceived pilot programs which build their teacher training on alternative conceptions of the teacher role. These could include:

- 1) the concept of the teacher with some specialization working in a collaborative teaching arrangement
- 2) the concept of teaching as a career ladder with various master teacher roles articulated
- 3) the concept of teacher interacting regularly with the micro-computer and other technology
- 4) the concept of human services roles.

The Need for Expanded Research and Development in Teacher Education

While there are already a variety of existing teacher roles and new ones will likely evolve in the near future, this does not deter from the fact that there are generic skills and abilities which are requisite to success in almost any teaching role. Clearly, one of the more persistent and critical problems concerning teacher education is the relatively little study of teacher education and the limited data base about what constitutes the science of pedagogy. One cannot proceed too far in efforts to upgrade the quality of teacher education without more squarely addressing the question of the knowledge base that is essential to effective teaching. Lanier (1979) states the case:

The area for research that I would give first priority concerns the "criterion question" in teacher education. If teacher education is directed in some sense to change and improvement of teaching practice (as it is) and if we are to study teacher development (which also suggests a form of qualitative growth) then we must be clearer about the meaning of this "positive direction." Decade after decade scholars in the field have called for more useful and valid means of describing what it is we are striving to achieve through the education of teachers. If educating teachers helps them "do something better" (e.g., think better, act better--even be better) then our ability to become smarter about teacher education depends upon a useful and helpful conception of what constitutes successful functioning as a teacher. Yet, while we have known that the criterion question is of vital importance, we have not yet identified ways of asking or addressing the question that have been fruitful. Yet, because the question is so critical to the productivity of almost all future inquiry in the area, I am not ready to give it up as an impossible task. Intensive reviews of the literature, some high powered conceptual work and informed deliberation, combined with a series of judgment studies may help us find a breakthrough to this very complex and difficult problem of the field. (Lanier, 1979: 23)

Support for research into a teacher education is indeed a fragile flower today. Imig in his testimony before the Commission reported

that the federal investment in professional preparation was over \$500 million dollars in grants, contracts, and other awards through some 40 separate office of education-administered programs as recently as 1976. However the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 which combine some 33 categorial programs does not earmark any monies specifically for teacher education. Institutions of higher education and research-oriented centers where the capacity largely exists for engaging in research into teacher education are basically excluded in block grant arrangement. Imig (Executive Director of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education) asks for support in encouraging the Department of Education to assign a priority and commit resources to building capacity within schools, colleges, and departments of education. Funding of the Weiss provisions (Section 533 of the Education Amendments of 1980) would facilitate this. Certainly the kind of planned variation which I perceive the need for and outline in this paper would need stimulus monies at the very least to initiate needed research. Dean Corrigan in a recent speech made the following recommendation in terms of improving beginning teacher education:

Provide incentives and support for the kind of research and development that links schools seeking to improve with colleges of education that are willing to break out of obsolete patterns of preparation. Such programs should give serious attention to the need to build continuous professional development programs for teaching personnel through such vehicles as teacher education centers which already exist. The aim should be to improve the schools and at the same time improve the quality of preparation. Support should be given to schools endeavoring to help each child succeed, develop continuous progress evaluation procedures, use the full range of community resources for learning, automate certain kinds of learning, explore instructional techniques for developing personal incentive and creative thinking and more.

Most of all, I would urge that substantial financial support be given to schools and colleges seeking to redesign the entire learning environment, from the curriculum through the structure of the school, to completely new inquiry approaches.

While it would be unrealistic to expect many institutions to wholly redesign their programs, one would certainly hope that programs of teacher education nested in institutions which have an emphasis on research and development could garner more support for well-conceived pilot programs. It will be necessary to go beyond research of individual programs to related chains of study in the final analysis to examine the impact of variant programs. This will call for cooperation and initiative beyond the scope of any single institution.

Certainly the resources expended at present on the maintenance of schools and colleges of education in many situations is limited. Peseau and Orr (1980) in a study of resources committed to teacher education in twenty nine senior state and land grant universities calculated that the average cost of instruction for each full time undergraduate in teacher education was \$927.00. The following academic year (1978-79) they calculated that the average expenditure for each full time equivalent student in all of higher education (graduate and undergraduate) came to \$2,363.00. In fact it appears that the expenditure for teacher education students is considerably less than the average national expenditure of approximately \$1,400.00 for public school students in K-12 schools.

Peseau and Orr conclude then:

Perhaps the most distressing generalization one can make about professional educators is that they tend to accept expanded responsibilities without having the resources to meet them.
(Peseau and Orr, 1980)

In summary, we have woefully little data about what actually occurs during the initial preparation of teachers, let alone the potency of these efforts. Likewise it appears that in many instances current support for the operation, let alone study, of these endeavors is marginal. Experimentation with new models, as suggested in the prior section of this paper, are all but non-existent. Similarly, there is considerable confusion about the extent of the data base which exists to support these programs of teacher preparation. Certainly inroads have been made in studies of teaching, studies of effective schools, and inquiry into human development and learning. We are not without an excellent start in many areas but this research also is being stifled largely for economic reasons and no effort is being made to synthesize well what exists at present.

Why there is such little interest in support for the study of this critical endeavor (Teacher Education) is not altogether clear. Certainly the argument to increase support for research and development can be made on a variety of grounds. Perhaps, the consequences of a marginal investment in the education of teachers has to be made more dramatically. Johnson (1982) in an analysis of our investment in public education, identifies a variety of costs to society which accrue from a less than adequate investment in education. He writes:

Welfare costs are not the only ones incurred as a result of providing too few educational resources. John Gibson, principal of the Cook County Jail School in Chicago, says, "There is a direct correlation between the inability to read and trouble with the law. Ninety-five percent of the school population of this jail consists of dropouts. A sizable percentage are very low achievers, reading at the fifth grade level or below."

Statistics show that, nationwide, more than 60 percent of all jail inmates have fewer than 12 years of schooling and that prisoners have attended school for only a median of 10.2 years. A study of juvenile offenders by the Illinois Department of Corrections found that only 14 percent were reading at the high school level when they entered a correctional facility.

Incarceration costs money - much more money than school does. Valley View, a juvenile facility in Kane County, Illinois, spends \$16,425 a year to house each offender. At Illinois' maximum security prison in Joliet, incarceration costs \$28,835 a year for each inmate. This is more than 10 times what it cost to educate a child in public school for a year. (Compare this with the cost of preparing a future teacher [author's comment]). (Johnson, 1982: 17)

Unemployment compensation, welfare, and incarceration all are short-term costs that society incurs by not providing the resources adequate for educating all our young people. In the long run, the costs may be even greater. Bearing in mind that each dollar invested in literacy brings a return of \$6 in national income, consider the impact of each dollar that is needed but not provided.

(Johnson, 1982: 17)

While the investment of resources in the education of teachers is one step removed from the investment of resources in schools themselves, the link nonetheless is an obvious and direct one. One thing we learned from some of the excellent research which has occurred within the last 25 years is that teachers do indeed make a critical difference in the lives of youngsters. It is quite likely that the old adage that 'you get what you pay for' applies to the education of teachers. Marginal programs are likely to attract marginal candidates and the cruciality of developing more exemplary programs with a solid research base cannot be underestimated, nor can the need for monies to support this.

This investment in research and development has direct implications also for a conception of the role of the teacher as scholar. Priorities should be given to research and development efforts which involve teachers in integral ways. The recent federally-supported research which calls for collaboration between researchers and teachers is to be commended. Hartnett and Naish (1980) speak to the relationship between professional status and the teacher assuming a more scholarly role when they write:

The end product of the expertise may well not be, nor need be, knowledge, but rather a realization of how little is understood, of the limitations of what is known; and of the moral, empirical and other complexities inescapably linked with educational issues. Thus teachers are seen not as technicians and servants of the powerful, nor as master-craftsmen with students attached to them, nor as ideologues, but as a group of people who, both because of their engagement with practice and because of their intellectual expertise, are particularly qualified to offer ways of looking at, and of analysing educational issues and to offer an informed commentary on, and critique of, current policies and practices. (Hartnett and Naish, 1980: 269)

ENHANCED COOPERATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The naive observer of teacher education policies and practices would assume a considerable degree of collaboration in the education of beginning teachers. One would expect that outstanding experienced teachers work hand-in-hand in the development of curriculum for beginning teachers and often share in the teaching of these future teachers with college professors and monitor closely a variety of experimental practices in their classrooms. Given the rather major responsibility of these "cooperating" teachers, the observer would also assume they would be selected with considerable care, provided further training, and be substantially reimbursed for their efforts. This is simply not the case. In reflecting upon the data in our Pre-Service Study (Howey, Yarger, Joyce, 1978) we wrote:

Fewer than one-fifth of the department chairs cited level of experience as a teacher, advanced training or previous supervisory experience as the most important factors in the selection of cooperating teachers. Instead, the general reputation of the teacher and a willingness to work with student teachers appear to be the chief criteria for selection.

It may well be that the role lacks appeal for many teachers. A sense of professional responsibility on the one hand and the reciprocal assistance provided by the novice in the classroom on the other appear to be the basic incentives for assuming such a role. Certainly, the modest honorarium provided in half the institutions to cooperating teachers has limited drawing power, to put it mildly. The average program offers \$30.00, but many provide none. Various in-kind considerations and faculty assistance to teachers of one type or another are provided to some degree. No one practice is common, however, and there are considerable differences in terms of what is provided to

teachers. About one in seven institutions afford such considerations as tuition remission, admission to college functions, or library privileges. One in five departments provide some help to the teacher in the way of media or materials. Only about a quarter provide formal inservice training on how to be effective as a cooperating teacher.

Less common is the practice of teacher educators involving themselves in planning and program development with teachers and schools, as only 17 percent of the programs report they assist with such efforts. Thus, with higher education and local education agencies financially strapped at this time in history, it appears that rather traditional practices in student teaching still dominate. There is minimal acknowledgement of the cruciality of the cooperating teachers' role in terms of their selection, training, and remuneration. While the student teaching experience does appear to be the hub for some college-school collaboration, it would appear to contribute little to school practices in the vast majority of cases. Understandably then, the placement of students and conditions of student teaching have become a matter of teacher negotiations in many districts. Hopefully, this type of professional-political dialogue will be one in which the specific needs of the student teacher and the general needs of the profession are considered as well as those of the cooperating teacher. (Howey, et al, 1978: 35)

Today what might be called one of the trends in teacher education is to provide education students with field experiences earlier in their teacher education program. The nature and quality of these experiences in many instances, however, is highly suspect. Certainly those teachers who work with those students in these various clinical or pre-student teaching arrangements are but minimally reimbursed, if at all, for their role in these supposedly critical endeavors. For example, in a recent study by Black (1982) only 18 percent of the respondents in schools and colleges of education indicated that they paid teachers for working with their students in these early field experiences.

The problem is further compounded by the fact that in many situations these 'critical' clinical experiences appear to be a relatively constraining form of practice rather than experiments or inquiry into learning how to teach. Perhaps, the point was made most cogently almost 80 years ago by John Dewey who drew the distinction between preparing a student of teaching -

that is one who would act on developing principles and continue to grow and a technician who tends to perform with no undergirding rationale or theoretic conceptions. Dewey stated the situation as follows:

For immediate skill may be got at the cost of power to go on growing. The teacher who leaves the professional school with power in managing a class of children may appear to superior advantage the first day, the first week, the first month, or even the first year, as compared with some other teacher who has a much more vital command of the psychology, logic, and ethics of development. But later "progress" may with such consist only in perfecting and refining skill already possessed. Such persons seem to know how to teach but are not students of teaching. Even though they go on studying books of pedagogy, reading teachers' journals, attending teachers' institutes, etc., yet the root of the matter is not in them, unless they continue to be students of subject matter and students of mind activity. Unless a teacher is such a student, he may continue to improve the mechanics of school management, but he cannot grow as a teacher, an inspirer and director of soul-life. How often do candid instructors in training schools acknowledge disappointment in the later careers of even their more promising candidates? They seem to strike twelve at the start. There is an unexpected and seemingly unaccountable failure to maintain steady growth. (Dewey, 1909: 9)

This basic difference in orientation between those who view the teacher as largely a technician, however implicitly stated, and those who see the teacher more as a student of learning, is a major one and continues yet today. An emphasis on protracted experiences in the school but in largely an unquestioned apprenticeship mode appears to be growing and is attributable in many respects to the basic lack of shared responsibility for the initial preparation of teachers between those in the schools and those in colleges of education. (The development of extended programs is a major topic among teacher education professionals today and will receive further comment in the section on planned variation later in this paper.)

THE RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF TEACHERS

The matter of teacher recruitment and selection or more specifically the question of the relative competence of teachers who enter into teacher education

is related to a number of factors. Dreeben (1977) states a point I have tried repeatedly to make throughout this paper when he writes:

Although there is much to be said for showing concern about the competence of teachers, the question of competence may be more fully understood in terms of the occupational characteristics of teaching rather than in terms of the curriculum of teacher training institutions... Problems of competence grow out of the relationship among schools of education, universities, and school systems; between training institutions and prevailing career patterns; and from the way these institutions shape the occupation and its members. (Dreeben, 1977:)

While it would be inaccurate and unfair to state that the quality of teachers at all institutions of teacher preparation in this country has generally receded, there is, nonetheless, alarming data that this is the situation in a great many instances. These statistics have been widely shared and need not be elaborated upon at length here. The recent studies by Weaver (1979), and Vance and Schlechty (1982) clearly indicate that teachers are drawn from among the least academically able college students.

Setting aside for a moment the question who is encouraged to and who decides to enter teaching, one can ask how these people gain access to programs of teacher preparation. Again, our Preservice Study (1978) suggests that gaining entry into a program (as well as remaining in it, if one desires) is not a major problem. We reported:

It appears that the size of enrollment in the various programs preparing teachers to this point has been commonly dictated by the number of students who desire to enroll. Over 80 percent of the institutions in the survey indicated they used an open enrollment policy, that is, their enrollment is determined by the number of interested students who meet requirements. Thus, only a limited number of institutions and programs have established limits on enrollments.

At this time there appears to be little concern over what a reasonable maximum enrollment might be, as numbers have naturally decreased. More often, it appears that schools and colleges of education are having difficulty in generating enough undergraduates to justify existing faculty resources. Given the considerable problems associated with accurate manpower projections, it is likely that those few programs which do maintain limits do so in terms of what they consider a reasonable faculty workload generally and faculty-student ratios specifically. This

assumption is lent credence by the fact that only about one in ten programs in the study indicated that they used population studies or manpower projections. Surveys of employment rates of recent graduates were taken into account by only about a fourth of the institutions reporting.

If most institutions accept as many students as apply, as long as they meet admissions requirements, the matter of these requirements is critical. What are these requirements? By far the most common credentials used in admissions are previous college accumulated grade point averages (GPA), and letters of recommendation. About seven in ten institutions report that they have a "formal" selection process, which appears, in most situations, to entail an examination of previous grades, SAT-type test scores, and written recommendations. Personal interview with students are conducted in only one out of three institutions. Speech proficiency is tested in slightly more than one in four institutions. Standardized examinations and personality assessments are rarely utilized.

Admission in most cases is a rather mechanical procedure. When selection requires further input, however, program faculty, department heads and deans are those most commonly involved. The involvement of other education faculty or students themselves occurs in only one program in five and the participation of local school or community persons in this process is exceedingly rare. (Howey, et al, 1978: 12, 13, 14)

The problem is a complex one and the resolution of it calls for altered practice on various fronts, as stated at the outset. The recruitment of more able, and I might add more culturally diverse, persons into the teaching force requires alterations in the conditions of many schools, more viable career patterns, and teacher preparation programs which are more rigorous and prestigious in nature. There are also specific research and developmental efforts which should be of the highest priority in this regard. In a benchmark national conference sponsored by the National Institute of Education in 1974, the matters of recruitment, selection, and retention were a major priority on that agenda. Recommendations made at that time have not been followed through on. Yet, they are as salient today as they were then and bear repeating here. The following recommendation was made by a panel of experts chaired by James Deneen of Educational Testing Service:

Selecting entrants into teacher education or into teaching jobs is now only occasionally a rational process; more often it is non-systematic or haphazard. A considerable body of theory and technology could make selection a more valid, objective, and efficient process. Bolton (1973), in mapping such a process, drew on concepts and procedures developed in business (Guetzkow and Forehand, 1961;

Ghiselli and Brown, 1955); in psychological research (Cronbach and Gleser, 1965; Hammond, Hursch, and Todd, 1964; Horst, 1962); in educational research (Flanders and Simon, 1969; Medley and Mitzel, 1963; Ryans, 1960); and in educational practice (Evaluating Teaching Performance, Education Research Service, (1972)...
(National Institute of Education, 1975: 11)

I also strongly endorse a recommendation recently put forth by Dean Corrigan, immediate Past-President of AACTE. He recommended that the Federal Government support a merit-based fellowship/scholarship program designed to attract the most capable high school graduates into teacher education. This effort would be analogous to the capitation grants provided to medical schools during the shortage of physicians.

Recruitment efforts would also likely be enhanced if a more balanced portrayal of teaching were provided generally. As was indicated at the outset of this paper there is a tendency at the present time to paint our educational efforts and the persons who work in educational institutions in crisis terms. Certainly, one could also portray teaching as having many inherently satisfying aspects as well. The education professions have a tendency to engage in considerable self-flagellation and it is beyond time that we put our best foot forward in efforts to recruit people into what certainly can be a highly gratifying and challenging role.

It may also be that we have overlooked many potentially outstanding teachers by focusing our energies disproportionately on the recent high school graduate. As the career opportunity program illustrated many more mature adults can also be attracted into teaching and it would appear that efforts targeted at attracting persons who desire career changes or entry into a career after having been engaged primarily in raising a family should be pursued more strenuously. Likewise, specific programs of teacher education might be designed for just these kinds of persons.

IMPROVED EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

There are a number of critical evaluation points for prospective teachers. These include: (1) admission to the university, (2) matriculation into the teacher education program, (3) admission to the student teaching phase of the clinical experiences, and (4) after completion of an induction period of one or two years prior to teacher certification. In the section of this paper just completed we addressed issues of an initial selection into the university and teacher education program. Thus, attention here will be given to evaluation at the completion of the teacher education program and at a post-induction period.

Earlier, I underscored the need for further research relative to validating the professional knowledge base for teachers. This is the fundamental question of just what is it that a teacher uniquely is supposed to know and do. At present, teacher examinations tend to differ from other general assessments of adult achievement (GRE, SAT) primarily in terms of content. This is to say that these examinations are paper and pencil assessments which employ relatively common response modes such as a multiple choice format. Thus, a major criticism of and limitation to present teacher examinations is the extent to which the content of the test, in fact, reflects the knowledge domain of the professional educator or more accurately represents knowledge typically associated with assessments of general achievement. This is the issue of face or content validity. The extent to which the behavior measured predicts actual teaching effectiveness is the matter of predictive validity. These are major problems but problems where efforts to reconcile them can begin. I repeat again that there is a major need to synthesize what most assuredly is a more substantive knowledge base for teacher education than is currently acknowledged by many. This actively would address the issue of

content validity. The issue of predictive validity or the question of how the prospective teacher assessed in an examination will succeed in the classroom is a more complex question.

Good (1981)⁸ speaks to this concern, that is the relationship of this subject matter to teaching performance, even competence. He suggests that one can only expect orienting principles (however profound or utilitarian they may be) that have to be adjusted sensibly and sensitively by teachers to specific contexts. Medley (1981) also speaks directly to this concern by suggesting that teachers be held accountable for following acceptable procedures rather than for the effects of these procedures upon their students. He maintains that the essential difference between a learned profession and any lesser occupation lies in how the professional addresses problems unique to his role or what he refers to as professional problem-solving. The question is not just what does the teacher know but more fundamentally, how does he or she bring that knowledge to bear (sensibly and sensitively) to problems encountered in the act of teaching.

If one accepts this problem-solving ability as a reasonable measure of teaching effectiveness and a critical link between knowledge and practice. . . then the question remains as to how this skill might be assessed relative to the core functions of a teacher. Again, Medley provides us with direction here. He outlines a teacher examination based upon a "simulated" in-basket technique which calls for a prospective teacher to weigh the importance of a number of classroom-related problems and suggest appropriate responses to these. He illustrates this by having a teacher share what such a testing experience would be like:

First of all, I would say taking them is more like teaching than taking any other test. The exam starts with a film showing a rather benign-looking old gent who says he is the principal of Rosewood Elementary School and wants you to pretend that you are a new teacher just hired to replace one leaving in mid-year. He takes you on a sort of a tour of the community and the school first and then shows

you the class you are supposed to teach interacting with the teacher who is leaving. (Her husband got transferred across the country somewhere).

While the film is going on someone hands you an envelope which contains a lot of stuff about your class - such things as sheets showing test scores, sociograms, cumulative record holders. The "principal" describes what is there because he says you will need some of the information to do the test. He explains that the test will consist of a bundle of paperwork of things you as a teacher might do during your prep period (if you have one) or take home to work on after dinner (if you don't), in another envelope called "a teacher's briefcase." He suggests that when you get your "briefcase" you should go through all of it first and decide what to do first, what is most important or urgent, because you may not have time to do it all in the 90 minutes you will have.

When you open your "briefcase" you will find a set of large cards with a "problem" on each, together with a numbered set of suggested ways of dealing with each one. You have ten "points" to use on each problem. If you are quite sure that one of the suggestions is what you would do, you put all 10 points on that suggestion. If two look equally good, put 5 on each. You mark these judgments on one of those answer sheets they have on all ETS tests.

What I did was to work fast and do all the problems. There was quite a variety, and on some I really did not feel sure what I ought to do, whether it was right or not. Sometimes I had to look in a kid's folder, in others I had to use the lists of test scores or the sociogram. In some I wasn't sure what to use, and I am afraid I just guessed, since I only had an hour and a half. (Medley, 1981: 1, 2)

What this form of assessment calls for are a set of examinations with a high degree of face or content validity. It calls for using knowledge (empirically supported, when possible) to address the specific kinds of pedagogical demands placed upon teachers in specific situations. This form of assessment would also have predictive validity by focusing on the acceptability of procedures selected as the criterion for effectiveness. The central question then is not limited to what knowledge the teacher possesses but whether and how he or she employs that knowledge in conditions which simulate as closely as possible those in which a teacher functions.

Again I do not wish to appear to offer a simple solution to a complex problem. Obviously much work remains to be done to move further in the direction of teacher assessment suggested here. Major work is needed in

terms of synthesizing and relating existing knowledge of teaching into more articulate and agreed upon orienting concepts specifically related to the core functions of teachers. In turn, the technology Medley calls for to assess the application of this knowledge in contexts approximating the "real-life" of the classroom needs to be developed and refined. While these are major tasks, they do not appear insurmountable and do suggest a future direction for beginning teacher assessment which is more valid than present endeavors.

Efforts in this direction then would go a long way towards developing viable forms of competency-testing for teachers whether they are conducted at the conclusion of the teacher education program or at the conclusion of a formalized induction period into the profession. We must be wary of teacher examinations which have little validity of either a content or predictive nature and accomplish little more than deter many of the wrong persons from entering teaching for the wrong reason. As Cronin points out (1981):

One illusion is that more testing and more screening will upgrade the calibre of candidates for teaching. The marginal teacher prospect will be discovered and dropped or will drop out. Only the fittest presumably will survive. This is the hope behind many of the screening and testing and selection proposals. Will state examinations help upgrade the teaching profession as many citizens and some legislators hope? (Cronin, 1981: 31)

Again the obvious emphasis has to be on upgrading the teaching profession through basic alternations in schools and in programs of teacher education and through more strenuous recruitment efforts of persons especially those who have been largely ignored as possible teacher candidates. The emphasis must of course also be on ways to attract the best and the brightest and not just to cull out the weak and mediocre. The best way those

of limited dedication and ability can be constrained from teaching are through regular rigorous assessments throughout programs of teacher education. It is a question of quality standards right from the beginning.

Finally, while the type of testing suggested by Medley is a viable direction to pursue in terms of better assessing the knowledge and abilities predictive of teaching success, there are other approaches which deserve our consideration as well in terms of the assessment of beginning teachers. For example, under the leadership of Judith Lanier, Dean of the College of Education, University of Michigan, an induction scheme is being discussed in that state which will allow beginning teachers to teach 90 percent time in their initial year of teaching and be paid at a rate slightly less than the typical beginning teacher's salary. The monies from these reduced salaries would then in turn be used to employ a master teacher (as described earlier in this paper) to work with the beginning teacher throughout his or her first year of teaching and to evaluate his or her readiness for certification. The monies generated from 10 of these intern-type beginning teachers would pay the salary of the master teacher. This scheme appears to have benefits in it for all parties with a vested interest in teacher education. The beginning teacher continues his education but works closely with a mentor in this first difficult year of teaching. The school district not only gains a master teacher who can work with the beginning teachers but with experienced colleagues as well. The results is better supervised and screened beginning teachers. The institutions of higher education are able to

focus more fully on the kinds of experiences they can best provide the beginning teacher. They are not put in a position of expecting a teacher to be fully competent upon graduation from a baccalaureate program. A variety of schemes such as this could be piloted and this type of evaluation of beginning teachers deserves more attention. A combination of more valid standardized testing as outlined by Medley combined with opportunities for the beginning teacher to be supervised closely by highly skilled professionals appears to be the combination of evaluation strategies with the most potential at the present time.

The Upgrading of Teacher Education Programs Through Planned Variation

Alan Tom (1981) proposed an alternative set of accreditation standards (his paper will not be reviewed in detail here as the issue of accreditation per se is a matter being addressed in a related paper). In his discussion Tom suggests that standards be re-directed towards quality. He defines quality in the following way:

By quality I mean the fundamental purpose(s) which give direction to a teacher preparation program and the rationale for stressing this particular direction. Currently, the most popular image of quality is rooted in the teacher as technician metaphor, the good teacher is seen as someone skillful in producing student learning. Teaching efficiency and effectiveness are stressed while little attention is given to the normative dimensions of teaching, i.e., to what knowledge is of most worth, to the role of the teacher in providing moral instruction, to the teacher's sensitivity to the responsibility entailed by his or her unequal power relationship with students.

Metaphors other than the technician one do take into account the normative dimensions of teaching, but in our pluralistic society there is little consensus concerning the proper student-teacher relationship or the normative outcomes of instruction. In the absence of such consensus, there is little hope that we can ever agree on a single image of good teaching, and without an agreed upon conception of good teaching we cannot- or at least

we should not- mandate in our accreditation standards the fundamental purpose(s) to be pursued by all teacher preparation programs.

Nevertheless, a program without a guiding set of purposes is as much adrift as is a sail boat without a center board.

He goes on to argue that accreditation which is national in scope should concentrate on ensuring that a program of teacher education has the resources necessary to develop a quality program rather than focus upon their conception of quality teaching. As was indicated earlier many institutions of teacher education would appear to operate with marginal resources, admit academically limited students on marginal entrance criteria, and likely tolerate mediocre instruction and limited faculty involvement in schools. What is badly needed from this perspective given those quality measures, are a number of well conceived variant approaches to the education of teachers. We have much to learn both in terms of the type of teacher which is most effective and in terms of how we can best prepare teachers. Well-conceived planned variation seems consistent with the kind of orientation which Tom suggests we need.

David Clark when he gave the distinguished Hunt lecture at AACTE in 1977 examined the immediate future of teacher education. He suggested that the immediate years ahead were more likely to be characterized by changes in the form or structure of teacher education rather than substance. He wrote;

We are entering a period in which most observers would conclude that growth in the knowledge base supporting the training of educational professionals and/or substantively-based experimentation in the field will be constrained at best. Substantive gains in a field are usually preceded by the investment of capital

in R and D and field experimentation. In contrast, structural manipulations are frequently cost-free. Governance patterns may well be modified, accreditation may move from a national voluntary to a state or national mandatory base, the physical location of inservice programs for teachers may move from the campus to teacher centers, but the essential substance of training programs for the education professions will remain relatively intact. (Clark, 1977; 16)

Clark's prediction about directions in teacher education were quite accurate. For example another 'trend' in teacher education today is the growing advocacy for more protracted forms of initial teacher education. However the arguments appear more structural than substantive. Certainly, the case can be made that there are gaps in initial teacher education programs. For example, Byrd in 1978 reported that the norm in teacher education programs relative to the development of teacher competencies in the use of educational technology was a one three hour 'basic' A/V course. He writes:

In some institutions the teacher education program requires only one three-hour "basic a/v course." However, there has never been agreement among "media people" as to what constitutes a "basic course." In most cases the course has consisted of a general overview of audiovisual fundamentals, instruction in operation of so-called basic equipment, and what might be called the "speciality area" of the instructor teaching a given class. For example, if making overhead transparencies is the instructor's strong point, the class is usually saturated with instruction on the use of overhead projection. If, on the other hand, the instructor, is a "shutter-bug," then the class gets heavy emphasis on 35mm slides, photographs, and perhaps mounting techniques. Moreover, the former industrial arts teacher-turned a/v specialist may be inclined to emphasize models, dioramas, or graphics. In each instance, however, there is likely to be emphasis on production methods and techniques with final evaluation based on the quality of the finished product. Little or no consideration is given to the unique characteristics of the product in the teaching/learning situation.

While this observation may be unduely harsh, there is little doubt there is insufficient attention in many programs of teacher education to newer technology such as the microcomputer. What is needed however is a much more rigorous analysis of what should or should not be included in initial programs of teacher education before advocating a more protracted period of initial teacher education per se. Gallegos (1981) raises a number of questions about extended programs of initial certification:

Any belief that field based programs aren't more expensive is naive. The increasing price of gasoline alone should shatter any such illusion immediately. But the most insidious cost of all is the impact any postbaccalaureate, extended program of initial certification would have on who enters the profession. Can anyone honestly doubt that such additional costs to students of teaching would eliminate a significant number of qualified low-income and minority students from the profession? Are there any guarantees anywhere that loans or scholarship funds will be available for these young people? Would school districts or the professional associations that would be part of a collaborative program contribute to such support? The obvious answer is not likely.

There is no doubt, in my mind at least, that many of the gains we have made in attracting qualified minority students into the profession would quickly be lost under costly extended programs. Admittedly, we cannot prove that this would occur, but the logic is such that a different conclusion is not readily available...

Those who see extended programs as the key to excellence in teacher education should be applauded for their desire to achieve this important goal. However, proposals for extended programs seem to deal primarily with form rather than substance. Before we become committed to another mode of tinkering with our programs (whatever happened to C/PBTE?), we need to develop a usable knowledge base. Qualitative improvement must begin with identification of knowledge and skills students of teaching are not now learning that are vital to their professional practice. Such an identification, coupled with an objective appraisal of what students now are learning that is of little or no value, should provide the insights for making defensible determinations about the curricular space necessary to achieve excellence. Such space may already be available if worthless or duplicated instruction is eliminated.

(Gallegos, 1981: 6)

This is not to deny that a variety of preparation programs, some more extended than others, need to be piloted. Models have been developed in a variety of places which deserve careful study. The efforts of persons such as Dale Scannell at Kansas, or the suggestions of B. Othanel Smith in his Design for a School of Pedagogy, or the recommendations put forth by the AACIE's Task Force on Extended Programs all provide substance relative to the variations which should be carefully studied on an experimental basis.

In closing, allow me to reiterate again that what is not likely to occur in any event within teacher education is massive reform. We do not need so much a grand vision of teacher education to be implemented across the country, as much as we need fewer, high quality, well-conceived variations with a research base. The incremental and interrelated approach to the improvement of teacher education outlined in this paper presents a considerable challenge. We will not achieve much by grandiose master plans. What is very much needed are more collaborative approaches among all parties with a vested interest in teacher education to work towards more quality in our teaching force through a number of related strategies.

Strategies designed to enhance forms of collaboration could consume a paper at least this length. It may be however that the establishment of a highly prestigious national policy-making body such as suggested by Yarger and Mertens in their provocative paper On Strengthening Teacher Education: An Escape From Deja Vu (1982) which they tentatively refer to as the American Education Congress is needed. The plans they sketch for moving in this direction deserve serious consideration. I commend

this paper to the reader, for it is at this level of dialogue that the Commission should focus its energy. We have not been without major recommendations in the past for the 'reform' of teacher education. Why many recommendations have never been well implemented is understandable in many respects and again goes back to a major point promoted in this paper- the education of the beginning teacher should be very much more of a shared responsibility than is currently the situation and new relationships and new responsibilities must be forged if we were to make significant progress in this critical endeavor. Hopefully, the interrelated strategies outlined in this paper will provide some direction for how and where new relationships can be fostered and supported to the benefit of all.

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