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BRITT, VIOLA SEYMOUR
THE CREATION OF SETTINGS AND INSERVICE
EDUCATION.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT
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THE CREATION OF SETTINGS AND INSERVICE EDUCATION

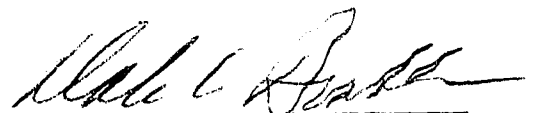
by

Viola Seymour Britt

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro
1978

Approved by


Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation
Advisor

Alvin G. Runkles

Oral Examination
Committee Members

Lois V. Edinger
David F. Leland
Lutwice M. Moore
William J. Poland

March 14, 1978
Date of Examination

ABSTRACT

BRITT, VIOLA SEYMOUR. The Creation of Settings and Inservice Education. (1978)
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The purpose of the study was to look critically at the creation of inservice education settings for the teacher in the school society. The premise for the study was based on Seymour Sarason's thesis: "In the case of the problem of the creation of settings (and why so many of them misfire) we do not possess adequate case histories, less because of faulty conceptions than because it has hardly been conceptualized as a problem" (Sarason, 1976, p. 165). Inservice education leaders of three public school systems in Piedmont North Carolina were interviewed. Reports, survey data, standard forms, program offerings, and other mimeographed materials were studied in order to obtain a mental profile of the inservice programs.

The investigator made three suppositions about the creation of inservice education settings. (1) Public education is currently concerned with the "technical dimensions" of inservice programs. (2) There is greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical (value) conceptions that form the base or superstructure for change. (3) Inservice education would well profit from the creation-of-settings conceptual model described in the dissertation for it encompasses historical,

social, philosophical, and "technical dimensions" of change. If the investigator could demonstrate that the settings model is useful for analytic purposes, it was assumed that the model would be equally useful for others involved in inservice analysis and program development.

The viability of the model was examined by using nine questions.

1. Is it congruent with the social realities which relate to education in the public schools?
2. Is it comprehensive in scope and malleable in shape?
3. Is it a model which can be integrated into public schools as they presently exist?
4. Does it face squarely the myth of unlimited resources?
5. Is it composed of a holistic or a fragmented design?
6. Is it congruent with the philosophy of personalization?
7. Is it congruent with self-discovery?
8. Does it offer a variety of options?
9. Does it meet expectations of those in inservice leader roles?

The literature reported herein strongly suggests that the model is useful for inservice analysis and program

development, for it contains the elements essential to conceptualize the problem of inservice education settings.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The writer, also, wishes to thank Doris Hutchinson, Dr. Johnny Parker, and Dr. William Anderson for giving generously of their time and information for the study. Billy, Joy, and Byron Britt were constant supporters throughout the study program.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since teaching began, the methods of the teacher have been examined. At the same time the colonists offered pity to the teachers in the form of barley, corn or oats, they were scrutinizing the efforts of the instructor. As early as 1874, Superintendent John D. Philbrick in his "Twenty-ninth Semi-Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Boston" underscored the need for reform in teacher education. He wrote:

The most important of these defects is the want of that kind of teaching which really educates; which imparts a knowledge of things as well as of the forms and sounds of words; and which daily develops the various faculties of the mind--training the pupils to right habits of thought, feeling and action... (Cubberly, 1934, p. 286).

In the nineteenth century Henry Barnard, Horace Mann, and especially James Carter were interested in the creation of settings to improve teacher education. They helped to organize normal schools to raise the standards of teacher-education programs. By 1825, these educational leaders were well acquainted with the Prussian system of teachers' seminaries. From 1830 on, many articles were written on the advantages to be derived from such institutions to train teachers (Edwards & Richey, 1947). Even though they were little

more than a secondary school, they were modest attempts to cope with the problem of producing better qualified teachers.

After World War I and until the Great Depression, inservice was influenced by the quantitative standards set for teaching certificates. The strong belief was that the quality of education could be raised by requiring all teachers to earn a bachelor's degree. From 1918, until approximately twenty years later, colleges had less interest in gaining new insight, understanding, and competence. The primary goal became to fill the gaps in college degree requirements (Rubin, 1964).

The Great Depression brought the schools new problems that could not be ignored. Since young people could no longer drop out of school and get jobs during the time of reduction in economic activity, they remained in public school. Boredom, lack of interest, and low morale were the rule of the day, because young people viewed the curriculum as being irrelevant and out of touch with contemporary society. One purpose of the Eight-Year Study begun at Ohio University in 1933, was that of developing and implementing education programs that would reach all students. The American Council on Education established the Commission on Teacher Education to build better pre-service programs for teachers. The primary shift was to the identification of new content and curriculum building along with an interest in educational procedures in the teacher-learning process (Rubin, 1964).

Since World War II, we have had two major changes. The

first, was the population explosion which created acute shortages of teachers. Naturally, an interest developed in filling the gaps in meeting certification requirements. The second change in the last fifteen years has shifted to developing understandings and skills necessary to educate the disadvantaged and to focus on the problems produced because of school desegregation (Rubin, 1964).

Since the nineteenth century, the semantics have changed little in the creation of educational settings. The infinitives "to train" and "to educate" continue to be used interchangeably in literature, though referring to different processes and products. Inservice is still viewed from the same two perspectives. The first is repair and remediation or the "defect" view. The assumption is that teachers are suffering from premature obsolescence because they have not kept up with developments in education. The "defect" view of inservice is that education is constantly developing new and better ways that should replace the old ways of doing things. Allied with the "defect" approach is an emphasis upon behavioral aspects of teaching with a neglect of understanding and belief. A second assumption is that teaching is complex, multifaceted, and developmental in process. Consequently, inservice could be called "growth." While experience is the best method for growth, it is insufficient to stimulate continued growth. In order to experience stimulated growth there must be experience and benefit from it (Rubin, 1964).

Watzlawick (1974), Weakland (1974) and Fisch (1974) make a similar distinction between the "defect" and "growth" approaches in what they term first-order change and second-order change. First-order change would more closely parallel the "defect" approach in that change occurs but the organization remains unchanged itself. In the evolutionary change the participant commits himself to the task of saving the organization through his/her role as facilitator. Thus, second-order change is more analagous to the growth process in that the change transforms the organization itself. There are massive changes within because the settings are examined and action is taken on the basis of the findings.

In order to experience second order change, it is critical that we consider what Sarason terms "networks" in the community setting. In looking at the school and the community we generally think in terms of bringing members into meaningful relationships. This is the accustomed way of viewing familiar situations instead of realizing there are other ways of thinking. Relationship is used to refer to connections among two or more persons, whereas the term network implies one's total relationship system both formal and informal. In short, one's political potency depends on the effectiveness of one's network (Sarason, 1976).

In no way does Sarason attempt to underplay the traditional basis for describing or understanding a community in terms of

social class, religion, legal, political or governmental factors. Instead, he makes it clear that we use the term community glibly without recognizing how complex the term really is. In such simplistic views we have not understood how the inhabitants of a community are "actually or potentially inter-related." In actuality the number of networks you can plug into, is a revelation of the scope of your concept of the community. Shallow thinking leads to a "graveyard for high hopes and for fantasies of innovative practice" (Sarason, 1976).

We might extend Sarason's concept by saying that a community member's sense of personal worth depends on his/her perception as to the usefulness of his/her networks, and this gives him/her a psychological sense of community. We usually think of ourselves as members of a group or organization, but the psychological sense of community makes it necessary to think in terms of networks which cross groups and organizations (Brubaker, 1976).

In 1972, the Higher Education Task Force on Improvement and Reform in American Education (HETFIRE) was established jointly by the United States Office of Education (USOE) and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) to address itself to improvement and renewal of education. HETFIRE entitled its report "Obligation for Reform." The position of the Commission was that improvement of education can come only through a process of accelerated reform. This reformation in education is ultimately dependent upon

dramatic changes in teacher education as well as individual responsibility for instruction (DHEW, 1974).

William L. Smith, director of the Teacher Corps, views many constraints against reform in the integral process of preservice and inservice education. There have been a series of crises and revolutions that have displaced energy from a process of reform to a process of survival. One cause of displacement of energy has been the uprisings of teachers concomitant with negotiating power. A second crisis consisted of minority cultural revolutions and youth counter-cultures. A third crisis is the knowledge revolution with its accompanying technology and the notion of competency-based teacher education. A fourth crisis, found in Philadelphia, Detroit, and other major cities has been fiscal in nature. Smith sees in the future a critical imbalance between the supply and demand of teachers, because freshmen are opting not to go into education (DHEW, 1974).

From the background information we cannot assure that inservice will improve teaching, but we can safely assume that it is of "sufficient merit" (Rubin, 1964) to warrant further thought. In the review of literature the basic assumptions in the creation of settings and inservice will be examined as they relate to teacher-education programs (shown in figure 1).

The field of inservice is broad and can be considered

from many angles. The best conceived creation of settings and inservice will probably lack effectiveness without the support of all school personnel (Brubaker, 1976). However, the review of literature in this dissertation will focus around one group of participants in the school society, the teachers, and the kinds of inservice offered to them. In order to obtain a clear profile of the creation of settings, basic assumptions will be examined as shown in figure 1.

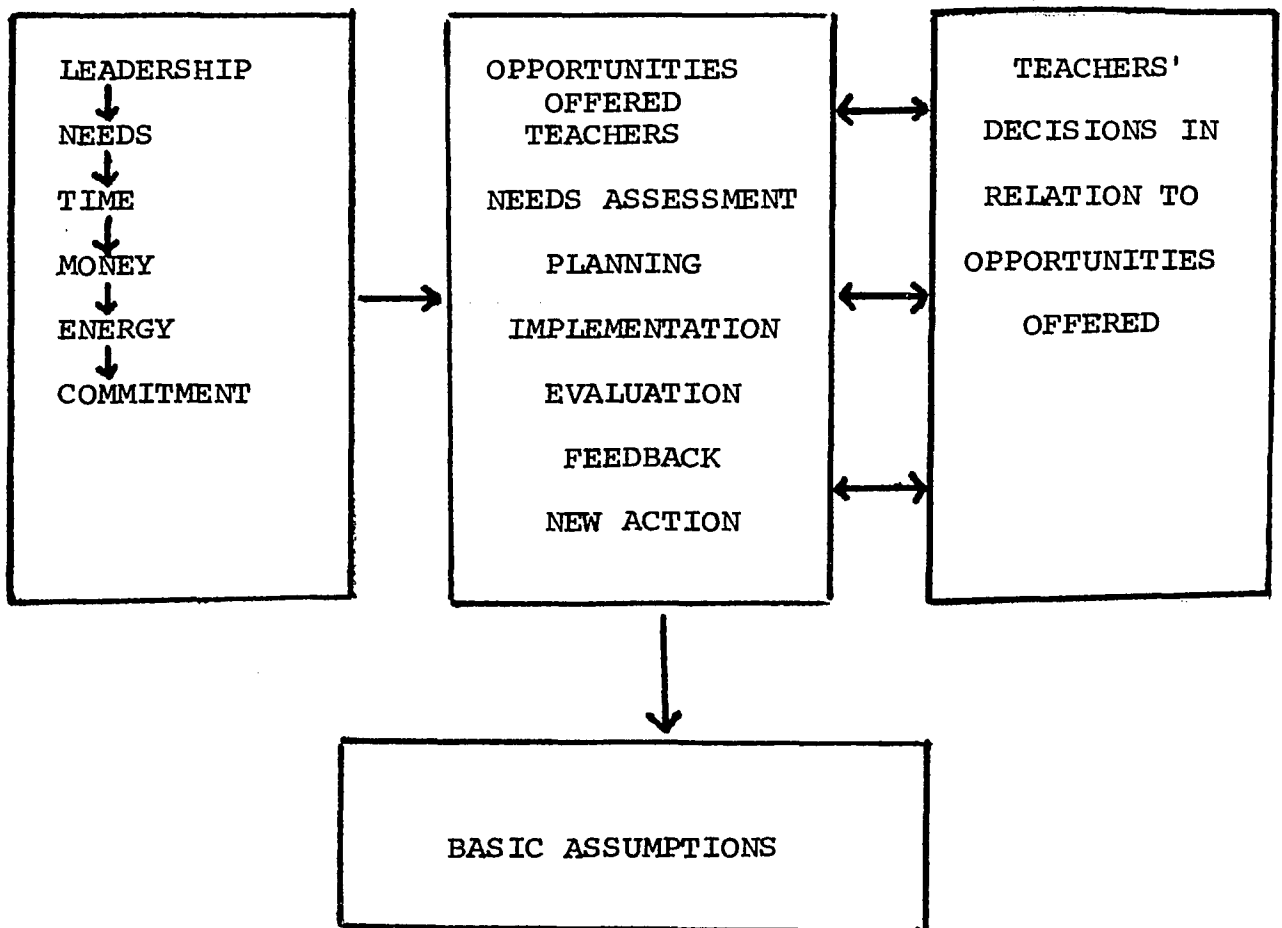


Figure 1. Components of Inservice Education

Method of Investigation

"In the case of the problem of the creation of settings (and why so many of them misfire) we do not possess adequate case histories, less because of faulty conceptions than because it has hardly been conceptualized as a problem" (Sarason, 1976, p. 165). The nature of the study made it necessary to utilize self-reports in the form of interviews. A written guide was used providing the order of the questions, and probing and prompting were not permitted. Each interview was conducted in the same manner.

A semi-structured¹ form of questioning was used to facilitate examination of the findings. The semi-structured form was advantageous in that it permitted follow-up on incomplete or unclear responses. It also made it possible to define terms when necessary. Flexibility of the procedure made adaptation to the situation easier and more natural (Gay, 1976).

This research method has some disadvantages. A subject may have been biased toward the interview either positively or negatively. A variety of communication and interpersonal relations skills was needed in order to have effective communication (Gay, 1976).

To assure accuracy of recorded responses, a mechanical recording device was used. This eliminated omission of important information in trying to write down the spoken word.

¹See the appendix for the questionnaire used.

It also provided a record for clarification in instances where there were questions about particular responses. A recording procedure was found to be more objective and more efficient (Gay, 1976).

The interview guide was pretested before the main study began. Feedback from the pilot study was utilized in the revision of ambiguous questions and in the elimination of questions producing negative reactions. Information gathered was examined in the manner of the intended study.

Three Kinds of Definitions Related to Inservice

The language of education can defy both definition and measurement. Unlike the scientist working in the biochemistry laboratory with controlled conditions, education is in a more difficult and complex setting with many uncontrolled variables, some known and others unknown. The biochemist works with terms technical in purport, conveying more specific meaning. Such a base not only provides a more restrictive area, but also allows communication to flow more easily, especially within the scientific community. This is not to say there are not alternative accurate definitions in science. There are cases in which there is rivalry for more than one term, but for scientific purposes there is independence from the social considerations which tend to complicate communication.

Because of confusion and variation in the language of education, it is necessary to provide definitions for terms

that will be used throughout this investigation. Otherwise, many of the terms used in the creation of settings and in-service may be ambiguous.

Scheffler views education as a part of changing social life with problems developing because of societal change. There must be a practical orientation to the resulting changes embodied in principles of action or definitions of relevant terms related to change or both. There are no special insights in society to provide meanings to help in making new definitions for such purposes (Scheffler, 1974).

According to Scheffler there are three kinds of definitions in the language of education. A stipulative definition legislates a new use for a term with a prior accepted usage. For example, a prior accepted usage of the term "curriculum" may mean the formal courses a student takes in school. However, the stipulative definition of "curriculum" would entail all of the experiences the student has during the school day. In other words, the purpose of the stipulative definition is to explain meanings of terms or to facilitate discourse. The stipulative definition is more important in the exposition of educational theories than in educational slogans or metaphors. Scheffler goes further and makes subdivisions. If the stipulative definition has not had a prior usage, it is called inventive stipulation. When the stipulative definition legislates a new use for a term with a prior accepted usage, it is called a noninventive stipulation (Scheffler, 1974).

An inventive stipulation may be illustrated by the use of systematic graphic symbols or arbitrary letters. For example, procedural steps were followed in educational research to support the idea that change in conventional testing techniques is necessary. Three groups of mathematics students were randomly assigned to subgroups. On either the first or second part of the tests the subgroups received immediate feedback on different parts. On the other items the students had delayed knowledge of results (DKR). The acronyms used are examples of inventive stipulation (Beeson, 1973).

Another general definition in contrast with the stipulative definition is the descriptive. The descriptive definition may embody conventional meanings, but they also explain terms. For that reason, they are used for purposes of clarification. Descriptive definitions mirror prior definitional usage in order to provide understanding of the term's meaning. They do not conserve speech but rather provide explanatory accounts of meaning. The goal of descriptive definitions is to eliminate ambiguities and to provide additional explanation as to those things "applicable or inapplicable." In providing explanation, the descriptive definition is used in a restrictive way (Scheffler, 1974).

Programmatic definitions are used in expressing serious moral choices. The main issue becomes whether or not the program should be adopted. The programmatic definition has a practical role in that social practice and habits of mind

are given consideration. Scheffler (1974) writes:

How may the practical role of general definitions be described? Roughly speaking, some terms (e.g., the term 'profession') single out things toward which social practice is oriented in a certain way. (This orientation may be supposed expressible by a general principle of action: Example: All professions ought to receive privileged treatment.) To propose a definition that now assigns such a term to some new thing ought to be accorded the sort of practical treatment to define 'profession' so as to apply to a new occupation may be a way of conveying that the object in question ought no longer to be treated as things referred to by the given term have been treated (p. 19).

Some of the definitions given will be found to be overlapping in the three statements of definition Scheffler cites. The kind of definition used can be determined by the context in which the term is used.

Definition of Terms

A stipulative definition is more accurately used with the term setting. 1. A setting is created when two or more people come together in new relationships to achieve goals over a sustained period of time. Leaders in such circumstances perceive themselves as being different or special or able to improve existing conditions. The words institution, organization or program can be used interchangeably with setting. In other words, a setting implies more than a physical setting (Sarason, 1976).

Agreement on values and strength in motivation are very important in creating settings but insufficient to achieve set

objectives. Systematic attention must be given to resources, skills, knowledge, history, and other factors in order to experience success in the creation of even the simplest setting. A further important aspect of a setting is a belief that major problems will be solved through a wide variety of alternative solutions (Sarason, 1976).

2. Culture can be defined as all of the systems, techniques, and tools which make up man's way of life (Abrahams & Troike, 1972). Culture is composed of the beliefs, habits, knowledge, and skills that are both learned and shared in the environment into which one is born. It is necessary for both physical and social survival. Man does not inherit instinctive skills as other lower animals do in order to be self-sustaining. They are acquired by being a member of a society (Chinoy, 1969).

3. Since sociologists cannot agree upon an acceptable definition of society, it would be presumptuous to lay claim to such expertise in this dissertation. However, a definition emphasizing structure of relationships of people is to be preferred above emphasis upon people per se.

Society refers to human association in many kinds and degrees of relationships. They may be organized or unorganized, direct or indirect, conscious or unconscious, cooperative or antagonistic (Chinoy, 1967). This whole scheme of social relationships is to be distinguished from the multiplicity of groups into which men design kinds of relationships. Some

special groupings may be an array of clubs, fraternities, lodges or professional organizations. These special social units are designed for specific purposes and not for a total common life found in the whole scheme of social relationships (Chinoy, 1967).

The Dictionary of Education adds a new dimension in saying a society is "an enduring, cooperating, social group (generally of human beings) so functioning as to maintain and perpetuate itself." This group may be similar or different in race and culture, but it has "clearly recognized common interests" (Good, 1973).

4. Inservice is the part of staff development which is concerned with activities planned by leaders in the creation of settings.² For inservice to take place it is necessary to have appropriate activities to accomplish specific purposes. There must be appropriate purposes geared to needs of the participating staff. Skill in program planning for instructional improvement is necessary (Harris & Bessent, 1969).

An important aspect of this descriptive definition includes the following:

Inservice education, then, is defined as being for both change and maintenance; planned and goal-directed rather than unplanned; achieved through personal changes, not changes in procedures and rules, structure, function, or physical environment; and accomplished through retraining, not replacement or reassignment (Harris & Bessent, 1969, pp. 16, 17).

²Definition given by Dale Brubaker in a conference.

5. It is preferred to use a descriptive definition of teaching in which certain aspects of teaching will be amplified. A clear but mechanical attempt is made to explain teaching in the Harvard Educational Review by first considering the subjects. Teaching only occurs where there are conscious subjects, unlike machines which can be programmed (Price, 1958). Scheffler says Price's definition leaves out of account cases in which teaching is aimed at developing propensities of conduct. Furthermore, Price says teaching succeeds when the use of students' sentences corresponds with that of the teacher. Such is not the case in philosophy, reasoning or scientific method. Also, different techniques for teaching, such as discussion, seminar and dialogue have been omitted (Price, 1958). Context becomes significant when defining teaching.

Both Reisman and Freud feel a need for narrowing the meaning of teaching. Anna Freud views an expansion of the teaching role to include emotional and social development as well as the intellectual growth of the student as overstepping the boundaries of teaching (Freud, 1952). The phrase "cumulative mediocrity" is used by Reisman to refer to the kind of teaching resulting from teachers trying to compensate for all the deficiencies children bring into the classroom. He coins the term "omnipotence" for the teacher who tries to do all things for the class (Reisman, 1954).

In addition to method, skill, style and control, the teacher must be alert to signs and symbols in teaching. The

implications of signs of posture, facial expression or tone of voice are not to be ignored by the teacher. Accurate perception of these cues provide much insight into the inner life of the students. Teachers cannot be oblivious to this multiplicity of natural signs coming to them. Just as important as facial expressions in conveying implications of the inner life are spoken words (Reisman, 1954).

6. An organization is a kind of social collective. When an informal organization develops systematic planning of activities, it becomes a formal organization in its own right with certain distinguishing elements. Among these elements are the objectives, purposes or goals which reflect the direction(s) in which the formal organization wishes to move. The public school can be categorized as a formal organization (Brubaker & Nelson, 1972).

Basic Assumptions About the Creation of Inservice Education Settings

Suppositions: (1) Public education is currently concerned with the "technical dimensions" of new inservice programs. "Technical dimensions" is defined as educational engineering that employs a "set of systematic techniques and accompanying practical knowledge, for designing, testing, and operating schools as educational systems" (Eisner & Vallance, 1974, p. 41). (2) There is greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical

(value) conceptions that form the base or superstructure for such change; and (3) inservice education could well profit from the creation of settings conceptual model described in this dissertation, for it encompasses historical, social, philosophical, and "technical dimensions" of change.

The suppositions of this dissertation are not suppositions in the scientific, experimental sense. Rather, they are suppositions to guide conceptual inquiry. The legitimacy of suppositions as used in this way is well established in the social sciences. An important change in the mode of research of many social scientists began in the 1940's when they emphasized descriptive field studies that focused on key organizing concepts. These holistic studies gradually replaced attempts to build universal theories.

In the following chapter the investigator will review related literature as it relates to the teacher in the school society.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature will include the studies of the inservice opportunities offered to teachers as shown in the model in figure 1. The study will encompass neither leadership needs nor teachers' decisions in relation to opportunities offered to teachers. These are broad areas of study in themselves.

Inservice Settings: Structure and Restructure

Don Davies in testifying before a Congressional subcommittee in 1967 said:

Inservice teacher training is the slum of American education--disadvantaged, poverty-stricken, neglected, psychologically isolated, whittled with exploitation, and broken promises and conflict" (Rubin, 1971, p. 38).

Though one could argue the statement is overdrawn, it does not negate the fact that basic assumptions of inservice need examination.

A Support System

The first section of this chapter will focus on suggestions for restructuring the organization of the setting to create better settings for inservice. It is possible to provide a support system for the teacher. In the present setting no reward results for better performance in the classroom. At the moment, the school operates on the assumption that it is

unnecessary to reward superior teaching. The kind of recognition or reward is not crucial; the critical aspect is that it be done. Further there is a failure to distinguish between the good and the bad teacher, implying that either we do not know the difference or that we do not care (Rubin, 1971).

Conant opposes the assumption that an alternative to the merit-rating system is the teacher's willingness to take additional courses, e.g., eagerness for self-improvement is not prima facie evidence of merit. The mere accumulation of college credits does not necessarily make a person a better teacher. He does feel that higher increments should be received after a teacher is tenured, and also for an earned master's degree based on four summer sessions or full-time residence (Conant, 1963).

Conant suggests two kinds of support systems: (1) Financial assistance should be provided for teachers attending summer school to complete an advanced degree. (2) School boards should provide a leave of absence with salary for persons working full-time toward a master's degree (Conant, 1963).

The basic assumption in Conant's ideas is that resources are adequate and available for teacher inservice. The primary justification for the creation of any new setting is that it will help others, and teacher education falls into this category. In this agreement is generally the assumption that there are sufficient resources or the promise of them.

Sarason labels this the "myth of unlimited resources" (Sarason, 1972).

Herzbert also lends credence to a support system in making a distinction between hygiene factors and motivators. The hygiene factors such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security are the causes of dissatisfaction. When these basic needs have been met, management must search for motivators, the primary causes of satisfaction. It is through achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, growth or advancement that individuals find the job enrichment necessary for fulfillment in life (Hampton, Summer & Webber, 1968).

After Sarason had spent thousands of hours in public schools, he realized that experienced teachers were less excited, stimulated or alive about their work than less-experienced teachers. He found the change in morale to result from the lack of intellectual and professional growth because of a paucity of stimulating settings in the schools (Sarason, 1972). Brubaker (1976) alludes to the fact that the increased number of tasks the teacher is expected to complete during the school day forces him/her into the role of a technician interested in how to get things done. The assumption is that the professionalization of teachers with its implications of professional decision making would work as a support system in itself.

One experienced teacher believes the creation of settings and inservice can help teachers learn self-affirmation, a necessary ingredient for a healthy self-image. A design for teacher education was proposed after reflecting upon past experience in the public school classroom: (1) Inservice should be held outside the school environment. It is this writer's belief that there is a demoralizing effect in providing inservice in the same environment in which the teacher has worked all day. (2) A restructuring of the school's master schedule is needed to provide a block of time for inservice training. (3) A positive support system is needed in educational leadership to reinforce teachers whether they have experienced success or failure (Shaw, 1974).

The assumption is that the teacher develops freedom within the context of honest support and feedback from superiors. Feedback given within the context of honest support assures that the receiver understands the feedback, accepts it as it is given, and is able to do something with the information received. It would be unrealistic to provide feedback that would not be helpful to the teacher.

Teacher Involvement

Rubin (1969) believes that inservice settings could be restructured in a way that the teacher as professional could be provided a more active part in the creation of inservice settings. This belief is predicated on the premise that our society has never acknowledged the true worth of a good teacher.

A practicing teacher makes an excellent educator of other teachers but has not been recognized as such.

The Center for Coordinated Education in California tested programs designed for professional growth. Five hundred teachers were trained to teach fifteen thousand students in grades 1-10. The finding was that outstanding teaching methods can be transferred from one to another (Rubin, 1969).

In transferring skills one must be careful not to make another teacher the exemplary model per se, or one assumes that to be more effective one must give up his identity and emulate someone else. In other words, the way to competence is not to become better but to become like someone else. Teaching will improve when the dignity of the person is honored (Strom & Galloway, 1967).

Teachers are made an important part of the creation of settings in the Title I Reading Center Program in Fort Lauderdale. Two weeks are spent at the beginning of each school year to introduce new materials or new teaching methods to be used during the fiscal year. In the ongoing inservice, teachers work in groups of two or three to discuss problems related to the disadvantaged children. Inservice is continued in weekly meetings held thereafter for the purpose of discussing problems or progress of the students (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974).

Group problem solving in professional decision making is very effective in producing quality solutions, in promoting

effective communication, and for innovation. Groups usually have a potential that can exceed a superior individual functioning alone. Such a potential is maximized when groups work cooperatively in "capitalizing on a total pool of information" (p. 323). A capable leader is needed to assure there is accurate communication, a sensitivity to unexpressed feelings, to protect minority points of view which may be vital for quality decisions, and to summarize (Hampton, Sumner & Webber, 1968).

Community Involvement

There are others who feel inservice should be changed through cooperative involvement. The basic assumption is that those who implement policy are accountable to the policy makers, and the policy makers are accountable to the community (Denmark, 1974). For this reason governance, management and operation, financing, staffing, and curriculum are concerns of the total community. The accelerated educational improvements in teacher education which affect these areas of concern can be realized through a partnership of all concerned (Denmark, 1974).

In the next decade teacher education will probably take place in the community. During the past decade we have witnessed a shift from the total curriculum and activities taking place inside the classroom to the classroom without walls, the community. There has been a shift from emphasis upon liberal arts or a general education to an emphasis upon career education. There has also been a change in the recognition of

cultural pluralism. Teaching is no longer relegated to one person; it is a cooperative function, including vertical and horizontal divisions of labor as well as the usage of outsiders (Bush, 1975).

Any community which is purported to be concerned with the interest of the community must also be concerned with the psychological sense of community. Such an experience cannot be realized when students are segregated for any reason (mental retardation or special education). The so-called humane actions on the part of individuals or institutions produce a social disease. Unless individuals experience mutual supportive relationships they struggle against feelings of anonymity and impotence (Sarason, 1974).

The Community Schools in Flint, Michigan, recognize that the educational system must not be segregated from life experiences. They operate on the premise that the home, family, and neighborhood influence what and how students learn. Their community education approach is as follows:

The process whereby the Flint Community Schools offer leadership and invite others to join in bringing together the community and its resources to improve the community's quality of life, particularly as it affects the opportunities for each individual to achieve his or her maximum development (Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, 1975).

An integral part of the philosophy is that everyone in the community is a learner and teacher, and the Centers for Community Education Development can provide needed information for these roles (Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, 1975).

Olson perceives schooling as an extension of the child-rearing process and the informal processes of the community. Therefore, the teacher's clinical experience should involve working with parent groups as well as with the school personnel. There is a concern that teachers respond to the school's surroundings. What a teacher is cannot be measured by degrees, travel experience or credit hours. Diploma inflation further confounds the problem. In other words, a list of credentials does not assure adequate assessment of what a person is and can do (Olson, et al., 1975).

The belief is that parents will be willing to pay for education when it represents scholarship. Here again is what Sarason labels the "myth of unlimited resources" (Sarason, 1972). A second belief is that there is both the quantity and quality of professionals needed to fill the positions.

The National Community Field Task Force assumes that as long as education is left to professional educators who maintain the status quo, there will be no change and no reform in American education. The Task Force recommends training the community to analyze its own needs. It is time that the community be planned "with" and not "for." The consumer must be involved in the change process, in formulating and clarifying goals and objectives, and in monitoring and evaluating the process and procedures (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974a).

Protests have taken many forms in the schools. There

have been repeated manifestations of student unrest and student demonstrations. There has been an increased interest in student rights and social justice. Communities have demanded control of the schools and have revolted against tax rates. At the same time, there has been a decrease of confidence in legislators, school boards, and educators to make the needed corrections in the school systems (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974a).

The Task Force sees a need for change and not reform. There needs to be a change in governance to include ethnic and racial minorities. Changes are needed in the character and quality of educational goals and objectives. Changes are needed in teaching techniques to include all people whether they have credentials or not. Mechanisms and procedures need to be changed in order to provide information to the total community (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974a).

The supposition is that an informal community is capable of making the right decisions. Minority groups, the poor, and the rural population have not been represented in school governance. We have many assumptions that need examination:

(1) That only the powerful, white, middle-class are successful, and all others should desire to emulate them. (2) That outside threats are to be dealt with through exclusion, through misconstruing viewpoints or by dilution. (3) That language and behavior patterns have been consistent with the needs of a homogeneous population (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974a).

Coordination of Preservice and Inservice

Other writers suggest that there be a coordination of preservice and inservice programs by the university. The belief is that these institutions determine preconditions for qualified teacher status. Another reason for relegating this responsibility to the university is the supposition that universities possess expertise in planning in an effective manner. Planning is a very essential element of any teacher inservice program. Further, inservice is better planned downward than it is upward from the teaching staff (Johnson, 1971).

State Control

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare singles out an agency rather than a multiplicity of institutions or concerned groups to improve inservice programs. This department believes the state is the best coordinator of inservice offerings. The basic assumption is that education is a function of the state and can best be developed through competent dynamic leadership at the state level. The shift to expansion of state operational responsibility is of recent origin and is an outgrowth of the inability of the Federal Government to perform this function. State education agencies are in a position to balance local, state, and Federal agencies (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974).

Cooperative Parity

LeBaron's opinion is that inservice offerings can be strengthened through cooperative parity. The supposition is that collaboration of interested parties in the development

of teachers is needed. Interested parties may be found among school districts, teachers, schools, colleges, or departments of education, state departments of education, administrative school personnel, and school boards. The collaborative effort involves consensus in philosophy, theory and finance, and joint governance and decision making (Hopkins, Davies, Aquino, 1975). Another teacher education model includes the college, federal government, industry, foundations, and independent research groups as imperatives in the goal setting and program operation of the future (LeBaron, 1970).

Ten models for elementary teacher education were analyzed in relation to national accreditation standards. The models are not operational realities at the present, but represent an idealistic conceptual model for change and improvement in teacher education in the future. The total package involves a direct relationship and continuity between preservice and inservice components. A person having completed the preservice program would enter teaching and advanced study for classroom teaching. Closely supervised teaching would be accompanied with courses taken on the college campus leading to an advanced degree. While the college would assume primary responsibility for teacher education, it would be necessary for the cooperative parity to furnish needed financial resources (LeBaron, 1970).

A model of cooperative planning for the continuous development of teachers is being implemented at the University of

New Hampshire. The five-year program emphasizes initial clinical experience, individualized programs, offerings in professional areas, a strong background in general education, and an internship of one year. The purposes of the program are to remedy defects in the education of teachers, to produce teachers with leadership potential, to involve the university in inservice, to produce a balance between teacher supply and demand, and to involve the community in planning (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974b).

There are at least seven underlying assumptions in the model of the University of New Hampshire worthy of being examined:

1. A good education is necessary to good teaching.
2. There is a general background of professional knowledge necessary for all teachers, regardless of the level on which they teach.
3. Learning to teach is a continuing process; therefore, more time should probably be spent proportionately on inservice than on preservice programs.
4. The most effective way to teach most things is to blend theory and practice. This makes the clinical and workshop experience very important in teacher education.
5. The clinical experience should provide gradual

entrance into full teaching responsibilities.

Therefore, it should be available throughout professional preparation.

6. The program should offer many alternatives whereby the teacher can become autonomous in her choice of philosophy and personal teaching style (U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974b).

Inservice Settings Processes

There are no national or regional standards to ensure quality or quantity of inservice programs in the public schools. The fact that approximately fifty percent of the teachers leave the field within the first five years of service warrants the questions "How well have we met the needs of the beginner? Were the programs that were needed made available to the teacher during the crucial years?" (Deighton, 1971).

The dissimilarity of programs and variation in ideas in the review of literature makes it difficult to summarize the findings. The reason for so many differences is that the problem has not been properly conceptualized (Sarason, 1972). The creators of settings are so distracted in the search for a solution to inservice deficiencies that they have at best an incomplete view of the problem.

Utilization of New Programs

The second part of the chapter will focus on inservice

processes within the organization. The first recommendation is to utilize new programs such as the Northwestern University's Tutorial and Clinical program which is new in concept and design. The basic assumption is that a change in view, organization, and procedures will result in needed improvement in teacher education. One weakness in present-day thinking is that policies and programs for teacher education should reside with pedagogical professions. Another notion is that teachers should be provided with segmented bits of knowledge from the subjects they will teach. Because of these weaknesses in thinking, the course of study becomes diluted, and in-depth scholarship is absent. The isolation of teacher education from the reality of schools must be corrected if teachers are to improve (Hazard, Chandler & Stiles, 1967).

In the plan of Northwestern University the elementary teacher takes advanced undergraduate work in two academic areas common to the curriculum in the elementary school. All formal courses in education are eliminated in favor of professional education received through tutorial and clinical experience (Hazard, Chandler & Stiles, 1967).

An experimental group of twenty-five inservice intermediate teachers was trained using the USU Teacher Language Protocol Modules covering twelve specific training behaviors. Teachers' performances before and after training were completed with fifteen comparable teachers in a control group. The

experimental group made significant gains on four of the behaviors. It was a surprise that the control group made significant gains in the twelve behaviors since teaching style generally remained fairly stable. There was evidence that teachers shared materials and learning experiences with the control group, thereby contaminating it. At the end of the study all teachers taught a four-hour unit, and student achievement was correlated with each of the twelve behaviors covered in the protocol modules. Achievement measures were significantly related to the teachers' use of defining, voice modulation, paraphrasing, and cueing. There was no correlation between the teachers' use of an opening review and terminal structure to the achievement measure (Borg, 1975).³

There is a belief that teachers can develop behaviors in the area of language that will improve pupil achievement. The degree to which the teacher can skillfully use multiple questions, define words, avoid vague words, use cueing, give summary reviews, and use other similar skills will determine the degree of achievement of the students (Borg, 1975).

Forty-three regular elementary classroom teachers (K-6) received inservice sessions one hour over a four-week period on learning disabilities. The Learning Disabilities Information Inventory was used as both a pre- and posttest. Twenty-

³Terminal structure occurs when near the end of a lesson, the teacher adds content or relevant information which has not been covered previously.

four teachers did not participate in inservice but did serve as a control group. An analysis of covariance with pretest scores showed inservice treatment did produce improved scores. A questionnaire completed by approximately fifty percent of the experimental subjects indicated they had benefited from inservice, and they had received materials and techniques that could be used in the classroom setting (Boeck & Foster, 1975).

The basic assumption is that inservice is a viable way to **diagnose** those who are learning disabled and to learn methods for working with them. Tied into this belief is the notion that there is a relatively easy solution to a complicated problem. The expert can describe the student with learning disabilities as well as provide practical materials and techniques in a four-hour inservice program. There is a failure to look at all of the ramifications of learning disabilities so that teachers experience little change. Materials and techniques will most likely be short-lived in their usage.

A similar idea to the above for an inservice setting was initiated by the district superintendents of seven school districts in the western part of the United States. To plan for the project in multicultural and ethnic groups at Pacific College were district superintendents, district parents, advisory groups, representatives of Pacific College, students, selected community members, and county school representation (Pacific College, 1976).

The supposition was that once teachers understand the

background, history, culture, and current problems of racial and ethnic minorities, instruction of the students will improve. The reasoning is that such an understanding is built upon respect for aspirations of minorities, and the special problems arising from mixed or predominately minority groups. With these understandings and appreciations comes a higher educational expectation from the students (Pacific College, 1976).

One inservice project in Portland, Oregon, has devoted much time to the development of goals, creation of sample units, and generation of an inservice model for career education for elementary and junior high teachers. The careers included are business, communications, building trades, art, home economics and related careers in fishing, farming, forestry, and careers in science. Career education for the fifth grade is designed for integration into the curriculum. The purpose is to learn as many job titles as possible and to know the responsibilities of the workers. The experience of the sixth grade is extended to include initial job experience. A student is given an opportunity to work with an adult in a chosen career for one day (David Douglas Public Schools, 1975).

The basic assumption is that children need help from teachers in order to think about themselves, their future and their career. The teacher has not done her best in making the child career-conscious. In order to have better success another subject need not be added. Career education is simply a way

of thinking and organizing one's teaching. Career awareness can be a part of almost any area of the curriculum--music, arts and crafts, reading, social studies and such (David Douglas Public Schools, 1975).

Bayfield et al. (1975) consider it important that there be teacher-competency in career education, developed through a "participant-oriented inservice program." Instructors in such programs must be ready to assist participants in stimulating interest and in recognizing needs. In keeping with the idea of competency, a manual was developed to help teachers learn concepts and principles relevant to teaching.

With the emphasis upon students' rights resulting from recent Supreme Court decisions has come an interest in developing programs to help meet the needs of students in mainstreaming. One of the Castro Unified School Districts in California assumes that teachers need new skills that inservice projects can provide. A second assumption is that participating teachers are capable of providing these skills. A third assumption is that a change of setting will provide a better environment for learning since the teacher will be away from the normal interruptions and distractions experienced in the classroom (Johnson & Radius, 1974).

Johnson and Radius provide a model for inservice as follows:

1. Identify the problem (a group process)
2. Set goals (resources are to be considered)
3. Set objectives
4. Select activities to accomplish the goals

5. Implement

6. Evaluate (a group process) (1974)

In the creation of inservice settings in Virginia, teachers were valued for their expertise as evidenced by their service in the 1974-75 Mini-Versity. Teachers taught many of the following courses:

Consumer Square

Reading for What?

Let's Go: The Smithsonian Institute

Future Is Now

An Un-Textbook Approach to Government

Librarians Are for Teachers

Puzzler's Delight

Mapping the School Grounds

Herstory

Historian As Detective

Looking at Culture Through Arts and Crafts

Simulation on a Grand Scale

Taking a Poll

Diagnosing Skill Needs

"Play" Is Not a Dirty Word

Gyps, Frauds, and Swindles

Bicentennial Anyone?

Families and Their Need

America's Heroes and Heroines

Mini's and Maxi's

Jazz Rock Culture in the 70s (Hawke, 1975)

Fairfax County agrees with the above premise--the best way to learn is from teachers teaching other teachers. A series of one-session courses were created in 1973, by teachers possessing special skills or interests worthy of being shared with other co-workers in the county. In order to receive credit, one attended at least seven classes (two-hour sessions) and submitted a paper at the end of the course telling how learning in the inservice program would be used in the classroom (Hawke, 1975).

After considering the purpose of the inservice program, the planners felt it necessary to eliminate "theory" and to deal with "practical" suggestions which were considered more beneficial to the participants. The program was viewed as successful even though neither level of commitment nor formal evaluation was alluded to in the abstract (Hawke, 1975).

Individualized Inservice

Arena (1974) believes that teacher education programs should be individualized. With the emphasis upon individualized instruction in the twentieth century has come an appraisal of individualized inservice offerings. One belief is that if teachers are asked to individualize instruction, it is important that they have an opportunity to learn the required skills in a model program which has the characteristics of good individualized instruction. Teachers who have seen individual instruction in operation and have at least one basis

of comparison will be more apt to implement the procedures (Olson, 1974). It is also assumed that individualized instruction is one way to reduce the amount of wasted manpower, time, and financial resources used in meaningless inservice activities (Arena, 1974).

The individualized inservice program has five major components:

1. Clearly stated performance objectives
2. A pretest to be administered to each participant
3. Several components for achieving each objective based on the individual's pretest
4. Monitored progress periodically
5. A recycling procedure available for participants who fail to attain required objectives (Arena, 1974)

The Seattle Public Schools participate in an individualized instruction workshop. For each twenty-five students there is a work facilitator who functions as a teacher. The computer-supporter learning management program is controlled by the facilitator. It is the responsibility of the facilitator to define the goals and objectives, adjust the objectives for individual differences, provide alternative learning strategies for each participant, organize the environment, interact with the learners so that they achieve the objectives and help participants decide on the next appropriate instructional steps (Olson, 1974).

A program which has some similarities to the individualized

programs is the Carnegie Professional Growth Program. The Board of Education in Portland, Oregon, worked on an inservice education program which they hoped would serve as a prototype to other school systems throughout the nation. The Carnegie Professional Growth Program developed over one hundred forty courses and workshops for teachers over a span of three summers. Experienced classroom teachers, with the aid of outside experts as needed, developed activities to achieve the set instructional objectives (Doherty, 1967).

The underlying premise is that the director has access to knowledge that is superior to that of others in the creation of settings. It has not taken into account the efficacy of the knowledge in different settings. Neither has it adequately analyzed the implications of implementation in terms of personnel, resources, and physical settings (Doherty, 1967).

Use of Research

A third recommendation is that research be used to improve inservice offerings. John Moffitt, looking at the processes of the organization, sees the injustices to children and youth continuing unless there is an increase in both the quality and quantity of inservice for teachers. Inservice, though based on teacher-identified needs, should be based on research findings as well as action research conducted by the teacher. Moffitt contributes the six-year "merit" study in his own school system at Provo, Utah, as a model that is built on research. The methods used in the Provo School System are basically

workshops, summer school, university extension, institutes, and school study councils. This model can have significant value in building a teacher's perception of the image of good teaching. Moffitt believes that in its present form the instrument is too cumbersome to be used effectively without memorizing much of the content. For that reason, refinement is needed (Moffitt, 1963).

The supposition is that research is more reliable than other sources of knowledge, such as observation, experience, inductive and deductive reasoning. Therefore, the most productive method for getting knowledge should be systematically developed within the schools. Teachers, because of their direct relationships with students, should provide one of the best positions for educational research. However, the consultant should be used to instruct teachers rather than teachers instructing themselves (Moffitt, 1963).

Laboratory Approach

Harris & Bessent (1969) and Steig & Frederick (1969) believe the laboratory approach could produce more effective inservice. The design of the laboratory approach incorporates five elements:

1. The participant is actively involved in problem solving.
2. Reality simulation is used to make the problem lifelike.
3. The nature of the responses of the participants

is produced and recorded in quantifiable data.

4. Feedback provides a way for the participants to know how their reactions contrast with those of larger groups.
5. Generalizations and implications for practice are arrived at through data analysis (Harris & Bessent, 1969).

There is a strong belief in the laboratory approach, because it supposedly attempts to turn theory into improved practice. The participants are highly stimulated and gain understanding. Solutions to the problems must be arrived at cooperatively in a democratic fashion (Steig & Frederick, 1969).

Maier (1963) encourages the use of group discussion for solutions to problems, but he provides some guiding principles for best results. The location of a problem must be identified in the situation, in the individual or in the group. It should be remembered that groups are less defensive when problems are stated in situational rather than in behavioral terms. A differentiation is to be made between the problem and the solution; sometimes issues are fogged by confusing the two. The statement of the problem should be brief and only one objective should be clearly specified. Disappointing are the results when several problems are attacked at once.

Competency-Based Teacher Education

There are others who believe competency-based teacher education is the most effective way to educate teachers.

Presently, at least thirty-two states are moving toward competency-based teacher education. These programs are adapted to career-long teacher education. The purpose of the system is to unite pre-service and inservice teacher education. The programs are more student centered, incorporate more activity, and are flexible. B. R. Joyce at Teachers College, Columbia University, estimated a cost of \$10 million to establish a statewide computer supported competency-based teacher education program (Donny, 1973).

The underlying premise is that certain criteria can be identified, and these criteria can be evaluated in teacher performance. However, those states participating in the programs are among the first to admit that they have no such precision. They are also quick to admit that there are competencies to measure, e.g., creativity or flexibility. Further, the lack of research is a deterrent to implementation of a statewide certification policy (Donny, 1973).

An examination of the basic assumptions relating to measurement of pupil gains has been made along with their limitations:

1. It is possible to objectively define desired pupil changes and to adequately measure them. No serious problem is apparent when changes in skills and information are being measured. There are apparent problems when trying to assess variables such as understanding, appreciation, ideals, and attitudes.

2. The ultimate goal of education is desired change.

Goals such as home and community membership and self-realization are more identifiable in mature persons. The extent of the classroom's influence on these goals has not been established.

3. Quantified pupil changes can be attributed total-

ly to the efforts of the classroom teacher. In

the first place, the child's total experiences have a bearing on his school success. Prerequisite foundations for learning facility are laid in earlier grades (Donny, 1973).

There is also the belief that an organized approach to continuing professional development produces more effective teaching, as evidenced by student gain. The five phases of a personalized competency referenced model of teacher education has been defined:

Phase 1 - The philosophy of the teacher

Phase 2 - Rationale--examination of assumptions,
values and cliches

Phase 3 - Set objectives

Phase 4 - Mastery of competencies

Phase 5 - Evaluation

Phases one and two comprise the theoretical framework, phase three the plan of action, and phases four and five the implementation of the plan of action. It is felt the best way to

implement the model is through a resource center where learning can be individualized and self-directed (Grady, 1976).

Teacher Behavioral Change in School Settings

Many writers see the goals of teacher education ultimately reached when the behavior of the teacher is changed. One writer believes the use of simulation as an inservice technique would change attitudes. The basic assumption is that the attitudes of the teacher affect those of the students. This places both a legal and a moral obligation upon the teacher to become involved in the integration process. (1) It can be assumed that ordinarily a teacher's behavior is orderly and consistent, emanating from reason. (2) It can also be assumed that behavior of a teacher can be changed with practice, the role of inservice. (3) It can be assumed that teachers wish to improve, eliminating their weaknesses and failures. (4) Teacher behavior results in a set of pupil behaviors. (5) Another assumption is that simulation will provide the kind of enthusiasm and motivation needed to change the participant (Robert, 1974).

Procedural steps were completed to show the effects of a structured inservice human relations training program on the effectiveness of teachers responding appropriately to student misbehaviors. A random selection of sixty teachers from Title I elementary, junior, and senior high school were used to assign persons to three experimental and three control groups. The assessment of coping behavior was made through three

nonreactive measures: the number of discipline cards, the number of psychological and counseling referrals made four weeks before the program, and the number made four weeks following the training program. The results showed there was a significant decrease in the number of psychological and counseling referrals, and fewer discipline cards at the elementary and junior levels (Sperry & Carter, 1974).

The assumptions are that a change in the teacher's attitude will result in a change in behavior. Secondly, the attitude change will be sustained over a long period of time. The theoretical framework was built on Jerome Bruner's idea that coping behavior is superior to defending behavior in problem solving (Sperry & Carter, 1974).

High impact experiences were used, and the human relations training centered around six behavior problems of the students. They were "rebelliousness, asocial values, alienating language, physical violence, attention getting, and misbehavior resulting from lack of teacher supervision" (Sperry & Carter, 1974).

There have been interesting trends in inservice education. During the outer space competition there was an emphasis on the cognitive development of the student and the teacher. As sociological and ideological conflicts developed, there was a decline in emphasis on cognitive development and a greater demand for affective development. Increasingly, it is being emphasized that educational innovations of the 1960's were

really manipulations of minor variables. Future inservice must look in the direction of exploring the teachers' attitudes, values and beliefs (Deighton, 1971).

An inservice program at Cornell University leaned heavily upon the thinking of Guilford in its attempt to measure creativity. The threefold purpose of the program was (1) to expose teachers to current theory and research and their implications for developing creativity in students, (2) to foster a more realistic view of creativity, and (3) to present materials and methods for encouraging creative thinking in students (Barody, Brumley, Hocevar & Ripple, 1976).

It is assumed that relating theory to practical application influences teachers' attitudes about creativity. A one-day inservice program was provided in a semi-rural school district in western New York. Two groups of teachers were provided three hours of inservice to examine the feasibility of influencing teachers' attitude toward creative problem-solving through brief sessions. A pretest and post-attitude survey on the Likert-type scale found significant positive changes in attitudes of nine of fourteen teachers (Barody, Brumley, Hocevar & Ripple, 1976).

Teachers were convinced of the need for developing creative thinking. They were more susceptible to the thought that many rather than a few possess creative potential (Barody, Brumley, Hocevar & Ripple, 1976).

Assessment of attitudes is very important. Attitudes

should be measured by a pretest before the workshop and after its completion to determine the amount of significant attitudinal thought. If positive change in teaching behavior occurs, there must first be a change in the teacher's attitude. This is a gradual process growing out of direct involvement in developing and evaluating the program. Growth is experienced through open discussion and interaction with people from divergent disciplines (Oregon State Department of Evaluation, 1974).

Examination of Teacher Belief Systems

Bridges and Reynolds (1968) suggest thinking about the belief systems of teachers. A study was used to examine the teacher's belief system on the receptivity to the trials of innovations. The article also examines the validity of "experience equals inflexibility." In the hypothesis that elementary teachers with open belief systems are more receptive to innovation are two major suppositions. The first is that the teachers have a set of beliefs about the nature of their roles and preconceptions about what constitutes both appropriate and inappropriate role functions. The second is that teachers differ in their degree of rigidity to a belief system and in the degree to which they will integrate new belief into a system which contradicts their operating belief system.

The major point made is that as long as we continue to stereotype teachers with more experience, we will continue to remove our greatest potential for re-shaping education in society. Experience is vital in anticipating potential problems

resulting from innovation. When these problems arise, the back-up strategies or repertory of instructional techniques of the experienced teacher can yield solutions that the inexperienced teacher does not have (Bridges & Reynolds, 1968).

Improving Communication Skills

In improving the communication skills of the teacher some writers believe there is improved teacher effectiveness. One inservice program was designed to improve cognitive skills of preschool Mexican Americans. The supposition was that communication through interrelationship is the way for formal learning to extend beyond the boundaries of the school. In order to capitalize on learning taking place in many settings, parental involvement was made an important part of the program. This incorporated into the program a link between parent, child, and staff (three-way communication) (Evans, 1975).

Another supposition of the Early Childhood Program is that persons skilled in the knowledge of education of young children, and persons aware of its goals and methods are essential parts of the program. Such a group, it is felt, can plan, develop and ultimately produce materials for young children based on their needs. Such a staff represents areas of speech pathology, linguistics, special education, early childhood education, and experts in curriculum and design (Evans, 1975).

Also, built into the program is the notion that shared experience is helpful in producing innovative processes and

products. There are shared resources with two other major learning systems of the Southwest Educational Developmental Laboratory. Such activity presupposes that other major systems will provide information, materials or processes which lead to a better end result (Evans, 1975).

There is also the supposition that self-awareness of factors influencing the teacher's behavior, as well as how these factors affect the student's achievement strivings, can produce a better learning process. The teacher brings to the classroom a constellation of motives, a self-perception, a pattern for viewing other's behavior, affects and attributions.⁴ The need to achieve, the need for power, the need for approval as well as the need for control are found in varying degrees in the teacher. Likewise, the student brings a set of personal factors. As the student and teacher interact, a new set of dynamics emerges. The psychological climate of the classroom is described in the terms of implicit and explicit communications between the teacher and the student. This relationship is soon described in terms of "hostile," "facilitative," "threatening" or "competitive" (Steward & Avis, 1975).

The psychologist is one of the best resource persons for developing human relations skills. Human relations skills do not refer to group therapy or sensitivity training. Rather,

⁴Affect refers to the emotional significance attached to any behavior. Attribution is the causal explanation for our own or other's behavior.

the focus is on usage of the knowledge of group dynamics centered around the interaction of the teacher and the child in the classroom. As a leader the psychologist uses the principles of group dynamics in facilitating communication between participants. Rules must be developed for discussion, and hindrances to effective discussion must be removed (Ryan, 1974a).

The underlying premise is that the psychologist can reach more youngsters by assisting more teachers. This framework design presupposes that influence of a leader has a positive effect upon the teacher. Through interaction horizontally with colleagues he/she experiences changed behavior which will most likely result in changed behavior in the student (Ryan, 1974a).

Harris and Bessent (1969) develop the concepts and skills of communication in human interaction. Three interviewing styles are used: directive and critical, laissez-faire, and nondirective and constructive. Feelings produced by the different interview styles were analyzed. The findings were that neither laissez-faire nor directive and critical approaches should be used to produce positive responses. Insights into the interviewee's perception of the problem is best obtained through the nondirective and constructive interview (Harris & Bessent, 1969).

Carl Rogers furnished the ideas used in the formulation or hypothesis in a study completed by Aspy and Roebuck. The

hypothesis is that "constructive personality change can be fostered in one person by a second person who is empathic, congruent, and valuing of the first person" (p. 165). Aspy's hypothesis is built upon the assumption that man has a potential to grow healthfully. The investigations showed a relationship between the teacher's levels of facilitative interpersonal conditions (empathy, congruence, and positive regard) and cognitive processes (attendance, academic achievement and intelligence measures). One of the most significant implications for inservice is that teachers receive the most effective training from persons who exhibit high level facilitative conditions (Aspy & Roebuck, 1974).

Distinguishing Between Interests and Needs

Other writers suggest that a distinction be made between interests and needs of a teacher. The "generic" training approach makes the distinction for important reasons. When interests are satisfied, there is little visible change in the school district (Beckerman, 1976). There is a schema which must be followed in the creation of settings and inservice if they are to be successful:

1. Identify needs
2. Set a goal
3. State objectives
4. Select activities
5. Evaluate (Otto & Erickson, 1973)

Even though we have no regional standards for inservice, we

have commonly accepted procedures for planning and implementation. Among these procedures are carefully identified needs of the staff (Deighton, 1971).

The American education revolution began using terms like "relevancy," "flexibility," "self-worth," "humanism" and "individuality." As politicians and taxpayers became more disgruntled, the word "accountability" slipped into educational jargon. Attention became focused on the quickest and best way for staff development. Hundreds of articles have been written in the 1970's on staff development, looking at goals and objectives, needs assessment, evaluation, and other related areas (Davies & Armistead, 1975).

The educational revolution in America stood along with the industrial and democratic revolutions in transforming lives of modern Western civilization. Yet, education at the moment is in grave trouble. Campuses have been involved in political activity and disruptive dissent over academic life. At the moment there is an ominous quietude. Yet, higher education has not determined its future course in view of the recent upheavals (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973).

Inservice Education and the Future

Perhaps the greatest problem to face, along with the elementary and secondary schools, is the traumatic sense of loss of assured progress with a subsequent better future. The Golden Age of higher education lies in the past, and we wonder where the new cynicism and pessimism may lead us (Carnegie

Commission on Higher Education, 1975).

Second, higher education must continue to examine its position in inservice. There will be at least three other dilemmas to be faced in the future. One is the new financial depression following the prosperous 1960's. It is more difficult to adjust to a cut in finances than to adjust to a new prosperity. Another shock to higher education has been a growing segment of American society since colonial times. It will be difficult to adjust to problems created by a sudden decline (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1975).

Higher education has more benefits to offer society than ever. It can help more people become participants in a democratic society. It is capable of functioning in a pluralistic way, thereby assuring diversity and creativity in a future world with more leisure. An improvement in the performance of higher education improves the welfare of the American society (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1975).

Goodman recommends that students be provided a two-year maturing activity at which time the college applicants are employed. Such activity would provide enough life experience for students to be educable on college level, especially in the humanities and in the social sciences. At the present, students have no break from the lockstep of twelve years of assigned work for grades. With the extended amount of schooling we are requiring, students need a change from spirit-breaking

and regimentation by providing breaks and return points (Goodman, 1962). Again, we are dealing with the "myth of unlimited resources" (Sarason, 1972).

Third, teacher education centers will continue to hold a prominent place in inservice. They have a future because they can serve as the input for knowledge necessary for professionalization. A knowledgeable public and an education profession will develop a responsive decision-making system. The teacher centers have the best vehicle for professionalizing teachers, educating the public and repoliticalizing education. This is made possible because the centers support cooperation, the sharing of resources, the merging of theory and practice, the merging of inservice and preservice and individualization (Yarger, 1974).

The teacher centers seem to be the most promising of recent innovations. They have had endorsement from the 1972 Task Force of the U. S. Office of Education, the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, and the United Federation of Teachers (Bell & Peightel, 1976).

Fourth, teacher development must continue to receive vigorous attention. Since the word inservice is very often disliked, likes of teachers must be given consideration. Bell and Peighton (1976) list six things teachers want from inservice:

1. To explore new methods, develop skills, try new materials in a nonthreatening way

2. To develop alternative learning environments.
3. To meet teachers' needs.
4. To work in informal, nonthreatening environments.
5. To improve basic teaching skills.
6. To explain new methods, media, and materials.

Hilmar, of the University of Texas, offers ten suggestions for making inservice meetings enjoyable experiences for teachers. The suggestions are as follows:

1. Teachers like to be actively involved in meetings.
2. Teachers enjoy demonstrations of various techniques which can be used in teaching.
3. Teachers like information that is practical.
4. Teachers like meetings that are meaningful and brief.
5. Teachers like to deal with one concept in depth.
6. Teachers like meetings that are organized.
7. Teachers enjoy variety in inservice.
8. Teachers want an incentive for attending a meeting whether it is for credit, salary increment or certification.
9. Teachers enjoy an inspirational speaker sometimes.
10. Teachers like to observe in other schools which have organization similar to their own (Davies & Armistead, 1975).

Attention will continue to be given to the teacher as a person. Professor Arthur Jersild of Teachers College, Columbia

University, was working with a committee on upgrading the curriculum within the next ten years. He placed the problem in stark perspective when he said the crucial need for teacher development is not more knowledge or teaching techniques. The most important thing is the kind of teacher in the classroom and his/her ability to respond to students' problems. For teachers, he thinks, can maintain a clinical attitude toward nonacceptable student behavior. Only those teachers who can handle their own problems and have reached a high level of emotional maturity can work most effectively with students. For this reason, only teachers who are pronounced as "emotionally" fit by the psychoanalyst or psychologist should be permitted to teach (Davies & Armistead, 1975).

Fifth, and most important is that it is critical that there be an exploration of alternatives for inservice programs. The articles indicate that nearly all writers deal with solutions based upon assumptions without really defining the problem. In reality there should be a reversal in that far more time should be spent on problem definition than on solution.

Sixth, there is a move toward the human side of inservice. The theme for the schools in Birmingham, Michigan, is "Humaneness in Education." "To encourage effective interpersonal skills" is one of the goals of the Los Angeles Unified School District. Georgia State University emphasizes

the importance of warmth and personal interest in students as necessary characteristics for teacher effectiveness (Davies, 1975).

The second section of the review of related literature gives information showing how the new inservice education model emerged. The first subdivision describes the Sarason model, the second division the Brubaker model, and the third section presents the new model.

The Sarason Model

More settings have been created in the past few decades than in the entire previous history of the human race. Unfortunately, most of these settings have experienced failure. Sarason concluded that the creation of new settings is rarely ever covered in literature. Large-scale studies are generally concerned with mature settings and how they function. It was his purpose to learn about the origins, thinking, processes, and social contexts that caused new settings to succeed or to fail. His interest was in identifying the kind of leadership required as well as financing needed in the new setting. Sarason offered the following detailed analysis of the social processes for creating any setting:

1. The before-the-beginning stage
 - a. Explanations for new settings
 - b. Basic assumptions

- c. Confronting history
- 2. The beginning stage
 - a. Choosing the leader
 - b. Formation of the core group
- 3. The setting--implementing goals (Sarason, 1972)

In his analysis of social processes for creating any setting Sarason found that members of new settings oversimplify or ignore the realities they face. They operate on the false premise that agreement on values and a high level of motivation will surmount or prevent future difficulties (Sarason, 1972).

The before-the-beginning stage is the germinal period in which a setting can be explained in the context of its creation and development. The setting may be explained in terms of a single dominant personality; that is, the history is explained in terms of one person's intellect, motivations and temperament. A second kind of explanation is wrapped up in the word Zeitgeist. That is to say, the setting reflects what is in the air, and what is in the air is derived from the existing social structure. A third explanation is given in terms of a combination of a dominant personality and the Zeitgeist (Sarason, 1972).

There are basic assumptions in the before-the-beginnings considerations that are generally unanalyzed. New settings are generally preoccupied with the implications that the new setting has a "superior" mission and fail to look critically

at false assumptions. An assumption that acquisition of power is sufficient to implement goals is often false. Sarason cites Castro's Cuba as an example of agreement on values with attendant power to implement the goals without goals being achieved. Castro did not have an adequate resource base with which to implement the goals (Sarason, 1972).

Sarason gives three aspects of confronting history. The first way is determining one's relationship to the present setting rather than attributing it to a chance factor. In a given setting one is involved or has implied actual or potential relationship to many other settings. A second aspect of the term confronting history is that a person is dealing with structured relationships. A new setting has relationships among diverse but related settings. The third aspect of confronting history is that the individual or small group creating the new setting is responsible for maximizing the historical knowledge in order to make the new setting more consistent with its values and goals (Sarason, 1972).

The second stage of the new setting is the beginning. Two major problems are to be considered during this stage. The first problem is the choice of a leader. Whether the setting emerges from the ideas of one person or from an existing organization of settings it is necessary to have a leader. The often-stated preference is to choose from the "ranks," because the leader possesses knowledge about the earliest

phases of the setting. Whether the leader is chosen from inside or outside the ranks, morale problems can be anticipated. How successfully the setting operates will, in large part, be determined by how well this problem is anticipated and how well strategies are outlined for problem resolution (Sarason, 1972).

A second problem to be given consideration in the beginning stage is the selection of the core group. The group becomes the leader's family to whom he delegates responsibilities and powers. For this reason, they must be able to live together and to determine personal needs that clash with group goals. There is often the shared fantasy in an informal group that it can be transformed into a formal group and remain so congenial that it can bypass troublesome situations requiring the establishment of ground rules for dealing with them. Ideological commonality and value acceptance do not guarantee there will be no conflict in implementation of goals (Sarason, 1972).

The creation of settings must be involved in anticipating diverse interacting sources. The communication problem is generally handled when feelings are high and smoldering because ground rules have not been laid for handling conflict. It is fashionable to attribute interpersonal conflict to differences in personality (Sarason, 1972).

The third stage of the setting is focused on the goals and activities of the leader and the core group. There is the belief that the mission of the group is superior to existing

ones and those participating in the new setting are the "good guys." The primary justification for the group is the claim that it is to help others (Sarason, 1972).

There are generally several assumptions within the context of the setting: (1) That the appropriate kind and degree of motivation will be sufficient to overcome all obstacles. (2) That there is agreement on the values and the goals. (3) That there are enough human and material resources available to realize the goals (Sarason, 1972).

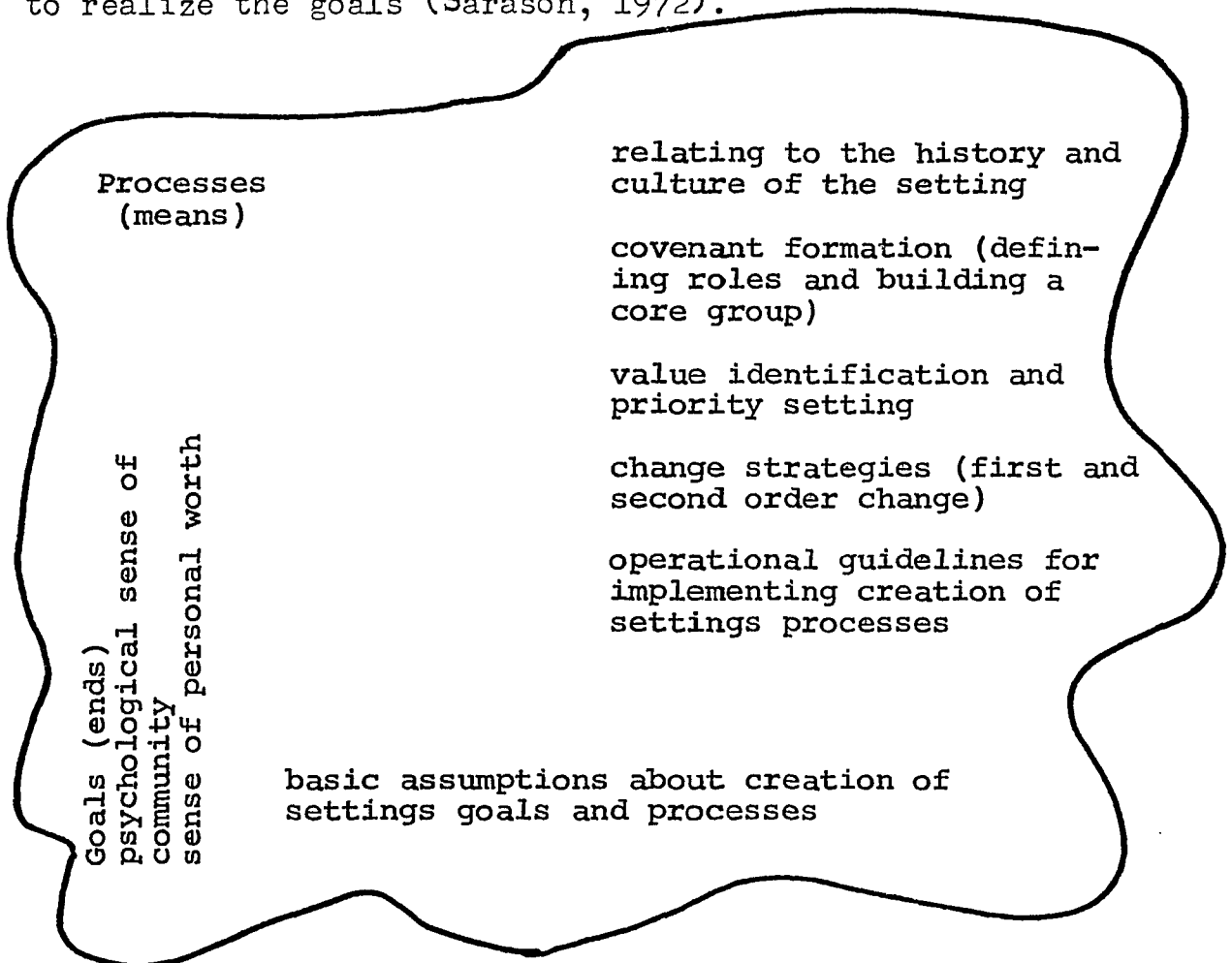


Figure 2. Creation of Settings Goals (Ends) and Processes (Means): An Analytic and Programmatic Model

The Brubaker Model

Brubaker also produced a model to be used for analytic and programmatic purposes. The Brubaker model identifies four key processes: confronting the history of the setting, covenant formation, building a core group, value identification and priority setting, and the development of change strategies. The model identifies two goals: psychological sense of community and sense of personal worth. Basic assumptions about creation of settings goals and processes form the underpinnings for the practical operational guidelines for implementing creation of settings processes. This model is presented in Figure 2 (Brubaker, 1976).

Brubaker (1976) believes it to be a part of man's condition that he enter into human covenants with persons and organizations. Those who enter into covenant relationships believe there is something to be gained by committing oneself to a course of action. Covenant formation involves honest and open communication between the core group and the leader and/or tacit consent. Honest discussion is necessary to anticipate and to react to problems and dilemmas. (He distinguishes between problems and dilemmas; problems can be solved but dilemmas must be reconciled, in effect, requiring a higher tolerance for ambiguity.) It is also in the covenant formation process that the core group clarify the role it plays (Brubaker, 1976).

Human covenants vary in intensity and duration based on the degree of commitment to a relationship. There are four

kinds of covenants which tell something about a person's values and priority setting:

1. Covenants with little intensity, brief duration.
An example would be a visiting speaker in the social studies class.
2. Covenants with high intensity, brief duration.
An example would be a discussion focused on a controversial issue.
3. Covenants with little intensity, long duration.
The teacher's relationship with personnel in the central offices of the school system serve as an example.
4. Covenants with high intensity, long duration.
The leader and core group assume this rarest kind of personal covenant, involving openness and risk taking (Brubaker, 1976).

Brubaker (1976) also makes a distinction between first order and second order change in the change process as shown in figure 2. Most changes are of the first order in that the more settings change the more they remain the same. Second order change is aimed at massive changes or implosions within an organization.

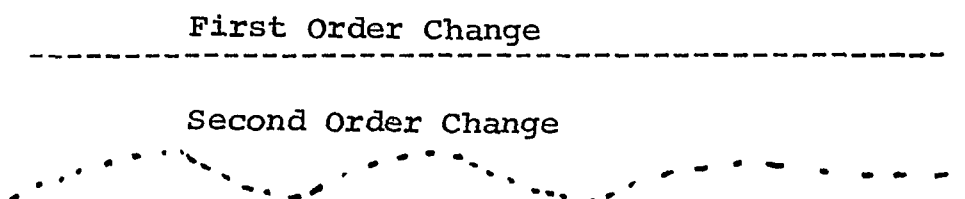


Figure 3. First Order and Second Order Change:
A Cross Sectional View

The New Model for Creation of Inservice Education Settings

Based on the review of the related literature it is the

writer's opinion that there is an obvious need for an analytic and programmatic model for the creation of inservice education settings. There are certain aspects of both the Sarason and Brubaker models that are useful in developing a model that would be useful for analytic and programmatic purposes. One is what Sarason labels before-the-beginnings or Zeitgeist (what is in the air) and Brubaker has called confrontation with history or awareness of culture and tradition. In the model the antecedent influences refer to experiences in preceding inservice settings which directly influence the new setting.

There is much insight to be gained from antecedent influences. They provide an understanding of possible acceptance or rejection of the new inservice setting. They apprise the leader and the core group of how many people from the old setting recognize a need for the new setting and whether or not the need for change was voiced and initiated by those within or outside the setting. They provide insight about the group's recognition (or lack) of the importance of giving attention to the covenant formation process. They make it possible to try to understand assumptions, conceptions and theories of those who give leadership to the old setting. In this careful examination it is possible to understand that parts of preexisting complicated structures of relationships will work against creation of the new setting and parts will work for the creation.

Antecedent influences help those in the new setting to define their roles. They understand that being a leader is a part of the natural history of events and/or a matter of chance. In open communication a realistic look is taken at the assumption that all are capable of leadership in the new setting. Also, the leader anticipates ways to resolve and reconcile conflict and competition between the old and the new setting.

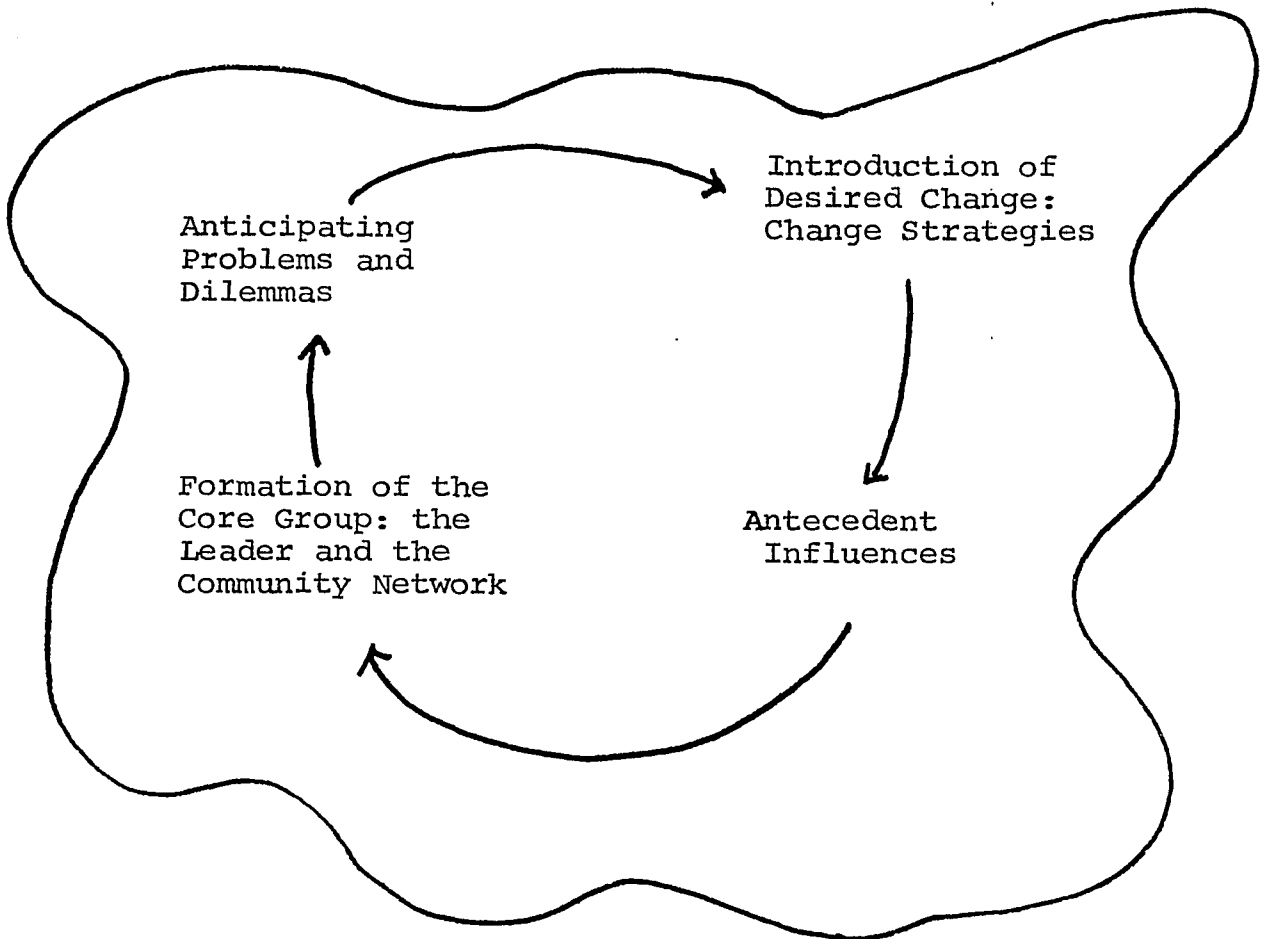


Figure 4. A New Model for Creation of Inservice Education Settings

Inherent in the relationship is what Brubaker (1976) labels "symbiotic relationship," that is, the relationship between personal growth and growth of the setting. As we open corridors of interests and ideas with those around us, we arouse natural curiosity, stimulate thinking, and generate problem-solving skills. In short, the growth process is for mutual benefit. (The new model is shown in figure 3.)

While Brubaker (1976) alludes to the interaction process, the new model is more explicit in terms of the interaction process within the setting. Both the fluid design and the arrows give a clearer representation of the continuous interaction within the model.

The new model also contains a new dimension in the section referred to as choice of a leader, the formation of the core group, and the community network. Sarason and Brubaker view the community network as a source of available resources through informal channels; but the community networks, the leader and the core group are regarded as separate entities. For example, universities have been far removed from the local communities in making meaningful contributions to teacher preparation. Likewise, communities have had little to do with teacher preparation other than through placement services or consultation. The new model not only makes it possible to unify effort for common goals, but it also contains a repertoire of ideas.

Implicit in the exposition of Sarason and contained in

the model of Brubaker is anticipation of problems and dilemmas. The new model has made it explicit; otherwise, there could be devastating results. One example is anticipating the feelings of euphoria in the new setting with the concomitant "sense of a superior mission" and thus averting alienation of members of the old setting from the new or vice versa. Another example is awareness of the basic assumption that there are adequate human and material resources to realize the goals (what Sarason calls "myth of unlimited resources"). The new model contains safeguards against unsuitable behaviors.

Present inservice programs are preoccupied with the present and give little or no consideration to future problems and dilemmas. The most obvious prediction for public school systems is that there will be problems in staff development in the future. When they will arise and what the exact nature will be is not so predictable. There is a greater problem when troublesome issues are not anticipated and ground rules have not been developed for dealing with them. The new model makes it compulsory to give proper attention to the future and to anticipate troublesome issues.

A fourth part of the superstructure of the creation of settings education model is change strategy (first order and second order change). While Sarason is fully aware of the difficulty of initiating change, he does not deal with strategy as such. Brubaker includes change strategy as a part of the process of the creation of settings model. He focuses

on first order and second order change, showing that most changes are first order in nature. The r-a factor becomes the distance between second order rhetoric and the first order change or action. The emphasis in the new model is on change of attitude toward self and others. It is unlike the conventional inservice workshop model in that it is aimed less at technical dimensions and more at development of human beings. In the new model, teachers develop their own resourcefulness and depend less upon hardware and software materials. (A representation of the conventional workshop is given in figure 5). The focus of the new model is upon a

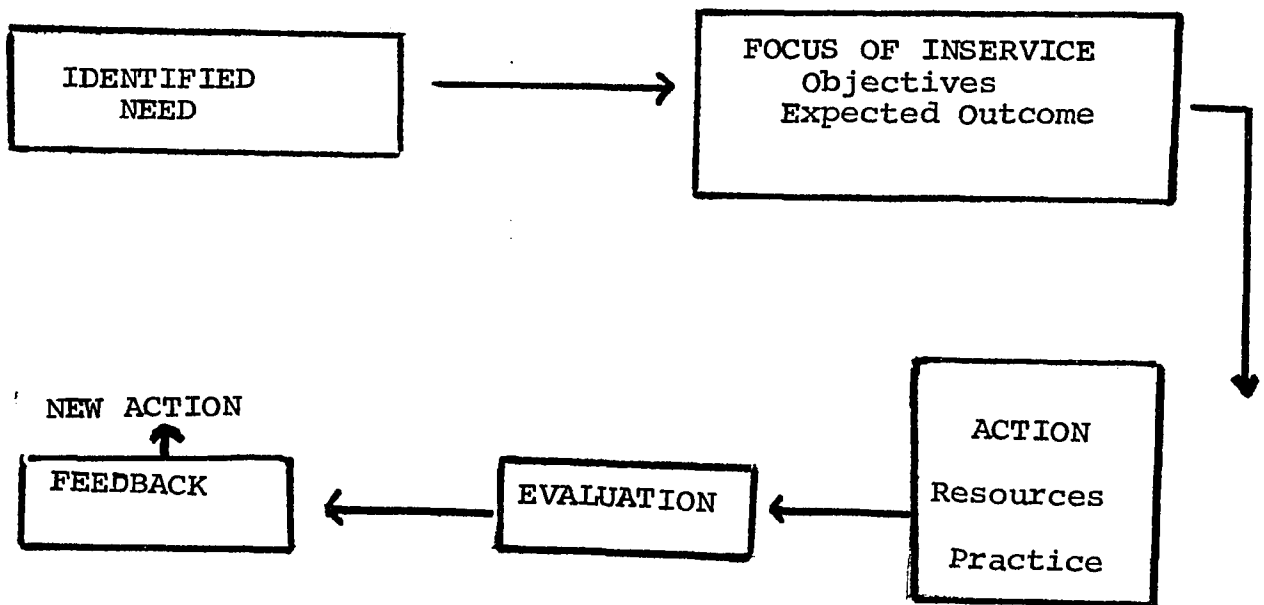


Figure 5. A Model of the Conventional (Traditional) Inservice Workshop

new attitude toward academic subjects and learning as well as being a person in one's own right. The model also provides greater chances for second order change because the leader, core group, and community work together in reaching the goal. They act as constant reinforcers for one another. When there is a commitment to common goals and enjoyment in the work, the chances for change are greater.

In summary, the conventional model could be used to provide an option for those teachers who are satisfied with the industrial model in learning new skills in a given workshop. It cannot be used for programmatic and analytic purposes, for it is too narrow in scope. This abbreviated model concerns itself with a segment of inservice rather than the whole. Furthermore, the emphasis is upon learning a particular skill. Little or no regard is given to the fact that the teacher can become a producer as well as a consumer of skills. Since the focus is upon consumer skills, little attention is given to the benefiting audience other than the student in the classroom.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

In chapter I the investigator defined terms and stated suppositions of inservice education. In chapter II basic assumptions of inservice education and a conceptual model based on the ideas of Sarason and Brubaker were presented. The purpose of the present chapter is to carefully examine the stated suppositions: (1) Public education is presently concerned with the technical dimensions of new inservice programs; (2) there is greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical (value) conceptions that form the base or superstructure for change; (3) inservice would well profit from the creation-of-settings conceptual model described in this dissertation. The investigator's findings in studying three inservice programs in three North Carolina cities in the Piedmont area will be cited in inquiring into the three suppositions.

Technical Dimensions of Inservice

Public education's concern with the technical dimensions of new inservice programs was clearly demonstrated as the investigator studied inservice education in three North Carolina cities. In order to form a profile of each system's activities in inservice education, the investigator (1) studied

job descriptions of persons officially responsible for inservice education and (2) interviewed persons holding such official positions. The investigator quickly became conscious of discrepancies between written materials, such as job descriptions, and what was perceived as happening by participants in inservice programs. In the first part of the discussion of technical dimensions of inservice, the investigator will identify and elaborate on the reasons for the discrepancy between administrative rhetoric and actions within educational settings.

The major discrepancy between job descriptions or, for that matter, written materials emanating from a school system's central office and what is actually expected and done on the job may be stated as follows: rhetoric is much more philosophical and abstract than job performance requirements. Most of the rhetoric is in the tradition of humanistic education with the leader described as a caring person motivated by good will and justice for all.⁵ The investigator does not interpret this as an attempt to mislead persons interested in schools. Rather, it appears as if the humanistic rhetoric supports a larger myth in our culture--the myth that the leader is a good leader if he is "on a white horse" or set apart from the crowd because of higher moral values. In our culture

⁵For a discussion of the humanistic tradition in education, see Zahorik, J. and Brubaker, D., Toward more humanistic instruction. Dubuque, Iowa: William Brown, 1972.

it is more socially acceptable for the leader to be viewed as one who denies himself rather than one who indulges himself, who is too ambitious or who is self-aggrandizing. Consider, for example, the following excerpts from the job description for the position of Director of Staff Development--the position that holds its occupant officially accountable for inservice education leadership in the system.

Statement of Belief Staff development is all effort (self-initiated, school-initiated, and/or system-initiated) directed toward narrowing the gap between "where we are now" and "where we need to be" in staff development for any individual or group in the school system; the ultimate is never reached. System-wide priorities are reflected in staff development activities offered, and staff development effort evaluated in terms of actual outcomes for students. Core emphases through the system's staff development program are: realistic and on-going assessment of program and personnel needs; identification, training for diversification in uses of time, space, materials, equipment, and to match the wide range of differences that do exist; building productive relationships among all persons who affect, and who are affected by school programs.

The more philosophical humanistic rhetoric also serves a second purpose: it is general enough to entertain ambiguity, conflict, frustrations, and other characteristics faced by the inservice leader in educational settings. In short, this rhetoric is a kind of secular-religious language that leaves little to criticize, thus providing a common bond for all persons interested in schools.⁶ It is oil for public

⁶Robert Michaelson, like John Dewey in his book, A common faith, speaks about the public schools as America's secular churches: See Michaelson, R., "America's Two Religions..." in Brubaker, D. (Ed.), Social studies in a mass society. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1969.

relations machinery.

Third, rhetoric by nature is idealistic--a statement of the way things should be so that interested parties have something toward which to aspire. In reality, there are always limited resources (Sarason, 1976). It assures continuous progress, at least rationally, within the organizational structure. One school official was asked if he felt there were enough human and financial resources available within his school system to build a good inservice program. His spontaneous reply was, "Sure I do." He demonstrated a belief in the availability of personnel and finances, regardless of the level of quality needed to implement inservice programs.

The values of the administrative leader are not necessarily the values within the organization, so the distance between rhetoric and action of the leader becomes pronounced. Complete agreement between the administrative leader and the people is impossible in a democratic society. Administrators capitalize on positive terms like "school-based inservice," "facilitative leadership" and "supportive role." They often prefer to avoid or use sparingly negative terms such as accountability or compulsory inservice. In the rhetoric in one school system, no one is forced to participate in inservice programs. In reality no one is exempted.

A fourth reason rhetoric and actions are distant is that not facts and reasons but emotional desires primarily stimulate human behavior. Man believes what he wants to believe.

That is not to say he is rational or irrational; he is both. For example, one school official stated there were no problems related to inservice in the system; if there were any, he was unaware of them. Consequently, there was no need to anticipate problems and dilemmas.⁷

Evidence of irrationality is viewed in the nature of attempted problem solution in the public school system. Schools, like society, are in persistent pursuit of short cuts or easy solutions to monumental problems. Teachers want courses in tricks or short cuts to success when, in truth, there are none. New games, ideas for centers, techniques for cutting letters, unforgettable jingles or entertaining speakers generally do not bring the long-term desired results.

A fifth reason for the discrepancy between rhetoric and action is the lack of a holistic approach. In the attempt to rank needs there is a heavier concentration in certain areas of the curriculum than others. In elementary schools, the areas of curriculum having received the most attention in the past three years were reading and mathematics. As one school official related, parents express concern about reading and math.

A sixth reason for discrepancy between rhetoric and

⁷See Sarason, S., The creation of settings and the future societies, chapter 4, for a detailed study of anticipated problems and dilemmas.

action is cultural influences in technetronic societies.

Sarason makes the point that those creating settings are unable to detach themselves from cultural ways of thinking.

...The social context from which a new setting emerges, as well as thinking of those who create new settings, reflects what seems 'natural' in the society. And what seems natural is almost always a function of the culture to a degree that usually renders us incapable of recognizing wherein we are prisoners of the culture. Those who create new settings always want to do something new, usually unaware that they are armed with, and will subsequently be disarmed by, categories of thought which help produce the conditions the new setting hopes to remedy (Sarason, 1976, p. XII).

Mass media try to sell products by promising gratification through intense and enduring relationships. The products, however, do not ensure such interpersonal covenants. Rhetoric and reality are not congruent.

Max Weber in Essays on Sociology alludes to a kind of far-reaching ramification of cultural effects in what he terms rationalization of education and training. The major point is that education has produced the cultivated man in the value-neutral sense, but bureaucracy has made it necessary to produce trained men with special skills. He writes:

We cannot here analyze the far-reaching and general cultural effects that the rational bureaucratic structure of domination, as such, develops quite independently of the areas in which it takes hold (Sieber and Wilder, 1973, p. 19).

The rationalization for specialization with the bureaucratic organization is that it enables a business to accomplish

things it would not otherwise do. One person cannot understand the total system of an organization or perform all its tasks. With a division of labor a person is able to have mastery of a job and to operate with greater efficiency. It also affords an opportunity to employ persons with limited training capacity. A person possessing limited over-all ability can train himself for a specialized job.

Staff differentiation is viewed as a technique to promote specialization for pupils through individualized instruction in one school system studied by the investigator. In differentiated staffing it is legal to give up one or more roles to afford the building in of alternative roles. For example, one teacher may be exchanged for two full-time aides or for five year-long, full-time interns. There is generally an administrative hierarchy with the team leader holding the highest positional authority.

A second example of cultural influence is emphasis upon science and technology. The strongest pressures for reform in curriculum since Sputnik (1957) have been in the areas of science and mathematics. Public reaction, especially among the university people, has supported the view that an insufficient number of scientists have been trained, and the educational system has been held accountable. The rationalization for change in curricula was that improved teaching techniques and new curricular content would generate interest in professional and technical occupations related to

science and mathematics.

As a result of these pressures, there has been an effort to emphasize teaching materials. An inventory of supplies for science and mathematics in the schools would convince the observer that many materials such as overhead projectors, motion pictures, filmstrip projectors, cassettes, televisions, Dukanes, headsets, opaque projectors, mimeograph and thermafax machines, drymount presses, filmstrips, records, tapes, and teacher-made materials are standard equipment for any elementary school. When recommendations for improvements in science and mathematics were made during the last evaluation by Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, one principal was appalled by the number of hardware and software materials teachers wished to add to the already burgeoning collection.

TRIAD Teacher Corps Consortium Program is in its developmental stage in Piedmont North Carolina. The purpose of TRIAD is to make preservice and inservice a continuous process through shared ideas and activities between the school system, the University of North Carolina at Greensboro and North Carolina State Agricultural & Technical University. One of the three major areas of curriculum being explored in the program is mathematics.

A third example of cultural influence on inservice which seems to emerge as a natural function of culture is career education. It is a basic assumption of society that continuous

economic growth demands technological expansion, and the ability to apply scientific knowledge requires higher levels of education. Since 1971, career education has continued to expand and has received the endorsement of nearly every educational organization as well as the U. S. Office of Education. The rationalization for heavy support of career education by the federal government is that the gap between the rich and the poor will be reduced, reducing social and economic problems.

One city system studied has designed DOSO (Drop-Outs Stamped Out) to prevent waste of human potential by developing a program to change attitudes of students. Career exploration is an essential part of the curriculum outline. Preparing Regional Occupational Personnel For Better Education (PROBE), a regional federally-funded project is shared by two of the school systems investigated. The assumption of the programmers in occupational education is that there should be individualized inservice for occupational teachers. As teachers develop technical skills, they rationalized, they will impart the skills to students participating in career education.

In summary, the investigator found discrepancy between rhetoric and actions of new inservice programs. It is felt there are six reasons for these findings: (1) Rhetoric is more philosophical and abstract than job performance requirements. (2) Philosophical humanistic rhetoric is general

enough to entertain ambiguity, conflict, and frustrations.

(3) Rhetoric by nature is idealistic. (4) Emotional desires stimulate human behavior. (5) Inservice programs lack a holistic approach. (6) Inservice programs reflect what is natural in society.

Inservice has responded well to the cultural outgrowths of society. It has enabled the educational organization to function with a division of labor; it has sought improved techniques for handling curriculum; it has endeavored to narrow the economic gap between the rich and the poor; but in so doing, it has reduced human efficiency. Professionals have learned to manage technological machines and gadgets. They have developed proficiency in the operation of technological resources, even to the point of adapting medical jargon used in the therapeutic and diagnostic arts. With the emphases upon techniques and technology has come the reduction of internal strengths and commitment to human resource. We are much more accustomed to the question "Does it work?" than the question "Where did this idea come from anyway?" And, yet, beginning intentions and conceptions of reality held by those who create settings influence every stage of a setting's history.

Products of Educational Change

The purpose of the second part of this chapter is to analyze the inservice programs of three of the larger cities

in Piedmont North Carolina in light of the second supposition. It states: There is greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical (value) conceptions that form the base or superstructure for change. One could argue that the educational philosophy is inextricably woven into the educational setting. We do not have the kind of school we desire because it is an expression of the history and the culture of the people. Whatever one's position, the fact still remains that the school system is an organization or collectivity of individuals that should know where it is and where it wishes to go. It appears necessary to have a philosophy for viewing and understanding organizational interrelationships and for unifying diversities of composition. Only one of three school systems studied has a written philosophy of its own for inservice settings.

The investigator does not believe the absence of a written philosophy results from poor leadership. With the rapidly evolving organizational needs and tasks has come the preoccupation with the products of educational change. The focus has been on immediate need without analysis of reasons for the need. Instead of studying the total networks⁸ of individuals within the organization and workings of the organization, there has been a tendency to view parts of a network in isolation. Consequently, the structure and the composition of the

⁸For more information on networks see Sarason, Carroll, Maton, Cohen & Lorentz. Human services and resource networks. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1977.

organization are patched or maintained but not changed.

This microcosmic view appears to have resulted because certain societal changes were made visible and audible in the mass media. With the pervasive technological and societal changes, settings have become increasingly transient, and the schools have often been placed in a precarious position. Also, with the diffusion of policy often moving away from the center of the setting because of federal intervention and societal demands, it is little wonder that flexibility and capability for change have become reflexive reactions at the expense of planned change.

The federal judiciary has made the school systems in North Carolina very much aware of its ability to diffuse policy. In the Second Brown case of 1955, the court placed the responsibility to eliminate racial segregation on school authorities and lower courts. The reasoning behind the decision was that equal facilities do not guarantee equal educational opportunities for children of minority races. In the 1971 Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenberg Board of Education case there were other far-reaching decisions with a number of guidelines to accomplish desegregation. The court ruled that children may be bused to accomplish desegregation; gerrymandering in school districts is legal as an antidote to de jure segregation; "color-blindness" is a must when desegregation is necessary; racial balance is not required but may be used within a school. "Unfortunately, teacher education

in this country has tended to focus on the "doing," active part of teaching... to the detriment of philosophical concerns... In short, teachers have generally been short-changed in the area of rationale-building (Shaver, 1977). The phrase "equality of educational opportunity" is very common. There has been emphasis in the three systems on individualized instruction in the elementary school to equalize opportunities. Even though individualized instruction is ambiguous in meaning and in practice, there is a common goal in attempting to equalize opportunities. Individualized instruction in some classrooms involves few changes in organizational structure of the school as a whole.

Emphasis is placed upon acquiring curricular materials geared to the reading level of each child. In other classrooms there is an absence of furniture and a profusion of children's work adorning walls. There are no required periods for studying specific subjects, so children are impelled by spontaneous interest to work in activity areas for each subject.

At the lower levels there is also considerable interest in the nongraded organization. The organizational pattern is such that students are grouped and provided instruction in terms of their progress in subject matter. Teachers usual-

ly team so that a master teacher, along with other teachers, paraprofessionals or teacher aides are responsible for the instruction of 100-160 students. Classroom instruction is supplemented with special teachers for music, art, and physical education.

The Coleman studies have shown that per-pupil expenditure and higher salaries have virtually no effect on achievement, but the fact still remains that allegiance must be given to interpretations of the Supreme Court (Sieber & Wilder, 1973).

Another example of federal influence in inservice is the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) which was passed to strengthen and improve educational opportunities in both the elementary and secondary school. Both the reading and mathematics laboratories have been provided by Title I of ESEA for schools with large numbers of children coming from economically deprived families. Schools receiving the funds have the programs supervised by the federal government and accountability procedures are enforced.

A second reason there is greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical conceptions is the loss of credibility of professional educators. There has arisen a basic distrust of educators and their ability to manage institutions of learning. In one instance there was an attempted legal intervention in the school under the guise of equality of opportunity. In the

Peter Doe v. San Francisco Unified District School case there was a malpractice suit against San Francisco, asking courts to hold the schools responsible for professional services. Soon thereafter, the California legislature lowered the standards for graduation from high school. Eighth-grade reading ability was no longer made mandatory for high school graduation. California escaped a malpractice suit, but the symptoms of distrust of deeper social and cultural problems remain. Accountability will remain until there is a deeper respect for and belief in what takes place inside the classroom.

There are two kinds of accountability. One view is that educators should only be held accountable for the schooling process. In support of this view, educators point out the many variables involved in the child's learning--the child, the family, and the neighborhood. Since the educator has no control over these outside variables, only the schooling process or treatment can be evaluated. Another kind of accountability holds the educator solely responsible for educational results. What the child learns or fails to learn is the educator's responsibility without regard to family or neighborhood influences. Once educational goals have been set for teachers, they are to be answerable for outcomes, regardless of input. It is the latter practice that is legitimized in one school system studied by the investigator and another is moving in that direction. The justification for such practices is that the taxpayer needs to see educational

products that demonstrate his money is well spent.

A third reason for greater attention being given to productivity than to philosophical foundations is monetary problems. The fiscal crises in larger cities, especially in New York City, have produced greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical conceptions that form the base or superstructure for change. Along with the relentless rise in school costs and heavy taxes driving industry from the state of New York has come a sustained effort to rank priorities in the school system thus getting the most from the tax dollar. The fear of similar crises occurring in all cities has made productivity a central concern of schools.

The Fleischman Commission discovered that while costs for education have risen astronomically in New York City, the quality has gone down. This has been especially provocative when class sizes were decreased, the number of staff members was increased, and ten supervisors were hired for each one hundred teachers. Salaries for teachers ranked with the best in the nation, the mean being \$26,000.00 per year. Evaluation of the system revealed that sixth-graders could not read competently, and more than half of the high school students drop out before graduation. The fear of unemployment, crime, and drug addiction for these students has centered attention on performance and productivity of teachers.

Most people in New York City want a balance of academic

achievement, vocational preparation, cognitive learning, affective learning, independent learning, creativity and even authority. There is to be no substitute for the basics; educational goals such as creativity and social goals are to be used to complement and not to substitute for results in basic subject areas. In order to accomplish a balance there must be a renewed emphasis upon quality staff with the school system exercising the rights of dismissal whenever necessary. It has been recommended that performance be the prime criterion for evaluation rather than course credits or scores on teachers' examinations.

With a shortage of material resources in the largest city in our country, there appears to be an interest in other cities to monitor teacher effectiveness. It has become increasingly important to evaluate education in terms of the best product being produced for the amount of money, time, space and human resources used. The teacher enters into a contractual agreement whereby he is held accountable for performance standards indicated in written objectives, to be met in a specified time period. The penalties or rewards depend upon children's scores on achievement tests. Test results are also compared to other schools within the system. In other words, the constituency of taxpayers wishes to be assured that the school-based staff earns its salary.

Viability of the Creation-of-Settings Model

The third supposition states that those involved in

inservice education can profit from a creation of settings model.

If it can be demonstrated that the settings model is useful to the investigator for analytic purposes, it can then be assumed that the model will be equally useful for others involved in inservice analysis and program development.

The remainder of this section of the chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the elements of the new model as applied to three school systems' inservice programs previously mentioned. (Figure 4)

At first glance the model for inservice may lead the reader to believe the new settings would be unmanageable. This is the natural or traditional way of thinking about inservice because of the manner in which it presently operates. Closer examination leads one to see that the principles and practices are manageable, because a major part of the responsibility is shifted from the central offices of the school system to the professional who knows more about professional needs than anyone else. (Figure 4)

Congruent With the World of Reality

Inservice in its present form operates on the assumption that when provided with enough opportunities, a teacher will select the right workshops and personal growth will ensue. The assumption is that teachers have high-level commitment, and are accustomed to making decisions for themselves. Furthermore, evaluation forms are written in a way that generates the answers leadership desires. For example, one evaluation form examined

had spaces to mark whether the leaders were very low, below average, above average or high in meeting objectives for the course and in the quality of presentation. The evaluator could not indicate if the workshop were considered average in quality.

Another important aspect of present inservice programs is a lack of awareness of relevant history by inservice leaders. Consequently, there is little perceived relevance of past ideas, values, and goals which work for new settings or against them. With the new model for creation of settings there is a compulsion to know the antecedent influences.

The model for the creation of inservice education settings is congruent with the real world for it involves critical analysis of specific goals, values, and value systems which at one time might have been functional in the existing larger society. It allows for analysis of problems related to uses of technology, the changing social role of the corporation, thinking about and dealing with the problems of race and poverty, individual rights and authority or any other issues, problems or polarities. In this analysis basic assumptions, goals, and values can be examined with the aim of developing new values which it is believed can avert social disaster. While society may wish to hold to a core of values, there are values and value systems which were appropriate to and functional for a society but no longer remain so.

The model is like the modern literary utopia, such as

B. F. Skinner's Walden II, in that it makes provision for alternative ways of thinking and acting. It is unlike the utopia in that the elements of fantasy and idealism are far removed. In addition to values the creating of settings involves substantive knowledge, antecedent influences, a realistic time perspective, anticipation of criticism, and the necessity for leadership.

Comprehensive in Scope and Malleable in Shape

The broader the initial scope of the inservice program, the stronger will be the design of individual settings. One of the major problems of teaching has been confinement of the teacher both physically and psychologically to the local classroom setting. This condition has led to a narrowing of the concept of inservice education as well as inability to view the continuous process.

The model would make a significant change in inservice educational planning in that it recognizes the broad complex of institutions and organizations, in the form of networks, having to do with inservice. The word network as used in common parlance does not contain the intended precision that the model connotes. The meaning in the context of the model refers to an alternative approach in dealing with limited human and natural resources through barter of needed services.

Likewise, inservice has generally been defined as planned instructional activities for staff development. The model is flexible enough to include all activities aimed at the

improvement of professional staff members. The emphasis upon improvement of professional staff logically leads planners to greater concern with educational opportunities and to fewer training experiences, since the former focuses on a wider range of alternatives for the teacher.

The shape of the model makes it possible to include those directly and indirectly involved in the instructional program. Included in the instructional program would be people such as the superintendent, assistant superintendent, coordinating teachers, principals, supervisors, school specialists and counselors. Even the best conceived programs may lack effectiveness if these people do not have mastery of concepts related to inservice. The most effective changes in inservice require changes in people.

The model also allows for educational and social change which makes professional practices obsolete. As social pressures press in on certain areas, the shape of the amoeba can change in response to needs and interests. The design further indicates a wide range of alternatives which make it possible to maximize the potential of those in the creation of settings. There are neither linear constraints nor fixed goals and processes. The model can adapt itself to an almost unlimited array of activities and purposes.

An Integrated Model

Staff involvement has gone unmaximized in many instances because certain groups have felt they have a "superior mission"

within the school system. The Individually Guided Education schools felt their organizational patterns, pedagogical insight, and mannerisms were better than those of other elementary schools. The zeal of these teachers made others resist change, especially counterparts of the cluster schools. Schools from both organizational structures wanted to demonstrate the efficacy of their skills and were unwilling to work together. The new model anticipates problems and dilemmas accompanying new programs. It also emphasizes unity in working toward common goals instead of working for distinction of one school.

It is possible to create new settings which satisfy rational analysis but which fail to conform to previous inservice offerings in a way that will make the new acceptable. If teachers are educated in new settings and are unable to function harmoniously with other teachers, communication will be limited and anxiety will result. The process for logically obviating this difficulty is built into the model. In the processes of anticipation of problems and dilemmas and in change strategy this thorny problem would surface.

The integrated model does not require the designer of new settings to sacrifice innovative ideas; it simply develops an awareness of integration problems. Implementation strategies can usually promote effective change unless there is a radical departure from values of other inservice settings to the degree that there is no conciliatory point of agreement.

Expanded Resources

We live in a society which has inculcated in all of us an unwarranted optimism about resources. This uncritical acceptance of growth and plenty has led us to emphasize the virtues of individualism and to underplay interdependence. We live with the unquestioned belief that we possess necessary human and material resources to meet our goals.

A closer examination of our assumptions leads us to see that these resources are not available, especially if we expect a high degree of quality. Consider, for example, the leaders of inservice. We find the qualifications are nonuniform. A small percentage consists of first-rate teachers, and approximately the same number can be considered scandalously poor instructors. The bulk of the teachers can be grouped somewhere around average.

The term networks as used in the model, first of all, recognizes that we live in a society which has limited resources. Second, the different agencies in the community must work together in order to accomplish productive mutual-ity. At the present, relationships are competitive, of narrow interest and for self-benefit. The superficiality of these agencies does not lead to reciprocal interactions necessary in the sense of community.

The idea of networks leads one to identify those agencies which can be brought together for common interests. An ensuing purpose would be to find ways for services to be exchanged,

a kind of reciprocity.

The model makes it possible for people in inservice to use accustomed and unaccustomed ways of viewing the community. It is possible to call upon the community resources, while the community can call upon the professionals in the school for help in return. We have been accustomed to thinking in terms of money being absolutely essential in obtaining services; networks provide a way for needs to be satisfied without the restraints resulting from limited resources.

A Total Design - Interdisciplinary

At present the three public school systems studied do not utilize the full potential of academic departments and education. The move has been toward specialization in content area and, consequently, a less unified approach to curriculum. Teachers have been less willing to assimilate related subject matter from different areas. Moreover, they are reluctant to develop their own resourcefulness in specialized areas lest they encroach upon the domain of the specialists.

The model forms a new configuration in which boundaries between disciplines disappear. There is no longer a distinction between foundations of education and curriculum, psychology and instruction, between content and method as far as inservice goes. There is an interdependence of disciplines relevant to teacher inservice needs.

Inservice programs would not rely upon constrained and comprehensive courses of psychology and sociology alone.

Behavior would be studied in the broadest possible ranges. There would be joint efforts between academic departments and education so that one blends into the other. The interdisciplinary approach emphasizes centers, institutions, or bureaus where cross-fertilization of talent can be realized in the solution to common problems as opposed to traditional departments or laboratories manned by persons from one discipline. Curriculum would focus on contemporary problems that cross traditional disciplinary boundaries.

This would eliminate the waste of time needed in learning many different language theories in unrelated compartments. A common theory, broad in definition, and accepted by the different disciplines would eliminate areas of overlap and inconsistency. Likewise, an effort to unify the different disciplines would make efforts to seek uniqueness or separatism of the sciences appear disadvantageous. That is not to say that the idea of specialization would be stifled; it simply means that there would be a shift in priorities. There would be productive unification in areas of mutual concern, but there would be features entirely independent of the various specialized sciences. In other words, there could be a unifying structure in the study of human behavior without destroying independence and identity to a specialized area.

At the present time much energy is invested in developing and promulgating theories within a given field. Most frequently the theories are narrow, because they are not demanded

to apply to various concerns in the study of man. Furthermore, we have not thought in terms of productive frameworks because of our emphasis upon specialization.

Congruent with the Philosophy of Personalization

The term personalization is not to be confused with the term individualization of inservice. Individualization of learning generally relates to differences in the rates at which learners move through given instructional experiences. Rate of learning has received supreme attention, because it is the most easily identified learning variable. Personalization assures that the professional has a more humanistic learning environment which includes differences in time sequences but much more.

In a program committed to personalization, the learner decides his use of objectives. A wide range of learning experiences, instructional materials, and instructional modes are made available to the professional in order to meet needs. Attention is given to learning style which varies from person to person whether there be a need for inductive reasoning, for mass media or for lecture. The amoeba-like model could incorporate more aptitude variables into the instructional modes as well as a variety of new strategies on individualization.

Personalized inservice education would obviate irrelevant program offerings for the teacher, because an opportunity to

negotiate for a personalized education program would build a stronger commitment. We tend to show greater interest in objectives and activities when there is self-selection.

Congruent with Self-Discovery

There are many complaints from inservice leaders about superficial survey results intended to show teacher interests but not reflecting real needs. There is also the global response in which the teacher's response to the inservice questionnaire is so broad that needs cannot be met.

This leads one to believe in the necessity of self-discovery. Professional help can be utilized to impart knowledge or to produce awareness in the affective domain. For example, teachers face the problems of meaninglessness, feelings of anxiety, hostility, and loneliness which can be utilized as an inner strength to tolerate self as a person who is imperfect. It can also provide a kind of dignity which makes it less necessary to pretend.

It is especially important to attach significance to finding meaning to life. Where there is meaning there is involvement, because one is committed to something. Commitment is different from conformity or simply living the part. Where meaning is lacking in the teacher's work, substance is lacking and teaching becomes an empty formality.

In order to gain knowledge of self, one must have the courage to seek it, and then have the humility to accept what one may find. Professional help may be used, but there is no

substitute for becoming a student of behavior in everyday life. This involves a continuing process of evaluation of assets and weaknesses.

Offers a Variety of Options

Since it is easier to change the behavior of a group than a single individual, the school systems should probably set broad system-wide goals, e.g., improving reading skills. Then each teacher would set systematic plans for personal development through inservice. A variety of options, based on individual objectives would be necessary. Since many problems relating to curriculum, organizational structure, limited resources and facilities arise, the design of programs must be diverse. Alternative procedures must be made available for quality instruction.

Harris and Bessent have made some profound observations related to intended purposes of inservice. One is that inservice offerings tend to range from low experience impact to high experience impact. ("Experience impact" is defined as the learner's interaction to the experience in a way that it will later affect his behavior.) The experiences are ranked from low to high in the following order:

Lecture

Illustrated Lecture

Demonstration

Observation

Interviewing

Brainstorming

Group Discussions

Buzz Sessions

Role-playing

Guided Practice (Harris and Bessent, 1969, p. 35)

Another observation Harris and Bessent (1969) made concerns broad spectrum outcomes. If the emphasis is on new information to be imparted, the inservice programs would do well to capitalize on lecture, illustrated lecture, demonstration, interviewing, brainstorming, group discussion, and buzz sessions. If, on the other hand, the objective of the group is related to affective objectives, the learner would benefit from group discussion, buzz session, role-playing, and guided practice (Harris and Bessent, pp. 38, 39).

Laboratory experiences and the basic exercises mentioned above are not the only useful approaches to inservice programs. Systems analysis, consultation when there is a critical need, independent study, travel, and many other approaches may be useful inservice education programs because of a wide diversity of learning styles.

The model does not present a simplified conception of inservice. It does present a model which guarantees benefit to more than the simple majority if the school is fortunate enough to have a vote in the selection of the inservice offering as well as a majority when there is no selection of the program. It is the person and not the majority that is the

central figure in inservice, because the aim is a personalized program.

Congruent with Leadership Expectations

It is not the purpose of the investigator to take an authoritative position on leadership. It is an area of study in which there is little consensus of opinion. Much of the theory regarding leadership has been written by individuals who are not leaders. We can appreciate the scientific researcher in his efforts to understand the leader better, but a logical, analytical approach does not assure that a clear revelation of leadership has been given. Job description and personal experience probably lack the cognitive substance needed to examine the leadership role.

The issue is further clouded by the basic assumption that a leader for a new setting is similar to the one in a chronologically mature setting. For this reason, the literature in the field deals almost exclusively with the experienced leader without the unique experiences associated with the new setting.

The leader needed to operate effectively in the new setting must be flexible enough to adapt to different situations. An educational leader or vehicle of change finds previous experience to be inadequate preparation to make decisions regarding changing educational values and goals. Flexibility makes it possible for the leader to adapt to new situations, to reflect on his leadership role and to learn from past mistakes.

The situational leader is knowledgeable about his leadership style. There is a keen awareness of self and operational dynamics. He does not operate on a well-wishing philosophy, excluding self from the world of reality. There is self awareness concerning personal achievement motivation and power motivation. Furthermore, the leader knows whether or not he is task oriented or people oriented.

Since the leader cannot be all things to all people, a thorough understanding of operational dynamics makes it possible to surround himself with core group members who complement him. If the leader is low in task orientation and high in people orientation, there is an obvious need for a person with strong organizational ability who can strengthen the leadership role.

Leadership needs a point of focus. Otherwise, the strength of leadership from the outside of the model has a forced impact on inservice that is greater than the direction emanating from inside the amoeba. The end result of greater external forces is that inservice programs become an amalgamation of offerings to allay pressures and demands outside the setting with little focus of its own.

With a point of focus it is necessary to establish priorities in the change process. The inherent value of establishing priorities is that there are built-in constraints toward making conglomerate proposals. Conglomerate proposals are more likely to be rejected at face value, because change is

slow and painful and usually made in small bites.

It is important to know the loci of power--the Federal government, the state legislature, the local school board, the chain of command within the central office and the public. Within each there are explicit and implicit powers not to be overlooked. A clear knowledge of these power structures provides a reasonable amount of knowledge regarding those to be adhered to and those which can be circumvented. It, likewise, sharpens the focus of the leader and helps to define priorities.

Perhaps one of the greatest strengths of the core groups can be found in a kind of "synectics" in education. "Synectics" is a relatively new word that is used in businesses such as Kleenex, Sunoco, and Ford Motor Company. It means joining together seemingly irrelevant elements to find solutions to problems through creative teamwork. The challenge to the core group would be to abandon usual constraints and to view problems in new ways.

A typical synectics session would involve the leader's identification and statement of a problem in inservice. The leader or another person knowing all of the details, describes the problem. Other members of the core group present suggestions or analogies that remind them of the problem. Members of the core group are encouraged to allow their thinking to "run wild." For example, the group may wish to discuss the characteristics of an acorn and to compare them to the

implementation of measurable goals of a language arts program for a school system. Synectics can be used to find the best solutions to the problem. The group may possibly discuss the texture of the shell or the diminished size because of the summer draught, and through far-out analogy relate it to accountability in language arts and find a solution to the problem of implementation.

Another strength of the core group could be found in the method of group consensus in reaching a decision when there is no expert on the subject and relevant information is held by group members. This method makes it possible for the group to explore a wide range of alternatives. It is not necessary to change your mind or to avoid conflict; the more productive approach is to yield to positions that appear to be objective and logically sound. Disagreement is welcomed, because it produces a wide range of opinions, making it more probable to hit upon innovative solutions. When done productively, the group decision is of higher quality than any one member could have produced.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The purpose of this study was to look critically at the creation of inservice education settings for teachers. The premise for the study was based on Seymour Sarason's thesis: "In the case of the problem of the creation of settings (and why so many of them misfire) we do not possess adequate case histories, less because of faulty conceptions than because it has hardly been conceptualized as a problem" (Sarason, 1976, p. 165). Inservice education leaders of three public school systems in the Piedmont North Carolina were interviewed. Reports, survey data, standard forms, program offerings, and other mimeographed materials were studied in order to obtain a mental profile of the inservice programs.

The investigator made three suppositions about the creation of inservice education settings. The first was that public education is presently concerned with the technical dimensions of inservice programs. It was found that there are at least six reasons for these findings: (1) Rhetoric is more philosophical and abstract than job performance requirements. (2) Philosophical humanistic rhetoric is general enough to entertain ambiguity, conflict, and frustrations. (3) Rhetoric by nature is idealistic. (4) Emotional desires stimulate behavior. (5) Inservice programs lack a holistic approach.

(6) Inservice programs reflect what is natural in society.

A second supposition the investigator made was that there is greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than with the philosophical (value) conceptions that form the base or superstructure for change. The reason for not having a written philosophy was not found to be a result of poor leadership. There are many outside forces shifting efforts to greater preoccupation with the products of educational change than to the philosophical conceptions of education.

(1) The federal judiciary has made the school systems in North Carolina very much aware of its ability to diffuse policy.

(2) There has developed a basic distrust in the credibility of educators. (3) The fiscal crises in large cities have forced local school systems to examine the productivity of efforts in education.

The third supposition was that inservice could well profit from the creation-of-settings conceptual model described in the dissertation. The findings were: (1) The model is congruent with the real world for it involves critical analysis of specific goals, values and value systems which at one time might have been functional in the existing society. (2) The model could make a significant change in inservice educational planning in that it recognizes the broad complex of institutions and organizations in the form of networks, having to do with inservice. (3) The integrated model gives

consideration to implementation strategies to promote effective change. (4) The model examines the unwarranted belief that society contains the necessary human and natural resources to meet inservice education goals. (5) The model forms a new configuration in which boundaries between disciplines disappear. (6) The model is congruent with the philosophy of personalization and self-discovery. (7) The model offers alternative procedures needed in quality instruction. (8) The settings model is congruent with present-day leadership expectations.

The review of literature was difficult to organize, because of lack of foci, and the problem of an unclear profile of inservice education settings. The first section of the chapter pulled together the articles related to the restructuring of inservice settings needed to create first-order change. There were six points in this section, as well as the examined basic underlying assumptions of each suggestion. The points outlined were as follows. First, inservice needs a support system to reward teachers for better performance. Second, there is a need for a more active role of the teacher in the creation of inservice education settings. Third, there should be community involvement, because governance, management and operation, financing, and staffing are concerns of the total community. Fourth, there is the concern that preservice and inservice programs be coordinated by the university. Sixth, there is the desire for the state to coordinate inservice education

since the federal government has been less than successful in its attempts to coordinate programs for the state. Seventh, there are those who believe that inservice education should be restructured through cooperative parity (school districts, teachers; schools, colleges or departments of education; state departments of education; administrative school personnel, and school boards).

The second section of the review of related literature focused on inservice processes. A variety of processes was suggested. There were advocates for a tutorial and clinical program which synthesizes and integrates professional education in teacher preparation. Others suggested that inservice education programs be individualized. Still others were of the opinion that the use of research in inservice education would change the process. A fourth recommendation was for a laboratory approach emphasizing problem solving, reality simulation, recorded responses, feedback, and generalizations and implications for practice arrived at through data analysis. Others desired to implement competency-based teacher inservice programs adapted to career-long teacher education.

The third section of the review of literature was focused on changing the behavior of the teacher. The assumptions were that changing attitudes of teachers, changing belief systems and improving teacher communication skills are necessary in order to produce second-order change.

Conclusions drawn from the study were based upon questions

which the investigator held as pertinent and legitimate to the investigation. (1) Is the conceptual model of value to the three school systems? Since the model was provided as an alternative to the existing program offerings, viability can be examined by making generalizations concerning its applicability to future inservice programs.

First, the investigator found the model to be sound in light of time perspective. The model would involve extensive study of existing program models in order to benefit from mistakes and successes of preexisting inservice settings. It would also make it possible to give attention to the definition of inservice in order to give clarification, if necessary. In other words, is the earlier definition of inservice viable for existing inservice models? Equal attention is given to the beginning and future contexts of the setting. This is done through needs assessment of consumers and participants, active participation of leaders and recipients of inservice in the planning stages of the programs as well as in the anticipation of problems and dilemmas of the future.

Second, the investigator found the model to be useful in terms of energetic leadership. The leader and the core group identify the goals they are moving toward as well as the positive goals they wish to pursue. It is also necessary for the leader to define his/her role whether it be facilitator, matchmaker, analyst, coordinator, investigator or the like.

Third, the investigator found the model to be functional

in terms of understanding the organization within which in-service programs operate. Furthermore, the amoeba-like model adapts itself to the multiple objectives which the three public school systems have within their organizations. It can adjust to the norms or rules for operation in the given schools as well as anticipate and deal with public reaction.

Fourth, the investigator found the model to be useful in terms of change strategy. Not only is there an understanding of goals, resources, and obstacles to hinder change, but there is also a strong emphasis placed upon knowing alternative courses of action. It is not a part of implementation processes within the model to solve problems rather than reconcile dilemmas. Since most of the persistent issues of the organization are dilemmas rather than problems, attention is given to the attitudes which are necessary to reconcile dilemmas.

It is also necessary for the leader to examine his/her basic assumptions. For example, does the leader in the proposed setting assume that all within the new setting are capable of leadership? Does the leadership assume that a core group which agrees on basic values will agree on program implementation? The model includes self-evaluation of leadership style of both the leader and the core group instead of masking its style with the rhetoric of "helping others." There are several inevitabilities which the leader takes into account with the core group:

1. Conflicting ideas and values
2. Limited resources
3. A sense of mission
4. The superiority of some and the basis for it
5. The need to preserve some tradition
6. The need to protect the new setting from outside influences
7. Other settings to be included and excluded
8. Other settings impinged upon

(2) Do the elements relate to each other in a logical, consistent way? While the elements of the model may be analyzed, there are emergent principles of the whole which a viewing of separate entities would not reveal. For example, the model makes a distinction between goals (ends) and processes (means). Goals are reflective of the intentions of educational leaders, whereas, processes are the means used to strive toward such goals. This distinction is not meant to be linear or sequential, thus allowing for both predetermined and emerging goals. Rather, there is a constant interaction between goals and processes within the educational change process.

The shape of the model leads one to recognize the inevitability of change, the relatedness of settings elements to each other and the whole setting. It also recognizes that the growth of the settings is contingent upon growth of the individuals within the setting. Expressed in another way, either the setting grows in unity or falls apart as separate

entities.

3. Are basic assumptions of the model explicit or implicit? Even though basic assumptions of the leader as well as assumptions related to the beginning context are a part of the model, they are more implicit than explicit. The investigator recognized this could be a threat to the new setting. Basic assumptions may or may not affect inservice programs in a positive way. Although a knowledge of basic assumptions does not assure success in implementation, it can generally lead to greater control of one's actions.

4. Are resources accurately or adequately surveyed in the model? The investigator found resources to be accurately and adequately surveyed in the model. The general belief that there are adequate human and monetary resources for new settings is labeled as the "myth of unlimited resources."

This myth is commonly generated by feelings of excitement over a new setting. Because it is believed a superior mission is being established, it is assumed that money will be no problem. Furthermore, this unwarranted belief convinces those within the new setting that qualified personnel can be employed of both the quantity and quality needed to accomplish set goals.

The myth fails to consider that the higher the criteria for quality, the greater will be the discrepancy between intent and accomplishment. New settings invariably face the reality of inadequate numbers to accomplish the job in the best conceivable way. The model surveys resources in the beginning to

predict the disparity that will arise between personnel and conceived objectives.

The model goes a step further to develop the concept of networks as a possible solution to the myth of unlimited resources. Individuals, institutions, and agencies possess the potential for a barter-economy of resources. Not only can there be an exchange of skills, but there is also an accompanying benefit, the psychological sense of community. Through joined efforts one receives a sense of personal worth and belonging, thus providing a partial solution to one of the major contemporary problems.

5. What differences occur if change is initiated externally? What differences occur if change is initiated internally? The investigator concluded that change initiated externally would decrease or even destroy the value of the model. This is not to say that those outside the setting cannot have input. First, decisions would be made by the school board or governmental bodies in anticipation to public reaction. Changes would most likely occur frequently, because programs would be changed when public opinion justified new approaches. In other words, drifting with the tides would be the norm.

Second, it would be more unlikely to give due consideration to personalization of programs. If test results confirmed a problem area to be science, it would be assumed that all teachers were deficient in knowledge and skills and in need of inservice. It would be more likely that these programs would be accompanied

with rewards or sanctions, otherwise, decisions might as well be made internally.

Third, it would be more likely that the more we change the more we remain the same. When the power structure is outside the organization, it becomes too far removed from the situation to profit from past successes or failures. What appeared to be change at its best would more likely prove to be on-the-surface or first-order change.

Fourth, change initiated externally often projects a bad image. The assumption is that things are not going so well, and only outside forces possess the expertise to bring the setting through the crisis situation. Furthermore, it is assumed that the expert understands the organization and its needs better than those within. It would also be assumed that the expert can bring the organization or setting to a better position than it now experiences.

Change initiated internally is more likely to be meaningful and acceptable. Without commitment to an idea, there is no promise of appropriate changes in any setting. Change initiated internally is more likely to result in professional success and personal satisfaction, the fruits of acceptance. Personal satisfaction generally leads people to search for better ways of doing things.

6. How much can the model be changed before it becomes useless? There is no claim that the model eliminates alternative ways of viewing the problem. For example, there may be

a dozen or more ways to consider antecedent influences on the inservice setting. The leader and the core group may decide how they wish to obtain information on previous behavioral and programmatic regularities within inservice. For example, what was customary procedure in preparing teachers for new curricula? How were programs supervised? Will these aspects of inservice be described in relationship to the teacher? Independent personalities? From the viewpoint of the former inservice leader?

There is no claim to the fact that the information in the model is new. The newness is contained in putting bits of information into a logical, workable framework that can be used to analyze present-day inservice programs. Once a part of the model has been removed, a segment of the emerging picture is missing. A description or clear understanding of the school culture is no longer possible, for it does not reflect a relationship to the larger society or present characteristics of antecedent influences.

7. What are the practical guidelines that any school system could use from this study? The significance of the model lies in viewing inservice from a broader base than individuals and personalities. The beneficial effects lie in recognizing that the problems of inservice result from more than motivation of the individual, personality characteristics or possession or absence of creativity within the leader or

teacher. The setting for inservice is conceptualized in terms of the effects of culture and tradition; pattern of relationships; examination of assumptions, conceptions, and theories; and awareness of alternatives.

With the conceptual framework of the model it becomes necessary to look at inservice as more than a change of the teacher and textbooks. This does not negate the responsibility of change at the bottom of the pyramid; it is rather a recognition that change may be necessary anywhere in the power structure. An essential element of this model is that individuals understand their own ways of thinking as well as their relationships to the larger setting. Changes in attitudes, behaviors and skills of individuals or groups may be necessary in order for the setting to successfully reach its goals.

Another significant aspect of the model is that it helps the action person to beware of traps that might ensnare him. (1) The action person interested in creating a new setting is reminded that parts of a preexisting complicated structure of relationships will work against the creation of the new setting, and parts will work for the creation. (2) Many if not all those within the old setting will want to feel invited to participate in planning for the new setting. (3) Some of the values and purposes of the old setting are consistent with the new values and purposes. (4) New leaders must anticipate

resolving and reconciling conflict between the old setting and the new setting. (5) When leaders choose leaders they create a morale problem regardless of whether they choose from within the setting or without. (6) Common values and motivations will not surmount or prevent future difficulties. (Common values and motivations may not assure agreement on implementation.) (7) The leader and core group set goals to move toward. (8) The order in which the core group is chosen generally denotes a scale of values. (9) The leader and the core group are often misled to believe that new buildings will improve the setting. (10) Our society is incapable of rendering the quality and quantity of services needed in settings; we have limited resources.

Several topics for further study have been generated while making the present study. They are as follows:

(1) How can an interdisciplinary approach best be used to improve the quality of leadership of those who are either directly or indirectly involved in the child's education? Different departments in colleges and universities have emphasized their uniqueness. An interdisciplinary approach, it seems, would establish new priorities as well as change modes of thinking. A greater amount of time would be used in finding ways to share ideas in order to produce a better way of life for all. The blending of theory and practice would probably be a natural outgrowth of the disciplines.

(2) How are the benefits of personalized inservice superior to present inservice education in the public schools? The kind of personalized education made reference to would give consideration to antecedent influences, patterns of relationships, and the awareness of alternatives. It would also examine the assumptions, conceptions, and theories of the individual.

(3) How can the concept of networks be used to increase the quality of inservice program offerings? There are probably many talents and skills within the public school systems that could be used in a barter-economy for skills and services which only outside organizations could provide. There are probably just as many people who need a psychological sense of community that could be experienced through the reciprocal agreements. The implications for the study require a new way of looking at limited resources and viewing networks as a vehicle to develop relationships for the purpose of obtaining the things needed in the setting.

(4) How does the school operate as an organization? Some studies have been done on the formal and informal organizations of the school. The kind of study referred to in the question is a systematic study which would aid all concerned in knowing the channels for change. Change has been a very slow process in the public school system.

(5) What is the function of the school board in staff

development? It would be helpful to know the formal and informal powers of the school board members and the array of activities it can influence. Policy-making procedures, and methods of obtaining information and knowledge about the schools would be helpful.

(6) How do the Federal government, state government, and local government affect inservice programs? This would provide information regarding available resources, regulations, as well as explicit and implicit powers. The settings would know in which areas the external influence is equal to or greater than internal influence. It would also provide more information for anticipating and reconciling problems and dilemmas.

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APPENDIX

BEFORE THE BEGINNING CONSIDERATION

1. Is the need for a new setting clearly recognized by a substantial element of the old setting?
2. Was the need for a new setting openly voiced and therefore initiated by those within the old setting?
3. Was the need voiced and initiated by those outside the old setting?
4. Do those who initiated the drive toward the creation of a new setting recognize the importance of understanding the history of the setting? Explain.
5. Do those who initiated the drive for a new setting recognize the importance of giving attention to the covenant formation process?
6. Do those interested in creating a new setting make efforts to understand ways of thinking (assumptions, conceptions, theories) of those who gave leadership to the old setting? Explain.
7. Do those interested in creating a new setting recognize that parts of the preexisting complicated structure of relationships will work against creation of the new setting and parts that will work for this creation? Explain.
8. Does the leader in the new setting see his/her role as a matter of chance or part of the natural history of events? Explain.
9. Do members of the core group in the new setting see his/her role as a matter of chance or part of the natural history of events?
10. Do leaders who want to create the new setting understand that many (if not all) within the old setting will want to feel invited to participate in planning for the new setting?
11. Do leaders who want to create the new setting see that some of the values and purposes of the old setting are consistent with the "new" values and purposes?
12. In what ways do the "new" leaders anticipate resolving and reconciling conflict and competition between the old setting and the new setting?

13. Do leaders in the new setting (proposed setting) assume that all within the new setting are capable of leadership? Explain.
14. Do leaders of the proposed setting view their proposal in a setting context or do they view their proposal in narrower terms--such as a series of discreet decisions and actions? Explain.
15. Do leaders view their activities in extreme terms or do they make finer lines of distinctions?
16. What terms do leaders of the proposed setting use in common? What meanings do you ascribe to their choice of words?

FORMATION OF THE CORE GROUP

1. Was the leader chosen by others? (If yes, the new setting emerged from an existing organization of settings.)
2. Did the leader choose himself/herself? (If yes, the new setting represents the ideas and efforts of a single individual.)
3. Has the leader openly stated his/her desire to form a core group--a handful of people who will be closest to him/her interpersonally and status wise? (If yes, it is one indication that the leader has consciously formed such a group.)
4. Has the leader chosen one or more core group members with whom he previously had informal relationships?
5. If the answer to the previous question is yes, do the leader and core group member(s) share the fantasy that moving to the more formal relationship will bypass the difficult, troublesome, but necessary task of anticipating problems and establishing ground rules for dealing with them.
6. Do the leader and core group members he/she previously knew act as if their common values and motivations will surmount or prevent future difficulties? (If yes, this myth will get them into trouble for even those with common values and motivations disagree as to implementation.)
7. What predictable problems have the leader and core group identified? What machinery have they constructed for problem-resolution or dilemma-reconciliation?

8. What are the goals the leader and core group are going toward? What are the positive goals they pursue?
9. What are they running away from?
10. In what order were particular core group members chosen? Does this reflect the leader's scale of importance? If so, what criteria were the basis for the scale? Was there much time lag between choices? If so, can you ascribe meaning to this?
11. Is there ideological commonality between core group members and the leader? What is the basis for this? (For example, a university discipline, church affiliation, moral code, same sex, same ethnic background, etc.)
12. Has the leader left some or all core group members with the impression that he/she will take them with him/her to the next setting he/she anticipates entering? (If so, is this his/her way of escaping, that is, escaping the realities of problems/dilemmas in any setting?)
13. How does the leader define his/her role? (For example, arbitrator of expected disputes between core group members? Colleague in some areas but "superior" in other areas? Broker? Manager?) What words and phrases does the leader use to describe his/her role and that of core group members?
14. Does the rhetoric of the leader and core group focus on what the organization can do for others or themselves?
15. Do the actions of the leader and core group focus on what the organization does for others or themselves?
16. Do the leader and core group leave you with the feeling that they consider themselves superior to non-core group members in some way? If so, in what way?
17. If the answer to the previous question is yes, do the leader and core group sense any conflict or incompatibility between their belief in their own superiority and their desire to learn as much as they can from others in the setting? Explain.
18. Does the leader act as if his/her need for privacy is an important consideration in his/her role?
19. Does the core group act as if their need for privacy is an important consideration in his/her role?

20. If the answer to either or both of the previous questions is yes, does the person (the persons) sense any conflict or incompatibility between their desire for privacy and their desire to learn as much as they can from others in the setting? Explain.
21. Do the leader and core group members talk as if it would be highly desirable if the setting had new buildings in which they could be housed? (Do they see any problems or difficulties this might cause?)
22. Do the leader and core group act as if there are unlimited resources available to them? Explain.
23. Do the leader and core group act as if they have a special mission and those who don't view things this way are the "bad guys"?

THE BEGINNING CONTEXT

1. Do the leader, core group members, and others recognize that when leaders choose leaders they create a morale problem regardless of whether they choose from within or without? Explain.
2. Do the leader and core group members act as if the advent of their leadership marks the true beginning point rather than as a point in a continuum of events and processes? (That is, are they almost entirely future oriented?)
3. Is self evaluation a major part of leadership style of the leader and core group in the beginning context? (Or, for example, is it masked by rhetoric of "helping others," etc.)
4. Have the leader and core group taken into account the following inevitabilities and, if so, how?
 - 4.1 conflicting ideas and values.
 - 4.2 limited resources.
 - 4.3 a sense of mission.
 - 4.4 a superiority of some and basis for it.
 - 4.5 need to preserve some traditions(s).
 - 4.6 need to protect new setting from outside influences and, if so, which ones?

4.7 other settings included and excluded.

4.8 settings impinged upon.

(Permission to use the instrument was granted by Dale L. Brubaker.)