INFORMATION TO USERS

This dissertation was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.

72-24,943

MILLER, Helen Pierce, 1925-
    A DESIGN FOR PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY
    EXPERIENCES IN TEACHER EDUCATION.

    University of North Carolina at Greensboro,
    Ed.D., 1972
    Education, teacher training

A DESIGN FOR PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY
EXPERIENCES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

by

Helen Pierce Miller

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro
1972

Approved by

Dissertation Advisor

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 Adviser _____

Oral Examination Committee Members _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

April 14, 1972
Date of Examination

PLEASE NOTE:

Some pages may have

indistinct print.

Filmed as received.

University Microfilms, A Xerox Education Company

MILLER, HELEN PIERCE. A Design for Professional
Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education. (1972)
Directed by: Dr. Donald W. Russell. Pp. 416.

It was the purpose of this study to devise a model
or design for professional laboratory experiences for teacher
education.

The writer took the philosophical position that con-
ventional one-to-one placement of a student teacher with
one cooperating public school teacher frequently encourages
modeling or blind emulation of that teacher. The study was
an attempt to design a program which would make modeling
less likely.

The method for selecting experiences to be incor-
porated into the design was first to design prototype
programs with certain values deliberately sought; next,
those prototypes were put into operation and studied by
the writer through participant observation and experiences
were selected from them which in the opinion of the writer
and the participants encouraged the two values sought.

The writer assumed that a variety of experiences
with more than one cooperating teacher would make modeling
less likely. It was also assumed that more college in-
fluence during student teaching (or the laboratory phases
of teacher education) would have a similar effect. Those

two values were, therefore, deliberately sought in the experiences of the students involved in the prototype studies.

The writer, as a participant observer, kept daily logs of those experiences as they developed during the programs under study. Those experiences were subsequently categorized as either fostering greater variety and more college influence or hindering variety and more college influence. The opinions of the student teachers, co-operating teachers and administrators involved were also sought.

From those two sources the writer designed a program for laboratory experiences (or student teaching) which she submits now for trial and testing by educators. The model itself is untried to date, though it is based on experiences which grew out of actual testing of prototypes.

The model, or design, is presented as an outline and also in graphic form and attempts only to provide a framework on which specific experiences could be grafted in a variety of situations for different colleges and school systems.

An attempt was made to check on the assumptions that more college influence and greater variety of experiences

would make modeling less likely. The writer planned to use two instruments to compare the student teachers which she supervised with their former cooperating teachers. The Flanders Interaction Analysis System and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory were used with those pairs of cooperating teacher and student teacher which were available for follow-up.

Though the number available was small, that information is presented as supplementary data. The evidence, such as it was, did not support the assumptions of the writer.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to thank the committee which
advised this dissertation program. They were:
Doctor Donald Russell (Chairman), Doctor Lois Edinger,
Doctor Bert Goldman, Doctor Franklin Parker and
Doctor Dwight Clark.

She acknowledges also the major contribution
given to the preparation of the dissertation by two
special friends, Mrs. Rena Smith and Mr. C. W. Clinard, Jr.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter

LIST OF TABLES

Table   Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The most important people in the United States may very well be those who educate our teachers, as Ned Flanders has said.[1] Whether one agrees with him or not it is difficult to deny the significance of teacher education as a vital factor in the success or failure of public education. Of course, there is almost universal agreement concerning the fundamental role of public education in determining the quality of individual and national life. Charles Silberman echoed the Flanders' position in his influential book, Crisis in the Classroom,[2] while at the same time criticizing public education and teacher education as they are now practiced.

---

[1]The Association for Student Teaching, _Theoretical Bases for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education: Forty-Fourth Yearbook_ (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1965), p. 59.

[2]Charles E. Silberman, _Crisis in the Classroom_ (New York: Random House, 1970).

Few people in the history of education have ever questioned the important role laboratory experiences (a term frequently attributed to Dewey)[1] play in the total scheme of teacher education. Recently Dr. James B. Conant was interpreted by some to have recommended the elimination of all education courses except student teaching in preparing teachers.[2]

Student teaching (the study of teaching, clinical or laboratory experiences in its broader interpretation) was described on the one hand as very vital and yet as not being what it should or could be. The position of Conant and Silberman (also others to be discussed in the literature survey) is that student teaching is the best and most influential part of teacher education today but it can be improved greatly.

THE PROBLEM

As a result of several years of experience as a

---

[1] Merle Barrowman, (ed.), Teacher Education in America: A Documentary History (New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963), p. 141.

[2] James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963).

student in teacher education programs, as a public school
teacher, as a parent with children in the public schools
and finally as a teacher educator, this writer has seen
student teaching from many different perspectives. From
these experiences comes the very distinct impression that
there is only slight influence made by the teacher education
institutions on how teachers teach. Public education and
classroom procedure seem, to the writer, to have changed
only slightly from her days as a student to her tenure as
a college supervisor for student teaching. Why? There
have been many shifts and changes in educational theory
and philosophy; the body of knowledge in education and
allied disciplines has burgeoned. Why has the scholarship
and expertise of the college and university gained only
lip service from practitioners? Dewey noted this "dualism"
back in 1904 in his essay The Relation of Theory to
Practice in Education.[1]

The writer's tentative premise or theory about the
problem is that student teaching is a highly charged,
intensely motivating period of study, yet there is little

---

[1]Barrowman, op. cit., pp. 149-50.

(if any) college instruction and influence during those
crucial formative weeks. There is conversely great
influence and frequent contact in the person of the class-
room supervising teacher (hereafter called the cooperating
teacher). To the writer, those cooperating teachers seem
to be the models for many student teachers. They demonstrate,
instruct, guide and confer on a daily basis with the
education student who rarely sees most college supervisors.
Those infrequent visits by the college staff are usually
observational and evaluative in nature, not instructional.
Full time internships usually depend heavily on public
school supervision.

It could be implied that there is an imbalance
between the influence of the college, through its
supervisor, and the public school, through the cooperating
teacher. If so, how could the problem be remedied? The
writer suggests that by providing a variety of experiences--
with different cooperating teachers--possibly the modeling
or "emulation" would diminish and afford greater influence
by instruction and supervision. This dissertation is one
step toward trying to answer that question.

Extensive documentation for the problem is

presented in chapter two where the literature in the field
is reviewed. The experience-impressions and the theorizing
analysis of the writer were found to be shared by many
writers in the field. Also some research exists to give
an objective basis to the opinion or theory projected in
this study.

<div align="center">THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY</div>

The purpose of this study is to develop a proposal
for a student teaching plan based on the investigator's
analysis of data gathered as a participant observer in
three types of student teaching programs.

In the professional literature, attention has been
called to the fact that all too often the student teacher
tends to model after or emulate his cooperating teacher and
in many instances plays this role well into his teaching
career.[1] Thus, an initial premise in this study is that
the practice of limiting the student teacher to only one
cooperating teacher is questionable in that it limits the
professional and academic experiences during the student

---

[1]William A. Bennie, _Cooperation for Better
Teaching_ (Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Co.,
1966), p. 36.

teaching period.[1]

THE NATURE OF THE STUDY

The dissertation will be philosophical in form and emphasis due to the nature of the issue and the professional interest and experience of the writer. It does not purport to be the answer to all student teaching problems. The basis for the dissertation will be the efforts of one institution to look at the merits of two innovations when they are adapted to its own campus and clientele.

From the data gathered as a participant observer in three student teaching programs, the writer will develop a program which will incorporate the two factors she believes to be important in answering the central question. Those factors are: (1) variety of experiences with different cooperating teachers and (2) greater college influence or impact.

This dissertation develops a model for the purpose of future testing of the theory embodied here. The model will not answer the question conclusively; it will only

---

[1] Charles Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 458.

provide a vehicle for further testing of the theory. It represents the foundational theoretical research on which future empirical research can be based.

The theoretical basis for the model rests on the empirical research which already exists, attesting to the imbalance in the influence felt and exhibited by student teachers. That evidence is summarized in chapter two.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Dr. James Conant, in his book, The Education of American Teachers, seemed to be proposing the elimination of practically all professional courses for teachers except student teaching.[1] His recommendations were based on his findings among teachers in the field, who reported that most of what they learned about teaching came from their student teaching experiences.

The writer interprets Dr. Conant to mean that the immediacy of student teaching is so highly motivating that students are deeply impressed and could be efficiently taught in that laboratory situation. The point of this

---

[1]James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), p. 142.

study is to use student teaching to enhance the effectiveness of the theory and philosophy taught by the college and to provide more options for experiencing the public school's expertise. Student teaching should provide several models of technique and philosophy for the neophyte.

There appears to be a trend toward giving even greater responsibility for student teaching to the public schools.[1] Due to the burgeoning enrollment, organizational readjustments and curricular revamping the public schools are finding it practically impossible to assume this greater responsibility. The colleges must continue to provide the tools of analysis with which the prospective teacher can diagnose the learner, the learning situation and, above all, _himself_. A program for student teaching which would provide for a balance of responsibility, authority and influence between the public school and the colleges would seem desirable. Thus, the writer seeks to design such a proposal.

---

[1]_Teacher Education in Transition_, Multi-State Teacher Education Project, Howard E. Bosley, Director. Vol. I, _An Experiment in Change_ (Baltimore, Md.: May, 1969).

It is suggested that a teacher should not have to acquire basic theory, philosophy, and understandings by trial and error "on the job." Whatever the program for student teaching, the beginning teacher will, of course, intensify and broaden his understanding and skill by experience.

The writer values a laboratory experience during student teaching rather than an apprenticeship. More, not fewer, theoretical tools must be taught and tested. The most effective place would seem to be the laboratory environment at hand--the public schools. Skilled and interested college instructors should be able to coordinate varying experiences within the schools--experiences which will make theory, philosophy, and issues in the education discipline more meaningful and hence easier to learn and apply.

Also, the ever changing roles of the teacher necessitate an attempt to devise student teaching programs which stimulate the flexibility and growth-potential of teacher education students. The writer submits that the two elements she seeks to establish in her proposal--greater university involvement in student

teaching and a greater variety of experience for the student teacher--should enhance both flexibility of style and the growth-potential of the students involved. Such a program could produce future teachers who are comfortable with change.

The internship, similar to those utilized in medical education, is becoming popular in some locales. Some colleges are leaving the matter of undergraduate student teaching supervision to the public schools except for perfunctory "calls" by busy, disinterested faculty or their graduate assistants. In many colleges there is a lack of status and adequate remuneration accorded those who supervise student teachers. There are few graduate programs designed specifically to prepare people competent in that demanding role. All these factors point to a need for more study of student teaching relationships. They all indicate that college influence may even diminish beyond the slight impact it now exerts.

LIMITATIONS ON THE STUDY

As indicated in the statement of the problem, the writer devised her proposal by studying three programs as a participant observer, living the roles and logging her

experiences within them. It is believed that the data gathered provides evidence of practices which allow for more university influence during student teaching and which, therefore, redress the imbalance between cooperating teacher influence and university-staff influence. From the three programs studied an eclectic proposal, or model, was constructed as a future vehicle for testing the writer's theory.

Dr. Conant's suggestion for the "clinical professor" role[1] seemed to be one answer to the dilemmas the colleges face in the area of student teacher supervision. Another innovation currently being recommended is the mini-faculty plan. From a study of these two organizational types, the candidate designed two programs which were implemented within the realities of the student teaching situation at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. (She also studied and logged experiences in the conventional program.)

These two innovations seemed to provide for more university involvement and a greater variety of experiences which the candidate has indicated she wished to attain in

---

[1]James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963).

her proposal.

The study was also limited to the work of one college supervisor (the writer), to the students randomly assigned to her and to the schools to which those students went for student teaching. No special students or schools were used.

No attempt was made to build into the prototypes tested (or the model ultimately designed) any deliberately sought variable other than the two which guided this research. Admittedly there are many variables operating on the school-college relationship other than variability in cooperating teachers and a greater college supervisory role. For the purpose of this exercise in model building those two factors are the only ones considered and planned for though there was recognition that other variables were operating in the problem.

SUMMARY

If the student teaching experience is as powerful an influence as Dr. Conant indicates, then it would seem that the university should aim toward more efficient and forceful use of that tool by well qualified university faculty. Within the context of student teaching those

trained to teach theory, philosophy, issues and methods should be able to turn those theories, etc., into tools for analysis and decision making. Most public school personnel are not usually prepared to do so. The university's position and perspective uniquely equip it to provide guidance in weighing and testing theories in the midst of practice. The perspective of the public school educator, on the other hand, prepares him to provide guidance in the day-to-day situations.

While deciding vital questions of restructuring teacher education, universities and colleges should consider the issue of the utilization of student teaching for more balanced influence. Perhaps they can educate teachers who will have formulated their own unique self-analysis criteria before entering the profession.

The writer contends that a side effect of such a program of mutual university and public school laboratory effort would expedite the flow of ideas, concerns, theories, questions and practices between the scholars and the practitioners of education. That aspect, however, cannot be a central question in this research because of the time-lapse factor needed to follow up the issue.

Consequently, the writer's study constructs a program of student teaching relationships which provides extensive contacts with a variety of cooperating classroom teachers. The program also provides for joint responsibility for evaluating the student teacher's needs and planning his experiences. Not all of the teachers-in-training need the same amount of time or the same challenges. Perhaps different levels of schooling plus different kinds of school populations should be experienced--along with different teachers of differing philosophies and styles.

Today students are, more often than not, assigned to certain classrooms because of the pressures of the numbers to be placed, the time allotted, the distances to travel, the makeup of college staff, and the receptiveness of public school personnel.

The questions raised in the study are:

1. Do some student teachers tend to emulate their cooperating public school teachers uncritically?

2. Is this undesirable? If so, why?

3. Does the university exert too little influence during student teaching?

4. Could the university more adequately utilize student teaching for the teaching of its theory, philosophy and policies in the education discipline?

5. How could student teaching be structured to provide for a more balanced influence?

6. What are the relationships and dynamics which one could glean from participation in three prototype programs and which might provide elements for a model?

Chapter II

A SUMMARY OF SELECTED LITERATURE PERTAINING TO

THE RELATIONSHIP AND ROLES OF COLLEGES

AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS DURING THE

LABORATORY PHASE OF

TEACHER EDUCATION

The study will concentrate on literature published

since 1948, the year of the influential Flowers Report,[1]

with primary investigation centering around items published

since Michaelis's extensive study of the literature in

1958. That study is available in The Encyclopedia of

Educational Research published in 1960.[2] The writer elected

---

[1]John G. Flowers, School and Community Laboratory
Experiences (Oneonta, N. Y.: American Association of
Teachers Colleges, 1948). Dr. Flowers was chairman of a
joint study group from 1945 to 1948. The group included
Florence Stratemeyer and Allen Patterson representing the
Association for Student Teaching and it conducted a
complete investigation of current practices pursuant to
revising Standard VI which had its origin in the 1927
Accreditation standards of AATC.

[2]John U. Michaelis, "Teacher Education--Student
Teaching and Internship," Encyclopedia of Educational
Research (3rd ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960),
pp. 1473-1481.

16

to study items before those dates only if initial investigation showed a need for more information than Michaelis's work afforded.

Some items from earlier dates were included because the histories available were sketchy and the writer felt a special need in that area. Though historical perspective is not a part of the present study, the writer felt a personal need to know where the profession had <u>been</u> before projecting an eclectic model proposing a way <u>to go</u>.

The definitions and assumptions which have guided the writer's investigations are found in the introductory chapter for this study. They will be assumed to apply to the literature search as well as subsequent research.

The review of the literature was organized under the following headings:

(1) Historical background;

(2) Analysis of surveys and standards which describe the status quo in student teaching;

(3) Opinions dealing with the relative influence of college and school supervisors for student teaching;

(4) Study of the clinical professor concept in teacher education;

(5) A description of what has been labeled "the mini-faculty;"

(6) A description and evaluation of the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories; and

(7) The use of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

There is an extensive helpful literature giving the historical perspective to the development of the practice known in teacher education as professional laboratory experience, direct experience, or student teaching. Because history is not an issue in the study and is pursued only to give the writer a feel for the question over time in this country, no exhaustive study of historical literature was undertaken.

The importance of practical experience as a supplement to theoretical insight was recognized as far back as Plato's Republic, according to Barrowman.[1] But the practices, generically labeled student teaching, probably began in this country in 1772 when "one John Campbell" voluntarily apprenticed himself to "one George Brownell" to

---

[1]Merle Barrowman, (ed.), Teacher Education in America: A Documentary History (New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963), p. 2.

"learn the art, tradition, and mystery of teaching."[1]

When normal schools became influential in teacher education for elementary school instruction, the philosophy of their "training" (laboratory or demonstration) schools dominated the conceptualization of student teaching. That philosophy was to provide "practice" of what one had learned in foundation courses and to "polish" skills and techniques observed in a master teacher's behavior. This orientation might be called the philosophy of the "how-to-do" school of thought.[2]

As normal schools became institutions of higher education providing training for secondary school teachers, their philosophy of the training school was applied and student teaching was a part of the education of the teachers they supplied to the schools. The date usually given for that development is about 1920, when the Association for Student Teaching was formed.[3]

---

[1]William A. Bennie, Cooperation for Better Schools (Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966), p. 2.

[2]Barrowman, op. cit., p. 81.

[3]Ibid., p. 82; L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 8; Bennie, op. cit., p. 4.

Liberal Arts colleges and comprehensive univer-
sities soon saw the need to give more emphasis to the
education of teachers and entered the field formerly
deemed the exclusive province of normal schools--the
education of elementary teachers. Most academicians in
those colleges and universities held that the only pre-
paration needed for teaching was a thorough grounding in
one's subject matter. There was a considerable struggle
when departments of education proposed something called
student teaching as a course carrying credit.[1]

The battle was carried into the political sphere
as the "educationists" (professors of departments of
education and their "allies," public school adminis-
trators) sought and obtained state certificate require-
ments including student teaching as a prerequisite.[2]

_____

[1]Andrews, op. cit., p. 8; and Barrowman, op. cit.,
pp. 65, 81 and 100.

[2]Andrews, op. cit., p. 18; and Barrowman, op. cit.,
p. 43.

That student teaching usually took place in campus schools called laboratory or demonstration schools as before. One of the accreditation standards of the American Association of Teachers Colleges was a minimal number of hours of class time spent in student teaching. That organization, founded in 1917, was a merger of the North Central Association of Normal School Presidents and Principals and the Deans of Colleges for Teacher Education. It became the present American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in 1948. Its accreditation duties have since been taken over by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.[1]

In 1938 the American Council of Education appointed a commission on Teacher Education which published its exhaustive study in 1946 as The Improvement of Teacher Education under the direction and editorship of Edward Evenden of Teachers College of Columbia University.[2]

---

[1]The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Yearbooks of the Association, IV, VII (Washington, D. C.: The Association, National Education Association, 1951-54, Vol. VII, p. 165.

[2]Barrowman, op. cit., p. 222.

In the Thirties there developed a trend toward
providing pre-student teaching laboratory experiences--both
in school and out.[1] By 1940 the time alloted to student
teaching had increased steadily from one hour a day for a
few weeks to full time for a semester or more in some
colleges.[2] The depression years encouraged some post
graduate internship programs for teachers since there was
a surplus of teachers along with most other professions
during the economic slump of the 1930's. Many field
experiences outside the school were also encouraged, uti-
lizing the many youth agencies who could not afford enough
full-time employees at that time. Gradually the concept
was enlarging from a few hours of "practice" with a master
teacher to the clinical study of education and youth.[3]

Before the movement into the public schools and
the subsequent broadening of the concept of professional
laboratory experiences, most master teachers moved among
several (perhaps as many as eight or ten) student teachers.

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 246-248.

[2]Andrews, op. cit., p. 8.

[3]Ibid., pp. 15, 17 and 18.

The one-to-one arrangement, common today, dates from the

exodus from the campus schools into the public schools

under the pressures of the numbers matriculating in teacher

education after World War II.[1]

Additional pressure to use public schools came from

the metamorphosis of normal schools into teacher colleges

movement which was nearly complete by 1940. More and more

scholars of education and the academic disciplines began

to recommend the greater normalcy of the public schools.

Another powerful organization had developed and added its

voice to the clamor to improve the laboratory experiences.

That was the National Society of College Teachers of

Education.

Hearing all these voices and feeling the need to

revise its standards for teacher education which were twenty

years old, the AATC's committee on Standards and Surveys

launched a massive study of the whole teacher education

scene in 1945. John G. Flowers was chosen for chairman and

his committee's report was a landmark work that pointed the

way out of campus schools and into public schools. It

recommended also a broader concept for student teaching,

---

[1]Ibid., p. 41.

emphasizing continuous laboratory experiences to facilitate
an on-going study of teaching.[1]

As more and more public schools were used and their
distance from campus increased, colleges found their
limited budgets and staffs allocated to student teaching
were inadequate. Therefore, they began to shift more of
the responsibility for supervising student teachers to the
public school faculties.[2] Often that responsibility was
not accompanied by commensurate control or authority which
nominally still remained with the college. The partner-
ships thus formed were sometimes cordial and mutually
beneficial, but frequently they were partnerships in name
only. The colleges continued to plan their student teaching
program, sought public school assistance in assigning
students to individual cooperating teachers, superficially

[1]Jane E. McAllister, "Glimpses of the Past," The
Outlook in Student Teaching, Forty-first Yearbook (Cedar
Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1962),
pp. 3-26; Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom
(New York: Random House, 1970), pp. 414-416; Ernest Stabler,
The Education of the Secondary School Teacher (Middletown,
Conn.: Wesleyan University Press, 1962), p. 2; Barrowman,
op. cit., pp. 222, 246-248; and Andrews, op. cit., pp. 17,
18, 41 and 76.

[2]Andrews, op. cit., pp. 2, 4, 7 and 78; Barrowman,
op. cit., p. 222.

(if at all) oriented those teachers to the preconceived
program, and turned college students loose on the public
schools with limited college supervision or followthrough.[1]

From the earliest days of the partnership between
public schools and teacher education institutions, their
basic conflicts of interest caused controversy even though
there were areas of mutual interest also. Conflict arose
over assigning of grades as less and less of the super-
vision was done by the colleges. At first there was no
such controversy, for the schools understood their roles as
merely supplying the place for practice. When college
supervisors began to come for brief infrequent visits and
still claimed the right of evaluation, public school
teachers objected.

Sometimes the student teacher found that the
philosophy and methods of the cooperating teacher were the
antithesis of what he was taught by the college. He had to
please the person in whose classroom he was a guest and had
also to please the college supervisor, who ultimately
assigned the grade even if that supervisor did consult the
cooperating teacher.

---

[1]Andrews, op. cit., pp. 4, 7 and 8.

In the limbo of divided authority and responsibility there arose frequent misunderstandings of roles. Consequently many vital aspects of student teaching were sometimes poorly planned and executed.[1]

In spite of the handicaps and problems associated with the course, student teaching became the capstone, the essential climaxing experience, to teacher education programs.[2] Periodically survey-type studies punctuated the development herein highlighted. They often incorporated the opinions of teachers in the field. One rather constant opinion reported was that student teaching was the most important part of their professional education as it affected later success.[3] Several recent reports of surveys

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 4, 7, 8 and 53.

[2]Asahel Woodruff, Student Teaching Today, Study Series, Number Five (Washington, D. C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1960), p. 36.

[3]William Bagley and William Learned, The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools (New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1920); United States Office of Education, National Survey of the Education of Teachers (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933-35), Vols. I-VI; William Learned and Ben Wood, The Student and His Knowledge (New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938); American Council on Education, The Improvement of Teacher Education: A Final

show that the opinion has persisted into the present decade.[1]

Under pressures of academicians in the liberal arts and also

the pressure of the genuine practical needs of the school

population the relative total number of collegiate hours

given to professional courses in general declined while

the total hours alloted to student teaching increased.[2]

Report of the Commission on Teacher Education (Washington,
D. C.: The Council, 1943), Vol. I-VIII; Donald Cottrell,
editor, Teacher Education for a Free People (Washington,
D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher
Education, 1957; James Koerner, The Miseducation of
American Teachers (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company,
1963); James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers
(New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963); Harold Taylor, The World
and The American Teacher (Washington, D. C.: The American
Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1968);
B. Othanel Smith, et al., Teachers for the Real World
(Washington, D. C.: The American Association of Colleges
for Teacher Education, 1969); Seymour Sarasan, The
Preparation of Teachers (New York: John Wiley Publishers,
1962); Lindley J. Stiles, editor, Teacher Education in
The United States (New York; Ronald Press, 1960).

[1]A. R. Mead, "A Symposium on Teacher Education,"
Journal of Teacher Education, 14:37, March, 1963; Russell
Trimmer, "Student Teachers Talk Back," Journal of Teacher
Education, 11: 537-538, December, 1960; Robert D. Price,
"The Influence of Supervising Teachers," Journal of
Teacher Education, 12: 471-475, December, 1961.

[2]Lloyd Standlee and W. James Popham, "Too Much
'Pedagogy' in Teacher Education?", The Bulletin of the
National Association of Secondary School Principals, 45:
80-81, December, 1961; See also William A. Bennie,
Cooperation for Better Schools (Minneapolis, Minn.:
Burgess Publishing Company, 1966), p. 2.

The trend toward more and more emphasis on student teaching climaxed, for many people, with the publication in 1963 of The Education of American Teachers by Doctor James B. Conant.[1] His study substantiated earlier claims for the primacy of the need for a carefully planned student teaching experience in the preparation of teachers.

The history of student teaching as a phase of teacher education would seem to have three main themes as seen in the foregoing resume: (1) the development of key policy shaping organizations, (2) the growing complexity and sophistication of the conceptualizations of the term, and (3) the growing influence of the public schools in the movement.

The chief organizations that were contributors were: The National Society for the Study of Education, The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, The John Dewey Society, the Association for Student Teaching, The American Council on Education, the National Society of College Teachers of Education, and branches of The National Education Association.

---

[1] James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963).

The conceptualization moved from the simple practice of teaching modeled after a master teacher for a few weeks duration to the idea of the continuing clinical study of education in its broadest sense.

In former years student teaching was exclusively a function of the teacher preparing institution. In time it moved gradually into the public schools where more and more responsibility for the supervision of student teachers fell to cooperating public school teachers.

SURVEYS AND STANDARDS REVEALING STUDENT TEACHING AS IT EXISTS TODAY

Having studied the developmental aspects from student teaching's past, the writer next turned to literature dealing with the present or the status quo in student teaching.

Some form of student teaching is required for state certification in all states maintaining such certification.[1] In most cases, student teaching has become a full time experience away from the colleges and has come to involve

---

[1] Ray A. Edelfelt, editor, The Role of the State Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching (Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1969), p. 29.

all the varied roles of a teacher in a real school, a real
community with very real students and publics. Usually a
student teacher is placed with one cooperating teacher
with whom he will remain for the entire period. More often
than not this student teaching experience will constitute
his entire laboratory of clinical involvement with teaching.
This is especially true if he is in the secondary field.[1]

There is no uniformity of standards for what
comprises the experiences in student teaching or for the
qualifications of the persons who direct and supervise
those experiences. There is, after all, little agreement
as to what is good teaching. Therefore it is not
surprising to find scant agreement concerning experiences
which should help one become a good teacher.[2]

_____

[1]Esther D. Hernsing, editor, Realignments for
Teacher Education, Twenty-third yearbook (Washington, D. C.:
The Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1970),
p. 22; James A. Johnson, A National Survey of Student
Teaching, Office of Education Research Project 6-8, 182
(Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project,
1968); Edelfelt, op. cit., All of Chapter III "A National
Survey of State Practices and Trends in Student Teaching,"
by Mary B. Hess; Dorothy McGeoch, Direct Experiences in
Teacher Education: A Story of Three Programs (New York:
Bureau of Publications, Teachers College of Columbia
University, 1953), p. 32.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: Center
for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 5.

Credit for the course varies from two to twenty hours. Some study of teaching is still done in campus schools but much is done far from the campus in teaching centers.[1] In most states no legal recognition is given the student teacher, but California has a level of certification for him. Although some colleges leave all the supervision to public school teachers, only eight states have special certification requirements for those supervisors.[2]

However, there is agreement in survey after survey of state after state on one issue--finance. Nearly all student teaching programs are under-financed. One reason given is that such a low percentage of those who graduate in education continue to serve society in that field. Up to twenty to thirty percent of the one quarter of a million graduates in education do not teach upon graduation. Over one third have left teaching by the third year and over one half by the fifth year.[3] Perhaps these figures

---

[1]Ibid., p. 6.

[2]Ibid., p. 6-8.

[3]Howard Bosley, director, Emerging Roles and Responsibilities ("Teacher Education in Transition;" Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1969), Volume II, p. 165.

have a significance for transcending the question of
financial allocation of society's scarce resources.
Perhaps they indicate something about the professional
acculturation and induction for those preparing to teach.

New educational technology and new analytical
concepts in the teaching-learning transaction are being
applied to the professional laboratory phase of teacher
preparation. Micro-teaching, simulations of various kinds,
television, video-tapes, taxomonic and category systems for
analysis are all being utilized.[1] The publications
resulting from the annual National Conference on Teacher
Education and Professional Standards catalogue hundreds of
innovative projects around the country. Most of them
feature one (or a combination) of these advances in the
science and engineering of education. The stage was set
for this decade of innovation by Margaret Lindsey in her
New Horizons for the Teaching Profession.[2]

---

[1]E. Brooks Smith and Patrick Johnson, editors,
School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: A Report
of a National Survey of Cooperative Ventures (Washington,
D. C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher
Education, 1964); Edelfelt, op. cit., pp. 94-133.

[2]Margaret Lindsey, editor, New Horizons for the
Teaching Profession (Washington, D. C.: The National
Education Association, 1961).

The history survey showed a trend toward the use of public schools for student teaching. The survey of the status quo shows that colleges rely almost completely on the public schools for all professional laboratory experiences but there are voices raised in doubt concerning that practice and others in the current scene described above.[1] Conant attacks the content of the whole teacher education sequence and also the certification of courses and hours and not performance. He also takes National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education and national accreditation inflexibilities to task.[2]

Dr. Fred Wilhelms, Executive Secretary of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, in Realignments for Teacher Education deplored the problems associated with too much dependence on the public schools. He spoke of the practice as "... a condemnation to mediocrity--or worse."[3] Paul Woodring recommended moving

---

[1]Conant, op. cit., p. 64; Andrews, op. cit., p. 40; and Hernsing, op. cit., p. 22.

[2]Conant, op. cit., p. 64 et. passim.

[3]Hernsing, op. cit., p. 22.

toward giving the public schools complete responsibility for student teaching.[1] The present uneasy partnership is being attacked by those who say "let's have more college influence and direction"[2] and those who say "let's leave it to the public schools."[3]

Most writers seem to accept the inevitability of the present cooperative partnership whereby the two institutions share the responsibility and authority. There is a growing body of research on the state agency for public education as overseer of the sometimes uneasy partnership.[4]

Though there is little agreement about the operational details involved in professional laboratory experiences, there is almost universal agreement as to the significance of some type of clinical study of teaching to the preparation of a successful teacher.[5] John Fisher,

---

[1]Paul Woodring, New Directions in Teacher Education: An Interim Report (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 13.

[2]Dr. Wilhelms for example.

[3]Dr. Conant and Paul Woodring for example.

[4]Edelfelt, op. cit., all 70 pages; Bosley, op. cit.

[5]National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, The Teacher and His Staff (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1969), p. 64.

Vice President and Dean for Information and Research at
Illinois State University, told the 1968 Teacher Education
and Professional Standards Conference, "The only facet of
teacher education not riddled with barbs of criticism to
the point that it is recommended for elimination has been
student teaching."[1]

Twenty-three years after the Flowers' Report
educators have yet to fully implement it even though they
are unanimous in agreement on the need for professional
laboratory experiences. Flowers had said in 1948 in his
famous "Principle I" (later to become Standard VI of
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
standards for accreditation):

> The particular contribution of professional
> laboratory experiences (including student
> teaching) to the education of teachers is threefold:
> (1) an opportunity to implement theory, both to
> study the pragmatic value of the theory and to check
> with the student his understanding of the theory
> in application; (2) a field of activity which,
> through raising questions and problems, helps the
> student to see his need for further study; and
> (3) an opportunity to study with the student his
> ability to function effectively when guiding actual
> teaching-learning situations.[2]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 67.

[2]John G. Flowers, School and Community Laboratory
Experiences (Oneonta, N. Y.: The American Association of
Teachers Colleges, 1948), p. 16.

Dorothy McGeach described the recent situation as having
too few experiences _prior_ to student teaching and none
afterwards, no attention to individual differences, and
no flexibility as to time and scheduling.[1]

Seeking to guage the extent of the omissions and
failures, The American Association of Colleges for Teacher
Education and Association for Student Teaching began a
cooperative survey in 1956. Three Bulletins resulted from
the joint committee's research: "The Purposes, Functions
and Uniqueness of College Controlled Laboratory Schools;"
"A Guide to Planning Off-Campus Student Teaching;" and
"Providing a Comprehensive Program of Professional
Laboratory Experiences for Prospective Teachers."[2]

During the post-sputnik panic the United States
began to realize that her scientists, her professionals and
her researchers were no better than their education in the

---

[1]Dorothy McGeach, _Direct Experiences in Teacher
Education: A Story of Three Programs_ (New York: Bureau
of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University,
1953), p. 32.

[2]Howard T. Batchelder, Richard E. Lawrence and
George R. Myers, _A Guide to Planning Off-Campus Student
Teaching_ (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student
Teaching, 1969), p. iii.

public schools. Consequently federal monies began to pour

into education in great quantity. After the initial period

of spending for direct intervention only at the classroom

level, national planners began to see that the key to

improved public education was improved teacher education.[1]

Of the many projects sponsored under the National Defense

Education Act, two have special significance for pointing

the way in professional laboratory experiences of the

future. They are the so-called Johnson Report,[2] the result

of an Office of Education sponsored survey in 1968, and

M-STEP, which stands for Multi-State Teacher Education

Project.[3]

The director of M-STEP, Howard Bosley, described the

innovations of the 1960's as strongly resembling ideas

current in 1930's.[4] The changes being researched in M-STEP

---

[1]Andrews, op. cit., p. 5.

[2]James A. Johnson, A National Survey of Student
Teaching Programs (Bureau of Research Project Number
6-8182, Grant Number O E G 3-7-068182-2635, Washington,
D. C.: The United States Government Printing Office, 1968).

[3]Howard Bosley, Director, Emerging Roles and
Responsibilities ("Teacher Education in Transition,"
Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project,
1969), Volumes I and II.

[4]Ibid., Vol. II, p. 166.

are: extensive use of simulation and analysis technology, the teaching center or institute concept, patterns of cooperative ventures tying preservice and inservice teacher education together, and state departments' role identification in future regulation and control of standards and practices in laboratory experiences.

The National Education Association, through Teacher Education and Professional Standards has extended its preoccupation with staff-differentiation to include student teaching as part of that differentiation. In their 1969 report, The Teacher and His Staff,[1] James Fisher said:

> Even James B. Conant was unequivocal in support
> for student teaching. Teacher educators them-
> selves are unanimous in agreeing that student
> teaching is the most important aspect of the program
> in teacher education. It would seem to follow then
> that as we plan changes in our teacher education
> programs we should use the student teaching
> experience as a point of departure.[2]

A look at the literature describing the status quo in student teaching reveals there is some disagreement with the so-called progress of recent times. The movement into the public schools proved to have disadvantages as well as

---

[1] NEA, op. cit.

[2] Ibid., p. 67.

advantages. The extension of more time in student teaching did not guarantee a genuine clinical experience with theory and practice integrated. The use of public school people for supervision proved to be strong in practicing of standard models, but weak in developing students of educational analysis. The partnership arrangements were showing the strain of divergent self interests. National organizations and their standard for accreditation seemed only to compound inflexibility and put emphasis on courses and hours rather than reasoned performance criteria. And many "New Horizons" proved to be simply old programs revamped and revisited. It would seem that all is not well in teacher education in general--not even in the much-praised student teaching phase.[1]

THE ISSUE: THE RELATIVE INFLUENCE OF COLLEGE

AND SCHOOL SUPERVISORS FOR STUDENT TEACHING

At issue in this study is the problem of student teachers modeling after or emulating cooperating public school teachers. There are, of course, several aspects

---

[1]Though many have written in this vein, James B. Conant in The Education of American Teachers and Charles E. Silberman in Crisis in the Classroom have had perhaps the greatest public impact.

which make up the basic question--the impact that student

teaching per se has on the student teacher, the relative

lack of college influence as opposed to that of the class-

room teacher, the pros and cons of the situation as it

exists, and efforts aimed at elimination of the problem

(if there is one).

The writer found frequent literary references of

the nature of "educational research says," "studies show,"

"there is considerable evidence," and "research has shown."

But the actual conclusive research on the subject is sparse.

This issue is like much of the folklore of education--it is

based chiefly on "common knowledge," "experience," and

"time has shown," type of evidence it seems.

The Research Studied on the Issue

There are a few pieces of research literature which

touch on the basic question and those subsumed within it.

They are studies reported in the following works:

> Aleyne Clayton Haines, "Role Dilemmas in Student
> Teaching," Journal of Teacher Education,
> 8:365-368, December 1957 (a study of value
> and attitude formation in student teachers);

> Marjorie Kingsley, "Helping the Student Teacher
> Become a Teacher," Educational Leadership,
> 8 (#3):143-146, December, 1956 (deals also
> with role identification and valuing);

John D. McNeil, "What is the Role of the Teacher
    of Teachers?" The Student Teacher's Reader,
    Alex Perrodin, editor (Chicago: Rand McNally
    & Co., 1966), p. 56.

Henry J. Hermanowicz, "The Pluralistic World of
    Beginning Teachers," The Real World of the
    Beginning Teacher, Report of Nineteenth
    National TEPS Conference (Washington, D. C.:
    1966), p. 15. (Based on his thirteen studies
    of a cross section of opinions held by practicing
    teachers about their professional preparation.
    He questioned first year, third year and fifth
    year teachers in the field from coast to coast
    in diverse professional environs);

Dan Lortie, "Teacher Socialization," also in The
    Real World of the Beginning Teacher, p. 56-57.
    (This study was designed to test the flow of
    influence from one generation to the next as a
    contributor to the conservatism attributed to
    teachers. He found there was modeling after
    teachers who taught them as well as after their
    cooperating teacher);

William A. Bennie, Cooperation for Better Teaching
    (Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Company,
    1966), p. 36-39. (He reports the George Dickson
    study of human relations problems in student
    teaching);

William J. McGlothlin, Patterns of Professional
    Education (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1960),
    p. x. (A comparative study of ten professions
    which identifies several critical assumptions
    common to most programs of professional
    education which have not been adequately tested
    nor based on relevant fact);

The Association for Student Teaching, Off-Campus
    Student Teaching, 1952 Yearbook (Cedar Falls,
    Iowa: The Association, 1952), p. 259. (Kate
    Boyce's study of opinions of one thousand three
    hundred ninety-nine graduates of teacher

education institutions as to the most
influential aspect of their professional
sequence. Student teaching was given highest
frequency);

Association for Student Teaching, Prospective
Teachers Learn from Experience with Children and
Youth, Bulletin No. 7 (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The
Association, 1957), passim. (A study using
500 Ohio education students in Junior or Senior
year, coordinated by Dorothy McCuskey from the
University of Cincinnati, Bernard Rubin from
Ohio State University and Winifred V. Caraway
from Bowling Green State University, reports on
the value of more exposure to a real situation,
the value of deliberately planned experience,
dependence on cooperating teacher, and failures
they found. They conclude: "Our students did
not learn the need for total staff planning,"
p. vii; "Perhaps working with children in
particular classrooms limited the perspective of
the students," p. 21, "the Difference in
Attitudes made a difference," p. 55. They
recommended "Teaching experience in more than
one situation.", p. 56).

Laura Zirbes, editor, Encouraging Creativity in
Student Teaching, Bulletin No. Six, The
Association for Student Teaching (Cedar Falls,
Iowa: The Association, 1958), p. 3. (Quoting
Johnnye V. Cox of the University of Georgia at
Athens concerning his research, "There is
little evidence of creative teaching on the part
of teachers in service (including many super-
vising teachers).";

Frank L. Steeves, "A Summary of the Literature of
the Off-Campus Cooperating Teacher," Educational
Administration and Supervision, 38: 127-37,
March, 1952.

Howard Bosley, director, Emerging Roles and
Responsibilities ("Teacher Education in
Transition," Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State

Teacher Education Project, 1969), p. 215.
(Certain preliminary information coming from
the research component of the project indicates
that student teachers in the experimental program
feel more secure in ability to be flexible and
face the unknown of their first year with
confidence.)

E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher
   Education (Washington, D. C.: The Association
   of Colleges for Teacher Education, NEA, 1966),
   p. 244.   (This 1966 joint workshop symposium of
   the AACTE and AST reported two significant
   research projects which found "the influence of
   the cooperating teacher to be great." They were
   the R. Zahn study at Glassboro State College in
   1964, and the D. M. Medley and H. Mitzel Project
   for the Office of Education, Department of
   Health, Education and Welfare--project #730035
   Educational Media Branch. P. 244. Zahn's is
   entitled "The Effect of Cooperating Teacher
   Attitudes on the Attitudes of Student Teachers."
   The HEW project "Measured Change in Student
   Teacher Behavior," was part of a three year study
   entitled Improvement of Student Teaching. The
   Smith resume also looked at the question of
   modeling in the broader professional concept.
   A study of the same question in medical education
   was Robert Merton, et al., Student Physicians
   (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press,
   1957). Merton pointed out that "students tend
   to take on the ideas, the attitudes, the values,
   and the behaviors they perceive in their
   professional subculture, as displayed by members
   of it with whom they are in close contact.");
   p. 289.

J. D. McAuley, "How Much Influence Has A Cooperating
   Teacher?" The Journal of Teacher Education,
   11: 79-83, March, 1960. (He reported that "young
   teachers placed in a teaching situation too
   different from what he experienced in student
   teaching is often frustrated and discouraged."
   and "Materials and techniques presented in

college methods course were not noticeably used by the young teachers.");

Gaither McConnell, "They Helped Us, But--," _Journal of Teacher Education_, 11:84-86, March, 1960. (Student teachers in the study reported on hinderances as well as help from cooperating teachers.);

Leonard K. Kise, "A Comparison of Some Effects Upon Teacher Candidates of Two Kinds of Professional Education Preparation Programs" Cornell Research Project Reported in Robert M. Weiss, _The Conant Controversy in Teacher Education_ (New York: Random House, 1969), p. 186. (The study showed little difference in the student teaching performance if the student had studied methods previous to student teaching or not. He showed an increased appreciation for and readiness to learn methods as the student taught.)

Walter W. Cook and C. H. Leeds, "Measuring the Teaching Personality," _Educational and Psychological Measurement_, 7:409; No. 3, 1947.

Marshall Nagal, "Effects of an Internship Upon Selected Goals of the Program," _Journal of Educational Research_, 58:711-714, March, 1955. (He used the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory to evaluate the program).

Robert D. Price, "The Influence of Supervising Teachers," _Journal of Teacher Education_, 12:471-475, December, 1961.

and the research-based books of Conant,[1] Koerner,[2] and

---

[1]James B. Conant, _The Education of American Teachers_ (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963).

[2]James Koerner, _The Mis-education of American Teachers_ (New York: Haughton-Mifflin Company, 1963).

Silberman.[1]

Opinion-Type Literature on the Issue

One way to look at the issue is to take the position
that the cooperating teacher has too much influence if it
does truly so completely overbalance the influence of the
college. This is not to say that the public school
teachers involved are "bad" teachers or knowingly "bad"
for their student teachers. It is to say that no one person
should so completely mold the teaching attitudes and style
of another teacher.[2]

There has been much written about this problem in
the vein of description and opinion. Most writers
ostensibly base their position on the previously cited
basic research. Writers before 1960 seemed to assume that
"yes, cooperating teachers are very influential, but we
can't change that so we will concentrate on standards and

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

[2]Fred T. Wilhelms, "The Charles W. Hunt Lecture,"
Realignments for Teacher Education, Esther D. Hernsing,
editor, Twenty-third yearbook, The American Association of
Colleges for Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: The
Association, 1970), pp. 22 and 25.

programs to make them better supervisors of student

teachers."[1]

The issue: cooperating teachers exert too much

influence. The simple fact of the existence of the great

influence exerted by cooperating teachers is supported by

McNeil, Stradley, Silberman, Flanders, Olsen, Bennie,

Koerner, Andrews, Stiles, Hetenzi, Lindsay, Pfeiffer,

Richards, Wilson, Steeves, Stratemeyer, Hayes and Brown.[2]

[1]William A. Bennie, Cooperation for Better Teaching (Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966), p. 20. (He quotes Haskew who recommended state funding and standards in 1949 as he extended the principle to federal funding and standards in 1964.); and L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), pp. 52, 97.

[2]John D. McNeil, "What is the Role of the Teachers of Teachers?", The Student Teachers' Reader, Alex Perrodin, editor (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966), p. 56; see also, William E. Stradley, Supervising Student Teachers (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1968), p. 13; Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 458; Ned Flanders, describing research in and uses of his Interaction Analysis Categories in Roy H. Edelfelt, editor, The Role of the State Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching (TEPS Report for 1969 Conference, Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1969), pp. 28 and 29; Hans Olsen, speculating in a section of Edelfelt's The Role of the State Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching called "What I Think Student Teaching Should Become," p. 70; William A. Bennie, Cooperating for Better

Publications of the recent federally funded Multi-State Teacher Education Project, which extends from coast to coast, take the position that "ways must be found to

---

Teaching (Minneapolis, Minnesota; The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966), pp. 20 and 36; James Koerner, The Miseducation of American Teachers (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1963), pp. 66 and 94; L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), pp. 83 and 104; Lindley, J. Stiles, Teacher Education in the United States (New York: Ronald Press, 1960), pp. 260 and 269; Lazeo Hetinzi, "Politics of School-College Cooperation in Student Teaching," Partnership in Teacher Education, E. Brooks Smith, et al., for Teacher Education and the NEA, 1966, p. 106; Margaret Lindsay in E. Brooks Smith's Partnership in Teacher Education, op. cit., p. 289, and again in Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories which she edited with "Associates" at Teachers College of Columbia University Press in 1969, pp. 110 and 204; Robert Pfeiffer, chairman, The College Supervisor: Conflict and Challenge, Forty-Third yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1964), p. 2; Helen Richards in The Association for Student Teaching's Thirty-eighth yearbook, The Supervising Teacher (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1959), p. 24; Charles F. Wilson, "Student Teachers Adversely Affected by Super Supervision," Clearing House 38:105-107, October, 1963; Frank L. Steeves, Issues in Student Teaching: A Casebook With Related Problems in Teacher Education (New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1963), p. 253; Florence Stratemeyer and Margaret Lindsay, Working with Student Teachers (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College of Columbia University, 1958), p. 4; Robert B. Hayes, "Involving Teachers in Teacher Education," Professional Growth Inservice of the Supervising Teacher, Forty-fifth yearbook, The Association for Student Teaching (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1964), p. 4; Thomas J. Brown, Student Teaching in a Secondary School (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1960), p. 136.

eliminate from student teaching the dangers of non-thinking emulation of both the supervising teacher and others who have taught him ....."[1] They see the pervasive and powerful influence of the cooperating teacher as a "danger" then. The danger is spelled out by Bosley who said, "It is difficult for the student teacher to avoid copying the techniques and absorbing the teaching philosophy of his supervising teacher. Such emulation, however, can result in the perpetuation of unsatisfactory teaching practices and retard innovation and creative thinking on the part of student teachers."[2] He added later after considering some innovations which are part of the M-STEP program "Even micro-teaching and simulation do not provide complete answers to this problem."[3]

It has been established repeatedly that cooperating teachers do exert great influence and that there are dangers; this leads to the writer's next step in presentation

_____

[1]Howard E. Bosley, director, Multi-State Teacher Education Project Report (Baltimore, Md.: M-STEP, 1969), p. 105-107.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 107.

of the issue raised. There is too much influence on the

part of the cooperating (or supervising, or critic)

teacher.

Silberman said:

The weakest link in practice teaching is the
public school teacher.... A large body of
experience corroborated by some research indicates
that this teacher exerts considerably more
influence on the student teacher's style and
approach than do his [college] supervisor or the
education professor under whom he has studied.
With inadequate supervision and unarmed with any
theories of teaching or learning or any philosophy
of education by which he can judge and criticize the
teacher with whom he is placed, the student
teacher naturally and inevitably tends to imitate
him.[1]

This would seem to indicate that the "fault," if any, is

not that the public school teacher insidiously tries to

usurp power or influence but that the colleges have not

provided "adequate" supervision, theory and philosophy to

the student before he enters the public school classroom

to "practice."

The warning is not new. Dewey was saying the same

thing back in 1904 in his essay "The Relationship of Theory

to Practice in Education." He said, "The student adjusts

his actual teaching method, not to the principles which he

---

[1]Silberman, op. cit., p. 438.

is acquiring but to what he sees succeed and fail in an empirical way from moment to moment--what he sees others who have better control than he doing. Injunctions and directions given to him ... fix the controlling habits with little reference to principles of the psychology, logic, or history of education."[1] Dewey continued, "Here we have the explanation, in considerable part at least, of the dualism, the unconscious duplicity, which is one of the chief evils [emphasis the present author's] of the teaching profession. There is enthusiastic devotion to certain principles of lofty theory in the abstract--principles of self-activity and self-control ... and there is school practice taking little heed of the official pedagogic creed."[2]

Wilhelms spoke of student teaching experiences as "warping the young professional" who "ought to be finding his own unique self is instead warped [emphasis the present

---

[1]Ibid., p. 459; also in Merle Barrowman's Teacher Education in America and the original The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers, Third Yearbook, Part I of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education (Bloomington, Illinois: The Society, 1904).

[2]Ibid., p. 459.

writer's] by someone else's style and being."[1] He went on

to recommend that "... our use of that laboratory (the

public schools) must be radically reshaped." He argued

that position on two grounds--"going from the abstract

theoretical to the final massive dose of experience is

unsound" and "any professional program which finally

delivers the student into the hands of one or two 'master

teachers' who are to show him how to teach is not only

unsound but also potentially damaging and this is true

even if the master teachers are exceptionally skilled."

(Emphasis is this writer's.)[2]

Richard Davis, Dean of the School of Education at the

University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee said in describing an

innovative teacher education program there, "We began with

an assumption of an observed truth that the traditional

methods foster, if anything, rigidity and reliance upon

precedent rather than creativity and ability to generate

new solutions."[3]

---

[1]Wilhelms, op. cit., p. 23.

[2]Ibid., p. 24.

[3]Esther D. Hernsing, editor, Realignments for Teacher
Education, Twenty-third yearbook of the American Association
of Colleges for Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: The
Association, 1970), p. 55.

Ned Flanders concluded a look at the pros and cons of the typical program of student teaching with "nevertheless, the fact remains that student teachers, by and large, tend to imitate their supervising teachers.... It is what Warneth called 'professional deformation' and Vebler called 'producing training incapacity.'" He seemed to think that the present program "perpetuates a system" and raises the question "What if the system is faulty?"[1]

Laura Zirbes went so far as to speak of regression when she said, "...thus our lags and our shortcomings contribute to the confused conceptions inclining prospective teachers to regress [emphasis this writer's], teaching as they were taught instead of facing the challenges of their present roles with creative confidence...."[2] That regression to "teaching as they are taught" would seem to be a genuine danger to the profession if what Lieberman

---

[1] Ron A. Edelfelt, editor, The Role of the State Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching (TEPS Report for 1969 Conference, Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1969) p.

[2] Laura Zirbes, Encouraging Creativity in Student Teaching, Professional Bulletin No. Six, the Association for Student Teaching (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1958), p. 22.

asserted is true (and he documents his position well).

He said, "It is common knowledge that many of the critic

teachers are more in need of training than their student

teachers."[1] How frightening if that student's "development

is critically determined by the quality of student teaching

experiences."[2] As claimed by Hetenzie, these "tradition

bound subject matter specialists (in secondary schools) . . .

represent one of the most powerful forces operating to

impede the dissemination of new content, methodology, and

organizational pattern--the public schools."[3]

Arthur Combs seemed to imply that the _more_ expert

the cooperating teacher the more "danger" involved for

---

[1]Myron Lieberman, _Education as a Profession_
(Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956),
p. 209. (The author has been told, in numerous interviews
with principals, that a certain teacher needs a student
teacher to help bring her up to date or that a certain
school wants student teachers to strengthen weak teachers.)

[2]Charles F. Wilson, "Student Teachers Adversely
Affected by Super Supervision," _Clearinghouse_ 38: 105-107,
October, 1963.

[3]Lazlo Hetenzie, "Politics of School-College
Cooperation in Student Teaching," _Partnership in Teacher
Education_, edited by E. Brooks Smith (Washington, D. C.:
The Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and
NEA, 1966), p. 106.

"This very expertness can, however, get in the way of helping teacher-education students to discover their own best way of teaching."[1]

Combs looked at the problem of teacher education and in particular the question of the efficacy of conventional student teaching relationships from the standpoint of his concern for the becoming person in the neophyte teacher. His approach to analyzing the problem was from the affective domain--the feelings, the psychological development of the future teacher. He said of the practice of modeling, "The attempt to adopt someone else's methods when they do not fit can be dangerous." He wrote of the need for "genuineness" when students begin to teach on their own.[2]

Whether we regard the situation of modeling or imitation of the public school teacher by the student teacher as necessary and undesirable, as necessary and desirable, or as unnecessary at all--it does exist and is

---

[1] Arthur W. Combs, The Professional Education of Teachers (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), p. 106.

[2] Ibid., pp. 102, 103.

a powerful force. Bennie said "...the cooperating teacher
is the most influential factor in determining the kind of
teaching done by the student teacher <u>once</u> <u>he</u> <u>assumes</u> <u>a</u>
<u>teaching</u> <u>of</u> <u>his</u> <u>own</u> [Emphasis this writer's]. This includes
his attitude toward teaching and toward fellow teachers as
well."[1]

One might logically say of cooperating teachers
what Horace Mann said to graduating teacher education
students, "More will sometimes be demanded of you than is
reasonable."[2] This 1846 prediction has certainly been
borne out in the unrealistic demands made by teacher
education institutions upon public school teachers.[3]

Andrews said that the shift from campus schools to
public schools meant that the "quality and character of

_____

[1]Bennie, op. cit., p. 36.

[2]The National Education Association, <u>The</u> <u>Real</u> <u>World</u>
<u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>Beginning</u> <u>Teacher</u> (Report of the Nineteenth National
Teacher Education and Professional Standards Conference at
New York, Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1966), p. ii.

[3]Silberman, op. cit., p. 459, and NEA, <u>Who's</u> <u>in</u>
<u>Charge</u> <u>Here</u>?: <u>Fixing</u> <u>Responsibility</u> <u>for</u> <u>Student</u> <u>Teaching</u>
(A Discussion Paper, Washington, D. C.: National Commission
on Teacher Educational Professional Standard, NEA, 1966),
p. 24.

laboratory experiences dropped markedly." Off campus

personnel were not "tooled up for the new role before being

thrust into it."[1] Public school people simply took their

leave at first and only provided a place for "practice"

teaching. Ninety percent of responsibility remained with

college personnel.[2]

George Counts, in "Break the Teacher Training

Lockstep" which he wrote in 1935, urged greater use of the

public schools and public school teachers. He saw that move

as the only way to save teacher education from impracti-

cality and incompetence. He called it a waste not to use

"these artists of the professional science" to teach

future teachers. He called them a great reservoir of

expertise. After 1936 teacher education institutions

followed his advice and ignored Dewey, Stratemeyer and

others who opposed the divorce of theory and practice.[3]

---

[1]Andrews, op. cit., p. 52.

[2]Ibid., p. 54.

[3]George Counts, "Break the Teacher Training
Lockstep," The Social Frontier, 1:6-7, June 1935, as quoted
in Merle Barrowman's Teacher Education in America, p. 222.

Under the old laboratory school program only ten percent of the supervisory responsibility fell to the college faculty, for the laboratory teachers assumed at least ninety percent of the instruction and supervision during student teaching, often having as many as eight or ten students apiece at one time.[1] Evidently the college faculty was not ready for the public schools to leave them with almost complete responsibility for their students. Hence, the failures in supervision which Counts wished to change by designating the public school cooperating teacher as paramount supervisor of student teaching.[2]

By the time of the Atlantic City meeting on teacher education effectiveness in February, 1960 (National Education Association) the trend seemed to be complete. Laboratory schools were closed or closing and the student teaching phase of teacher education had moved into the schools--it was a sort of "Here I come, ready or not" situation at best.[3]

----

[1] Andrews, op. cit., p. 54.

[2] Ibid., p. 65.

[3] Ibid., p. 104.

One result, which perhaps explains the tragic loss

to the profession of thousands of first year teachers each

year,[1] has been that "most first year teaching is an ordeal

simply because the neophyte teacher spends most of his

energy attempting to cope with the resistance of students

to his efforts to transplant a theory and method to an

unfavorable environment."[2]

There are those who bemoan the colleges' failure

and say give student teaching to the public schools;

examples are Counts[3] and recently Woodring.[4] There are

more people who point to the failures which have resulted

from the schools' having too much responsibility, for

---

[1]Howard Bosley, director, _Teacher Education in Transition_ (Baltimore, Maryland: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1969), Vol. II, p. 165.

[2]Thomas J. Brown, _Student Teaching in a Secondary School_ (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960), p. 136.

[3]Counts, op. cit., p. 6-7.

[4]Paul Woodring, _New Directions in Teacher Education_ (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 13.

instance Wilhelms,[1] Dewey,[2] Koerner[3] and Lindsay.[4] At

least one person has questioned the advisability of

continuing student teaching at all. Lieberman said, "Some

studies have cast serious doubt on the actual benefits of

practice teaching as it is currently carried on."[5] He

pointed to a movement in medical education to move away

from its "primitive" training technique called internship--

a technique which education cites as a model for student

teaching.[6]

---

[1]Fred T. Wilhelms, "The Charles W. Hunt Lecture;"
Realignments for Teacher Education, Esther D. Hernsing,
editor, Twenty-third Yearbook, The American Association
of Colleges for Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.:
The Association, 1970 pp. 22 and 25.

[2]John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice in
Education," The Relation of Theory to Practice in the
Education of Teachers (Third Yearbook, Part I, Bloomington,
Illinois: The National Society for the Scientific Study of
Education, 1904).

[3]Koerner, op. cit.

[4]Margaret Lindsay and Associates, Supervision in
Teacher Education Laboratories: A Series of Three Monographs
(New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,
Columbia University, 1969), pp. 110 and 204.

[5]Myron Lieberman, Education as a Profession (Englewood
Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 201.

[6]Ibid., p. 209 (and originally in "Are Internships
Passe?" Medical Economics (Vol. 32, July 1955, p. 8).

But, Phillip Perdew, of the University of Denver School of Education, reminded the education community that as serious as student teaching's problems may be, the alternative is difficult to contemplate. He put the issue into a wider perspective when he said:

> Student teaching can't possibly work. But here it is; it has been here for a century or more. We are like the bee which, I understand, is poorly engineered aerodynamically, but who, in his blissful ignorance, flies about, with apparent ease and even makes a little honey on the side. We don't know it won't work, so we go ahead and do it anyway, meanwhile alternately complaining of its inadequacy, blasting cooperating teachers who don't cooperate our way or don't even teach, or taking pot shots at college supervisors who rarely are available when needed or when available, only interfere rather than help.[1]

Perdew attributed the success, such as it is, of current practices to the good intentions and flexibility of the cooperating teachers, college supervisors and administrators in both institutions who have done the best they could with the realities of an impossible partnership which was doomed by their inevitable conflict of interests.[2]

---

[1]Phillip Perdew, "Reflections on a Conference," Partnership in Teacher Education, E. Brooks Smith, et al., editors (Washington, D. C.: The Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and NEA, 1966), pp. 2 and 3.

[2]Ibid., p. 3.

He recommended a new politics to emphasize the few mutual interests college and school have in common.

The issue: the colleges' failure in influence. Repeatedly the implication came through, in literature previously cited, that the public school cooperating teacher has the great influence he does because of default by the college supervisor. The cooperating teacher simply fills a void left in the college preparation. He "commands reality," Robert Pfeiffer said.[1]

The 1948 study conducted by The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education seemed to uphold this view which contends that it is the colleges' lack of influence, not public schools' overabundance, which causes the imbalance in influence exerted on student teachers.[2] Again, in 1954 the Association's Seventh Yearbook seemed to suggest that the colleges were shirking their responsibilities and having student teachers and the public school people

_____

[1] Robert Pfeiffer, Chairman, The College Supervisor: Conflict and Challenge, Forty-third Yearbook, The Association for Student Teaching (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1964).

[2] The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education of NEA, First Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1948), Vol. I, p. 207.

"uninformed" and "unguided."[1]

Margaret Lindsay, at that time Professor of Education at Indiana State Teachers College, pointed out in "Standard VI--Five Years After" that "too frequently college teachers . . . do not themselves go into laboratory situations or help the student to relate what he is seeing and doing in a laboratory with what he is learning through such other means [course work]. . . . The marked trend to provide opportunities for future teachers to learn through direct experience . . . is accompanied by some real dangers."[2] She took the position that neither the public school staffs nor the schools of education faculties were prepared because the changing roles and demands came too quickly.[3]

Sidney Hook quoted Paul Woodring as saying ". . . the results [of college neglect] is that the student teacher is often placed with a teacher little more competent than he, from whom he learns more bad than good habits;" and he has

---

[1]AACTE, NEA, Seventh Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1954), Vol. VII, p. 131.

[2]Ibid., p. 131.

[3]Ibid., p. 131.

only an "occasional visit from the college supervisor."[1]

The college supervisor is poorly prepared to instruct and guide the student teacher when he does arrive, said Charles Silberman. He pointed out the lack of a clear conception of teaching upon which all parties agree and he also stated that college supervisors did not know teaching because they had never taught or else not in years.[2]

Harold Taylor theorized that colleges of education lack influence with future teachers because they lack "touched lives;" "respect for the art of teaching rather than cynical professorial lack of respect for public school teaching" is needed to instill in the student of teaching the notion of the "life-fulfilling action of teaching." The best way to produce great teachers is to _be_ a great teacher while instructing them. To turn out dedicated "touched" professionals of the type which Taylor said are needed, teachers-of-teachers must "take delight in the doing" and let teaching "engulf their being." Good teachers

---

[1]AACTE, NEA, Eleventh Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1958), p. 20.

[2]Charles E. Silberman, _Crisis in the Classroom_ (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 451.

are philosopher-teachers and must be taught by philosopher-teachers, he said in The World of the American Teacher.[1]

Dewey had Taylor's profound awe and respect for the real teacher and for those who can prepare him. He called such a person "a teacher, an inspirer, a director of soul-life."[2]

Fred Wilhelms described the whole professional sequence as lacking in "developmental guidance" designed to assist the student in "becoming a professional person." He said, "much of the understanding and skill presumed to have been generated in the earlier course has somehow vanished before it can be applied."[3] (Emphasis this writer's).

E. Graham Pogue, director of student teaching at Ball State University, in Chapter Two of Ron Edelfelt's study of State educational agencies and innovation in student teaching, said, "the college representative

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 472-473.

[2]Ibid., p. 272.

[3]Fred T. Wilhelms, "Charles W. Hunt Lecture," Realignment for Teacher Education, Esther D. Hernsing, editor. Twenty-third yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AACTE, 1970), pp. 23-25.

experiences great difficulty in making any effective impact
on the quality of the student teaching experience," and
"some college supervisors make no pretense of visiting
those they supervise." He pointed out that some colleges
accord very low status, poor financing and inadequate staff
to the student teaching aspect of their programs. The
college supervisor is often a retired classroom teacher or
a graduate assistant and not a respected and rewarded
member of the college faculty.[1]

Bennie took a similar position on the colleges'
lack of commitment as reflected in their allocation of only
limited resources to student teaching. Several colleges
with varying programs (programs that often conflict) will
inundate a particular school system with student teachers.
They place an unrealistic burden on the public schools
which have tried to stretch their own limited resources of
staff, time and money to incorporate teacher education

---

[1]E. Graham Pogue, "Student Teaching: The State of
the Art," The Role of the State Educational Agency in the
Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching,
Ron A. Edelfelt, editor (Washington, D. C.: National
Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards,
NEA, 1969), pp. 23-27.

along with pupil education.[1] The college should use its

"best faculty not graduate students," he said. After all,

the college expects the use of the "best" classroom

teachers as supervisors for the student teachers who are

paying the colleges to educate them.[2]

The previously cited Dickson study showed that some

major human relations problems in student teaching result

from "insecurity in relationships" which was in turn the

result of a lack of "understanding and communication" among

the various parties to the student teaching transaction.

College people, then, do not understand nor communicate

adequately with school personnel and vice versa.[3]

An academician, in fact an historian, Jurgen Herbst,

criticized not only the education faculty but also the

academic departments of the liberal arts college also.

His essay "The Teacher of History" proposed that the

burden of instructing and supervising student teaching

---

[1]William A. Bennie, Cooperation for Better Teaching
(Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966),
p. 20.

[2]Ibid., p. 30.

[3]Ibid., p. 39.

"should be a joint responsibility eagerly sought by historian and educationist alike." "It [practice teaching as he labels it] is not to be palmed off to high school teachers and administrators alone, or to be carried by a specially hired staff of teaching fellows, retired teachers and the like. The professor of education and history [should] combine to give the best college minds to the problem of supervision and to the problems of the public school situation." By supervising and instructing during student teaching both professors would get feedback for the evaluation of their own teaching of the student teacher.[1]

Dr. Conant described student teaching as the one indispensable unit in the professional sequence, but he was quick to say that though it is better than the rest of professional education courses, it is not good enough because of the divided responsibility and authority inherent in traditional programs.[2] He took the college

---

[1]Jurgen Herbst, "The Teacher of History," The Education of the Secondary School Teacher, Ernest Stabler, editor (Middletown, Connecticut: The Wesleyan University Press, 1962), pp. 160-162.

[2]James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963), pp. 59, 142, 210.

professors to task when he said, "Those who are involved in supervising practice teaching are apt to be long on theory but so woefully short on practice as to make their relationship to the cooperating teacher one of theoretician to a practitioner. Under such circumstances the seminar or methods is usually unrealistic."[1] Far from recommending turning student teaching over to the school people as he is accused,[2] Dr. Conant proposed a plan whereby "superb" teacher-theoreticians in the person of a clinical professor would enhance the college's role in a meaningful and compatible way.[3]

In reference to the student teaching situation during his study, Dr. Conant called it "chaotic" and "slipshod."[4] Andrews agreed and suggested that two factors operated to bring the chaos about--under the pressures of numbers (of students matriculating and teachers needed) there was no time after World War II to

---

[1]Ibid., p. 178.

[2]Robert M. Weiss, The Conant Controversy in Teacher Education (New York: Random House, 1969), pp. 57-59.

[3]Conant, op. cit., pp. 142, 177.

[4]Ibid., p. 61.

make orderly arrangements, no time to study for planning

more public school involvement (From 1960 to 1970 enroll-

ment in teacher education doubled); and most colleges have

limited budgets for student teaching, giving little

assistance or direction to the cooperating teacher (medical

education costs the public ten times as much as teacher

education).[1]

There are extenuating circumstances which explain

the college supervisor's failure to "assist and direct"

those who take student teachers into their classroom;

according to Andrews, college supervisors sometimes have

two or three times the national standard of twenty student

teachers as a full load.[2]

The college's lack of clarity of philosophy and

purpose in student teaching only reflects a condition

common throughout the education establishment, said Allen

Patterson. ". . . We cannot define the functions and

values of student teaching until we agree upon what

constitutes good teaching," he told the 1939 meeting of

_____

[1]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: Center
for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), pp. 2 and 4.

[2]Ibid., p. 4.

Association for Student Teaching. The obstacle is almost

as formidable today though some progress has been made

toward a theory of teaching.[1]

Even if the college uses adequate financing and

high-level staff for student teaching, there are still

handicaps which limit the effectiveness of the college

supervisor's guidance and influence. Andrews pointed out

the loss of time and lack of availability under the present

traveling supervisor arrangement. The supervisor spends so

much time en route that he is not available when needed

most.[2] In supporting his statement that "the profession

of teaching has serious thinking to do as to a sound

rationale in student teaching," Andrews quoted Paul Woodring

as recommending the elimination of the present system by

allowing the entire responsibility for student teaching to

pass to the schools and Myron Lieberman as recommending

that "student teaching, to be effective and genuine

preparation must be supervised by those who give theoretical

---

[1]Ibid., p. 5.

[2]Ibid., p. 65.

training."[1] Both men quoted by Andrews are severe critics
of student teaching as currently practiced.

Lieberman blamed much of the problem on teacher
education's slavishly copying of programs of a more
"respected" profession, medicine. He stated that the
medical internship is "passe," suitable only for the prim-
itive stages of professional education in craftsmanship,
and teacher education is foolish to adopt it.[2]

As early as 1957 the Association for Student
Teaching was cautioning that ". . . the close working
relationship between public school and college would be
most difficult to achieve in a student teaching program
in which the college supervisor assumed responsibility for
visiting student teachers in many schools."[3] Yet that is
the common practice today and one of the problems Andrews
pointed out.

One of the most effective federal efforts to modify
present teacher education programs has been the Multi-State

----

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

[2]Ibid., p. 57.

[3]Association for Student Teaching, Achieving Quality
in Off-Campus Professional Laboratory Experiences (Cedar
Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1957), p. v. i.

Teacher Education Project funded by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Howard Bosley, director of that project, in reporting on the premises from which they worked, said, "For a long time teacher educators of experience, when pushed to make an honest analysis, have had to admit that programs for the preparation of teachers have not generally been very effective," and he added, ". . . all previous efforts have not placed demonstrably competent teachers in every classroom, professional teachers whose work can be recognized by all . . . as superior to that of all non-professionally prepared persons."[1]

Patrick Johnson, in "Issues in Cooperative Ventures," spoke of the "direct" and "denied" costs to both the college and the public school under the present arrangement. He said there are "tensions resulting" from the "invading by the university of schools' inner life-space and vice versa." The "direct" costs are agreed upon dislocations or inconveniences which happen to the outer life-spaces of each, but the "denied" costs are "insecurity and hostility" which result from dependency upon the other

---

[1]Howard Bosley, director, Teacher Education in Transition: Emerging Roles and Responsibilities (Baltimore, Maryland: Multi-State Teachers Education Project, 1969), pp. 163 and 164.

institution which is in a sense alien to the inner life-space of each. Somehow the art of politics must enable the university and college to become one in purpose so that they understand and complement rather than fear each other.[1]

There are tensions, too, according to Crow, in the student teacher's attempt to please two supervisors. He said, "To observe teaching procedures and to practice those that seem to be in opposition to the educational principles taught you at college may pose problems of adjustment. The situation is worsened if your college supervisor expects you to follow modern trends in your teaching, but the cooperating teacher insists that you fall in line with his mode of procedure."[2]

It would seem, then, that improvement of student teaching must lie with the improvement of college personnel involved as well as the cooperating teacher and in the readjustment of the roles along different political lines.

---

[1]E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: The Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the NEA, 1966), pp. 97-99.

[2]Lester D. Crow, The Student Teacher in the Secondary School (New York: The D. McKay Co., 1964), p. 9.

Sam Wiggins, of Peabody, said, "Teacher education can be considerably worse, but it can hardly be any better than the student teaching internship and other related field experiences. . . . The fact is plain that student teaching cannot approach optimum effectiveness unless college supervisors of student teachers are qualified and dedicated to the task of making it a professional climax. . . ." But "the status of supervisors is low esteem and something of a career dead end." Members of education and academic departments share a notion that a professor who supervises is "down to that!"[1]

The attitude which seemed to sum up the colleges' and universities' lack of concern for (and effort in) student teaching was given by R. B. Daly when he said, "Some of the supervision from our [the college's] end has been a bit thin, but we generally put them [student teachers] into the best schools with the best teachers in the state. Who does the supervision anyway; if not the teachers in the schools? What we really do is public

---

[1] Changes in Teacher Education: Report of the Columbus Conference, Eighteenth National Teacher Education and Professional Standards Conference (Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1963), p. 220.

relations."[1]

It is no wonder then that Brooks Smith concluded that, "The student teacher often feels torn between the positions of the cooperating teacher and those of the college supervisor. The college supervisor has little influence over the classroom program. . . ."[2] Nor is it any wonder that Robert Hayes said, "It is quite evident that the nature and extent of the contact that the student teacher has with his supervising (cooperating) teacher provide the setting for the potential impact . . ." that they have. He continued, ". . . Student teachers will both consciously and unconsciously absorb the standards and ideas of the supervising teachers. If this impact is to be a positive one, the need for quality in supervision must be emphasized."[3] It would seem that many writers are

---

[1] Frank L. Steeves, Issues in Student Teaching: A Casebook with Related Problems in Teacher Education (New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1963), p. 283.

[2] Margaret Lindsey, and Associates, Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories: A Series of Three Monographs, "Inquiry into Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories" (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press, 1969), Vol. LXXXV, p. 168.

[3] Robert B. Hayes, "Involving Teachers in Teacher Education," Professional Growth Inservice of the Supervising Teacher, Forty-fifth Yearbook, The Association for Student Teaching (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1966), p. 4.

discouraged at the prospects for effective college super-

vision and "impact" on student teachers.

If one accepts the statements made by Bosley in the

1969 M-STEP report, then the conclusion is unavoidable that

college supervisors must be more directly and effectively

involved in the student teaching experiences. Bosley said,

"It may well be that student teaching is the single most

important experience in teacher education in terms of

influencing the classroom behavior of future teachers," and

"It is generally agreed that the person who supervises a

student's classroom experience has a tremendous influence

on that student's future teaching behavior." He then con-

cluded, "More effective kinds of college supervision need

to be developed . . . because his relationships with the

student teacher and the supervising teacher are super-

ficial."[1]

Herbert Hite, director of personnel development for

Bellevue, Washington Public Schools, agreed with Bosley

when he said, "Under the traditional system which made

possible only a very limited contact with each student

teacher, the university representative has little chance

---

[1]Bosley, op. cit., pp. 104 and 105.

to affect the behavior of the student teacher in a meaning-
ful way."[1]

Perhaps the direction the desired change in college
supervision would take was foreshadowed by Dr. John S.
Brubacher in his address before the National Society of
College Teachers of Education. Dr. Brubacher was discussing
Conant's criticism of the lack of college influence on what
happens in student teaching. He said, "The medical
clinician takes his students into the wards where they
apply their learning. Most educational theorists do not
do this. We turn it over to supervising teachers who
don't know much theory and we know little of practice.
Doesn't Conant have us on that point?"[2] Merle Barrowman
saw benefits for the content courses in education and the
liberal arts if those professors should become involved
in an active role of supervising student teachers. He
said, in effect, that the collegiate faculty needs feed-
back on the effectiveness of their teaching and their
product's satisfactory performance. Now state education
agencies and public school people have no official channel

---

[1]Ibid., p. 171.

[2]Weiss, op. cit., p. 118.

for advising us about our graduates. Where weaknesses
are recognized (during student teaching) the faculty--
education and academic should be aware and should be held
accountable.[1] Accountability is becoming a forceful
concept in the evaluation of public education; perhaps it
will also exert future influence on the colleges if
Barrowman has his way. The crucial question, said
Barrowman, was whether the colleges' graduates can teach
in the public schools successfully--not what hours or
courses or credits or theories they have accumulated in
any field.[2]

The preceding subsection on the issue at question
in the study has looked at the problem from the standpoint
that too much public school influence exists (if at all)
because the college fails to fulfill the planning, directing
and supervising roles which are its responsibility with
student teachers. Many of the criticisms of the colleges'
supervisors were aired. Problems and handicaps of the
college were also pointed out. Most writers recommended

---

[1] Ibid., p. 147.

[2] Ibid., p. 148.

change in the direction of more college efficiency and influence. Two, however, notably Paul Woodring and Robert Hayes recommend that an end be put to divided authority by placing the cooperating school personnel in complete control of the operational aspects of student teaching.

The Issue: Alternatives to Current Practices

As Philip Perdew said in a previously cited quotation, "student teaching can't possibly work." He concluded that it worked in spite of its poor "engineering."[1] Many writers do not agree with him. They contend that present student teaching programs could only be considered good in comparison with what went before or with the rest of professional education courses--not if compared to what student teaching could be or ought to be. They suggest many changes which this writer will consider in this study. One is always cautioned and sobered by the fact that many of the "innovations" or "new horizons" or "break throughs" of the recent past are sources of the problems of today. With that in mind, it is time to look at what the experts

---

[1]Philip Perdew, "Reflections on a Conference," Partnership in Teacher Education, E. Brooks Smith, editor (Washington, D. C.: The Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and NEA, 1966), p. 2.

say should be done to remedy the situation.

Variety as an alternative. One of the suggestions

which is heard most frequently calls for variety to be

built into the student teacher's program. Several writers

have recommended variety to counteract many different

problems.

Margaret Lindsey,[1] back in 1948, throughout her

writing on the Flowers' study called for variety.

Fred Wilhelms said, "a broad varied pattern of

experiences should bring the student into contact with many

and varied potential models. He should not be stuck with

one situation or cooperating teacher after it becomes un-

profitable to him. It does not even matter if some of the

models are not so good. With open eyes he can pick and

choose what fits him finally matching no one model en toto."[2]

(emphasis this writer's).

----

[1]Margaret Lindsey, "Major Findings and Recommen-
dations in the Study of Professional Laboratory
Experiences," The American Association of Colleges for
Teacher Education: First Yearbook (3 volumes, Washington,
D. C.: The Association, 1948-50), Vol. I, p. 202-204.

[2]Fred Wilhelms, "The Charles W. Hunt Lecture,"
Realignments for Teacher Education, Esther D. Hernsing,
editor, Twenty-third Yearbook, The American Association of
Colleges for Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: The
Association, 1970), p. 26.

Patterson recommended, as far back as 1939, that student teachers have a variety of experiences in different schools, operating under a variety of philosophies and practices.[1]

John Flowers, in his famous 1948 report, listed six criteria for an effective student teaching program-- number six stated that there was a need for a laboratory situation ". . . varied enough to provide contacts with different pupil groups, curriculum, and administrative organizations. . . ."[2]

Andrews, reporting on the findings of the National Institute of Mental Health project at San Francisco State University, said researchers there found that more important than the length of the experience was ". . . appropriateness to the individual needs of the student, the range and variety in grade levels and schools . . . [and] spreading a variety of experiences over the entire professional program."[3]

----

[1]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 77.

[2]Ibid., p. 80.

[3]Ibid., p. 103.

Stiles spoke of "the growing belief that a more varied and complete experience should be provided for prospective teachers."[1]

Stratemeyer was recommending a variety of experiences back in the Association for Student Teaching Yearbook of 1951, but the profession was implementing the Flowers Report without attention to the details which would make it work.[2]

Herman Behling, reporting on the Maryland phase of M-STEP and describing the teacher education centers established there, said the laboratory experiences provided are ". . . characterized by a variety of activities, teaching models, and techniques based upon the individual needs of the student teachers," and he added ". . . students are assigned to the center, not to one teacher who might become very possessive."[3]

---

[1]Lindley J. Stiles, et al., Teacher Education in the United States (New York: The Ronald Press, 1960), p. 38.

[2]Mort S. Malter and Troy S. Stearns, editors, Off-Campus Student Teaching: Thirtieth Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1951), pp. 1-17.

[3]Howard Bosley, director, Teacher Education in Transition: Emerging Roles and Responsibilities (Baltimore, Maryland: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1969), pp. 203 and 205.

Hetenzi, discussing the politics of student teaching, emphasized the role of the building principal in helping to achieve a variety of experiences by means of his influence and contacts with a variety of schools.[1]

Charlotte Junge reminded the 1962 meeting of the Association for Student Teaching that Guide Line XII of National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards called for a variety of student teaching experiences.[2]

Herbert LaGrone, reporting on the TEAM (Teacher Education and Media) Project of American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and Association of Teacher Educators, said:

> I'm trying to convey an idea of direct experiences that is very different from what we now describe as student teaching. Any critical examination of practice teaching reveals tremendous weaknesses in both its philosophical and operational bases. I do not doubt that student teaching is the best course now offered, but I seriously doubt that this should always be true.

---

[1]Lazeo Hetenzi, "Politics of School-College Cooperation in Student Teaching," Partnership in Teacher Education, E. Brooks Smith, et al. (Washington, D. C.: The Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and NEA, 1966), p. 109.

[2]The Association for Student Teaching, The Outlook in Student Teaching: Forty-first Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1962), p. 151.

What I have in mind is a tempering experience
that introduces all the complexities of
<u>several</u> [emphasis this writer's] rather than
one teaching situation after certain basic
competencies have been refined in the pre-
ceding courses. . . ."[1]

Harold Adams of the University of Kentucky said,

". . . variety and flexibility are necessary to insure

provision for individual differences of students. The

primary aim in student teaching is to help the student

teacher become self-directive . . . to prescribe rigid

formulations for the student to follow can be a threat to

development and usually results in mediocre or inferior

teaching."[2]

Frank Dickey, Dean of School of Education, University

of Kentucky, wrote ". . . in either event the faculties of

the entire school should be accessible to student teachers.

It is not fair to isolate a student teacher in one room,

regardless of the quality of the experience that he may

---

[1]The Association for Student Teaching, <u>Theoretical</u>
<u>Bases for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher</u>
<u>Education: Forty-fourth Yearbook</u> (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The
Association, 1965), p. 103.

[2]Harold P. Adams and Frank Dickey, <u>Basic Principles</u>
<u>of Student Teaching</u>, (New York: The American Book Co., 1956,
pp. 5 and 6.

gain there. He should have an all-school experience."[1]

Lester Vander Werf, then dean of the school of education at Northeastern University in Massachusetts, recommended an internship program (undergraduate) which provided ". . . a variety of grade levels and subject emphases, first at the middle school and then in the high school grades. . . ."[2]

Howard Bosley, in the 1969 M-STEP report, said, "Direct experiences [are] to provide a variety of experiences in student teaching which will tend to develop mature and effective professionals, skilled in the use of a wider range of aids and techniques than is normally provided student teachers in a traditional student teaching experience."[3]

The Kemp Mill Teacher Education Center staff described one value of their program as ". . . not confining

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 28 and 29.

[2]Lester S. Vander Werf, "A Unique Intern Program," Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal (Report of the Columbus Conference, Eighteenth National TEPS Conference, Washington, D. C.: The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1963), p. 404.

[3]Bosley, op. cit., p. 22.

student teachers to the traditional pattern of working with one supervising teacher. Instead each student teacher's strengths and weaknesses were assessed by the center staff and a program was designed to best benefit the student. A student teacher might have two or three on-going assignments at different grade levels within the school."[1]

Brown cautioned that having only one cooperating teacher might mean a student teacher taught honors classes of seniors during student teaching yet got a first job teaching basic English to non-readers in a middle school or junior high.[2]

The fusion of education courses with student teaching as an alternative. Another proposed change in student teaching involves various plans for fusing or integrating it with the theory or foundation courses phase of teacher education. Though the basic philosophical

---

[1]Ibid., p. 27.

[2]Thomas J. Brown, Student Teaching in a Secondary School (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960), p. 137. (The writer has interviewed the principal and teachers in one school in this county where the chairman of the English Department and one more experienced teacher teach all the college-bound students while all the teachers new to the system teach basic or remedial courses. This illustrates Brown's point).

position of this group was laid down in 1904 by John Dewey,
few programs have implemented the premises and rationale
contained in his essay "The Relation of Theory to Practice
in Education."[1] Today many writers are either recommending
such programs or are reporting on actual implementations
of them.

Eugene Smith, President of the State Teachers
College at Willimantic, Connecticut in 1950, described one
of the few early programs which integrated coursework and
laboratory experiences in a formal arrangement. The
program at Willimantic involved workshops rather than
formal courses in education. Educational psychology,
philosophy, history and methodology were taught around
seminars arising from actual experiences with various
phases of a teacher's role. Smith said of the program,
"Existing dichotomies or contradictions between theory and

---

[1]John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice in
Education," The Relation of Theory to Practice in the
Education of Teachers, Third Yearbook, Part I of the
National Society for the Scientific Study of Education
(Bloomington, Illinois: The Society, 1904); also in
Merle Barrowman, Teacher Education in America: A
Documentary History (New York: Teachers College Press,
Columbia University, 1965), p. 141; and Charles Silberman,
Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970),
p. 459.

practice were diminished."[1]

Fred Wilhelms spoke with regret of the "wasted chance" to use real experiences as a "motivating force deepening study. . . ." He said:

> Student teaching is done too late--after the study of psychology, sociology and educational principles and even methods. Therefore it cannot motivate or inform any of those courses. . . . At every step of the way the two [experiential and intellectual learning] should be interwoven. Each experience should feed naturally into the next intellectualization and so should intellectualization enrich the next experience.[2]

Wilhelms went on to describe an experimental program conducted at San Francisco State University under the auspices of the National Mental Health Society--a program of individualization. "Experience is not practicing and does not immediately make skill in performance the criterion," he said. The program at San Francisco State University guarded the primacy of the person. "It is the

---

[1] Eugene Smith, "Experimentation in Teacher Education," The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education: Third Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1950), pp. 54-61.

[2] Fred Wilhelms, "The Charles W. Hunt Lecture," Realignments for Teacher Education, Esther Hernsing, editor, Twenty-third Yearbook of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1970), pp. 23 and 25.

person inside the teacher that counts. In the final analysis, what a teacher is is more important than anything he does," said Wilhelms,[1] echoing what Combs said in The Professional Education of Teachers.[2]

At San Francisco State University the scholars and professors in psychological and sociological foundations, philosophy, and curriculum formed a team, teaching an on-going seminar in education for two years. The same men who conducted groups in seminar also supervised their field experiences which were both input and output of the seminar content. Part of the program was a skills laboratory maintained for use of the individual student at his own discretion.[3]

James Fisher recommended that colleges ". . . subsume courses in educational psychology, philosophy, etc. under student teaching and teach them in a seminar before, during and after, using tutorials."[4] Education courses, he said,

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 27 and 29.

[2]Arthur W. Combs, The Professional Education of Teachers (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), p. 9.

[3]Wilhelms, op. cit., pp. 28 and 29.

[4]James W. Fisher, "The New Teacher Education: Prospectus for Change," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles (Washington, D. C.: The

should incorporate the very best of learning theory in their own methods. He mentioned the use of set, frame of reference, closure, reinforcement, and feedback as methods educationists preach but don't practice. Such principles are especially useful for student teaching, he said.[1]

Robert Bush, professor of education at Stanford, described the research going on there in teacher education. "The need for tying together schools and colleges, theory and practice, lie behind the research and development centers and the regional experimental education laboratories which the United States Office of Education and the federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act made possible," he said.[2]

One of the most radical proposals came in the speech Kathleen Amersheck made on a panel during the 1969 Teacher Education and Professional Standards Conference. Entitling

---

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1969), p. 67.

[1]Ibid., p. 66.

[2]National Education Association, The Real World of the Beginning Teacher: Report of the Nineteenth National TEPS Conference (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1966), p. 10.

her remarks "What I Think Student Teaching Should Become,"

Miss Amersheck called student teaching, as currently

structured, "a holy cow." She questioned the value attached

to student teaching and recommended making the college and

the "field" one by making the university responsible for

the administration of the whole educational system--public

schools, too! She called for a "symbiotic" rather than

"parasitic" relationship between school and university by

making the "whole mass," the "whole iceberg" the responsi-

bility of the university. Present "separate but equal

cooperative efforts" fail, she said, "because the process

will not fracture into separate but equal parts."[1] She

compared this plan to "Plan Four" of the Joint Committee on

State Responsibility for Student Teaching described in

A New Order in Student Teaching.[2]

Bennie described a "growing push for earlier student

teaching with the foundation courses concurrent with or

_____

[1]Kathleen Amersheck, "What I Think Student Teaching
Should Become," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating
Teaching Roles (Washington, D. C.: NC TEPS, NEA, 1969),
pp. 45 and 46.

[2]NEA, A New Order in Student Teaching (Washington,
D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Pro-
fessional Standards, NEA, 1967), p. 48.

following student teaching.[1] After all, one of the stated

goals for student teaching even before the Flowers Report

and since has always been "to determine whether one should

enter teaching,"[2] or words to that effect.

Jurgen Herbst, a professor of history, proposed that

student teaching be integrated not only with education

content courses but with academic courses as well. He said:

> Practice teaching must be an integral part of a
> teacher's training. It must not be allowed to be
> viewed as an afterthought, coming as it usually does
> after the student has completed most of his academic
> work. . . . His professors and instructors should
> accompany him into the school and help him bring
> about a fusion of educational theory, subject
> matter mastery and pedagogical practices. . . .
> Academic departments should benefit from sharing
> responsibility for supervising student teach-
> ing. . . . Because practice teaching is an integral
> and crowning part of a program of teacher education,
> its supervision is the supreme assignment for the
> faculty and deserves and needs their better
> energies."[3]

Dewey's previously cited essay critized what he

called the "apprenticeship point of view" and recommended

---

[1]William A. Bennie, Cooperation for Better Teaching
(Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Burgess Press, 1966), p. 11.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The
Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 33.

[3]Ernest Stabler, Editor, The Education of The
Secondary School Teacher (Middletown, Connecticut:
Wesleyan University Press, 1962), pp. 160-162.

that student teaching be genuine laboratory experiences.
He differentiated the two with the definitions he gave
them. An apprenticeship, he said, was ". . . aimed at
getting a working command of the needed tools of the profes-
sion and the techniques of instruction, skill and proficiency
in the work of teaching." On the other hand, laboratory
experiences, he said, are practice work ". . . adminis-
tered primarily with reference to the intellectual reaction
it incites, giving students a better hold on the educational
significance of the subject matter he is acquiring."
Professional laboratory experiences should "use practice
work as an instrument in making real and vital the
theoretical institution, the knowledge of subject matter
and of the principles of education. . . ." He deplored
the trend toward training "on the spot an efficient work-
man," rather than the foresighted aim which would "supply
the intellectual method and material of good workmanship."
He admitted that the arrangement he recommended would
". . . necessarily involve considerable postponement of
skills in the routine and technique of the profession
until the student, after graduation enters upon the pursuit
of his calling." In the day in which he wrote, Dewey

could point only to the Oswego Plan as following his plan.[1]

Dewey concluded, "Practice work should be pursued primarily

with reference to its reaction upon the professional pupil

in making him a thoughtful alert student of education,

rather than to help him get immediate proficiency. . . .

Immediate skills may be got at the cost of power to go on

growing."[2]

L. O. Andrews recommended that student teaching

come before some of the professional courses or along with

them and that an internship should follow student teaching.

This program could better develop teachers capable of

"diagnosing, prescribing and evaluating" as they now need

to be able to do, he said. His program would include

continuous laboratory experience from the freshman year on

through the fifth year. He said, "Regardless of how much

responsibility the public schools assume, the college and

its faculty is still the focal point for improvement in

teacher education."[3] His proposals are not new, Andrews

---

[1]Merle Barrowman, editor, Teacher Education in America: A Documentary History (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1965), pp. 141-146.

[2]Ibid., p. 150.

[3]Andrews, op. cit., pp. 27-33 and 50.

said, citing the 1948 Flowers Report. It recommended
that "Direct laboratory experience, therefore, should be
an integral part of the work of each of the four years
of college. . . . [T]he guidance of professional
laboratory experiences should at all times be in terms of
basic educational principles, rather than patterns."[1]

In 1945 the Twenty-fifth Yearbook of Association
for Student Teaching contended that the ". . . old idea of
first theory and then practice has been replaced by the
new Gestalt Psychology; each unit of education contains
practice as a method of getting knowledge, philosophy and
skill."[2] But had it been replaced? The Johnson Survey
which is part of the M-STEP project found that most
education courses are completed before student teaching and
it usually takes place as one continuous experience in the
senior year.[3]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 80.

[2]AST, _Practicing Democracy in Teacher Education:
Twenty-fifth Yearbook_ (Lockhaven, Pennsylvania: The
Association for Student Teaching, 1946), p. 31.

[3]James A. Johnson, _A National Survey of Student
Teaching_, Office of Education Research Project 6-8182
(Baltimore, Maryland: Multi-State Teacher Education
Project, 1968).

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher

Education Standards for teacher preparation institutions

include the following statement: Professional laboratory

experiences are designed ". . . to help the student develop

skills in applying concepts being developed and to help

him identify those aspects of his preparation to which he

should give further attention. For the achievement of all

these purposes it is essential that the laboratory experi-

ences be closely related in time and nature to the

professional education courses of which they are an

essential part."[1]

But most education courses are still taught as

separate and distinct from the laboratory experiences. In

1963 Dr. Conant dared the wrath of most educationists by

proposing the elimination of practically all those education

courses except for student teaching.[2] Since that time

---

[1]National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher
Education, _Standards and Guide_ (Washington, D. C.: The
Council, 1957), Standard and Guide No. VI and Howard
Batchelder, Richard Lawrence and George R. Myer, _A Guide
to Planning for Off-Campus Student Teaching_ (Cedar Falls,
Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1959), p. 61.

[2]James B. Conant, _The Education of American
Teachers_ (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963), pp. 121
and 142.

various versions of the curriculum he proposed have been designed and tested in pilot studies around the country.

One of the most notable and extensive innovations in teacher education today is taking place at Northwestern University under the direction of Dr. William R. Hazard. He said of the faculty at Northwestern (in addressing a symposium on the tutorial and clinical program), "Education professors accept the belief that tutorial and parallel clinical experiences can provide more realistic preparation of teachers than formal courses in pedagogy."[1]

Seven states are involved in a massive federally funded teacher education project called Multi-State Teacher Education Project, or M-STEP. They are: Florida, Maryland, South Carolina, Michigan, Utah, Washington and West Virginia. In each state project elements of fusion of course work and practice play a part, but the Utah project is concentrating on that innovation particularly. J. Hugh Baird, W. Dwayne Belt and Lyal Holder reported on the project in the 1969 report which Howard Bosley edited on M-STEP to that date. They said, "The Utah project combined special methods in

---

[1]William R. Hazard, The Tutorial and Clinical Program of Teacher Education (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press, 1967), p. 9.

social studies plus general secondary methods with student

teaching into a two quarter sequence on a block of time

approach." Students spent full time in student teaching

with a problems seminar to help them with the content,

materials, methods, etc. usually given in the two methods

courses.[1]

As Charlotte Junge, professor of education at Wayne

State University, pointed out in The Outlook in Student

Teaching, Guideline XI of National Council for the

Accreditation of Teacher Education did seem to recommend

fusion of content and practice. It reads, "The education

of the teacher must constantly be conducted with a view to

laboratory proof and demonstration. The theory and practice

of education can only be productively developed simultane-

ously."[2]

The radical proposals of Dr. Amersheck seemed to

be echoed and to gain support in Asahel Woodruff's essay

---

[1]"The Individualized Secondary Teacher Education
Program at Brigham Young University," Teacher Education in
Transition, Howard Bosley, editor (Baltimore, Md.: Multi-
State Teacher Education Project, 1969), Vol. I, p. 22).

[2]AST, The Outlook for Student Teaching: Forty-
first Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1962),
p. 146.

called "A Proposal for the Revision of the Pre-Service

Professional Component of a Program of Teacher Education"

in the Association for Student Teaching Forty-fourth Year-

book, <u>Theoretical Bases for Professional Laboratory</u>

<u>Experiences in Teacher Education</u>. Dr. Woodruff urged unity

of purpose and effort by considering all of formal education

as part of one operation with four different components.

They are, he said, "First, the research component; second,

the development component; third, the teacher education

component; and fourth, the regular public school classroom

as component." He added, "There must be enough similarity

of ideas between schools and the colleges so a newly pre-

pared teacher can do, in the school, what he was taught

in college. This brings us to the question of what

constitutes an adequate college of education and a college

school partnership . . . . Teacher education must be

derived from what <u>ought to be</u> happening in the classrooms

of our schools [emphasis this writer's]."[1]

----

[1]Asahel D. Woodruff, "A Proposal for the Revision
of the Pre-Service Professional Component of a Program of
Teacher Education," <u>Theoretical Bases for Professional</u>
<u>Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education: Forty-fourth</u>
<u>Yearbook</u> (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student
Teaching, 1965), p. 109.

Herbert Hite, director of personnel development in the Bellevue, Washington, education agency, described his city's cooperative effort with the university. They have a unique arrangement whereby carefully selected students are chosen in their Sophomore year to be "pre-hired" by the Bellevue schools and to do all their field work in a system which knows its efforts will provide it with two assured years of service after the students graduate. They are committed to Bellevue and it invests time and resources in their development. Hite said of their program (another M-STEP Project), "'on site' courses and seminars operating concurrently with the laboratory assignments, using laboratory situations as core factors in sharing experiences and developing professional concepts . . . begin the first year of college and extend to post graduate years in a carefully planned sequence of understandings out of experiences and study."[1]

Frances Wayland, of Brown University, recommended an "integrated or fused program of subject matter professionally treated." The program he instituted used civic leadership as a focus for integrating and emphasizing

---

[1]Bosley, op. cit., p. 143.

the general education value of the disciplines as well as education courses. He proposed that, properly taught, all courses could be liberal, and improperly taught the most humane of the humanities could become illiberal and vocational in nature. His definition of a liberal course was one which concerned itself with the "becoming of a person." He agreed with both Dewey and Conant that "a truly useful education will be liberal and a truly liberal education will be useful." To him ". . . theory and practice go hand in hand."[1]

Teaching centers as alternatives. So far two innovations have been presented from the literature. Next a look will be taken at teaching centers or educational laboratories as a way to improve teacher education and student teaching in particular. Some elements of the previously noted changes will be present also in the program to be discussed next. What are teacher education centers, teaching centers, or education laboratories? Where are they? How are they evaluated? Some of the same people

---

[1] Robert M. Weiss, The Conant Controversy in Teacher Education (New York: Random House, 1969), p. 186.

and projects are involved here as in the previous inno-
vations.

Many educational planners are finding it advisable
to bypass the typical public school classroom in favor of
what might be called an "off-campus, campus school" for
the laboratory experiences they design. Whatever they are
labeled, those schools are, in a way, as atypical as the
old college laboratory or demonstration school. If this
seems strange after the efforts expended to move from such
classrooms into the "real world," one need not look far
for the reasons.

Silberman summed up the situation with his rather
caustic phraseology in saying that educational progress has
been "blunted at the classroom door." He cited the Coleman
report, which indicated (to him at least) why the tremendous
input of federal funds and expert effort failed. Compensa-
tory education, he said, was "stymied at the classroom
door."[1] He quoted Goodlad as saying that wave after wave
of educational reform accomplished no real progress because

---

[1]Charles Silberman, _Crisis in the Classroom_ (New
York: Random House, 1970), p. 71.

it was "blunted at the classroom door."[1] He even contended
that the curriculum reform movement, sponsored by powerful
academicians like Zacharias of Massachusetts Institute of
Technology, and liberal federal grants failed because they
too were "blunted at the classroom door."[2] How could one
hundred million dollars a year fail to improve education?

Silberman said that it has proved to be "easier to
put a man on the moon than reform the public schools."[3]
But he is not all pessimism. There is a way to change
education in the schools he said, "Teachers must be
improved to improve education."[4]

Dr. Lillian Weber, City College of New York
professor of education, returned from a study of England's
open primary schools ready to teach those concepts to her
students as a means of improving future primary teaching
and schools. She found that when she sent her students into
conventional classrooms they were stifled in attempts to

---

[1]Ibid., p. 159.

[2]Ibid., pp. 170, 171.

[3]Ibid., p. 171.

[4]Ibid., p. 159.

follow her philosophy and instructions. "It made no sense," she felt, "to give her students an understanding of her psychology of learning and of the nature of child development, only to have them do their student teaching in classrooms that controverted everything she had tried to teach. Such an arrangement was not only senseless but self-defeating, since large bodies of research suggest that the classroom teacher with whom students do their practice teaching exerts a decisive influence on the development of their teaching style."[1] Yet she wanted them in the "real world," not a rarified atmosphere of a laboratory school. She wanted to teach them to be an "influence for change."[2]

The result was a unique "corridor school." With special permission from a principal, she organized a school within a school or mini-faculty. Her students conducted enrichment classes outside the regular classrooms in the halls, or basement or auditorium or an empty classroom. They were under the direction and supervision of her staff and the principal. Soon the regular teachers were visiting the "classes" and learning too; gradually the

---

[1]Ibid., p. 298.

[2]Ibid.

concepts were getting "past the classroom door" and being used by more and more teachers as they saw the results of freedom, creativity and supportiveness. By the end of the year other principals were asking for such "corridor schools." In a sense Dr. Weber and her staff operated an education laboratory without the drawback of being separate **and** different. They were only different from the status quo while still operating **in** it and **on** it.[1]

Fred Wilhelms said, "But student teaching is still the real thing and that is what is wrong with it!"[2]

> . . . I see our typical use of the schools as a condemnation to mediocrity--or worse. I know that I fly in the face of opinion here. I know there are many, from Conant on down, who feel that the best way to train a teacher is to put him with an older teacher who will show him how. Whenever I hear this view expressed--no matter how nicely the view is cloaked in words like "internship" or "clinical professor"--I want to yell "you must be kidding!" Are we talking about training for a mechanical trade or educating for an intellectual profession?[3]

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 298-300.

[2]Fred Wilhelms, "The Charles Hunt Lecture," Realignments for Teacher Education: Twenty-third Yearbook. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Esther Hernsing, editor (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1970), p. 23.

[3]Ibid., p. 22.

Like Dr. Weber's, the program Wilhelms described at
San Francisco State University had a special arrangement
with a public school system. Teams of college staff members
in education and the academic foundation departments went
into the schools and planned individualized laboratory
experiences and intellectual study based on an intimate
knowledge of the school (staff, student, curriculum and
community), of the student teacher and of the principles
previously agreed upon as basic to the philosophy and
methodology to be taught. Scholars who understand and
create new education theory made it come alive through
seminars and tutorials built on cases and problems arising
in the laboratory study and analysis of teaching. The
college staff participated in the schools' inservice
growth and study; they were a daily, not an occasional,
part of the school.[1]

Richard Davis, Dean of the School of Education, the
University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee, described a similar
program at his school. The college staff members went
into Milwaukee schools, not as infrequent guests, but as
joint appointees, serving on committees, teaching, advising

---

[1]Ibid, pp. 27-29.

and (hopefully) influencing the schools and the college.
There was a genuine attempt to have both institutions see
the situation as a whole--one continuum in which they all
had a stake at each stage. The program increased under-
standing, communication and respect, he said, as school
teachers saw and practiced among the college's problems and
the college teachers saw and practiced among the school's
problems. Walls of prestige, jealousy and lack of
communication were brought down by each having to function
in the other's milieu.[1]

As early as 1959, Howard Batchelder was cautioning
that "it is important that the coordinator in the teaching
center retain a close relationship with the college." He
was describing a teaching center as conceived then. It was
an "off-campus" facility where one college representative,
the coordinator, orchestrated the student teaching
experiences with the primary supervisory role remaining
with the public school teacher.[2] It can easily be seen

---

[1]Esther Hernsing, op. cit., pp. 55, 56.

[2]Howard T. Batchelder, Richard E. Lawrence and
George R. Myers, A Guide to Planning for Off-Campus Student
Teaching (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student
Teaching, 1959), p. 7.

that such a "center" was not comparable to those projected

for today as noted in the works of Silberman, Lindsey,

Wilhelms and the M-STEP projects.

The 1965 and 1969 reports on M-STEP contain

descriptions of the teacher education centers which are part

of various state projects; Maryland, Michigan, Washington,

Florida, Utah and South Carolina each reported that centers

were at least a part of the innovation studied in their

project.[1]

Herman Behling said of the Maryland Centers like

Kemp Mill Elementary School, "Students are assigned to a

center, not to a teacher; there the coordinator, in consul-

tation with the staff person designated to represent the

faculty, plans an individualized series of experiences

based on the needs of the student teacher."[2] There is a

provision made for intensive experience with one group of

students over an extended period of time in order to learn

the value of knowing well one's students; there is also

_____

[1]M-STEP Today: Interim Report of Project Activities
(Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project,
1965); and Teacher Education in Transition, Vols. I and II
(Baltimore, Md.: M-STEP, 1969).

[2]M-STEP, Vol. II, pp. 203-206.

extensive experience with a wide range of students, groups, curricula and teacher roles. Tools of analysis are taught so that each experience can yield greater understanding of the underlying theory behind the teaching and learning acts. Each student thus has a number of models of teaching and can select "those skills and techniques which will help him develop his own style of teaching . . . which is consistent with his personality and values."[1] His individually tailored program provides multi-grade and multi-level work.

Many members of the college faculty and all of the teachers in a center assisted the coordinator and supervising teacher to induct the neophyte teacher. That student teacher arrived in August along with the regular school faculty and helped with the crucial opening-of-school tasks and problems. He served on curriculum committees and studies and functioned as a part of the mini-faculty within the school on a "part of the faculty" basis from the first. The children knew him only in the role of teacher. In a word he came to be a functioning part of the whole school. The resulting released time afforded the regular faculty

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 206-207.

was often used for inservice study and growth in which the
college faculty in the center played a part.[1]

Dean Hetenzi had pointed out, in his essay on
conflict of interest in the school-college partnership, that
"the juncture of purpose comes in student teaching as a
recruitment vehicle for public schools."[2] The M-STEP
project in Washington involved a unique plan whereby the
teacher candidates brought into the Bellevue Centers were
specially selected and "pre-hired" by the Bellevue schools.
The college and school collaborated on a continuous program
beginning in the Sophomore year and culminating in the
Master's degree and two years of employment after graduation.
The preservice and inservice components became part of one
continuum of study of teaching.[3] The school's self-
interest was served along with that of the college. The
school's investment of time and effort went toward the
development of its own future and present staff. The new

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 207-215.

[2]E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher
Education (Washington, D. C.: The Association of Colleges
for Teacher Education and the Association for Student
Teaching, 1966), pp. 105-109).

[3]M-STEP, Vol. II, op. cit., pp. 80-82.

political organization capitalized on the one area of mutual interest--recruitment.

Margaret Lindsey, speaking at the 1966 symposium which culminated in the publication of Partnership in Teacher Education, said, "The present notion of student teaching will fade out of existence."[1] She and Philip Perdew were in agreement that "The limitations and inadequacies of conventional student teaching arrangements, which carry with them divided allegiance and contradiction in purpose cause the student teaching center to be intriguing as a future model."[2]

Perdew described the establishment of teaching centers as changing "sufferance to succorance."[3] The center focused the allegiance of both the public school faculty and the college representatives on an institution discrete from the old loyalties. In a sense the center is a modernized version of the old campus school idea yet incorporating the reality of a public classroom. But Perdew cautioned against considering the centers to be "the answer." They

---

[1]Smith, op. cit., p. 5.

[2]Ibid., p. 5.

[3]Ibid., p. 5.

will fail, he said, if they are fixed to the old concept

of student teaching as ". . . culminating in a one-to-one

relationship of student teacher, cooperating teacher and a

class of children."[1]

Wayne Reed of the Office of Education staff described

the various federally funded education laboratories around

the country. The future study of education, he said, would

take place in ". . . education laboratories or institutes

which are free from old organization and conceptualization,

crossing state lines and college campuses." There preservice

and inservice teachers would study education scientifically

alongside the scholars from the university. He cited

M-STEP as examples.[2] The Education Institute as he

described it will be a cross between the old campus school

and the research school which Margaret Lindsey favors,[3]

and will ". . . involve the prospective teacher in research

as we train him so that we will have research oriented

_____

[1]Ibid., p. 5.

[2]Ibid., p. 9.

[3]Margaret Lindsey, editor, New Horizons for the
Teaching Profession (Washington, D. C.: National Commission
on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA,
1961).

teachers as they become experienced."[1]

The teaching center, the education laboratory, and the education institute would seem, then, to be ways of solving the problems envisioned by Andrews if current innovations should continue to carry the burden of old concepts of student teaching and the roles subsumed within it. He said one ". . . may place the student teacher under a superior teacher, as Conant advocates (Conant's Clinical Professor); but if the supervisory direction is limited in perspective, the learning may be largely at the level of imitation. Unfortunately, many have not yet realized that a strong teacher is not necessarily, ipso facto, a skilled director of the learning of a neophyte professional."[2] He continued, "Today many supervising teachers are not prepared to direct this level of learning, much less attempt to use the techniques and ideas of our present day leading analysts of teaching such as Flanders, Smith, Hughes, and Bellack."[3]

---

[1]Smith, op. cit., p. 9.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 41.

[3]Ibid., pp. 41-42.

In calling for research centered schools to serve as teaching centers, Lindsey said, "Current conceptions of professional laboratories, if they may be inferred from practice, are inadequate for programs that make the study of teaching [emphasis this writer's] the integrating focus of professional preparation."[1] Laboratories of the future, she said, ". . . will shift from emphasis on practice in use of techniques and devices to emphasis on intellectual activities of analyzing, diagnosing, hypothesizing, testing, searching, synthesizing, applying and evaluation--abilities essential to the fundamental task of decision making."[2] The teachers produced by the research-based curriculum will, according to Lindsey who was quoting Arthur Combs, ". . . not behave in a set way. . . . The good teacher is no carbon copy but possesses something intensely his own. Artists sometimes call this 'The discovering of one's

---

[1] Margaret Lindsey and Associates, Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories: A Series of Three Monographs, Monograph One, "Inquiry into Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories" (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1969), p. viii.

[2] Ibid., p. 11.

one personal idiom'."[1]

Powerful voices are speaking out for the teaching centers as has been shown. Others cautioned against letting the new institutions or organizations fall into the trap of old concepts and practice transplanted. Still others see the hope for educational reform to lie along other lines.

State agency control as an alternative. The next innovation is not so new, really, but it never received much implementation though the idea has been pushed by various reformers for many years.[2] The innovation referred to involves the transfer of responsibility for different aspects of student teaching and teacher education to the state education agency or state department of public instruction as some of them are called.[3] There would be a need, perhaps, for the states to authorize the formation

---

[1]Ibid., p. 118; and in the original in Arthur Combs, The Professional Education of Teachers (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), pp. 204-205.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 97.

[3]Ibid., pp. 86-87.

of a super-agency to oversee all of the educational

ventures within the state.

If the improvement of public education depends upon

the education and improvement of teachers as noted in

Silberman[1] and others, then a state, wishing to improve its

public schools, must see that teacher education is improved

and that includes student teaching. Student teaching is

already in the public sector for the colleges now use the

public schools often in an exploitive way offering little

guidance in return as previously noted.[2]

Some local systems have up to a dozen different

colleges with different programs all using the same schools

and teachers. They come at different times, expect

different experiences and operate under different philos-

ophies of the school's role.[3] In 1949 Haskew recommended

---

[1]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom
(New York: Random House, 1970), p. 159; James Koerner,
The Miseducation of American Teachers (Boston: Houghton
Mifflin Co., 1963), pp. xii and 3; and Arthur Combs, The
Professional Education of Teachers (Boston: Allyn and
Bacon, Inc., 1956), p. v.

[2]William A. Bennie, Cooperation for Better Teaching
(Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966),
pp. 5, 7.

[3]Ibid., p. 20.

that the states finance student teaching on a statewide
basis with a differentiated pay scale for teachers and
administrators who serve the cause of teacher education.
In 1964 Andrews went further to call for federal financing
to assure high standards and quality teacher education all
over the United States.[1]

Andrews cited several states which had made moves
toward certification of different gradations of the super-
vising teacher role. As of 1960 only one had voted it
into law and the low financing involved had limited the
law's effectiveness. That was Georgia where three levels
of preparation, certification and payment were designated
in a comprehensive state plan for controlling the quality
of student teaching by setting standards for cooperating
teachers.[2] Andrews had called for three levels labeled
(1) cooperating teacher, (2) sponsor teacher, and (3) teacher
education associate in the 1959 Yearbook of Association for
Student Teaching.[3]

_____

[1]Ibid., p. 20.

[2]Andrews, op. cit., p. 97.

[3]Ibid., p. 97.

In 1963 West Virginia voted such a program of certification and state payment into law.[1] No evaluation of that program was given to date.

Conant in 1963 advocated an increased state role in accrediting teacher education, in financing student teaching and also in certifying teacher educators to work in the public schools. He blasted National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education for its inflexibility and emphases on course and content rather than performance based criteria for a license to teach.[2]

Under the guidance of James E. Allen, New York undertook an expensive attack on the problems of student teaching on a statewide basis. Andrews reported it was "a frustrating experience showing little progress," though one hundred thousand dollars were expended.[3]

In 1961 Margaret Lindsey proposed a cooperative effort composed of college, public school, professional organizations, learned societies and state departments to

---

[1]Ibid., p. 97.

[2]Ibid., p. 100, and also in James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963) throughout.

[3]Andrews, op. cit., p. 100.

achieve "high-level preservice and continuing education."[1]

No proposal or program in teacher education has given the emphasis to the roles of state agencies that M-STEP has. That project is composed of "seven geographically separated state departments of education . . . enlisting the cooperation of sixty-six colleges and universities, fifty-five local public school systems and several professional organizations, for an extensive investigation of teacher education laboratory methods, the use of new media, intrastate organization and interstate cooperation."[2]

The purpose of M-STEP was stated thus "to strengthen the capacity of state departments of education to provide leadership in the development of joint responsibility between local education agencies and teacher education institutions in the preparation of professional personnel, with emphasis on laboratory experience in elementary and

---

[1]Margaret Lindsey, editor, New Horizons for the Teaching Profession: A Report of the Taskforce on New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington, D. C.: NCTEPS, NEA, 1961), p. 99.

[2]M-STEP Today: Interim Report of Project Activities (Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1965), frontispiece.

secondary schools. . . ."[1] In its interstate aspects

M-STEP may serve as a model for a national organizational

pattern for cooperation and dissemination of information.

Florida conducted a "pilot project dealing with goals

in professional laboratory experiences. . . ."[2] In Maryland

a center for laboratory experiences in teacher education

was established at Kemp Mill Elementary School in Montgomery

County. That project sought to identify and study "the

cooperating roles of the State Department of Education, a

college of education, and a public school system in

developing a continuing teacher education program."[3]

Michigan developed a series of regional centers for student

teaching programs; the emphasis there was to bring many

colleges into one arrangement in order to diminish the

conflict and confusion of competition among them for public

school placements for student teachers.[4] In South Carolina

the State Department of Education coordinated efforts of

colleges, public school systems and the South Carolina

---

[1]Ibid., p. 1.

[2]Ibid., p. 21.

[3]Ibid., p. 23.

[4]Ibid., p. 25.

Educational Television Commission in "developing and pro-

ducing videotapes as aids to programs of teacher preparation."

A state committee on student teaching provided leadership

and acted as a prototype to study such state-wide organi-

zations.[1] Utah sponsored "a controlled experiment on the

effectiveness of micro-teaching as a technique in teacher

education . . . currently underway as a university-Department

of Education cooperative venture." It is designed to

identify "behavioral objectives in the teaching process

. . . ."[2] Washington concentrated on "four experimental

models . . . the activities and experiences provided within

the preservice program are articulated with those found in

inservice programs." The models were designed and ad-

ministered by joint coordinating committees composed of

college and school personnel.[3] In Washington the State

Education Association was a collaborator in state-wide

planning and West Virginia's State Department of Education

coordinated "a pilot center for student teaching where the

---

[1]Ibid., p. 27.

[2]Ibid., p. 29.

[3]Ibid., p. 31.

Kanawha County Board of Education collaborated with five

institutions of higher education which differ in many

respects."[1]

Though it is not a part of the national M-STEP

project, Connecticut has moved to study and regulate

student teaching on a state-wide basis.[2]

Texas recently joined West Virginia and Georgia in

providing for state-wide certification of student teaching

programs as a means of encouraging a uniform high quality

of experience throughout the state. Unlike Georgia's

program, Texas goes beyond the State Department of Education

with the state legislature providing public laws as basis

for the program.[3] It laid the groundwork for organizing

all the public schools and all the preparing institutions

for innovation and cooperation.

Since 1952 California has directly subsidized the

school systems involved in student teaching; unlike Georgia

[1]Ibid., p. 33.

[2]Connecticut Commission for Higher Education,
Teacher Education in Connecticut with Teacher Education:
An Urgent Matter (Hartford: The Academy for Educational
Development, Inc., 1967), pp. 20, 46-50.

[3]E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher
Education (Washington, D. C.: AACTE and AST, 1966), p. 5.

which specified that the funds go directly to supervising teachers through a sliding pay scale, California attached no strings.[1]

L. O. Andrews pointed out that West Virginia had appropriated no funds for implementation of its 1963 comprehensive enabling act as late as 1966.[2] Another apparent failure of state agency effort--after the expiration of their Ford Foundation grant, Oregon did not vote funds to continue support of staff development in public schools for teacher education functions--was also reported by Andrews.[3] Then too both North Carolina and Texas had defeated, in 1965, major plans for state financing of student teaching. Perhaps that reflected a wait-and-see attitude for in 1965 the Elementary and Secondary Education Act--Title V was authorized. M-STEP grew out of Title V provisions and funding. Federal funds also supported The University of Texas Research Center in Teacher Education and Student Teaching.[4]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 161.

[2]Ibid., p. 161.

[3]Ibid., p. 162.

[4]Ibid., p. 162.

Those who opposed state or federal "interference" through regulation and direction were reminded by Andrews that there is an old saying that "What's everybody's business becomes nobody's business." He urged that the national government be the "somebody" providing the focus of funds and planning for the quality of teachers determines the quality of national life to a large extent.[1]

Ned Flanders said, "Perhaps the most important people in the United States today are those who guide the development of future teachers in our country."[2] Yet some people are fearful of the trend to take the control of educational research in the schools and the control of teacher education away from the university. They agree with Conant's 1938 statement in the report on the formation of the MAT degree program at Harvard. Though his The Education of American Teachers seems a direct about-face, Conant said in 1938, "Both the training of teachers and the study of educational problems at the school level have

[1]Ibid., p. 160.

[2]The Association for Student Teaching, Theoretical Bases for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education: Forty-fourth Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1965), p. 59.

become too much divorced from the university atmosphere in almost all parts of the country."[1]

It would seem from the state program just reported that another period of political or state activism is resurgent in the 1960's and 70's. The works cited seem to despair of the informal partnerships of college and local school systems which allow student teaching to become "everybody's and yet nobody's" business.

The guidance point of view as an alternative. The innovations researched in the literature so far have been organizational or operational in nature. The literature commenting on the following has been cited: a varied experience during student teaching, the integration of student teaching with content courses in education particularly, teaching centers and education laboratories, and state education agencies as agents of control and change in teacher education. The last innovation to be considered is, really, more of an attitude than an innovation; the guidance point of view in student teaching has grown

---

[1]Robert M. Weiss, The Conant Controversy in Teacher Education (New York: Random House, 1969), p. 60.

out of phenomenological or "third force" psychology. Though

not in the strictest sense an innovation, concern for the

affective domain in teacher education is a departure from

more conventional frames of reference.

Haines said that one's aims for teacher education

would be determined by the degree to which one considered

feelings to be important. Two goals he rated very high in

teacher preparation were the achievement of personal

security and the development of a sense of adequacy in the

face of problems.[1] He submitted that, "Essentially,

guiding the student teaching process is a matter of helping

prospective teachers relate to others in a positive,

constructive, releasing manner, and in so doing discover

ways of teaching that are comfortable for them, that are

suitable for their personalities and that are in line with

the best of theory and practice currently formulated."[2]

Haines' study of the development of teaching values

and attitudes was extensively reported in Alex Perrodin's

---

[1]Aleyne Clayton Haines, _Guiding the Student Teaching Process_ (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), p. 14.

[2]Ibid., p. 16.

The Student Teacher's Reader[1] and in the December 1957 issue

of The Journal of Teacher Education.[2] His premise was

echoed by Marjorie Kingsley in her article "Helping the

Student Teacher Become a Teacher."[3]

Silberman, in Crisis in the Classroom, laid the

blame for each failure in public education--from the class-

room teaching act to the formulation of state policy on

teacher education--to "mindlessness." He called for

purposiveness which is the antithesis of the behaviorist's

conception of teacher education. Teacher education should

be concerned with developing "self-examination and self-

renewal," not conditioning teachers to behave a certain

way. "Teachers must think about what they are doing and

why," he said.[4]

---

[1]Alex Perrodin, editor, The Student Teacher's
Reader (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1966), p. 52.

[2]Aleyne Haines, "Role Dilemma in Student Teaching,"
Journal of Teacher Education, 8:265-268, December 1957.

[3]Marjorie Kingsley, "Helping the Student Teacher
Become a Teacher," Educational Leadership, 14:143-146,
December 1956, and Perrodin, op. cit., p. 53.

[4]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New
York: Random House, 1970), p. 11.

Wilhelms attributed the failure to produce teachers secure in their own selfhood to "the basic fact of student life is that he is captive. The typical cooperating teacher subscribed implicitly to the trade school ethic. Student teaching, in his view, is not for exploration; it is for practice, for the perfection of skills. The conscientious older teacher works hard to show the neophyte how. (And in all justice he gives much practical help)."[1] He spoke of "emotions and pressures" being too high and the situation so "tight" as to be almost a matter of "life or death" for the student teacher. He asked, "Who could be psychologically free to look at himself with clear eyes?" under such circumstances.[2] Only a strong bold character could avoid taking on a "warped" self-image in the turmoil of trying to resolve the "conflicting images he senses his two superiors [the cooperating teacher and the college supervisor] have in mind."[3] He urged more

---

[1]Fred Wilhelms, "The Charles W. Hunt Lecture," Realignment for Teacher Education, Esther D. Hernsing, editor, Twenty-third Yearbook of AACTE (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1970), p. 23.

[2]Ibid., p. 23.

[3]Ibid., p. 23.

developmental guidance during the whole professional

sequence with a concern for the "becoming" of a professional

person rather than concern for acquiring skills and

knowledge.[1] Proper experience should have "an inward

quality," he said.[2]

Wilhelms' concern for the person within the teacher

was reminiscent of Arthur Combs' views over the years.

Combs, Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow are among the leading

exponents of the view that education (in the public school

classroom or in the college lecture hall) should be

guidance or "therapy" geared toward the whole personality

or psyche of the student.[3] The leading publication pre-

senting that view was Combs' The Professional Education of

Teachers.[4] Wilhelms' statement that "in the final analysis,

what the teacher is is more important than anything he

---

[1]Ibid., p. 24.

[2]Ibid., p. 26.

[3]Ibid., p. 29.

[4]Arthur Combs, The Professional Education of
Teachers (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965).

does"[1] might have come directly from Rogers or Combs. It is in keeping with the philosophy of both.

Combs spoke of "the self as an instrument" being a useful focus for teacher education. He said such a focus would not produce "carbon copy" teachers but "creative individuals, capable of shifting and changing to meet the demands and opportunities afforded in daily tasks."[2] "This genuineness," he said, "opens lines of communication" with the student teacher's students in the public school classroom. If the "future of the profession is dependent upon the production of teachers deeply ingrained with the experimental attitude it should begin with the very first teaching experience," according to Combs.[3]

Combs called for "supervisors who are more than master teachers" and he mentioned experiments along those lines at San Francisco State University (Wilhelms' old school), the Universities of Rochester and Buffalo, Syracuse and Cornell, and Hunter College in New York and

---

[1]Wilhelms, op. cit., p. 22.

[2]Combs, op. cit., p. 9.

[3]Ibid., pp. 102 and 103.

Florida Atlantic and the University of Florida.[1]

Andrews admitted the importance of the affective domain in student teaching when he said:

> Some student teachers have a skillfully guided growth experience which leads them to an artistic and professionally effective performance in directing learning; while others have a continuously frustrating, emotionally disturbing experience during which they receive little positive direction or assistance, and may in fact learn unwise and professionally unsound procedures. Annually thousands of student teachers find themselves assigned under teachers who hold ideas quite at variance with those taught in their college courses and sometimes these teachers are guilty of serious breaches of professional ethics."[2]

In 1956 Laura Zirbes, of Ohio State University, wrote in an Association for Student Teaching Professional Bulletin, "Training is a repetitive process of acquiring . . . routine habits and skills, chiefly through practice, whereas education is concerned with the forward adjustment of individuals by processes which deepen their judgments enabling them to meet situations flexibly and adaptively."[3]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 106.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education Inc. 1964), p. 7.

[3]Laura Zirbes, Encouraging Creativity in Student Teaching: Professional Bulletin Number Six (Second Edition; Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1958), p. 24.

Philip Perdew, in summing up the workshop symposium on "School-College Partnership in Teacher Education" held in 1966 by Association for Student Teaching and American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, described Arthur Combs' remarks to the group. He felt that "Combs saw teachers and other helping professions as successful to the extent that they are authentic persons." He theorized that this placed Combs in opposition to the behavioristic trend toward preparing teachers by teaching them to analyze the teaching act.[1] He quoted Combs thus, "What makes an effective professional worker is not a question of his behavior in any particular way. Rather, it seems to be a matter of how effectively he has learned to use his unique self in carrying out the functions of his particular branch of the helping profession."[2]

_____

[1]Philip Perdew, "Reflections on a Conference" in Partnership in Teacher Education, E. Brooks Smith, editor (Washington, D. C.: AACTE, NEA, 1966), p. 9.

[2]This would seem to be a possible explanation of the recurring dilemma in educational research where study after study has revealed that hardly any variable like numbers, time, money or books in the library appreciably affect the learning of children. Ned Flanders' work, among others, is based on the assumption that the prevailing influence in the classroom is the teacher's personality, as revealed in his verbalized feelings.

Perdew indicated he was in agreement with Dr. Combs when he said, ". . . to become a teacher a student must become a self." He used terms from the increasingly influential "Third Force" psychology when he spoke of the need for a student of education "to develop beliefs [emphases here are this writer's], values, purposes and personal meaning" in order to "behave out of his self-worth and confidence." Experiences in teacher education should be analyzed in that domain, he said.[1] "Student teaching in the old form is becoming increasingly ineffective and impossible; a replacement is overdue."[2]

Hans Olsen, Associate Professor of Education at Wayne State University, criticized the apprenticeship rationale implicit in current practices when he said, ". . . an apprenticeship system is most inappropriate for teacher education. Merely modeling behavior upon that of a 'master teacher' is not the means for producing more than marginally adequate teachers." Such an experience, he said, prepared teachers only for situations directly

---

[1]Perdew, op. cit., p. 10.

[2]Ibid., p. 11.

parallel to those met in student teaching.[1]

Weiss emphasized the importance of personality development in teacher preparation when he said that more important than age to maturity are "personality of the student, emotional and intellectual security, openness versus closed-mindedness and flexibility versus rigidity."[2]

Gilles Dussault, of the University of Laval, Quebec, Canada, proposed a theory of supervision in teacher education which utilized extensively the Carl Rogers' theory of therapy and personality change. From the Rogers' theory he developed a middle-range theory for use in teacher education.[3] His theory provides, for the first time, a systematic scheme for testing the positions just presented. In the introduction to Dussault's monograph, Margaret Lindsey, editor of the series of which it is a part, said "Teachers of tomorrow are significantly influenced today both by their general observations of professionals around

---

[1]Ibid., p. 231.

[2]Robert M. Weiss, The Conant Controversy in Teacher Education (New York: Random House, 1969), p. 59.

[3]Gilles Dussault, A Theory of Supervision in Teacher Education (Three Volumes; Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories; New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1970).

them and by the specific _guidance_ [emphasis this writer's]
they receive from designated persons who assume responsi-
bility for their induction into the profession."[1]

Summary: The Issue

This section completes the resume of the literature
touching on the issue of the relative influence of the
cooperating teacher on the future behavior of the student
teacher. The issue was considered first in literature com-
prised of basic research studies. Next, the premise that
the cooperating teacher had too much (or too little)
influence was summarized from the opinion-type literature
in the field. Next, the literature which discussed the
issue as a problem of too little college influence was
investigated. And lastly, literature which viewed the
present situation as a failure and proposed various
innovations as possible solutions. The alternatives
ranged from providing contact with a variety of cooperating
teachers to viewing the student teaching relationships
from a guidance point of view.

---

[1]Ibid., p. vii.

The literature chapter as a whole has so far dealt with the historical perspective for the study, the surveys and standards in the literature which describe the status quo and now the issue itself as seen in the literature. Next the focus will turn to the literature which deals with two programs and two tools to be utilized in the study.

THE CLINICAL PROFESSOR ROLE AS
DESCRIBED IN THE LITERATURE

One of the student teaching programs which takes into account the issue herein raised and the innovations which have been suggested as possible solutions for the problem is a program called the clinical professorship. This section of literature analysis will focus on that type of program as a preparation to the writer's designing of a prototype program along the lines of a clinical professor's role.

Origin of Clinical Professor Concept

Dr. James B. Conant first proposed the program as it seems now to be interpreted,[1] though he gave credit to

---

[1]James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963), pp. 140, 142-44, and 215.

Bush at Stanford for originating the term as used in teacher education.[1]

L. O. Andrews said that he and Bush were talking about superb classroom teachers who were functioning in the best sense as supervising or cooperating teachers when they each used the term in the 1950's.[2]

Dr. Conant in The Education of American Teachers, expanded the conception of the term to mean a person, holding a joint appointment in both the public school and the college of education, who would plan, direct and co-ordinate all the clinical experiences for a professional education program. Conant's clinical professor would teach in the public schools enough to keep his expertise in the classroom current. In conjunction with a tutorial professor, he would plan and supervise the experiences in the field which would complement the seminars and tutorials on campus. There would be no courses as such in education. The clinical professor would be a supremely successful

---

[1]Ibid., p. 142, and Report of Fort Collins TEPS Conference, 1962, p. 45.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research Education, Inc., 1964), p. 115.

public school teacher, a scholar in his discipline and a curriculum expert in teacher education in that discipline. As a full professor on the college faculty he would be immune to the conventional research-and-publish pressures. He would represent the public school's position to the college faculty through his respected status and assignments there. He would also represent the college's position in the public school as he functioned in responsible roles on committees and groups dealing with public school policy.[1]

Implementation of the Clinical Professor Role

Not many programs have been found to implement fully the Conant proposals just as he predicted.[2] The most frequent demur is in the question of college rank. The ancient prejudices which lie beneath the calm of collegiate-public school relationships surfaced. Few (if any) clinical professors carry a full professor's rank on the college staff. Several other variations on Conant's theme have taken place also. Andrews said that Conant's use of the

---

[1]Conant, op. cit., pp. 61 and 142-144.

[2]Ron A. Edelfelt, editor, The Role of the State Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching (Washington, D. C.: NCTEPS, NEA, 1969), p. 27.

term "gives rise to confusion over the use and meaning of the term."[1]

Conant described a program in which a college employed at least one clinical professor in each secondary field in which it offered a degree and teaching certificate.[2] Knowing that the expense of such an arrangement would be prohibitive, Conant suggested collaboration among colleges much like the Michigan project in M-STEP.[3] The clinical professor, as envisioned by Conant, would teach the methods course concurrently with the student teaching phase of a continuum of clinical or laboratory experiences extending throughout the four college years.[4] His selection and qualifications would be according to state regulatory standards as would the selection of cooperating teachers who would still be used for specific in-class phases of the program.[5]

---

[1]Andrews, op. cit., p. 87.

[2]Conant, op. cit., p. 177.

[3]Ibid., p. 178.

[4]Ibid., p. 177.

[5]Ibid., p. 211.

In contrast, the "clinical professor" described by Andrews in the 1959 _Yearbook_ of Association for Student Teaching and by Bush in _Professional Imperatives_: _Expertness and Self-Determination_ (The 1962 TEPS Report) was, according to Andrews, meant "to mean a superior classroom teacher who works skillfully with student teachers."[1]

According to Conant the clinical professor would be a role through which the college (or university) could still exert considerable influence on teacher education. His contribution to university scholarship would lie, not in research necessarily, but in "developing and disseminating expert teaching." Conant saw it as a way to "raise the prestige of just plain teaching" through a "superb teacher."[2] Conant did not attempt to turn teacher education over to the schools as some of his critics had seemed to fear.

There already existed in several places programs along the general design of clinical professorships, though they were not so titled. In California, for a number of years, supervisors have been joint appointments with college

---

[1] Andrews, op. cit., p. 87.

[2] Conant, op. cit., p. 142.

and public schools. They have not, however, been in-
fluential members of the college faculty nor have they sat
in college councils making student teaching policy.[1]

Though he was not called a clinical professor, the
off-campus teaching center coordinator was employed to "be
local coordinator, administer the program locally, act as
public relations liaison with the schools, visit and
supervise student teachers, hold seminars, teach a course
to student teachers and to carry on an in-service program
with cooperating teachers."[2] Some of those men were regular
college staff who moved to the locale of the center. Some
commuted. Others were local people hired by the college
as in the case of The University of Michigan which had the
first such program.[3]

Andrews seemed to think he and Conant were in dis-
agreement over the concept of clinical professor. This
writer found no essential difference when Andrews defined
the term as "a master classroom teacher, properly educated,

_____

[1]Ibid., op. cit., p. 259.

[2]Andrews, op. cit., pp. 39 and 202.

[3]Ibid., p. 40.

properly bulwarked with resources, time, status and re-
muneration. Recognize them; give them status in the
college and pay them well," he said.[1]

By 1965, Andrews seemed to have defined his position
more clearly. He wrote, "the college supervisor should
work through the classroom teacher and the classroom
teacher is called a clinical professor." He described the
"Oregon Plan" as following his definition. In that program
a graduate teacher-intern and a student teacher worked with
a clinical professor (or classroom teacher holding a joint
college appointment).[2]

New York State for a number of years had a "Campus
School" or "equal partnership" arrangement which might be
called a modification of the clinical professorship. In

[1]Ibid., p. 83.

[2]AST, Theoretical Bases for Professional Laboratory
Experiences in Teacher Education: Forty-Fourth Yearbook
(Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching,
1965), p. 39; the writer notes that the Oregon legislature
failed to vote local funds and when Foundation and federal
funding expired the program was not renewed. Private
correspondence with school authorities in Oregon indicated
strong professional support for the program although the
political financial backing was lacking. More fully
described in John Sutter, "Clinical Professor and Joint
Appointment," Section V, Part VIII of Partnership in
Teacher Education, E. Brooks Smith, Editor (Washington,
D. C.: AACTE and AST, 1966).

that program college and public school teachers periodically were exchanged in a "lend-lease program."[1]

Maryland's center coordinators would be analogous to the clinical professor as Andrews described them.[2] Yet, M-STEP, centered in Maryland, reported that "of one thousand institutions surveyed, only _seven_ were actively using the clinical professor as a major concept of their program."[3] M-STEP publications depict, throughout, various modifications of the clinical professor role as utilized in their projects.[4] Those plans "encourage joint school-college action in the use of high level supervisory-guidance personnel, variously labeled Intern Consultant, Staff-Associate, Clinical Professor, Clinical Counselor, and Center Coordinator. The terminology used denotes a new concept of high level compe-tence which is in the process of being accepted as a requi-site for a key position in America's teacher education

---

[1]Andrews, op. cit., p. 173.

[2]Ibid., p. 214; Throughout Chapter X of Andrews various colleges and programs are described.

[3]Howard Bosley, director, _Teacher Education in Transition_ (Baltimore, Md.: M-STEP, 1969), Vol. I, p. 139.

[4]Ibid., p. 238.

programs."[1]

Connecticut described a program, partially in use and partially projected, in which they utilized the clinical professor concept with variations according to local needs and situations. The term used there was "Clinical Teacher."[2]

Brooks Smith described the crucial need in teacher education for an analysis of teaching in the real school setting. He called current practices "a folk art when practices worked out in one generation are simply passed on to novices in the next." He theorized that the clinical professor may emerge as the heretofore missing link between theory and research in the laboratories and schools and the practitioner. Smith called the person needed to bridge the gap by developing intermediate models and theories an "intermediate engineer." He saw the clinical professor as serving education theory in a way that Bell Laboratories and Western Electric function to translate pure electronic research into engineering models which later function in

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 244 and 245.

[2]Connecticut Commission for Higher Education, Teacher Education in Connecticut bound with Teacher Education: An Urgent Matter (Hartford: The Academy for Educational Development, Inc., 1967), p. 40 and throughout.

practical consumer roles.[1]

In the 1966 symposium recorded in Smith's Partner-
ship in Teacher Education, M. Karl Openshaw of Ohio State
University and Arthur Combs described programs much like
a clinical professorship in Ohio and Florida respectively.[2]
In the Florida program the director of laboratory experi-
ences (or clinical professor) plans direct contacts with
teaching from the Freshman year on to graduation. First
the student enters the public school periodically as an
aid; next as a teacher's assistant; next as teacher-
associate and during student teaching as an intern.[3]

Weiss, in his 1969 resume of the Conant controversy,
described the clinical professor favorably and quoted many
educators who did also.[4] He saw the clinical professor as
a key person as he interpreted Conant. By eliminating all

---

[1]E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher
Education (Washington, D. C.: AACTE and AST, 1966),
pp. 19-21.

[2]Ibid., All of Chapter IV, Part II and IV, pp. 197-
202, and 225.

[3]Ibid., p. 225.

[4]Robert M. Weiss, The Conant Controversy in Teacher
Education (New York: Random House, 1969), pp. 45-46.

(or most) courses in education except student teaching, Weiss, a la Conant, placed the clinical professor who is to direct student teaching in a powerfully strategic role in determining admission to the profession. With no state requirements other than student teaching, colleges would be freed to set their own programs creatively and imaginatively. By the state's regulation of performance criteria through student teaching admission to the profession would be based, not on course hours or credit but on performance where the clients, the public schools and state agencies, could hold the colleges accountable for their product. Colleges would get immediate feedback, through the clinical professor, concerning strengths and weaknesses in the preparation of their students.[1]

Weiss said that "the University of Washington has had clinical professors for the supervision of student teachers for thirty years." They utilized practice teaching centers and the clinical professor lived in the community, conducted seminars and supervised eight or nine weeks of full time experience for the students. At the University of Wisconsin the clinical professor concept had been used

---

[1]Ibid., p. 64.

since 1964, according to Weiss. He also saw the team-supervisory concept at the University of Florida as a form of clinical professorship in the "clinical specialists" utilized there.[1]

Weiss stated that true Conant-type utilization of the clinical professor role took place in recent years at the University of Wisconsin at Madison, the State University of New York at Albany, Sacramento State University in California and at Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois. New York State also employed Conant as a consultant to help plan a special five college project including Vassar, Cornell, Brookly, Freedonia, and Colgate.[2]

The Northwestern program has come to be considered the epitome of Conant's suggestions in action, having already five clinical assistant professors teaching in the public schools and at the university when Weiss wrote.[3]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 162.

[2]Ibid., p. 148.

[3]Ibid., p. 231.

Opinion Favoring Clinical Professor Role

James Fisher praised the concept of clinical professor as used at Northwestern and recommended its adoption elsewhere. He called it, ". . . a good example of the close relationships that grow out of dual appointment of a clinical professor" and said that the closeness "carries over into mutual concern and effort."[1] He described the clinical professor as "wearing two hats and their continued employment at the college depends on their being employed by the public schools." He mentioned a pilot program at the University of Chicago which trains whole faculties to go out into the public schools to "man them" while the regular faculty returns to the campus for study. That is similar to the New York State program of "lend-lease" where faculty members are exchanged for a semester or one year.[2]

Dr. William R. Hazard gave John Goodlad credit for enlarging the Conant concept into operational terms which

---

[1] James L. Fisher, "The New Teacher Education: Prospectus for Change," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teacher Roles (Washington, D. C.: NCTEPS, NEA, 1969), p. 66.

[2] Ibid., p. 66.

Northwestern then implemented.[1] In a 1964 conference at

Northwestern, Goodlad helped to delimit the roles and

relationships which Conant had alluded to broadly. The

clinical professor should hold a master's degree or

equivalent and should maintain a clinical practice in the

schools while employed as a professor on the college

faculty. Bush gave the spark, the idea; Conant defined

the term and Goodlad enlarged it according to Hazard.[2]

That conference is reported fully in Eliezer Krumbein,

editor, Innovations in Teacher Education (Evanston:

Northwestern University Press, 1965).

Hazard described the Northwestern version of the

clinical professor saying, "He places teachers as they need

with various cooperating teachers. He teaches a seminar

and a methods class to student teachers. He teaches public

school classes and he teaches on campus as part of that

---

[1]William R. Hazard, editor, The Clinical Pro-
fessorship in Teacher Education: A Report of a Conference
at Northwestern University (October 24-25, 1966
Conference in conjunction with Carnegie Corporation of
New York; Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press,
1967), pp. 26 and 27.

[2]Ibid., pp. 26 and 27.

faculty, too."[1] With the tutorial professor, the Northwestern clinical professor plans and supervises clinical experiences for the Freshman, Sophomore, Junior and Senior years, synthesizing academic, pedagogic and laboratory understandings into one. From a "home base" teaching position, the student teacher would range widely working with different teachers, different curricula, different students and different schools.[2]

Details of the Northwestern program were described by Hazard in a subsequent volume centered on description and evaluation of only the Northwestern program.[3] In his introduction to that volume, Lindley J. Stiles said, "The clinical professor functions as a catalyst to make this relationship real." The relationship referred to is that of the partnership between the public school and the college. There is a partnership existing within the university inter-departmentally; there is another between the university and the schools; and a third, between the

_____

[1]Ibid., p. 127.

[2]Ibid., pp. 130 and 131.

[3]William R. Hazard, The Tutorial and Clinical Program of Teacher Education (Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1967).

university and the state department of public instruction.
In this way "accountability" is achieved according to
Stiles.[1]

Northwestern's program of innovation really began in
1961 with a committee to study the current practices and
report recommendations for change. The whole university was
involved. One of the chief recommendations was for clinical
experiences "tailored to fit the needs of students."[2] The
clinical professor concept seemed to answer various needs
which were identified at Northwestern. He works with
various critic teachers and in various schools coordinating
the clinical work his students need to "mesh the academic
course work with theoretical foundations of teaching into
the reality of the classroom."[3] He is at once the guide,
the critic, the counselor and the professional colleague
of students. For that demanding role he needs "broad
understandings in his teaching field, superior teaching
skill and the ability to conceptualize and develop these

---

[1]Ibid., p. vi.

[2]Ibid., p. 18.

[3]Ibid., p. 19.

skills in others."[1] Through the clinical professorship
practitioners for once in the history of the profession
will now have a "major obligation . . . for control of
entry into the profession."[2]

Opinion From Three Clinical Professors

Three men who have actually functioned as clinical
professors have shared their experiences and their opinions
about the program. They are Arthur Bolster at Harvard and
Newton Public Schools, [3] Professor Daniel Powell at North-
western and Evanston Public Schools[4] and James F. Collins
of the University of Maryland and principal of Julius West
Junior High School.[5] Bolster has reservations about the
efficacy of teaching frequently in the public school, but
saw his role more as curriculum planner in the schools.[6]
Powell fitted into the university role smoothly collaborating

---

[1]Ibid., p. 20.

[2]Ibid., p. 32.

[3]Hazard, The Clinical Professorship in Teacher
Education, op. cit., p. 87.

[4]Ibid., p. 44.

[5]Ibid., p. 75.

[6]Ibid., p. 87.

with historians by writing "Teaching Guides" etc. for
their high school textbook output.[1] Each mentioned dif-
ficulties in the role and emphasized its demanding nature.
They were echoed in their concern for the strains the role
imposes by both Roland Nelson[2] and John A. Granito.[3]

The Cautioning Opinions of Clinical Professor

Nelson cautioned against "allowing the clinical
professor to be caught in the middle, not knowing where to
turn for answers about his salary, promotion, and tenure."[4]
He said, "If he [the clinical professor] is to perform
such functions well he must know to whom he is responsible,
for what he is responsible, and what he is authorized to
do."[5] Nelson continued:

> It would be tragic if the clinical professor
> were to become just another student teaching
> supervisor, a position too often filled by
> graduate students as a means to supplement
> their income, by junior faculty members as a way
> to do penance or by retired school administrators

---

[1]Ibid., p. 44.

[2]Ibid., pp. 55-64.

[3]Ibid., pp. 100-111.

[4]Ibid., p. 57.

[5]Ibid., p. 58.

> as a way to avoid superannuation. Adminis-
> trative arrangements must reflect the
> importance of the clinical experiences to the
> teacher education program through recognition
> of the unique and significant role played by
> the clinical professor in developing and
> directing those experiences. Clinical profes-
> sors must be encouraged to experiment, to
> exercise professional autonomy and to make
> recommendations affecting the entire teacher
> education program if they are to bring to the
> task of teacher education the much-needed
> perspective of the practitioner.[1]

Such persons, to succeed, must be "distinguished class-

room teachers sufficiently temerarious to exercise

vigorously their full rights and privileges as partners to

plan and develop increasingly realistic approaches to

teacher education."[2]

Granito himself holds a dual role in New York State.

He is the Chief, Bureau of Teacher Education, the Uni-

versity of the State of New York and the State Education

Department. He called the clinical professor, "a legend

in his own time,"[3] "a paragon, which some people jest,

will leave to become college presidents!"[4] Granito

---

[1]Ibid., p. 59.

[2]Ibid., p. 64.

[3]Ibid., p. 104.

[4]Ibid., p. 110.

stated:

> More often than not the position will be
> structured around a set of goals which will not
> enable college professors of great skill to
> feel comfortable in them nor dedicated school
> teachers of unusual accomplishment to want to
> remain involved. The relatively little research
> which has touched the very roots of the student
> teaching experience indicates that we have a
> great deal more to learn about the basics.[1]

Thirty-five out of one hundred proposals submitted

in one year to Don Davies, Executive Secretary of the

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional

Standards of NEA, were involving the clinical professor

role in some way. He called that very encouraging but he

foresaw dangers as did Nelson and Granito and others. He

said:

> There are several dangers . . . first . . .
> there is the danger that the clinical professor
> may be simply a somewhat more elegant title for
> an off-campus supervisor without any real change
> in function, status, reward and most importantly,
> without any real change in effectiveness. Second,
> institutional conservatism in both the schools
> and college may choke off the idea before it gets
> a fair test; administrative difficulties may
> kill the idea because it is just too much trouble
> and because it interferes with our tidy earlier
> practices. Third, I think there is a real danger,

---

[1]Ibid., p. 111; and Lawrence Sannaccone and H.
Warren Button, Functions of Student Teaching (United States
Department of HEW Research Project No. 1026; Washington,
D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964).

as Mr. Bolston said so well, that the clinical
professor idea will become an end in itself rather
than one part of a comprehensive, varied effort
to vitalize and make more relevant the education
of teachers (which, in my view, is its essential
pertinence).[1]

Among the critical or cautioning voices raised

outside the symposium at Northwestern (which was just

reported) are Charles Silberman and Robert Weiss.

Silberman said that employing a clinical professor

(as he understood the term to mean off-campus supervisor in

residence) did not solve the problem in teacher education

for the assumption back of them was to improve supervision

through greater frequency of contact between the college

supervisor and the student teacher. The nature of the

supervision, not the frequency, is the essential factor

as he saw it.[2] If the clinical professor remains the

"lowman on the totem pole" of the college faculty,

exhibiting no clear conception of teaching and no serious

plans to achieve goals, "far from improving matters,

turning practice teaching over to the schools might make

them worse for schools would tend merely to reproduce the

---

[1]Ibid., p. 113.

[2]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom
(New York: Random House, 1970), p. 452.

kinds of teachers they already have."[1]

In the new school faculty at the University of North Dakota, designed, according to Silberman, to bypass the hidebound School of Education faculty, the clinical professor supervised a teaching intern (M. Ed. candidate) and an undergraduate student teacher in a school situation where the regular teacher had gone back to the campus to begin course work leading perhaps to a master's degree but assuredly leading to induction into the philosophy and practices formulated by the new school. (Those policies resemble the open primary of England). The Dean himself, as did all of the faculty of the new school, functioned as a clinical professor so there was no conflict of status and role. The clinical duties were considered the most crucial and vital to the program. By teaching, the new school faculty made sure there would be no gap between their theoretical conceptions of educational principles and the real world of the classroom.[2]

Silberman seemed to be saying that to be effective the role of clinical professor must go all the way. Just

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 452 and 453.

[2]Ibid., p. 477.

operational or organizational arrangements called joint

appointments would not make sufficient differences in the

teachers he would help develop. Clinical professors must

view their roles as guiding future teachers to experience

what their children will experience, to begin to understand

the self within themselves in order to be prepared to guide

the self-understanding and development of future generations

of children. The role is an almost therapeutic one, said

Silberman--a psychological therapist who is also a master

teacher.[1]

E. Graham Pogue, Director of Student Teaching at

Ball State University, criticized the clinical professor

role today as "almost supernatural powers and instant

status, not like the real world."[2] He foresaw problems

involving the question of whether clinical professors

should or could be general or special supervisors. He said

a generalist would save money, for a team of supervisors

from various disciplines would be too expensive for most

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 488 and 489.

[2]E. Graham Pogue, "Student Teaching: The State of
the Art," The Role of the State Educational Agency in The
Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching,
Ron A. Edelfelt, editor (Washington, D. C.: TEPS, NEA,
1969), p. 24.

colleges.[1]

William Bennie saw dangers in the joint appointment
of clinical professors. Where would the locus of
authority and responsibility lie? How would it really be
different from today? He reminded educators that "What is
everybody's business is nobody's business." He said the
college was and would remain a guest in the public school
classroom. The curriculum of the school would not become
the concern of the college, he said, because of their
inherent conflict of interest. One reason cooperative
efforts don't work, he said, is that "you can't use them
and also abuse them." Colleges are often openly critical
of the very staff with which they seek a "cooperative"
effort.[2]

Weiss summed up the doubts that several contributors
to his book seemed to feel. He said, "Can one person
successfully deal with theory and practice? Can one
person serve the interest of both the school and the
college?" Can he obtain "status among college faculty"

---

[1]Ibid., p. 25.

[2]William A. Bennie, <u>Cooperation for Better Teaching</u>
(Minneapolis, Minn.: The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966),
p. 32.

who <u>are</u> <u>not</u> notorious for their valuing of teaching; or

among public school people who <u>are</u> notorious for their

contempt for those not on the firing line, the theorists?

He will have to maintain recent knowledge in his scholarly

discipline and recent experience in the public school's

teaching of that discipline. Can one person do both

well?[1]

Summary: Clinical Professor Role

The clinical professorship was seen by some in

this review as a panacea, by others as a failure. The

most encouraging views seemed to be cautious ones which

mentioned both the benefits and pitfalls and approached an

implementation of the program with clear-eyed caution and

concern that the role shall make a difference. Things will

be changed and teacher education will escape the confines

of college and schools which have institutionalized it

into a certain mold. Unless the program contributes to the

preparation of better teachers by making their education

more relevant, it may very well become one of the long

line of promising innovations which were swallowed up by

---

[1]Weiss, op. cit., p. 231.

the ponderous inertia of the status quo. Instead of changing teacher education the clinical professorship, too, can take on the coloration of conventional practices couched in a new term. But the clinical professorship, if boldly conceived and executed, could raise student teaching to the potential it has for an effective teaching device.

THE MINI-FACULTY

The writer first heard the term mini-faculty used by Dr. Kenneth Newbold of the Greensboro, North Carolina schools in a meeting at Ben L. Smith High School. A group of educators from the city schools and from the University of North Carolina at Greensboro had met to evaluate a recently completed joint effort in student teaching and to plan a future one. Dr. Newbold suggested that the future plans take the form of a "mini-faculty." After hearing Dr. Newbold's description of what he termed a mini-faculty, the writer elected to try to devise such a program for prototype testing.

Criteria for a Mini-faculty

The writer did not find the term in the literature, but she did find the program, as outlined roughly by Dr.

Newbold, to be called many other things. But the practices

<u>were</u> being utilized in various places and the key points of

what might be called a mini-faculty came into focus. They

were:

(1) A variety of experiences and placements would
be provided--the extensive phase of student teaching;

(2) No one cooperating teacher would control the
students' experiences;

(3) Intensive experience would be provided for an
extended period with one group of children through a
"home base" placement;

(4) A variety of subject areas would be represented
in the mini-faculty coordinated by one college represent-
ative (called coordinator or clinical professor);

(5) The student teachers, the coordinator and the
regular faculty would function in team situations where
appropriate;

(6) The college coordinator would work daily with
regular and mini-faculty (he does not necessarily teach
regularly);

(7) Chief responsibility for inclass observation
would rest with the regular staff;

(8) Through inservice and informal instruction the
coordinator would teach the college's philosophy and
methodology to the regular staff and would assist with
curriculum and instructional planning;

(9) The cooperating school would have academic
disciplinarians on call for assistance through the
coordinator's college faculty ties and contacts; and

(10) Seminars and classes for student teachers
would be conducted in the field and concurrently with the
laboratory experiences.

Programs of Mini-faculty Type

All or some of these characteristics were reported from different places around the country.[1] The New York "lend-lease" faculty arrangement with "campus school" organization closely parallels the mini-faculty described here.[2] The "Florida Experiment" at the University of Florida was very similar.[3] The Oregon program added the dimension of a graduate intern as part of the team.[4] Many of the M-STEP projects were almost identical to the program herein called mini-faculty, especially that project conducted at Weber State College in Utah.[5]

In essence the teaching center concept implements the use of a mini-faculty as part of the program throughout

---

[1]National Education Association, Changes in Teacher Education: An Appraisal (Report of Columbus Conference, Eighteenth National TEPS Conference; Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1964), pp. 77-88.

[2]Howard Bosley, director, Emerging Roles and Responsibilities (Teacher Education in Transition; Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1969), Vol. II, p. 202, and NEA The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles (Washington, D. C.: TEPS, NEA, 1969), p. 66.

[3]NEA, op. cit., pp. 253-278.

[4]Ibid., pp. 351-364.

[5]Bosley, op. cit., p. 80.

M-STEP.[1] Fourteen of those projects provide a variety of

experiences under the direction of a college coordinator;

and twenty-four have what they call internship during student

teaching.[2]

Chester Payne, a cooperating teacher, reported one

such experiment in "Experiment with a Student Teacher" in

the November 1963 issue of Education.[3]

The most completely parallel programs were found to

be the two so highly praised by Silberman. They are the

"Corridor Schools" of Professor Weber and the North Dakota

New School.[4] At the New School for Behavioral Studies in

Education, history and the methods of teaching history are

not separated but taught by a team, a professor from the

school of education and one from the history department.[5]

Both programs in Silberman were previously fully described

---

[1]Ibid., p. 167.

[2]Ibid., pp. 198-200.

[3]Chester J. Payne, "Experiment with a Student
Teacher," Education 84: 170-173, November 1963.

[4]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom
(New York: Random House, 1970), pp. 298 and 475.

[5]Ibid., p. 475.

in the Issue Section of this chapter.

Richard Davis, Dean of the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee, described the program there which provided for joint appointments for college and school staffs and provided also for teaching across faculty lines as well as joint committee and program planning between faculties.[1]

James Fisher, in "The New Teacher Education: Prospectus for Change," described a pilot program at the University of Chicago where a whole faculty was trained by the college to go out and function as a unit, to man a school.[2] Several other programs were reviewed by Fisher in his resume of changes in progress. A unique program which has some characteristics of the mini-faculty and was being tried in several places was the Coop-Students Program. Paid by Title I-C of the Higher Education Act as GS 1-2-3 or 4 students worked one semester in a school and one

[1]Esther D. Hernsing, editor, Realignments for Teacher Education: Twenty-third Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AACTE, 1970), p. 56.

[2]NEA, The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles (Washington, D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1969), p. 66.

semester on campus, taking five years to achieve the AB

degree and certification to teach.[1]

Graham Pogue recommended that, "Greater efficiency

and long term benefits would appear to accrue from his

[the clinical professor] working with the classroom super-

vising teachers and administrators."[2] He was not hopeful

of getting enough highly qualified persons to fulfill the

college's clinical professor or coordinator's role. He

said, "The problem is accentuated by the low status

sometimes afforded student teacher supervisors on college

and university campuses . . . often relegated to doctoral

students."[3] He cited the time and money wasted in travel

when several specialists are regularly used to supervise[4]

and he suggested a generalist as in-resident coordinator

with discipline specialists on call to act in team

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 88-94.

[2]Roy A. Edelfelt, editor, The Role of the State
Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative
Programs in Student Teaching (Washington, D. C.: TEPS, NEA,
1969), p. 25.

[3]Ibid., p. 27.

[4]Ibid., p. 25.

supervision.[1]

Kathleen Amersheck visualized the dropping of barriers to lines of communication and responsibility across faculty borders from college to public school. She called for a "symbiotic" relationship whereby the field (the public schools) would become an integral function of the university--its goal not an adjunct to it. She called for giving the university responsibility for the field.[2] In effect her description of her vision fits a mini-faculty organization well.

The Kemp Mill Teaching Center in Maryland's M-STEP project has a mini-faculty. All of the students who will use the school for clinical experiences and for student teaching report in August when the regular faculty reports. They are involved in the opening of school problems and issues. The students in the school know them from the first as faculty members. Their program provides for four levels of experience under the direction of a jointly appointed coordinator from the college faculty. The levels are-- intensive individual experience, extensive individual

---

[1]Ibid., p. 24.

[2]Ibid., pp. 45-48.

experiences, common experiences and seminars (some in conjunction with the regular faculty). The coordinator uses micro teaching and simulation to instruct the college students and to update the expertise of the regular cooperating faculty.[1]

Andrews was concerned with the "sometimes sharp controversy and strained relations" that result from having a college person decide the content and teaching procedures in a public school classroom.[2] Yet he admitted that the college must have some control over the quality of experiences its student teachers have. The question of proper authority could be resolved by a dual appointee--a professional type he surmised to be rare. He saw such a person as "working primarily through the cooperating teachers."[3]

The duties of the clinical director or coordinator would be to observe a few times, to confer frequently with student and cooperating teacher, to assist both student and

---

[1]Bosley, op. cit., p. 28.

[2]L. O. Andrews, Student Teaching (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 54.

[3]Ibid., p. 55.

teacher, to conduct seminars and to cooperate in assigning final grades. By assuming only twenty to forty percent of the responsibility he could coordinate the programs for twenty to thirty-five student teachers while leaving up to eighty percent of the load to qualified cooperating teachers, who would be responsible for day to day planning, evaluation, conferences and cooperation in grading. He admitted that "there will not likely be enough such teachers for a number of years." He called the cooperating teacher the clinical professor and took issue with Conant.[1] During the "public school residency" the college supervisor would teach the education content needed concurrently with student teaching.[2]

One of the aims of the M-STEP program in most of the seven states involved was to strengthen the public schools by means of the college supervisors' (clinical professors, or teaching center coordinators) working more with and through the cooperating teachers than in actual classroom supervision.[3]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 56.

[2]Ibid., p.

[3]Bosley, op. cit. p. 169.

In Maryland's M-STEP program the student teachers formed a faculty within a faculty at the teaching centers. That was not called mini-faculty, but it incorporated all the features herein identified as mini-faculty. Provision was made for "greater horizontal as well as vertical participation of the student teachers."[1]

Louis Vander Linde outlined the Wayne State University program of cooperative student teaching centers by saying thus, "Teams of four to eight students were placed in each building."[2] He compared the arrangement with that of Harvard University and the University of Wisconsin which send teams of student teachers into a public school under the direction of a clinical professor who plans a variety of experiences for them within the regular faculty. No one co-operation teacher is responsible for them. He called it the "building approach."[3] Conferences, critiques, seminars and laboratory experiences were integrated to meet specific needs of a specific student teacher.[4]

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 208-213.

[2]E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: AACTE and AST, 1966), p. 53.

[3]Ibid., pp. 53-70.

[4]Ibid., p. 90.

Elmer Schact, Assistant to the Dean of the School of Education at Wayne State University, elaborated on that program in "The Building Approach to Student Teaching;" his description fits the criteria for the term mini-faculty.[1]

As early as 1961 The Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching was recommending that student teaching would be a more effective and realistic means of teaching if groups of student teachers acted as "a faculty within a faculty."[2]

In Michigan the teaching center and mini-faculty concepts have been utilized to form a "living-learning center" for student teachers in which four teacher education institutions plus a local school district and state officials collaborated to eliminate competition among the institutions for the "best" placements for student teachers.[3] A center director coordinated four different programs as a joint appointment of all five institutions. (The four colleges, the school district and the state department.)

---

[1]Ibid., p. 248.

[2]C. M. Clarke, editor, The Outlook in Student Teaching: Forty-first Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1961), p. 86.

[3]Bosley, op. cit., p. 33.

He provided for inter-institutional supervision and a full
and realistic whole-community experience for the student
teachers from the various colleges.[1]

In defending the individualized mini-faculty type
arrangement at San Francisco State University where he
formerly taught, Fred Wilhelms, Executive Secretary of The
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
(ASCD) of NEA, said, "I was worried [before the new
program] about a student who was cabined and cribbed and
confined under a dictatorship of accomplished skills. I
was wondering how, next year, he was supposed to accept
the mantle of independence."[2] The freedom of the mini-
faculty gave him the independence to develop the unique
person within the teacher he was to become.

All of the programs cited here are fairly new, and
yet the essential idea of the mini-faculty is very old,
dating back at least to the Oswego Plan that Dewey lauded

---

[1]Ibid., p. 46.

[2]Esther D. Hernsing, editor, Realignment for
Teacher Education: Twenty-third Yearbook (Washington,
D. C.: AACTE, NEA, 1970), p. 27.

in his 1904 essay.[1] Under that system the student teachers
had a more realistic experience because "they came under no
room critic teacher and had responsibility for all activity
of the school over a long period of time." Most student
teaching, said Dewey, was like "learning to swim without
going near the water because he hasn't actual control or
responsibility."[2] Unfortunately student teaching has
remained much the same today in its conventional form. The
mini-faculty may be one other means to make student teaching
live up to its potential for truly preparing teachers with
a firm "scientific foundation" rather than momentary
expertise.[3]

Then too, back in 1930 Armentrout's "sliding program
of observation, participation and teaching" was described
in Mead's monumental history. It had many of the features
of the mini-faculty even then.[4] Lindsey brought the mini-

---

[1]Merle Barrowman, editor, Teacher Education in
America: A Documentary History (New York: Teachers College
Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965), p. 146.

[2]Ibid., p. 143.

[3]Ibid., p. 144.

[4]Arthur R. Mead, Supervised Student Teaching
(Richmond, Va.: The Johnson Publishing Co., 1930), p. 419.

faculty up to date in her recent monograph introduction "Inquiry into teaching behavior of Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories."[1]

Summary: Mini-faculty

The two programs to be prototyped for this study have now been documented from the literature available. Background and criticism on the clinical professor and the mini-faculty have been presented as described in the literature. Next the writer will turn to the literature which will help him prepare to use the two tools of evaluation that he will employ after the prototype experiences as a participant observer.

FLANDERS' INTERACTION ANALYSIS

One of the evaluation tools to be used in this study is the Flanders' Verbal Interaction Analysis

---

[1]Margaret Lindsey and Associates, Inquiry into the Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories (Monograph One) in Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories: A Series of Three Monographs; New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1969), pp. 204-205; see also as intermediate model between 1930's and 1970's, Dorothy McGeoch, Direct Experiences in Teacher Education: A Story of Three Programs (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953), pp. 53-106.

Category Scale referred to hereafter as The Flanders' Scale.

Developed by Dr. Ned Flanders under the auspices of a

research grant to study in New Zealand, the interaction

analysis technique capitalized on the earlier such works of

Withall and Bales to refine the categorizing of verbal

interaction to ten variables--seven of teacher talk, two

of student talk and one for confusion, the unidentifiable

or for silence.[1]

Though it was developed primarily as a research

tool, the scale has been used for supervisory purposes and

for self-analysis and critique. Flanders himself made no

value judgments about the relative merits of the direct

versus non-direct dimensions of influence represented by

the scale. Subsequent users of the scale have done so,

however. Flanders proposed its use to enable a teacher to

graphically (by means of a matrix) delineate the pattern of

influence he was using in his classroom. With that in-

formation, given his stated goals, he would determine the

appropriateness or lack of appropriateness of that pattern

for achieving the stated goals. Flanders used it to

---

[1]Ned Flanders, et al., Interaction Analysis.

study dependency and achievement among other things.[1]

The writer first heard of the scale at a lecture given by Dr. Flanders at The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in 1966 and subsequently researched the tool and its possible use through an independent study conducted with teachers of the Curry School of The University of North Carolina at Greensboro--Dr. Donald Russell directing.[2]

In 1967 the writer attended a workshop at the University of Tennessee in which the Flanders' Scale was one of the four innovations being proposed for improving teacher education. Dr. Elizabeth Hunter, colleague of Dr. Amidon who collaborated with Flanders in his research and writing, conducted the work and study in interaction analysis. There the writer learned of further refinements of the scale which were made by Dr. Flanders' colleagues at The University of Wisconsin and also of further possible uses

---

[1]Ned A. Flanders, Teacher Influence, Pupils' Attitudes, and Achievement: Studies in Interaction Analysis (Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota and the Office of Education Research Project No. 397, 1960).

[2](Independent Study monograph unpublished,) University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Dr. Donald Russell advising, 1969.

under study at Temple University with Dr. Amidon.[1]

The writer has since taught the scale as an analysis-of-teaching tool to student teachers, to cooperating teachers in a graduate course and to educational psychology students studying classroom climate as a psychic factor in learning. She has found it to be a useful "filter" for a close-up look at one variable among the multiple ones operating in a classroom.

The previous study and use of the Flanders' Scale prepared the writer to use it, but confirming reports from the literature were needed to document its appropriateness to this study. Consequently the available literature was again reviewed.

Silberman praised the usefulness of Flanders' Scale but decried the very limited use of it. Few schools of education taught its use and among those who did there were reports of speedy "washouts" of improvement made by those students who had been taught to use it.[2] Knowledge

---

[1]Personal Interviews with Dr. Elizabeth Hunter at The University of Tennessee, 1968.

[2]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p.454.

and "use of the scale should get teachers away from the 'mindlessness'" which Silberman says is the plague of education. Flanders' Scale might help educators develop a much needed "concept of education and a real theory of teaching," said Silberman.[1]

Edmund Amidon and Elizabeth Hunter outlined the many uses of the scale in evaluating and studying direct experience as a way of preparing teachers.[2]

Dorothy McGeach described three innovative programs and the use of the Flanders' Scale to assure that quality of classroom climate was maintained by the student teachers.[3] It was used also as a device for the student to utilize in analyzing his own teaching as seen later on video tape.[4]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 458.

[2]Edmund Amidon and Elizabeth Hunter, "Direct Experience in Teacher Education: Innovation and Experimentation," The Journal of Teacher Education, Fall, 1966; see also M-STEP, Multi-State Teacher Education Project: An Interim Report (Baltimore, Md.: M-STEP, 1965), p. 104.

[3]Dorothy McGeach, Direct Experiences in Teacher Education: A Story of Three Programs (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953), p. 50.

[4]Ibid., p. 55.

The cooperating teachers learned Flanders' Scale as a means of studying their teaching. To be a good teacher-of-teachers one needs to be analytical and able to relate goals to accomplishments in an objective way.[1]

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education conducted a series of workshops around the country to teach the use of interaction analysis (along with micro-teaching, simulation, and non-verbal interaction) as a means of studying the teaching act. Representatives from member schools gathered to study it and disseminate knowledge of its use to fellow faculty members upon their return home. This writer represented The University of North Carolina at Greensboro and subsequently gave a faculty meeting lecture on the subject, gave copies of instruction to all faculty members, obtained the training tapes needed to perfect skill in the use of the Flanders' Scale and gave instruction to those faculty members who asked for it.[2]

---

[1]Ibid., p. 53.

[2]AACTE, Professional Teacher Education II: A Programmed Design Developed by the AACTE Teacher Education and Media Project (Team), (Washington, D. C.: AACTE, 1968), pp. 25-34.

L. O. Andrews, urging more systematic research in education, advocated the use of the Flanders' Scale. He said that coupled with a device to measure the non-verbal (like the Galloway Scale), the Flanders' Scale could show us graphically more of what the act of teaching really is.[1]

M-STEP projects utilized Flanders' Scale with inservice education so that an objective basis for conferences could be obtained as cooperating teacher and student teacher learned to analyze the teaching act from that standpoint. Later as public school teachers they could each collaborate with a friend to analyze one's own teaching act or that of the other person. The chief virtue seen was in providing graphic feedback concerning what effect one has just had in the classroom--how direct or indirect and how much praise or blame was used.[2]

-----

[1]Howard Bosley, director, Teacher Education in Transition (Baltimore, Md.: M-STEP, 1969), Vol. II, p.172.

[2]Ibid., p. 212.

The fundamental variable in the Utah M-STEP project was the teaching of the Flanders' Scale to all personnel involved in the research group.[1]

Raths allotted two full chapters to tools of analysis which can help one study teaching and present it graphically. The Flanders' Scale was prominently featured, described, and evaluated favorably.[2]

A recent Office of Education Research Project featured the use of the Flanders' Scale in studying the effects of two mathematics lessons. Conducted at Washington University in Saint Louis, the research showed that the scale can be a useful and reliable tool for comparing the work of two people or the effectiveness of two styles or methods.[3]

----

[1]Ibid., p. 221.

[2]James Raths, John R. Pannella, and James Van Ness, editors, Studying Teaching (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970, all Chapter I and Chapter II.

[3]E. Muriel Wright and Virginia H. Proctor, Systematic Observation of Verbal Interaction as a Method of Comparing Mathematics Lessons (Saint Louis: Washington University, United States Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 816, 1961).

The Flanders' Scale figured prominently in the Association for Student Teaching's Forty-fourth Yearbook which dealt exclusively with the theory back of laboratory experiences. Ned Flanders wrote a chapter entitled "Integrating Theory and Practice in Teacher Education,"[1] and Edmund Amidon wrote "Interaction Analysis and Its Application to Student Teaching."[2] Both articles firmly attested to the utility and dependability of the scale for teaching about teaching and for analysis and evaluation of teaching.

Margaret Lindsey, whose position is that the best way to learn to be a teacher is to be involved in research about teaching,[3] recommended the Flanders' Scale as a useful tool in that research and the quest to understand the teaching act objectively.[4] It is being used in the research projects she heads at Teachers College, Columbia University.

---

[1]AST, Theoretical Bases for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education: Forty-Fourth Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1965), pp. 59-68.

[2]Ibid., pp. 71-92.

[3]Margaret Lindsey and Associates, Inquiry into Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories (Monograph One in Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories: A Series of Three Monographs (New York: Teachers College Press, 1969), p. viii.

[4]Ibid., p. 173 et passim.

The key tool used in the University of Utah project
under Asahel Woodruff (M-STEP) was also the Flanders' Scale.
Brigham Young University and Utah State utilized micro-
teaching with interaction analysis in their projects.[1]
Eight, twenty-minute tapes of various school settings, illus-
trating <u>direct</u> and <u>indirect</u> influence as defined by Flanders,
were developed at Utah State for use in training students in
the use of the Flanders' Scale. From the Woodruff project
came his own version of Instructional Analysis which may
eventually complement the Flanders' Scale in the study of
more of the variables in the classroom than just verbal
interaction.[2]

The most recent M-STEP report gave an entire chapter
to the discussion of the possible use of interaction analysis
as on-campus preparation for field work and as carryover into
systematic analysis of the laboratory experiences and in-
service re-education projects.[3]

Edmund Amidon encouraged the study of interaction
analysis and described his own extensive use of it in his

---

[1]Boxley, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 62.

[2]Ibid., p. 80.

[3]Ibid., pp. 249-261.

research and teaching when he spoke to the 1966 Joint Sym-

posium--Workshop on School-College Partnership in Teacher

Education. He said, "It appears that interaction anaylsis

is a valid measure of teacher behavior in the sense that

interaction patterns are related to the attitudes, percep-

tions, and achievement of children; interaction analysis

can, therefore, be seen as a useful technique for gathering

data in the classroom."[1] He summarized the research of

Flanders and the studies of D. M. Medley and A. Mitzel as

well as the Zahn study of cooperating-teacher influence on

the attitudes of students. Use was made of interaction

analysis in the research he reviewed. In those studies

the effect of a cooperating teacher upon the student teacher

was the focus as in this writer's research.[2]

Dorothy McGeach described, for that same workshop,

the extensive use given to the Flanders' Scale in her work

at Teachers College.[3] Hazard described the use of the

Flanders' Scale in the evaluation program for the North-

---

[1]E. Brooks Smith, et al., Partnership in Teacher
Education (Washington, D. C.: AACTE and AST, 1966),
Section V, Part IV, pp. 242-245.

[2]Ibid., p. 244.

[3]Ibid., p. 246.

western Clinical Tutorial Program.[1]

Ned Flanders wrote in the AST Forty-fourth Yearbook in 1965 that "Perhaps the most important people in the United States today are those who guide the development of future teachers in our country."[2] He bolstered his state-ment by a full description of the Zahn study at Glassboro. The rationale and design of the study were fully outlined and the key role of the Flanders' Scale made clear. Zahn hypothesized that student teachers instructed and supervised by interaction analysis would be less affected by the co-operating teacher's attitude. The study also employed the Teaching Situation Reaction Test and The Dogmatism Scale.[3]

The literature cited has shown that the Flanders' Scale is considered valid and reliable and that it has been used and tested over time extensively.[4] It was highly recommended by several respected educators, and its use-fulness in the particular problem at hand was documented.

---

[1]William R. Hazard, The Tutorial and Clinical Program of Teacher Education (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1967), p. 48.

[2]AST, Forty-Fourth Yearbook, op. cit., p. 59.

[3]Ibid., pp. 84-87.

[4]Anita Simon, Classroom Interaction Newsletter (Philadelphia: Temple University Press); published semesterly since 1968. All issues pertinent.

It was not sufficient to learn <u>about</u> the use of Flanders'

Scale; it was necessary to learn to use it and to interpret

it through extensive practice in many classrooms and with

video tapes. With the information from the literature

and the practice as confirmation, the writer selected verbal

interaction analysis as a tool.

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

Needing an instrument to measure attitudes as well as

the teaching climate, the writer turned to the <u>Minnesota</u>

<u>Teacher</u> <u>Attitude</u> <u>Inventory</u> (the MTAI in common usage).[1]

The writer first learned about the test in her study

of tests and measurements with Dr. Bert Goldman and became

familiar with it by using it in that class and with subse-

quent groups of education students, practicing teachers, and

advisees in the school of education. She used it for five

years as a pre and post test for the classes in Educational

Psychology, Social Studies Methods, Supervision of Student

Teachers and the Student Teaching Seminar and Laboratory.

---

[1]W. W. Cook and C. H. Leeds, <u>The</u> <u>Minnesota</u> <u>Teacher</u>
<u>Attitude</u> <u>Inventory</u> <u>Test</u> <u>and</u> <u>Test</u> <u>Materials</u> (New York: The
Psychological Testing Corporation, 1951).

The writer was therefore familiar with the test and its strengths and limitations through use and through the literature provided with the test.

The primary source when checking on the usefulness of any test is the Buros classic The Mental Measurement Yearbook, consequently the writer started there with the search of the literature.[1] Buros led to article after article describing trials and studies made of the test. Some were inconclusive, but most confirmed the validity and reliability of the test when certain limitations are kept in mind.[2]

Seeking a wider perspective from which to judge the test, the writer found an early critique of it in the Seventh Yearbook of AACTE. Walter Cook, Dean of the College of Education at the University of Minnesota, and an author of the MTAS, described the test and its development fully in "Personality Characteristics of

---

[1]Oscar Krisen Buros, editor, The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook (Highland Park, N. J.: The Gryphan Press, 1965).

[2]Ibid., Item 699.

Successful Teachers."[1] The MTAS was proving to be a "work horse" in teacher education research in 1954.[2]

In New Horizons for the Teaching Profession Lindsey told of the use of MTAS in the selection and admission process in teacher education. She recommended its wider use by educators and by administrators in the field.[3] She further enlarged upon possible uses for it in 1962.[4]

Denemark surveyed the whole problem area of personality tests in selection for teacher education programs and the MTAS was among those evaluated.[5]

---

[1]Walter Cook, "Personality Characteristics of Successful Teachers," in The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Seventh Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AACTE of NEA, 1954), Vol. VII, p. 63.

[2]AACTE, Yearbooks, Vols. IV - VII (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1951-1954), Vol. VII, p. 63.

[3]Margaret Lindsey, editor, New Horizons for the Teaching Profession: A Report of the Task Force on New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington, D. C.: TEPS, NEA, 1961), pp. 166-203; see also Lee Cronbach and Goldine Cleser, Psychological Tests and Personnel Decisions (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1957).

[4]AST, The Outlook in Student Teaching: Forty-First Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1962), p. 168.

[5]G. W. Denemark, editor, Criteria for Curriculum Decisions in Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA., 1964).

A Study by Patrick Pocchio, using the MTAS with six

hundred and seven city elementary teachers in order to

compare their attitudes with those in rural settings, was

reported in the Thirty-Fifth Yearbook of AST in 1956; again

it was found reliable. The same publication reported the

use of the MTAS in an evaluation of an internship program

by Marshall Nagal.[1]

Combs used the MTAS in his two studies on beliefs

teachers hold about people. Used to assess the perceptual

organization of teachers and to help validate a new instru-

ment,[2] the MTAS figured prominently in his thinking about

the developing self within the teacher. There can be seen

many similarities between Combs' criteria for assessing the

teacher's developing self-hood and items on the MTAS.[3]

More recently the MTAS is being used in the

research and evaluation phase of the innovative clinical-

---

[1]AST, Four Went To Teach: Thirty-Fifth Yearbook
(Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching,
1956), p. 153.

[2]Arthur Combs, The Professional Education of American
Teachers (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), pp. 54-67.

[3]Ibid., pp. 70-71

tutorial program at Northwestern as reported by Hazard.[1]

This 1969 use of the MTAS in a major research project funded

by the Carnegie Corporation attests to its durability and

continuing prestige as an evaluative instrument.

Among the articles which have proven useful were

ones by Combs, McClendon, Lynch, Nagal, Cook and Leeds, and

Della Piona and Gage.[2]

Of course the most useful item of all, after Buros,

is the material published with the test and concerned with

its application, interpretation and techniques.[3]

---

[1]William R. Hazard, The Tutorial and Clinical
Program of Teacher Education (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern
University Press, 1967), p. 40.

[2]A. W. Combs, "Can We Measure Good Teaching
Objectively?" NEA Journal 53:34-36, January 1964; see also
P. E. McClendon "Teacher Perception and Working Climate,"
Educational Leadership 20:104-109, February 1962; see also
W. W. Lynch "Person Perception: Its Role in Teaching,"
Indiana University School of Ed Bulletin 37:1-37, January,
1961; see also Marshall Nagal, "The Effect of an Internship
upon Selected Goals of the Program," Journal of Educational
Research 58: 711-714, May 1955; see also W. W. Cook and
C. H. Leeds, "Measuring the Teacher Personality,"
Educational and Psychological Measurement 7:409, Number 3,
1947; see also G. M. Della Piona and N. L. Gage, "Pupil's
Values and the Validity of the MTAS, " Journal of
Educational Psychology 46: 167-178, January, 1955.

[3]W. W. Cook, C. H. Leeds and R. Callis, The
Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (New York: The
Psychological Corporation, 1951).

SUMMARY

The literature reviewed here has dealt chiefly with items published since about 1955 in the field of school-college relationships in student teaching. The emphasis has been on the relative influence of the supervision provided by each institution.

Little of the literature found was truly research in nature. A few studies were reported which dealt with influence on student teachers and with innovations under trial. The lack of an organizing theory for student teaching was reflected in the lack of system or pattern found from study to study. Primarily they surveyed opinion or measured attitude change. Though scarce in number they did provide a relatively consistent idea that the public school cooperating teacher exerts great influence on the student teacher.

Much literature was reported describing and evaluating the roles and relationships in student teaching. Expert after expert, in opinion after opinion, described the powerful teaching and shaping influence which student teaching is. They all described the great influence of the cooperating teacher in recent years as the locale for

student teaching became fixed almost exclusively in the
public school as opposed to the earlier locus in "campus
schools."

Not many of the writers actually called the trend
toward a powerful public school-teacher influence "unde-
sirable." A few did so and reflect the position of this
writer.

Having isolated an "issue" or problem, the investi-
gator then reviewed the literature for innovations that
seemed to provide for elimination or deminution of the
imbalance of influence so frequently described in the
literature. The innovations reviewed in the literature
ranged from the purely structural--mechanisms for state
control of student teaching--to the truly affective--a
guidance or therapy frame of reference for supervision in
student teaching.

Next, the writer reported the literature dealing
with the two programs she sought to prototype for study;
the clinical professor role, and the mini-faculty organi-
zation.

The student teaching field (as reflected in the
literature) seemed to have enthusiastically accepted the
James B. Conant suggestion for a clinical professor as

desirable. Evidently the complications and difficulties involved had discouraged much implementation of such a program. Approval seemed almost universal; trial and use seemed relatively limited however (usually limited to narrow applications under federal or foundation grant).

The mini-faculty was found in fact but not in name in the literature reported. Many teaching centers employed the mini-faculty concept without necessarily using the name. Relatively few programs were reported as breaking away from the traditional one-student-teacher-with-one-cooperating-teacher system. The mini-faculty was revealed to offer an opportunity for a variety of experiences and that factor was selected by the writer as crucial to the issue as reflected in the literature.

Having selected the program types for study, the researcher then reviewed the literature for two tools to be used in the evaluation of the programs to be designed and studied by the writer as participant observer. The Flanders' Verbal Interaction Analysis system was selected to arrive at comparative climate patterns. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was found to be suitable for comparing feelings, attitudes and values of teachers. Literature was cited concerning the validity and uses of

those two tools.

The issue was raised--in research and opinion literature; solutions were proposed; two programs were described; and tools were selected in this chapter from the literature.

Chapter III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Since this study is philosophical in nature, it does not follow the usual design constraints of a statistical study. The writer chose to use what she felt to be an appropriate sociological research tool--the role of participant observer. That technique called for immersion into a situation in order to become a part of it. Though acting and being acted upon in the role, the writer also as objectively as possible observed and recorded the day by day events that comprised the situation.

THE PROBLEM FOR RESEARCH

The Basic Question or Problem to be Studied

Is there an imbalance between the influence of the college supervisor and the cooperating teacher vis-a-vis the student teacher which might be resolved by providing a variety of experiences with different cooperating teachers and daily instruction and coordination by a college supervisor?

195

Subsumed Assumptions and Questions

1. It is assumed that teacher education is important in the development of a teacher.

2. It is assumed that student teaching is the one most vital period in that teacher education.

3. It is assumed that both the theory taught in the college (or university) and the techniques taught in the field (the school) should influence the development of a teacher.

4. The question is asked--is the influence exerted by the college and the public school appropriate to their roles?

5. If not, why not?

6. Does the cooperating teacher exert inappropriate influence?

7. Does the college default on its opportunities for influence?

8. If greater balance is desirable, how might it be achieved?

9. Would a variety of experiences with different cooperating teachers and day-by-day college coordination and instruction during student teaching help to redress the imbalance (if it exists)?

10. What programs or innovations incorporate those two factors?

11. How can they be prototyped for trial here?

12. What factors in the prototypes studied contributed to variety and greater college coordination and instruction?

13. What model student teaching program could be constructed from these factors in order to test the theory that variety and more college coordination and instruction would bring a more nearly balanced influence to bear on future teachers?

THE WRITER'S THEORIES OR CONJECTURES

1. Because of a lack of university influence during student teaching, many student teachers tend to model after their cooperating public school teachers during that period and often continue that modeling into their professional careers.

2. Such modeling tends to limit their developing flexibility and uniqueness of style.

3. A variety of experiences with different cooperating teachers under the influence of close university supervision and instruction during student teaching should

enable the student teacher to develop an eclectic style that is more genuinely his own.

4. University influence should be increased during student teaching, thereby more efficiently teaching educational theories and practices.

5. By increasing the university's involvement in the student teaching experience, a balance of influence should be achieved.

6. More university involvement during student teaching should also provide for better cooperation and communication to the mutual benefit of both public school and the academic community. They can learn from each other.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

1. _Modeling_ may be defined as blind emulation or the attempt by one person to make his teaching style like that of another person.

2. _Student teaching program_ refers to the entire provision made by a college, in cooperation with a public school, for laboratory experiences (studying teaching) in actual classroom settings.

3. _Conventional program_ refers to the usual procedure followed at the institution utilized for the study.

4. <u>A</u> <u>clinical</u> <u>professor</u> is a person who teaches a public school class as a member of that faculty and teaches college courses and supervises student teachers as a fully accepted member of a college faculty.

5. <u>Cooperating</u> <u>teacher</u> refers to a public school teacher who accepts a college student into his classroom to observe, participate and practice the art of teaching.

6. <u>Variety</u> <u>of</u> <u>experiences</u> refers to the student teacher's not only working with a number of teachers, but also to his assuming various school duties based on a program planned to meet his needs.

7. <u>Theoretical</u> <u>proposal</u> <u>or</u> <u>model</u> refers to a framework of organization, relationships and dynamics that can act as a skeleton to which specific implementation may be added in different locales.

PROCEDURES OF RESEARCH

The steps to be taken as a means of studying the situations hypothesized here will be as follows:

1. A thorough study of the current literature and thinking of those involved in devising student teaching programs.

2. A letter-of-inquiry sent to selected schools of education and state departments of public instruction to obtain suggestions for innovations in student teaching which are not available in the literature.

3. The selection of two innovations which seem to be receiving wide testing and which give promise of providing the variety sought plus greater university influence during student teaching.

4. Designs for two prototype programs to be submitted for use in the university and the public schools.

5. The functioning of the writer as a participant observer in the two programs selected while also functioning in the conventional program.

6. Compiling and analyzing of daily logs kept during the experiences of the writer in the three programs under study.

7. Interviews with public school personnel and student teachers involved.

8. The selection from the programs of the factors recommended (by participants) as contributing to the asserted goals of the study--more university influence and a greater variety of experiences for the student teacher.

9. The use of two objective measures as a follow-
up to measure class climates and attitudes of a random
sample of the former cooperating teachers and their former
student teachers who are now teaching in North Carolina.
The two instruments to be used are The Minnesota Teacher
Attitude Inventory and The Flanders Interaction Analysis
Matrix.

10. From the three programs studied, an analysis
of the logs, experiences and responses to interview and
inquiry--an analysis of factors supporting the student
teacher as a developing individual rather than as the
emulator of a cooperating teacher.

11. Using those factors, a theoretical proposal
designed to meet the writer's stated goals--a variety of
experiences to stimulate individual technique and greater
balance of university and public school influence.

12. The proposal presented as a philosophical
position of the writer inviting trial and testing over
time.

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

The students who were routinely assigned for 1968-69,
1969-70 and 1970-71 school years to this writer were used

in the study. Each supervisor received his list of students
from the office of Coordinator of Student Teaching. The
writer used the students and public schools which were a
normal part of her supervising load. No special criteria
were used in their selection. No special schools or students
were used. They were randomly selected in the Coordinator's
office and vary as to age, sex, ability and subject area.
From that group only those who were teaching in North Caro-
lina schools for 1971-72 school year were followed up.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Given the assumptions and hypotheses presented in
this proposal, the writer synthesized and tabulated
incidents in the logs to seek principles and experiences
which provide for greater university influence and a
variety of experiences for the student teacher. Patterns
of organization, relationships and dynamics were sought.
From the logs and the answers to evaluative inquiries, the
writer attempted to construct a proposed program which is
her suggestion for one way which might be utilized in
future preservice education of teachers.

The data from the two objective measures were used
to compare the attitudes of the cooperating teachers and
their former student teachers who are now teaching in

North Carolina plus the class climates each person stimulates frequently through verbal interaction. Matrices were plotted from the _Flanders' Scale_ data and a comparison chart was compiled from the _Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory_ data.

The theoretical proposal is presented as a philosophical position of the writer, not as a panacea for the problems of teacher education. She therefore urges the need for further study. Certainly longitudinal studies should follow this proposal. Comparative studies which carefully control certain selected variables should follow. Student teaching needs and deserves more attention and study; improving public education is inextricably dependent on improving teacher education.

Chapter IV

THE DATA AND THE MODEL

The writer's research followed the preliminary
steps as outlined in the previous chapter, culminating in
the assembly of raw data in the form of daily logs kept as
a participant observer of the daily experiences of student
teachers within two deliberately designed and structered
prototype programs. The model, which was the aim of the
study, was designed through the process of content analysis
of the logs and the refining of experiences gleaned by
that content analysis.

The speculative position of the writer was, one,
that the factors of variety of experience and more college
instruction during student teaching would tend to diminish
injudicious emulation and two, that a model could be designed
based on experiences which developed in programs deliberately
structured to foster both of those factors. The writer
contended that her experience plus an extensive literature
search (see Chapter Two of this study) supported the view
that student teachers tend to model their teaching behavior

after their cooperating teachers. The position was taken that such modeling, or "carbon copying," is undesirable due to various reasons enlarged upon in the introduction to this study (see Chapter one). The task of designing two innovative programs with those two factors as central aims was undertaken. The writer proposed to gather, through participant observation in miniature societies of student teaching, the actual experiences of the student teachers which did indeed (in practice) yield variety and more college instruction.

<div align="center">

PROGRAM ONE - CLINICAL PROFESSOR AT
BEN L. SMITH HIGH SCHOOL

</div>

The first program to be designed incorporated the central idea of a clinical professor - a college supervisor of student teachers who also is a faculty member teaching in a public school and in a college. It was implemented within the strictures of an existing university program for student teaching and the well established roles and relationships of the conventional environment of a public high school.

Outline of the Program

The total proposal may be found in Appendix A of this study; only the essential elements will be used here to describe the program. They are:

1. The university and public school shared joint responsibility for the student teaching program by sharing the cost of the appointment of the person to serve as university supervisor of student teachers;

2. The university and public school shared in the planning for, and the authority for, the student teaching program of those student teachers;

3. The university supervisor was also a teacher of one class daily in the public school, thereby maintaining the currency of her expertise as a teacher and at the same time conducting a demonstration class;

4. Student teachers were assigned, not to one public school teacher, but to the clinical professor and the school principal, who jointly planned for their work in various school roles;

5. Within the restraints already mentioned, each student teacher's program was planned to meet his unique needs as well as possible;

6. Each student teacher worked at both the high school and the junior high school level; and

7. In-school classes and seminars were conducted to systematically study and analyze education principles and theories in the light of day-by-day experiences in the school.

Background of the Program

Planning with the public school system for the program began in the spring of 1968 and it was put into effect with the fall school term. The writer became a teacher of world history at Ben L. Smith High School in Greensboro, North Carolina, for one period each day while continuing to function as a full-time member of the university faculty, teaching undergraduate and graduate classes on campus. She became acquainted with the school and established a colleague's relationship with most of the faculty and staff in preparation for the coming of the student teachers.

There was no opportunity to teach the student teachers methods or other foundation courses within the school before the formal student teaching began. All their foundation courses were studied on campus before they were "released" to the writer's supervision. Ideally, the program called for the instruction in those courses and student teaching to be integrated simultaneously throughout the term.

Though the program disallowed assignments to an individual teacher, the traditional designation was nominally made to simplify administrative procedures at the insistence of the central coordinating office for both the university

and the school system. On administrative charts each student teacher was assigned to a specific teacher; in practice those teachers became the "homebase" teachers while the clinical professor retained responsibility for orchestrating a program which put the student teacher into contact with different teachers in different phases of subject matter.

The chief source of instruction and evaluation for the student teachers was the clinical professor, although the "homebase" teachers assumed responsibility when she was not present. The clinical professor was in a position to insist on the student teachers' being allowed to attempt methods and to practice theories taught in the university's foundation courses. Of course, the writer encouraged the student teachers to analyze the teaching they saw and to test practice by theory as well as theory by practice. The aim was that each student teacher establish his own eclectic set of principles after reflection on what he saw taught and what he observed in the practices of successful teachers. He was encouraged to model after no one teacher.

Step One - Inquiry

In November of 1968, six student teachers were assigned to the writer by the office of the Coordinator of

Student Teaching for the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. They were in no way specially selected. There were three people supervising all of the social studies student teachers that term and those students were randomly assigned to different schools in the area and to the various supervisors. All of the student teachers assigned to the writer were in social studies since that is her area of specialty. Dr. Conant's original recommendation was that there be a clinical professor for each discipline for which a university granted secondary certification.[1]

During the second semester, the spring of 1969, there were three student teachers in the program. Two of them were English majors and one a social studies major. (At the same time the writer also supervised one student teacher at a distant school according to the conventional program. She was also an English major.)

As a participant observer, the writer kept a log of her experiences as a clinical professor and the experiences of the student teachers whom she observed. That

_____

[1]James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1963), p. 177.

log is the source of the experiences herein labeled C-P
(clinical professor). The student teachers are designated
CP-1 or CP-2 and so on. Before the entire study was con-
cluded the writer had supervised fifty student teachers -
nine by the clinical professor program just described,
seventeen by the conventional program and twenty-four by
what was labeled the mini-faculty method, an outgrowth of
the original clinical professor program. That program
will be described as data from it is presented later in
this chapter.

The method utilized for the research is well known
in anthropology, social psychology and to some extent in
sociology.[1] The participant observer, as a tool for the
behavorial sciences gained considerable acceptance and use
after Florence Kluckhohn employed it and wrote extensively
in its support in the 1930's and 1940's. She summarized
her use of it in an article entitled "The Participant

----

[1]Kare L. Weick, "Systematic Observational Methods,"
The Handbook of Social Psychology, Gardner Lindsey and
Elliot Aronson, editors (2nd. ed.; Reading, Mass.: Addison-
Wesley Pub. Co., 1968), pp. 357-451.

Observer Technique in Small Communities," published in

The American Journal of Sociology in November of 1940.[1]

By the 1950's, the participant observer was a tool used by

such researchers as William Foote Whyte,[2] H. S. Becker,[3]

Raymond Gold,[4] Morris Schwartz[5] and Arthur Vidich.[6]

The writer first learned to use participant obser-

vation as a sociological tool in the study of small groups.

---

[1]Florence R. Kluckhohn, "The Participant Observer
Technique in Small Communities," American Journal of
Sociology, 46:331-43, November, 1940.

[2]William Foote Whyte, "Observational Field Work
Methods," Research Methods in the Social Sciences, Marie
Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, editors (New
York: Dryden Press, 1951), Vol. II, pp. 393-514.

[3]Howard S. Becker and Blanche Geer, "Participant
Observer and Interviewing: A Comparison," Human Organization
16 (#3): 28-32, Fall, 1957.

[4]Raymond L. Gold, "Roles in Sociological Field
Observations," Social Forces 36 (#3): 217-111, March, 1958.

[5]Morris S. Schwartz and Charlotte Green Schwartz,
"Problems in Participant Observation," American Journal of
Sociology 60: 343-353, January, 1955.

[6]Arthur Vidich, "Participant Observer and the
Collection and Interpretation of Data," American Journal of
Sociology, 60: 354-360, January, 1955.

She used it in research on a class, a club and a camping party, finding it a useful tool for the analysis of factors operating in the roles, the relationships and the overall dynamics of a relatively small social segment.

Seeking evidence of the applicability of the tool to educational research, the writer found that it was employed in educational research studies in the 1960's at Columbia University under Margaret Lindsey.[1]

There were, of course, writers who cautioned concerning the liabilities the tool held for research,[2] and the writer became acquainted with the possible handicaps in order to guard against each.

Mrs. Kluckhohn defined the participant observer as one who undertakes "...the conscious and systematic sharing, in so far as circumstances permit, in the life,

---

[1]Margaret Lindsey and Associates, Supervision in Teacher Education Laboratories: A Series of Three Monographs, Monograph One Inquiry into Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education (New York: Teachers College Press, 1969), p. 230.

[2]Schwartz, op. cit., p. 343; see also Vidich, op. cit., pp. 354-360; and Becker, op. cit., p. 653.

activities and on occasion, in the interests and effects of a group of persons."[1]

Nicholas Babchuk described the "diary technique"[2] as he enlarged upon Mrs. Kluckhohn's description of the technique. He did not carry the process through to analysis and interpretation of data. In the January, 1955, issue of the American Journal of Sociology, Arthur Vidich did present that aspect of the tool and suggested various procedures for analysis of data.[3] Ole Hosti recommended content analysis as the proper analytical tool to use with the logs (or diaries) resulting from the participant observation.[4]

The question of objectivity was discussed by Bruyn, who quoted Clyde Kluckhohn and Robert Angeli as

---

[1]Nicholas Babchuk, "Participant Observation and Observation in the Field Situation," Human Organization 21 (#3): 225-228, Fall, 1962.

[2]Ibid., p. 227.

[3]Vidich, op. cit., pp. 354-360.

[4]Ole R. Hosti, "Content Analysis," The Handbook of Social Psychology, Gardner Lindsey and Elliot Aronson, editors (2nd. ed.; Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co., 1968), pp. 596-692.

calling for the same care in using the diaries as with any personal document. They said of the use of any personal document, "...as anything else it is only relatively objective."[1] On the other hand, the writer found that social scientists like Leon Festinger, R. W. Rucker and Saul Schaeter conducted much of their research for the book When Prophecy Fails by participant observation.[2]

Karl Weick, in his article "Systematic Observational Methods" in the Handbook of Social Psychology, assured the potential researcher that participant observation is a relatively reliable method for gathering data at the natural history stage of any research question. He spoke of the "multi-dimensional view of reliability" and said that "some types of reliability can be sacrificed, for different types of reliability are important at different stages of inquiry."[3] He spoke of "hypothesis - free inquiry" where "naturalistic observation" using "...unselective recording avoided the inflexibility of category systems."[4]

---

[1]Severyn Bruyn, "The Methodology of Participant Observation," Human Organization 22 (#3): 224-235, Fall, 1963.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Weick, op. cit., p. 437.

[4]Ibid., pp. 357, 358 and 411.

The writer followed Weick's recommendation and recorded in "molar units" the events as they took place in the natural setting. This stage of research, inquiry, resulted in the unedited logs, from which the discrete experiences were gleaned.

Step Two - Categorization of Raw Data

Having recorded the events in log form, the writer's next task was to organize them into some meaningful form. The categorization principles which were utilized may be found in the Lindsey sponsored research and in Fred Kerlinger's Foundations of Behavior Research.[1] They are:

1) The categories are set up according to the research problem;

2) The categories are exhaustive;

3) The categories are mutually exclusive;

4) Each category is derived from one classification principle;

5) Any categorization scheme must be on one level of discourse.

The writer set up a separate category sheet on each student teacher so she was classifying the narrative logs

---

[1]Lindsey, op. cit., p. 122; and also Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavior Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), p. 606.

into lists of experiences for each student teacher on one "level of discourse." For each student teacher she sorted the experiences into the four chosen categories; experiences which fostered variety in student teaching (Category I), experiences which hindered the achievement of variety (Category II), experiences which fostered more college instruction during student teaching (Category III) and experiences which hindered the achievement of more college instruction during student teaching (Category IV). Thus the categories fit the recommended patterns of research in both Kerlinger's and Lindsey's research texts.[1] The writer chose to separate each student teacher's experiences in order to put the data through as many steps of analysis as feasible in order to assure that all were weighed and classified more than once. This step yielded nine classified lists of experiences, one for each student teacher. Sample pages of Step Two are included here as Table One. The writer chose C.P.-3 to use as an example simply because she was the first student teacher listed for the clinical professor high school program by the office of the coordinator of student teaching.

_____

[1]Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 606; and Hosti, op. cit., pp. 596-692.

Step Two
Analysis of Experiences in the Log - C.P.-3
Study One - Clinical Professor
Ben L. Smith High School
Greensboro, N. C.

Category I
Fostering Variety in Student Teaching
Table 1-A

1)   Assigned to the clinical professor not one teacher.
Found her "homebase" teacher misunderstood this at times.

2)   Observed and participated with other teachers in her
field by arrangements clinical professor made.

3)   Obtained clinical professor's help in convincing
"homebase" teacher to allow different methods in her class.

4)   Worked with English teacher to coordinate some History
and English units. Observed several other areas where
individualization was practiced.

5)   Followed her students through various class climates
and structures to see their varying reactions.

6)   Worked with special education classes to plan for
social studies for them. Studied students of all levels
of achievement.

7)   Trip to central office. Study overall administration
view. Relationship of that staff to teachers.

8)   Week at the Junior High. Poor economic and intellectual
level. Able to apply a student-centered approach to her
teaching.

9)   Worked with student council and assisted many projects--
planned for dance and chaperoned.

10) Racial crisis--police in building. Took responsible
role in calming students.

11) Trips to study innovative programs.

12) Planned with the team in U. S. History.

13) Did one large group presentation for them.

14) Assisted curriculum committee on Humanities Course.

15) Worked with Library and Guidance Staff.

Category II
Hindering the Achievement of Variety
Table 1-B

1) Found that several teachers were not "allowed" to have student teachers with them because they were not considered capable.

2) Some things she wanted to work with were being taught by MAT people.

3) One teacher quit and a substitute came--a very fearful person who sought help from the student teachers.

4) Her "homebase" teacher objected to her attempts to "branch out too much."

5) Found the school pretty inflexible--much opposition in history department to a humanities approach which the guidance people were pushing.

6) Her teacher was reluctant when she left for the junior high.

7) Had to grade papers and serve as a "flunkey" to her very busy "homebase" teacher long after she was capable of more responsible work.

8) Found her "homebase" teacher reluctant for her to attempt any group work or individualization, preferring her to lecture as did the homebase teacher.

9) Found the attachment to the status quo in student teaching very great.

10) One class she could have taught at times she declined because she was too ill-prepared to attempt it.

Category III
Fostering More College Instruction
Table 1-C

1)   She used the college's approaches and philosophy to teach inquiry and inductive lessons in the clinical professor's history class at Smith.

2)   Daily contact with the clinical professor for conferences, observation and seminars.

3)   Sought help of clinical professor in planning her early work and thus became more independent of "homebase" teacher.

4)   Worked in curriculum committee and department meetings where the clinical professor influenced the faculty decisions.

5)   Attended and aided in preparing a demonstration class the clinical professor presented to a city-wide meeting at another school.

6)   Seminars with methods teachers.

7)   Asked clinical professor to obtain college resources for her.

8)   Made the clinical professor a confidant and sought her advice rather than the "homebase" teacher's in techniques.

9)   Attended in-school seminars tying together theory with what she saw and practiced.

Category IV
Hindering More College Instruction
Table 1-D

1)   Teachers and student teachers were uneasy with a new approach and C.P.-3 felt uneasy at first that her "homebase" teacher would expect one thing and the clinical professor another.

2)   Was advised by staff members not to try the methods "the college theorists" taught her.

3)   Coffee-lounge gossip upset and disillusioned her.

4)   She was aware of the "guest" status she enjoyed in all classes except that of the clinical professor.

5)   Found objections to curriculum content changes because much of that was <u>fixed</u> already.

6)   Found the attitude to be one of concern that she (and the college people in general) would not safeguard the interests of the pupils--"They must learn the facts."

<u>Step Three</u> - <u>Reduction of Discrete</u> <u>Experiences to Types of Experiences</u>

As would be expected Table One A-D shows that many of the discrete experiences listed there are of the same type or class of experience. The writer then looked for "regularities and patterns.... These aspects and their interrelationships are believed to give expression to the workings of the system and to provide the raw material from which analysis of the system, as it operates, may be made."[1] Further classification by types of experiences emerged from the data itself as the definition of the natural history method prescribes.[2] The four previously listed primary classifications were maintained in Step Three. The separation by student teacher was also maintained in Step Three.

---

[1]Lindsey, op. cit., p. 231.

[2]Ibid., pp. 230-232.

Table Two shows a sample of the discrete experiences for each student teacher reduced to, or subsumed under types of experiences. Again the sheet for C.P.-3 was used to show continuity from Step Two to Step Three in the analysis or typing.

Step Three
Types of Experiences in the Log - C.P.-3
Study One - Clinical Professor
Ben L. Smith High School
Greensboro, N. C.

Category I
Fostering Variety in Student Teaching
Table 2-A

1) Observations and participations within her field with a variety of teachers.

2) Observations and participation out of her field.

3) Teaching experiences in different circumstances.

4) Committee work in curriculum.

5) Study of students of various abilities.

6) Planning activities.

7) Large group and small group instruction.

8) Study of central office for system-wide view.

9) Experience innovative practices in surrounding areas.

10) Shift to junior high to study student-centered teaching and pupils of that age.

11) Extra curricular activities.

12) Total school involvement--guidance library social or racial crises.

Category II
Hindering the Achievement of Variety
Table 2-B

1) Experience lack of availability of classes she wanted to work with.

2) Disruptions in the faculty.

3) Attitude of "homebase" teacher.

4) Inflexible restraints of the fixed school program.

5) Experiences she had progressed beyond a need for.

6) Objection to "new" methods.

7) Attachment of self and others to the status quo and distrust of the untried.

8) Found self unprepared for some opportunities.

Category III
Fostering More College Instruction
Table 2-C

1) The class the clinical professor taught was used in many ways.

2) Seminars on campus.

3) In-school seminars weekly.

4) Daily conference with clinical professor.

5) Influence of the clinical professor on the school as a whole.

6) Clinical professor's obtaining college resources-- materials and people.

7)   Relationship to clinical professor.

Category IV
Hindering More College Instruction
Table 2-D

1)   Experiences of conflict of college and school interests.

2)   General school attitude experienced.

3)   Experiences of the guest status situation.

4)   The differences of the faculty of the school and of
the college as to educational philosophy and aims of in-
struction.

Step Four - Synthesis of the Types of
Experiences of Nine Student Teachers
Into One Composite List

        Admittedly the writer might have eliminated one or

even two steps of analysis by going more directly to this

stage of analysis, but she felt that certain aspects of the

social segment (the student teacher community) might be

overlooked unless given repeated scrutiny and consideration

since the classification was to be determined from within

the data itself in the natural history method.[1]

        In the fourth step of inquiry the writer combined

the lists for all the nine student teachers in the clinical

professor program into one composite list, again refining

_____

[1]Ibid., pp. 230-237.

by the elimination of duplication and overlapping in order to achieve mutual exclusiveness. This composite list is still presented under the four original categories. In Category I there were found to be thirteen types of experiences which could subsume all the discrete experiences in the raw lists. In Category II there were found to be eleven broad types. In Category III there were found to be eight types, and Category IV yielded ten types of experiences.

Step Four may be seen in Table Three-A through Table Three-D, Table Three-A being the composite list of types of experiences for Category I, Table Three-B for Category II and so on.

Step Four
Composite List of Experiences
Study One - Clinical Professor
Ben L. Smith High School
Greensboro, N. C.

Category I
Experiences Fostering Achievement of
Variety in Student Teaching
Table 3-A

1) Extensive systematic observation and participation with teachers other than the "homebase" teacher in the area of specialization included the class of the clinical professor where latest recommended techniques were used.

2) Extensive systematic observation and participation with teachers in other fields of study.

3)   A study of students of varying abilities and varying grade level.

4)   Follow "her" group of homebase students through classes of different climates and different organizational structure to learn how they responded away from him.

5)   The analysis of the roles and relationships revealed by a trip to the central office of the system.

6)   School-wide experiences through work with assistant principal, guidance staff, library and extra curricular advisor.

7)   Community-wide view through experiences with the school board, P.T.A., parental conferences, racial conflict and civil authorities.

8)   Teaching experiences of large and small group situations, within his field and teaming with other fields.

9)   Planning and preparing experiences in a variety of circumstances--with college guidance, with school faculty guidance, and alone.

10)   Selection, location and assembly of materials and resources to enrich teaching--field trips, library tables, video visual materials, guest speakers, "museum" tables, coordination with librarian for research work.

11)   Extensive experience with special education program plus the vocational programs broadened understandings of varying curriculum needs.

12)   Work at both junior high and senior high level.

13)   Saw innovative practices in schools throughout the area.

Category II
Experiences Hindering the Achievement of
Variety in Student Teaching
Table 3-B

1)   The handling of the assignments in a routine or one-to-one arrangement by the central office of the city schools and the office of student teaching at the university.

2)   Intransigence of one principal and some teachers to a program which their administration agreed to and imposed on them from above. They had been allowed no voice in the planning nor a chance to accept or reject freely.

3)   The attachment of both student teachers and public school staff to the known and understood status quo and their hesitancy to try the new. Habitual and expected procedures were fixed in their minds and hard to dislodge.

4)   The level of competency of and lack of administrative trust in certain faculty members made them unavailable for student teachers.

5)   Conflict within faculties.

6)   The previous preparation and specialization of the student teacher limited his expertise.

7)   Reluctance of public school teachers to allow methods and approaches which they did not favor though the college taught the methods and encouraged their use.

8)   The inflexibility of a closed school organization and a closed curriculum.

9)   Emotions and attachments to the comfort of familiar people and familiar content were drawbacks to moving around.

10) Poor faculty-principal relations caused handicaps.

11) Sex influenced entre to some classes and acceptance by some faculty members.

Category III
Experiences Fostering More College Instruction
During Student Teaching
Table 3-C

1)   The seeking of guidance was directed primarily toward the representative of the college--observing, critiquing, conferring, directing and instructing in the school setting.

2) A close relationship and feeling of community grew up
among the small group of student teachers and their super-
visor as she operated in a restricted area of three schools
with homebase where she taught one class in the high school.

3) The student teachers were part of faculty deliberations
and committee work where the college's views were presented
by the clinical professor as he worked to influence curricu-
lum and teaching practices in the light of the most respected
theories and philosophies. They were subjected to the
catalytic aspect of his inservice work with new teachers.

4) Control of the setting of goals for the programs of each
student teacher rested with him and the clinical professor
with aid and advice from many public school people. The
college's philosophy was in a dominant position of influence
since the clinical professor used each day's observation and
teaching as the impetus.

5) Through conferences, seminars and classes as need arose,
he found the premises taught in his foundation courses on
campus re-examined in the light of practices in the school.
He tested practice by theory and vice versa to arrive at his
own philosophy and style of technique. Some student teachers
continued to try to teach as their college teachers taught.

6) The college faculty was useful for resource people as
specific problems or questions arose and materials they
provided aided student teachers and faculty alike.

7) Though there were differences of opinion among the
clinical professor and the school faculty at times, the
student teacher enjoyed relatively conflict-free direction
since the clinical professor had become an accepted colleague
of the school faculty months before.

8) Some continuing classes and responsibilities on campus
interfered with student teaching but were examples of
college's influence and instruction.

Category IV
Experiences Hindering the Achievement of More College
Instruction During Student Teaching
Table 3-D

1) Those items listed as hindering variety in Category II
would to some extent operate against the college's instruction

during student teaching also.

2)   Some student teachers were not going to teach and not interested in studying teaching.

3)   The student teachers observed and experienced a climate of rejection of themselves and the college's representative at one school thus diminishing the authority for his position when he attempted to teach them to study teaching, not just practice what they saw. Internal problems contributed to the climate.

4)   Conflict of interest where the schools felt a need to protect their students and insure that they were "taught the facts."

5)   One group of students did not have daily contact with the clinical professor and hence was more likely to need and seek instruction from the "homebase" teacher.

6)   Some student teachers had "homebase" teachers unwilling to give up the conventional prerogative of controlling what the student teacher did and learned.

7)   Some student teachers had cooperating teachers completely at odds with any but the most traditional methods and fought against newer practices being attempted with their students. They contradicted the college teaching at every opportunity.

8)   Student teachers found real experience very different from some ideals they had previously been taught and come to distrust "theory." The expertise of the clinical professor limited their scope of instructions.

9)   The student teachers and the clinical professor were guests in all classes except the demonstration class.

10) Some methods teachers would not relinquish the responsibility for instruction to the clinical professor of a different discipline.

Step Five - Abstracting Essential Elements or
Factors from Types of Experience

From the composite lists which can be seen in

Tables Three-A through Three-D, the writer abstracted the

factors or essential elements she saw operating to determine

the experiences. The questions asked of the data were:

1) What essential elements were present to cause
or allow the experiences fostering the sought-after charac-
teristic of variety and more university instruction?

2) What essential elements were present to cause or
allow the experiences hindering the achievement of those
characteristics?

The list of factors that grew out of that exercise

in abstraction was very long at first and it was found that

an essential element could cause or allow both the favorable

or fostering experiences and also the unfavorable or hin-

dering experiences. That list was analyzed for patterns and

similarities and reduced to eight general characteristic

factors and seven realms of experience (a realm being the

locus of the experience and characteristic being the make-up

of the parties to the experience). These essential elements

or "building blocks" operating one upon the other in various

degrees of interdependence had resulted in the experiences

as the student teachers lived them. From them the writer

built her model as a proposed program--a model she commends

for trial by educators who wish to build into student
teaching provisions for variety of experiences and more
college instruction.

Step Five can be seen in Table Four and Table Five.
Table Four shows the total list of factors which resulted
from the questions asked of the data; Table Five presents
the synthesized list of factors that can subsume the mul-
tiplicity of factors in Table Four.

Step Five
Synthesis of All Experiences, Whether Hindering or
Fostering, in All Four Categories
Study One - Clinical Professor
Ben L. Smith High School
Greensboro, N. C.

Table 4

1)   Observing, participating and teaching experience as
follows:

    a.   planning experiences,
    b.   different-grade-levels experiences within
       one's specialty, (own discipline),
    c.   different-subject-area experiences within
       one's specialty,
    d.   experiences with a variety of student types,
    e.   cross-discipline experiences,
    f.   experiences with innovative technology,
    g.   experiences with a variety of teaching
       methods and techniques,
    h.   extra-curricular experiences in classwork,

2)   Experiences with the principal and administrative staff,

3)   Experiences with the closed school organization and
curriculum,

4)   Experiences with faculty distrust and rejection versus cooperation and acceptance,

5)   Experiences of self-analysis and introspection facing one's own limitations of personality and preparation,

6)   Experiences with "homebase" teacher,

7)   Experiences with human relations as an issue with students and parents,

8)   Experiences of supportiveness within the "community" of the program,

9)   Relationships with the rest of faculty,

10) Experiences in assessing student needs and one's capabilities for meeting those needs,

11) Experiences of using the clinical professor's classes for observation and demonstration of principles under study,

12) Experiences of conflict of beliefs--one's own with others, i.e. those of clinical professor, colleagues, students, public school faculty,

13) Experiences of continuing on-campus influence--positive in some cases, negative in others,

14) Experiences with attitudes disparaging of public school teaching,

15) Personal events or experiences--illness, marriage, joys, sorrows, home life.

Step Six
Unclassified List of Factors That Were Abstracted
as Essential Elements From The Composite Lists
of Experiences in Step Five
Study One - Clinical Professor
Ben L. Smith High School
Greensboro, N. C.

Table 5

1) Subject matter being taught

2) Characteristics of public school students

3) Teaching methods

4) Organizational patterns for classes

5) Climate and attitudes

6) Faculty capabilities

7) Faculty-Administration relations

8) Status of college representative

9) Characteristics of "homebase" teacher

10) Dynamics of how program was introduced to a school

11) Status of "homebase" teacher

12) Schedule and curriculum

13) Goals set for the program

14) Expediency--pressures of time, space, personnel

15) Central office decisions as to personnel

16) Central office attitude toward program

17) Office of student teaching's attitude toward program

18) Office of student teaching's flexibility as to scheduling

19) Role granted to the clinical professor

20) School-community climate

21) University-school rapport

22) Locus of the assignment of and responsibility for student

23) Relationship between principals and central office

24) Proximity of clinical professor to the situation daily

25) Time allotted to student teaching

26) Characteristics of student teacher

27) Characteristics of clinical professor

28) Previous preparation of student teachers

29) Expertise of clinical professor

30) Principal's attitude toward program and people involved

31) Closed versus open school organization

32) Type of preparation given school staff, student teachers and university staff for the program

33) A clear position or philosophy recognized for the college

34) Compatibility of the clinical professor and the college position

35) Susceptibility of student teacher to college's philosophy

36) Susceptibility of school faculty to the college's position

37) Basic personality of all involved (authoritorians find student-centered teaching practically impossible)

38) Previous results from acceptance of the college's position on educational principles

39) Faculty morale

40) Self-image strong and secure so the college person is no threat to public school person

41) Security of principal

42) Degree of effectiveness of previous college attempts to instruct the school personnel in educational principles

43) Flexibility of the school to new ideas

44) The degree of acceptance by the public school of a responsibility for teacher education

45) Attitude of university staff especially methods teachers.

Step Seven
Broad Classifications that can Subsume the
Factors Abstracted from the Experiences
Study One - Clinical Professor
Ben L. Smith High School
Greensboro, N. C.

Table 6

1) The characteristics or plan of the student teaching
    program itself--its aim, its components.

2) The characteristics of the student teachers--person-
    ality needs, capability, preparation, sex and age.

3) The characteristics of the school--population,
    community relations, curriculum, reputation, status,
    and staff.

4) Characteristics of the school faculty directly in-
    volved in the student teaching program--especially the
    principal and "homebase" teacher.

5) The characteristics of the school system--policies,
    chain of command, decision-making provisions, moral,
    and roles.

6) The characteristics of the school of education of the
    university especially its attitudes toward and rela-
    tionship with the public schools, methods of decision-
    making, chain of command and make-up of faculty.

7) The characteristics of the university's supervisor--
    competencies, attitudes, personality and status.

8) The philosophy of education--especially teacher edu-
    cation which each party to the program espouses.

    Broad Classifications Which can Subsume the
         Experiences by Locus of the Event

1) In-class experiences.

2) Support activities for in-class experiences.

3)   Total school experiences.

4)   Professional Development Experiences.

5)   System-wide view and experiences.

6)   Community-wide view and experiences.

7)   Personal-emotional experiences.

PROGRAM TWO - MINI-FACULTY, ASHEBORO, N. C.

The introductory paragraphs for this chapter and for
the section on the clinical professor present the philoso-
phical position and the research methodology which will be
understood to apply also to the two mini-faculty studies--
one at Asheboro, North Carolina, for one semester in the
Spring of 1970 and one at Graham, North Carolina, for the
entire school year 1970-71.

Background of the Program

The mini-faculty was designed in response to the
evaluation sessions held at the end of the clinical pro-
fessor program. Members of the city school faculty and
administration and members of the college faculty and
administration presented their pros and cons for the program
and made suggestions for revisions for the following year.
Dr. Kenneth Newbold called for what he termed a mini-faculty
and it is his terminology the writer used thereafter. No

precise reference to the concept can be found in the literature. Because of changes in the Greensboro school system over the summer and some staff changes, the program was not put into effect in Greensboro the next year. The writer was assigned to supervision in Asheboro for the Spring term and was able to obtain permission to present her program to that school system. It was accepted but too late for the mutual planning essential to the program. Asheboro has a conventional organizational pattern in its senior and junior high schools and hence is only slightly flexible in arrangements it could make for student teaching.

Outline of the Program

The total program, as designed by the writer for presentation to the schools, can be found in Appendix B of this study; only the essential elements will be presented here. They are:

1) The college supervisor need not teach a class in the public school; his role there is rather to instruct the regular faculty so that they will know and practice the philosophy and procedures the college wishes to be used with its student teachers. The college supervisor may be jointly appointed or not; if so he would assume responsibility for inservice instruction and guidance of new staff people in his school;

2) As in the clinical professor program he would plan with public school people and coordinate a variety of experiences for the student teachers, but in the mini-faculty he

would work through that public school staff chiefly. Unless called into the classroom to actually supervise, he would do a minimum of supervision, and his student teachers would represent various disciplines;

3) He would act as a liaison person to call in the resource people from the school of education or from the academic departments of the university;

4) He would study his student and his laboratory and try to bring the two together judiciously in order systematically to teach, to analyze and to illustrate educational principles. His aim would be a "study" of teaching, not a "practice" of teaching;

5) Again, students would be assigned to the college coordinator or whatever title he assumed;

6) There would be more "teaming" in that the mini-faculty and supervisor would work in conjunction with the regular staff in response to the needs of public school pupils as well as the needs of the college student.

7) The coordinator would conduct seminars and classes for the college students as well as for the regular staff over and above the usual conference-type of instruction.

Step One - The Inquiry

As in the first study the research took the form of participant observation while the writer performed the duties of a supervisor of a student teaching community. Again, a daily log was kept which furnished the data for the analyses.

Asheboro did not seek out the program and was not introduced to it for mutual planning sessions as called for in the program. One meeting with an assistant superintendent and one meeting with the two principals to be involved

preceded the one planning session the writer had with the school faculties before student teachers arrived.

The superintendent approved the program with one caution about taking up the teachers' time. The two principals were reluctantly accepting and asked for more "structure" so the student teachers would not be "wandering in and out in limbo."[1] They agreed to allow for "all the variety that is possible without disruption of our classes."[2] At the end of the session one principal seemed actively hostile (in the opinion of the writer) and the other seemed more accepting and cordial as he came to understand the program better. The hostility of one principal greatly influenced the quality of the program as it touched his school and the cordiality of the other was the beginning of a very smooth relationship with his faculty.

In response to the request for more structure the writer prepared and presented a model schedule which could be one way of providing the variety sought without the disruptions the principals feared. That model schedule can be seen as Appendix C to this study.

---

[1]Remarks of a participating principal in conference with the writer and Dr. Ernest Lee, February, 1970.

[2]A statement from the same conference.

One other caution was raised by the reluctant principal. There were large numbers of student teachers from other colleges in his school. He did not want any conflicts to arise because of differences in programs. In response to this request the writer contacted two of those institutions and was able to accomplish nominal inter-university cooperation.

The chief dislocation in the plans for the program came when the other departments supervising student teaching at UNC-G were unable to cooperate and allow their student teachers to become a part of the mini-faculty because their time schedules differ from that of the School of Education out of which the writer was working. Another reason was the fact that the plan did not reflect their planning or their philosophy, necessarily.

The circumstances mentioned above are presented here to show the restraints which operated on the full execution of the plan.

However, a variety of disciplines were represented in the program. There were four student teachers in English, two in biology, and two in social studies. One biology major was withdrawn and placed elsewhere when it was learned that she was assigned to a teacher who would not allow

evolution to be taught in her biology class! One history major dropped out in the third week by a medical withdrawal from the university. That left six student teachers who participated in the program for the duration of the semester.

Planning sessions with the faculty revealed them to be cautiously accepting except for one department head. Any variety achieved in that department was in spite of his reluctance to allow any but the conventional relationship to exist.

Within the constraints thus mentioned, the writer and the six student teachers became a prototype mini-faculty within a senior high school and a junior high school. Their experiences were logged and became the source for the discrete experiences in Table Seven.

Steps Two through Seven - Analysis of Data

The log of the mini-faculty was treated to the same analyses as that of the clinical professor study and the descriptions will not be repeated in this phase. It should suffice to say that Steps Two through Seven followed the same procedures and may be seen in Tables Seven A through Twelve. Step Two--categorization of raw data (the discrete experiences)--is found in Tables Seven A through Seven D;

Step Three--discrete experiences reduced to types or classes of experiences--is found in Tables Eight A through Eight D; Step Four--the synthesis of the six lists of types into one composite list--is found in Tables Nine A through Nine D (Category I in Table Nine A; Category II in Table Nine B; Category III in Table Nine C; and Category IV in Table Nine D). Step Five--the synthesis of all experiences--is found in Table Ten.

Step Six--the abstracting of essential elements-- was executed as for the clinical professor study and can be seen in Tables Eleven and Twelve. Table Eleven gives the total list of factors as reasoned by the writer speculating on the causes for the experiences. Table Twelve gives the classes of factors that the writer proposes to subsume the multiplicity of factors in Table Eleven.

Step Two
Analysis of Experiences in the Log - M.F.-1
Study Two - Mini-Faculty
Asheboro, N. C.

Category I
Fostering Variety in Student Teaching
Table 7-A

1) Observed, participated and taught a humanities class.

2) Planned and taught a poetry unit for a social studies teacher with an English class.

3) Participated in team planning for 12th grade level--"homebase" was tenth grade.

4) Observed all levels of English and selected other subject areas.

5) Studied one group of students passing through various class climates and organizational patterns.

6) Worked with a class of slow learners, taught average classes and observed above average students.

7) Shifted to the two junior highs where a program for the gifted was observed. Some 9th grade teaching done and participation in a language arts-social studies block was available.

8) Extra curricular work with choir, presented lecture, accompanied on piano, and led them in a field trip to hear her at organ and study symbolism of an outstanding church in the area.

9) Introduced innovative A-V techniques in her regular classes.

10) Helped in the whole school's planning for Earth Day and coordinated her classes to it.

Category II
Hindering the Achievement of Variety
Table 7-B

1)   Met reluctance for her program in the principal.

2)   Was balked by an adamant department head and prevented from observing there.

3)   So many English teachers had student teachers that she had difficulty teaching many different levels.

4)   Was called a "Commie" for introducing new ideas and helping M.F.-5 with Earth Day.

5)   She felt and lamented her inability to "get on their level" as her "homebase" teacher put it.

6)   Many overtures to teachers were refused for they "dislike student teacher," as the department head said.

7)   Offered to teach Mrs. X's classes while M.F.-3 taught drama but was rebuffed. That would have given M.F.-1 an additional level of English.

8)   Repeatedly she tried to break "the lecture habit" but found it difficult thus limiting her range of effectiveness. "Why do I always think of a lecture as the way to teach something?"

9)   Worked with literature almost exclusively as the high school curriculum demanded--saw inductive grammar only at the junior high.

Category III
Fostering More College Instruction
Table 7-C

1)   Was assigned to the college supervisor and the principal, not to one teacher. Had a feeling of community with those in her program.

2)   Studied her own teaching and felt disappointed but grew a great deal.

3)   Conferred frequently to plan and evaluate with the clinical professor.

4)   Taught one class "like they teach in college"--delighted with humanities class response--real feeling of success.

5)   "Homebase" teacher was found to be a weak source of guidance and help. The students told M.F.-1 "you control us better than Mrs. A."

6)   Seminars in which she took a leading part--received books for further study of educational psychology and methods.

7)   Had to be given special help to relate to very slow student--her trouble with one of them was her fault.

<div align="center">

Category IV
Hindering More College Instruction
Table 7-D

</div>

1)   Needed the supervisor at times when she was on campus with duties there. M.F.-1 could get little help from "homebase."

2)   Wanted to see certain principles of education illustrated for by nature she was subject-centered. There were no classes in that school to illustrate the points under study at times--no demonstration class and she tried things without the needed assurance at times.

3)   Her humane character and ingenuity began to overcome her preoccupation with the subject matter as sacred, but she found the "ideals" taught her on campus not to be true.

4)   M.F.-1 was taking a graduate class on campus in violation of student teaching rules (but with permission). The position of that professor on teaching was negative. He told her she was "too smart to teach." This conflicted with instruction in seminars.

Step Three
Types of Experiences in the Log - M.F.-1
Study Two - Mini-Faculty
Asheboro, N. C.

Category I
Fostering Variety in Student Teaching
Table 8-A

1)   Observing, participating and teaching experiences as follows:

   a. Planning experiences.

   b. Different grade levels experiences.

   c. Different subject areas experiences.

   d. Experiences with variety of student types.

   e. Cross-discipline experiences.

   f. Innovations as experiences.

   g. Experiences with different methods and techniques.

2)   Extra-curricular experiences with school and community.

Category II
Hindering Achievement of Variety
Table 8-B

1)   Experiences with the principal.

2)   Experiences with a department head.

3)   Experiences with expediency of a fixed situation--curriculum, time and numbers.

4)   Experiences of faculty climate of distrust and rejection.

5)   Experiences of introspection facing her own liabilities to some teaching roles.

6)   Experiences with "homebase" teacher.

7)   Experiences of relating to students.

8)   Experiences with limiting techniques.

Category III
Fostering More College Instruction
Table 8-C

1)   Relationship with clinical professor, the chief
source of direction and instruction.

2)   Relations with the "community" of those in her
program--seminar, informal chats, supportive of needs.

3)   Lack of effectiveness of relationship with "homebase"
teacher.

4)   Relations with rest of faculty.

5)   Relationship with students and subject matter indica-
ting need for instruction.

Category IV
Hindering Achievement of More College Instruction
Table 8-D

1)   Experiences with needs when no college person was
available--no demonstration class.

2)   Experiences with her own personal biases that con-
tradicted the college instruction.

3)   Experiences on the campus that were counter-productive
to growth in student teaching toward becoming a facilitator
of learning--not a lecturer.

4)   Experiences that seemed to contradict the "theory" the
college had taught made her wary of "more of the same."

Step Four
Composite List of Types of Experiences
for Seven Student Teachers
Study Two - Mini-Faculty
Asheboro, N. C.

Category I
Experiences Fostering Achievement of Variety
in Student Teaching
Table 9-A

1)   Observing, participating and teaching experiences as follows:

    a.   Planning experiences.

    b.   Different grade level experiences.

    c.   Different subject area experiences.

    d.   Experiences with a variety of student types.

    e.   Cross-discipline experiences.

    f.   Extra-curricular experiences.

    g.   Experiences with innovative technology.

    h.   Experiences with different teaching methods and techniques.

2)   Observation and study of one group of students through varying climates and class structures to analyze their reactions.

3)   Team work with student teachers from another institution.

4)   Coordinating and executing fused core-like curriculum topics.

5)   Community relations activities--presentation of a play to a civic club, promotion of community-wide Earth Day observances.

6)   Cooperation and initiative of "homebase" teacher facilitating wide range of total-school activities.

7)   Utilization of personal experiences and resources as guest speaker in variety of classes at both schools.

8)   Southern Association self-study activities at one school broadened student teachers' perspective of a school from goal setting to results.

9)   Extensive work with all-school agencies like guidance and library--in one case inter-scholastic athletics.

10) Experiences of student teacher outstripping a need for further practice of "the same old thing."

Category II
Experiences Hindering the Achievement of Variety
in Student Teaching
Table 9-B

1)   The reluctance of the principal's cooperation was experienced in one school

2)   An uncooperative department head forestalled observation and participation in his department.

3)   Experienced the expediency imposed by numbers of teachers already having student teachers from other institutions.

4)   Experienced ostracizing and discrimination by being rejected and labeled "a Commie" by a few teachers.

5)   Experienced the restraints of their own limitations in performing in certain teacher-roles.

6)   Experienced the refusal of some teachers to admit them to classes.

7)   Experienced restrictions imposed by previous indoctrination to the extent that teaching was assumed to be lecturing.

8)   Closed, inflexible school structure and curriculum limited available experiences to study.

9)   Personal relations with teachers (especially "home-base"), students, and clinical professor determined feelings about what was experienced.

10)   Experienced uncooperative "homebase" teacher.

11)   Inter-faculty rivalries and conflicts limited access to some roles.

12)   Personality traits and personal feelings about one's self as a teacher and the responsibilities thus imposed limited experiences.

13)   Feelings of low morale in faculty-administration relations limited experiences.

14)   Observed the rejection of the clinical professor and her program by some faculty members and felt the resultant limitations in cooperation.

Category III
Experiences Fostering More College Instruction
During Student Teaching
Table 9-C

1)   Experiences of their chief guidance and instruction coming from the clinical professor to whom they were assigned.

2)   Feelings of community and mutual interest among the group working together in the program.

3)   Seminars, conferences, and almost daily informal contact experienced with the college's representative.

4)   Experiences of analyzing the teaching they did and saw in the light of the principles abstracted from the college's foundation courses.

5)   Experiences with weak "homebase" teachers incapable of being of assistance or simple rejecting of the student teacher and "homebase's" responsibility.

6)   Experiences of approbation from students and faculty concerning their doing a "better job" than the regular teachers.

7)   Experiences of further study facilitated by the clinical professor obtaining college resource material, books and people.

8)   Experiences of felt-needs in the techniques for handling a variety of subject matter and a variety of pupil types.

9)   Experiences stemming from previous college instruction as it facilitated current work.

10)   Experiences illustrating the eagerness of some regular faculty to learn from the college supervisor.

11)   Experiences of on-going campus involvement in classes and seminars with college faculty.

12)   Experiences of mutual agreement with the basic college philosophy as presented by the supervisor.

13)   Experiences of continuing contact with other students from methods class.

Category IV
Experiences Hindering Achievement of
More College Instruction
During Student Teaching
Table 9-D

1)   Experiences involving a need for the college supervisor when she was on campus and not in residence in the school.

2)   Experiences involving a need for a demonstration of principles being taught or studied in the seminars--no demonstration class.

3)   Experiences of personality and philosophy causing rejection of the recommendations of the college supervisor.

4)   Experiences with former (or present) college teachers who negated the aims and goals being set for their teaching in seminars--college theories leading to disillusionment within the laboratory setting.

5)   Experiences of incompatibility with the college's representative.

6)   Inability to be available for conferences and seminars with the college supervisor.

7)   Experiences of a lack of success and the necessity for criticism frequently from college supervisor.

8)   Experiences that led to a feeling that a job was assured and there was no need to learn.

9)   Experiences of inadequacy of previous college instruction.

10)   Experiences fostering extreme feelings of personal adequacy leading to a desire to _practice_ teaching, not to study teaching--the genuine need for very little college direction.

Step Five
Synthesis of All Experiences, Whether Hindering or
Fostering, in all Four Categories
Study Two - Mini-Faculty
Asheboro, N. C.

Table 10

1)   Observing, participating and teaching experiences as follows:

    a.   Planning experiences.

    b.   Different grade level experiences within one's specialty.

    c.   Different subject areas experiences within one's special discipline.

    d.   Experiences with a variety of student types.

    e.   Cross-discipline experiences.

    f.   Extra-curricular experiences.

    g.   Innovations in technique and methods as experiences.

2)   Experiences with the principal and administrative staff.

3)   Experiences with the expediency of a closed or fixed situation.

4)   Experiences with faculty distrust and rejection versus cooperation.

5)   Experiences of self-analysis and introspection facing one's own strengths and weaknesses for teaching in some roles.

6)   Experiences with "homebase" teacher.

7)   Experiences of relating to students.

8)   Experiences with and relationship to clinical professor.

9)   Experiences within the "community" of others in her program.

10) Relationships with the rest of the faculty.

11) Experiences and relationships with students and their needs vis a vis one's capabilities of responding.

12) Experiences of need when the clinical professor was not in residence at the school.

13) Experiences of conflict of beliefs--one's own with others' _i.e._ those of clinical professor, colleagues, or public school staff.

14) Experiences of continuing on-campus college influence--positive resources and negative pressures.

15) Experiences with attitudes disparaging of teaching in public schools.

16) Experiences of reality's contradicting what college theorizers had taught one.

17) Personal experiences--marriage, accidents, illness, etc.

Step Six
Unclassified List of Factors that were Abstracted
as Essential Elements from the Composite Lists
of Experiences in Step Five
Study Two - Mini-Faculty
Asheboro, N. C.

Table 11

1) Subject matter being taught

2) Characteristics of public school students

3) Teaching methods being used

4) Climate and organizational patterns of classes

5) Attitudes of teacher and student

6) Faculty capabilities and training

7) Faculty-administration relations

8) Status accorded college supervisor

9) Characteristics of "home-base" teacher

10) Dynamics for implementing the program

11) Status accorded "homebase" teacher

12) Schedule and curriculum

13) Goals set for the program

14) Expediency--time, numbers, space

15) Personnel placement by central office

16) Attitude of central office to student teaching

17) Office of student (university) teaching's attitude to program

18) Degree of flexibility in student teaching schedules

19) Role assigned to the college's representative

20) School-community relations

21) Administration-principal relations

22) Locus of responsibility for the direction of the student teaching program

24) Daily proximity of clinical professor to the student teachers

25) Time allotted to student teaching

26) Characteristics of student teacher

27) Characteristics of the clinical professor

28) Previous preparation of all concerned

29) Principal's attitude toward the program and the people

30) Closed versus open school organization

31) Expertise and capabilities of clinical professor

32) Previous course work of student teacher

33) Faculty morale

34) Degree of attachment to status quo on "the old way" by all

35) Degree to which university has a clear philosophy or position on teaching

36) Compatibility of clinical professor to that position

37) Susceptibility of student teacher to the college's instruction

38) Susceptibility of public school staff to the college's philosophy

39) Basic personality of all involved (i.e. authoritarian, supportive, rejecting, etc.)

40) Self-image of all involved--secure or insecure

41) Role-identification of all involved (approving or rejecting)

42) Reputation the college enjoyed in the school circles

43) The attitude of the public school system toward its role in teacher education

44) Attitudes of university staff, especially methods teachers.

Step Seven
Broad Classifications that can Subsume the Factors
Abstracted from the Experiences
Study Two - Mini-Faculty
Asheboro, N. C.

Table 12

1)   The characteristics or plan of the student teaching program itself--goals set, implementing provisions made.

2)   The characteristics of the student teachers--personality, needs, preparation, sex, age and capabilities.

3)   The characteristics of the school--student population, community relations, curriculum, staff, reputation and status.

4)   The characteristics of the faculty involved in student teaching--individually and collectively, especially the principal and "homebase" teacher.

5)   The characteristics of the school system--policies, chain of command, decision making process, morale and role identification.

6)   The characteristics of the school of education of the university--especially its attitude toward and relationship with the public schools, methods for decision making, chain of command, faculty and degree of openness in organization.

7)   The characteristics of the university supervisors (clinical professor)--competencies, attitudes, personality, status, and preparation.

8)   The philosophies of education (especially teacher education) which each party to the program espouses.

Broad Classifications Which can Subsume
the Experiences by Locus of the Event

1)   In-class experiences.

2)   Support activities for in-class experiences.

3)   Total-school experiences.

4)   Professional Development Experiences.

5)   System-wide view and experiences.

6)   Personal-emotional experiences.

PROGRAM THREE - MINI-FACULTY, GRAHAM, N. C.

The next phase of research was to implement the mini-faculty where a modern organizational pattern existed and could allow for more flexibility. Graham Middle School fulfilled that prerequisite and in addition that school system sought out the university and requested a cooperative program similar to the mini-faculty. It was decided to use the middle school plus Graham High School for a mini-faculty during the 1970-71 school year.

Background of the Program

In the Fall nine student teachers were assigned to the writer and the principals of the middle school and the high school. Four of them were mathematics majors; three were English majors and two were social studies majors. The primary assignment for five of them was the middle school, while four of them were assigned to the senior high primarily. They were in the schools from October 28,

1970, through December 18, 1970, having completed methods and educational psychology courses during the first half of the semester.

In the Spring, eight student teachers were similarly assigned. Two of them were English majors; two were social studies majors, and four were mathematics majors. Subsequently one of the social studies majors withdrew from the university for medical reasons. Six of them were working primarily at the middle school while two of them had the high school for primary assignment.

This particular school system was one of those approached with the clinical professor idea two years previously. The writer had, at that time, established an acquaintance with the central office staff and had found the coordinator of student teaching for the county to be very receptive to the initial program. The present form of experimentation, the mini-faculty, was equally warmly received and encouraged.

Each principal was found to be eager for his school to participate and the faculties were, for the most part, very receptive to the idea and cooperative in the implementation.

Outline of the Program

The outline of the program would not differ for the Graham program. It was the same proposal submitted to Asheboro. There was no model schedule used (see Appendix C) as in Asheboro. The Graham schools were willing to allow the coordinator, the university supervisor and the teachers to work out an individual program for each student teacher. Some students needed and obtained more variety than others; some had very little variety. All had close university coordination and instruction.

Step One - Inquiry

Again, as in the two previous prototype studies, a daily log was kept and served as the raw data for the following analysis of experiences.

Step Two
Analysis of Experiences in the Log - M.F.-10
Study Three - Mini-Faculty
Graham, N. C.

Category I
Fostering Variety in Student Teaching
Table 13-A

1) Shift to junior high school--individualized instruction at 7th grade level.

2) Visited the innovations on trial in the area.

3) Extensive observation, participation and teaching of remedial reading.

4) One hour per day in guidance office.

5) Observed and participated in other English classes with cooperation of principal.

6) Observed and participated in other subject areas that are allied to her field.

7) Studied one group of students over extended period in differing situations.

8) Learned the use of educational hardware.

9) Special education group assistant.

10) "Homebase" teacher sought out unique experiences for her as they became available. The college supervisor was new to the faculty.

Category II
Hindering the Achievement of Variety
Table 13-B

1) Lack of familiarity of the college supervisor with the school.

2) M.F.-10's personality and diffidence.

3)   Reluctance to try challenging things.

4)   Fixed curriculum and schedule.

5)   Low level of profession competence in some of faculty--
poor morale.

6)   General friction and dissention of that system and
especially that faculty with their principal.

7)   Some classes she could have been involved with were too
difficult and she rejected using them.

8)   Her teacher was cooperative but less competent than she
and gave her too much responsibility too soon and for too
long to allow much variety.

Category III
Fostering More College Instruction
Table 13-C

1)   Seminars.

2)   Her teacher sought to learn from her and the college
supervisor.

3)   Frequent conferences for planning and evaluation.

4)   Referral of needs to methods teacher other college
resources--CMC.

5)   Flexibility her "homebase" teacher accorded her as to
time to confer.

6)   Cooperative attitude of "homebase" teacher who was
really not up to teaching her much.

7)   Principal made all of the student teachers aware of
his respect for the program and willingness to have them
guided by the college supervisor. (He offered her and
another colleague a job.)

Category IV
Hindering More College Instruction
Table 13-D

1)   None except time limits imposed by the need for college supervisor to be on campus.

2)   Lack of demonstration class for close proximity with college supervisor for illustration and counseling.

Step Three
Types of Experiences in the Log - M.F.-10
Study Three - Mini-Faculty
Graham, N. C.

Category I
Fostering Variety in Student Teaching
Table 14-A

1) Observing, participating and teaching experiences as follows:

    a. A different secondary level of curriculum and teaching experienced.

    b. Innovative techniques (teaming, non-gradedness, modular scheduling) observed.

    c. A variety of topics within own subject.

    d. A variety of subject areas.

    e. A variety of student types.

2) Experiences with "homebase" teacher.

3) Extra-curricular experiences.

4) Total-school involvement (in her case with guidance).

Category II
Hindering Achievement of Variety
Table 14-B

1) Relationships among the college supervisor and the faculty of the public school limited access to classes.

2) Experiences, stemming from her own personality and expertise.

3) The closed and fixed school organization led to restraint on variety.

4) The make-up of the faculty negated some classes' being used for student teachers.

5) The system-wide controversy that localized in principal-faculty hostility in that school.

6) The needs her own "homebase" teacher had for her presence.

Category III
Fostering More College Instruction
Table 14-C

1) Seminars and conferences--contacts with the college representative.

2) Willingness of her "homebase" teacher for both of them to be instructed by the college supervisor.

3) The continuing use of college resources and people from the campus.

4) Her need for instruction the "homebase" teacher could not supply.

Category IV
Hindering Achievement of More College Instruction
Table 14-D

1) Time for the college supervisor's visits, conferences and seminars was limited by duties on campus.

2) Lack of a demonstration class taught by the college supervisor.

Step Four
Composite List of Types of Experiences
for Seventeen Student Teachers
Study Three - Mini-Faculty
Graham, N. C.

Category I
Experiences Fostering Achievement of
Variety in Student Teaching
Table 15-A

1)   Experiences of observing, participating and teaching
as follows:

    a.   Different secondary levels,

    b.   Different topics or phases of one's own discipline,

    c.   Different disciplines or subjects,

    d.   Innovative techniques and teaching styles,

    e.   Different types of students.

2)   Relationships with "homebase" teacher.

3)   Extra-curricular activities.

4)   Total-school involvement outside classroom work.

5)   Experiences of various levels of planning--by team,
individually and with consultation of supervisor.

6)   Experiences of The Southern Association self-study work.

7)   Experiences of involvement in an open organizational
pattern as to scheduling and curriculum at middle school.

8)   Experiences fostered by student teacher's breadth of
talent preparation and expertise.

9)   Experiences of cooperation and efforts of the princi-
pals.

10) Experience of community-faculty organizations involved in system-wide controversy drew student teachers into community-wide view.

11) Experiences with assignment being to the college supervisor, not to one teacher.

Category II
Experiences Hindering the Achievement of
Variety in Student Teaching
Table 15-B

1)   Experiences stemming from one's own limitations.

2)   Experiences resulting from college-school relation-ships.

3)   Experiences with a closed and fixed curriculum and schedule.

4)   Experiences with inadequate or incompetent faculty available for study.

5)   Experiences with low morale in community-school relations and in faculty-administration relations.

6)   Experiences with "homebase" teachers of limited ability and in great need of help from student teachers.

7)   Experiences with limits of space and time on new ideas.

8)   Experiences with a system attempting to use student teachers during self-study and extensive absences for inservice work.

9)   Experiences with having few opportunities for conventional sized classrooms.

10) Experiences dictated by the school, its curriculum offerings, its faculty.

11) Experiences and relationships allowed by "homebase" teacher limited by his attachment to the status quo in student teaching.

12) Experiences of rejection of the program by methods teacher's dictating the use of a conventional arrangement.

13) Experiences with conflict of interest where student teachers from other institutions already occupied certain classes.

14) Experiences with "homebase" teacher using student teacher to her disadvantage and the teacher's personal advantage.

15) Experiences with the school of education at the university objecting to a variety of experiences and upholding a student teacher rebelling against a junior high block assignment.

16) Experiences with police and civil authority during racial conflict in the school.

Category III
Experiences Fostering the Achievement of More
College Instruction During Student Teaching
Table 15-C

1)   Seminars in the schools, relating theory and practice.

2)   Conferences with the college supervisor.

3)   Methods seminars on campus.

4)   Informal contacts with the college supervisor.

5)   Instruction by and influence of the college supervisor among the public school faculty.

6)   The utilization of college resource people and materials to aid the relating of education foundation principles to in-school experiences.

7)   The "homebase" teacher's lack of ability to instruct.

8)   The assignment to the college supervisor and principal, not to a teacher.

9)   Experiences leading to need for instruction from the supervisor.

10) Experiences of one's own acceptance of the philosophies and principles taught by the college's representative.

11) Experiences of cooperation of the public school faculty in allowing the college supervisor an opportunity to implement principles and practices under study.

12) The assumption of a "team member" role by the college supervisor in planning, teaching and evaluating as a colleague in one school open to such an arrangement.

Category IV
Experiences Hindering the Achievement of More
College Instruction During Student Teaching
Table 15-D

1)   Experiences involving the limitation campus duties placed on the availability of the college supervisor.

2)   Experiences with disillusionment when previous college instruction and the "real world" did not seem compatible.

3)   Experiences with a school's or faculty member's reluctance to allow the college supervisor to determine the situations a student could study and act upon.

4)   Experiences with a need to have principles illustrated and there being no demonstration class.

5)   Experiences with limits of available time and space for needed instructional sessions.

6)   Experiences of rejection by the student teacher of the principles being taught by the college supervisor.

Step Five
Synthesis of All Experiences, Whether Hindering
or Fostering, Into Broad Classes
Study Three - Mini-Faculty
Graham, N. C.

Subsuming Different Types of Experiences
Table 16

1) Observing, participating and teaching experiences as
follows:

    a. Different grade levels within one's special
       discipline,

    b. Different subject areas within one's discipline,

    c. Cross-discipline involvement,

    d. Different types of students.

2) Total-school experiences not of an in-class nature--
guidance, library, etc.

3) Extra-curricular experiences.

4) Experiences determined by attitudes of "homebase"
teacher.

5) Support experiences like planning and assembling
materials for in-class work, seminars, conferences, etc.

6) Experiences with intensive self-study through work
with the Southern Association Evaluation Study.

7) Experiences with an open school organization.

8) Experiences stemming from the student teacher's breadth
of talent, preparation and expertise (total personality).

9) Experiences of cooperation from principal and faculty.

10) Experiences involving student teachers in community-
school relations.

11) Experiences stemming from assignment to the college supervisor not one teacher.

12) Experiences resulting from the university-school relationship.

13) Experiences dictated by the competencies and attitudes of the faculty available to be studied.

14) Experiences dictated by the expediency of time or space.

15) Experiences resulting from a system-wide policy toward its role in teacher education.

16) Personal experiences--love life, home life and emotional adjustments.

17) Experiences determined by attitude of the University School of Education toward the program.

Step Six
Unclassified List of Factors that were Abstracted
as Essential Elements from the Composite Lists
of Experiences in Step Five
Study Three - Mini-Faculty
Graham, N. C.

Table 17

1) Subjects being taught

2) Characteristics of pupils

3) Needs of student teacher

4) Teaching techniques and methods

5) Organizational patterns of classes

6) Climates of classes

7) Attitudes of student teachers

8) Attitudes of faculty of public school

9) Attitude of "homebase" teachers

10) Characteristics (competencies, etc.) of student teachers

11) Characteristics of public school faculty

12) Administration-individual school relations

13) Principal-teachers relations

14) Characteristics of school-curriculum, organization, etc.

15) Status accorded college supervisor

16) Capabilities of college supervisor

17) Dynamics governing university-school cooperation in the program

18) Characteristics of "homebase" teacher

19) Goals set for the program

20) Goals set for each student teacher

21) Expediency

22) Central office personnel decisions

23) Office of student teaching's attitudes

24) Attitudes of other key university faculty

25) Flexibility possible in university program

26) Recognizable "position" or philosophy of the university

27) Compatibility of clinical professor to that philosophy.

28) Role college supervisor is given in public school

29) School-community relations

30) School system-university relations

31) Locus of student teacher assignment

32) Susceptibility of student teachers to instruction

33) Degree of college guidance public school wishes

34) Basic personality biases of all involved

35) Previous results of school-university efforts

36) Availability of college supervisor (daily?)

37) Characteristics of college supervisor

38) Previous college pre-preparation of student teacher

39) Degree of commitment of principal to the program

40) Closed versus open school organization

41) Faculty morale

42) Self-image security of all involved

43) Role-identification of all

44) Attitude of student teacher toward teaching

45) Attitude of university staff to teaching in public school

46) Degree of attachment to the status quo

47) Degree of acceptance of roles each has in teacher education

Step Seven
Broad Classifications that can Subsume the
Factors Abstracted from the Experiences
Study Three - Mini-Faculty
Graham, N. C.

Table 18

1)   The characteristics or plan for the student teaching program.

2)   The characteristics (ability, attitudes, personality) of the student teacher.

3)   The characteristics of the school--population, community relations, curriculum, etc.

4)   Characteristics of the faculty members--especially principal and "homebase" teacher's attitudes.

5)   The characteristics of the school system--policy making, communication channels, roles and morale.

6)   The characteristics of the school of education of the university--especially its relationship with and attitude toward the public school.

7)   The characteristics of key university personnel--the supervisor, the director of student teaching and the methods instructors (competencies, attitudes, status).

8)   The philosophy of education--especially teacher education--of all parties to the program.

Broad Classifications Which can Subsume the
Experiences by Locus of the Event

1)   In-class experiences.

2)   Support activities for in-class experiences.

3)   Total-school experiences.

4)   Professional development experiences.

5)   System-wide view and experiences.

6)   Community-wide view and experiences.

7)   Personal-emotional experiences.

Utilization of Data From the Three Logs

Having completed the seven steps of analyses described for the three programs, the writer took the elements abstracted and the recommendations from the participants of the three programs and built the design or model which culminates the study proper. The model is presented next in verbal and in graphic form.

The Model

Outline of a Model or Design for a Student
Teaching Program Based on the Essential
Elements Found in the Three Logs

I. There are eight general factors that determine the individual's experiences in student teaching. Each one of those factors is fed into the situation. Then what is needed and what is possible (given the circumstances) become clear. The factors are:

A. The characteristics of the program or plan

1. Organizational pattern
2. Purposes and goals
3. Its limits
4. Its support
5. Its personnel

B. The characteristics of the student teacher

1. Appearance
2. Sex
3. Age
4. Intellect
5. Preparation
6. Interests
7. Personality

C. The characteristics of the school to be used

1. Location
2. Population
3. Community
4. Curriculum
5. Staff
6. Status

D. Characteristics of the key faculty members to be used

    1. Principal

        a) His philosophy of his role in teacher education
        b) His capabilities
        c) His personality
        d) His limits for action

    2. Homebase teacher

        a) His philosophy of his role in teacher education
        b) His capabilities
        c) His personality
        d) His limits for action

    3. Secondary teachers to be used

        a) His philosophy of his role in teacher education
        b) His capabilities
        c) His personality
        d) His limits for action

E. Characteristics of the school system to be used

    1. Availability of financing
    2. Philosophy of its role in teacher education
    3. Numbers and kinds of schools
    4. Proximity to the college
    5. Decision making structure
    6. Morale and structure of central staff supporting instruction
    7. Status with the college
    8. Status within community

F. Characteristics of the school or college of education involved

    1. Relationships with public schools
    2. Philosophy concerning public school's role in teacher education
    3. Resources

        a) People
        b) Money
        c) Facilities

    4. Organizational pattern for clinical experiences
    5. Relationships with academic departments also preparing people to teach

G. Characteristics of the college's supervisor in the field

    1. Competencies
    2. Personality
    3. Sex and age
    4. Status with college
    5. Status with public schools
    6. Self-image
    7. Role-image

II. There are seven realms of experiences which appeared out of the study. (A realm is a _locus_ of the experience.) Each realm may encompass an infinite number of component experiences. The ones recommended in this model are subsumed under each realm in this outline. They are:

A. In-class experiences

    1. Component-purpose of experience is to study

        a) The students
            (1) Of different ability
            (2) Of different ages
            (3) Of different types

    b) The content
       (1) Of different subjects within one's
           own academic discipline
       (2) Of different academic disciplines
       (3) Of different frames of references
           for curriculum

    c) The methodology
       (1) Of lecturing
       (2) Of questioning
       (3) Of discussion
       (4) Of inquiry
       (5) Of group dynamics
       (6) Of research
       (7) Of evaluation

    d) The climate
       (1) Open vs. closed
       (2) Supportive vs. repressive
       (3) Warm vs. cold
       (4) Accepting vs. rejecting

    e) The organization patterns
       (1) Directive or non-directive
       (2) Flexible or inflexible
       (3) Teaming or self-contained
       (4) Graded or non-graded

2. Component - the method of study

    a) By observing
    b) By participating
    c) By teaching
       (1) With supervision
       (2) Without supervision

B. Components of support activity for in-class experiences

    1. Introspection as feedback of past and preparation for future in-class work

        a) By achieving a comfortable philosophy of education of his own
        b) By intellectual analysis of the teaching of self and of others
        c) By objective measurement of the teaching of self and of others
        d) By educational hardware designed to analyze teaching

    2. Strategy sessions or lesson planning activity

        a) Long-range planning
        b) Daily planning
        c) With supervisors
        d) With colleagues or team members
        e) Individually

    3. Logistical activities

        a) Materials
            (1) Investigate
            (2) Select
            (3) Arrange

        b) Supplies
            (1) Determine need
            (2) Obtain for use
            (3) Prepare for use

        c) Equipment
            (1) Determine need
            (2) Determine availability
            (3) Select and practice use before class

4. Intellectual preparation for classwork

    a) Review and study the content
    b) Review and study understandings about students
    c) Seek ways to broaden one's background or general knowledge
       (1) By reading news
       (2) By attending lectures
       (3) By studying allied fields (i.e. Economics to enrich a history lesson)

5. Human relations activities outside class

    a) With students
    b) With colleagues
    c) With administration
    d) With parents

6. Intellectual activity as follow-up or feedback

    a) Conferences for critique with supervisors
    b) Seminars
    c) Self-analysis after teaching
    d) Consultation with academic specialist and/or education scholar

C. Components of the total-school experiences

1. Study of the guidance office facilities

    a) Roles the staff play
    b) Relationships with teachers

2. Study of the library facilities

    a) Roles the staff play
    b) Relationships with teachers

3. Study of extra-curricular teaching duties

    a) Student council
    b) Clubs
    c) ROTC
    d) Intermural sports
    e) Display areas
    f) Dramatics
    g) Publications

4. Learn the attendance duties expected of teachers

    a) Sports events
    b) PTA
    c) Performances by students
    d) Social events for students sponsored by the school
    e) Social events for faculty sponsored by the school

5. Learn lunch-time duties

6. Learn lounge and leisure-time routine

7. Study the office facilities

    a) The people
    b) Their function
    c) Their relationships with teachers

8. Study the administration

    a) The people
    b) The functions
    c) The relationship with teachers

9. Study routine and record-keeping

10. Attend and study faculty meetings

    a) The people
    b) The dynamics
    c) The relationships

11. Attend and study departmental meetings

    a) The people
    b) The function vis a vis the teacher

12. Attend and study P.T.A. meetings

    a) The people
    b) The purposes
    c) The relationship of teachers to the organization

13. Study the community life of the school

    a) Teacher's responsibility for building care
    b) Teacher's responsibility in the halls
    c) Teacher's responsibility on the grounds
    d) Teacher's responsibility for students away from school

D. Components of professional development experiences (The dynamics involved here may be summed up as working toward feeling and acting like a professional in all student teaching relationships and roles.)

1. Broadening the student understanding of his responsibility as a teacher.

2. Broadening the understandings and appreciation of the status and tradition built up over time.

3. Inservice workshops, curriculum studies or committee work to promote professional growth.

4. Consultation with scholars in the academic and education disciplines.

5. School-wide self-study (i.e. an accreditation study).

6. Formulation of criteria for personal self-study.

7. The joining and participation in professional organizations.

8. A study of professional ethics and an analysis of experiences in the light of such standards.

E. Components of a system-wide view and experiences

    1. Involving the school board and its influence on the teacher and his role

    2. Involving system-wide faculty meetings

    3. Involving supervisory staff of the system

    4. Involving the PTSA and its influence on the teacher and his role

    5. Involving inter-school observation and sharing of ideas

    6. Involving system-wide curriculum planning

    7. Involving the channels of communication in the system

        a) Decision making
        b) Grievance procedure

    8. Involving financing

        a) Budgeting
        b) Sources of finance

    9. Involving the central office organizational structure

        a) Line
        b) Staff
        c) Teacher's access route

A MODEL FOR AN INDIVIDUALIZED STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

Realms of Experiences Through Which
The Student Passes*

a. Personal-emotional
b. Professional Development
c. Community-wide
d. System-wide
e. School-wide
f. Support activity for in-class
g. In-class

++ See Figure 2
   for detail

*See Figure 3-9
  for detail

FIGURE 1

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  ┌───┐        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │   │        │ 1.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │   │        │           of             │           │
│  │   │        │      The Program         │           │
│  │   │        └──────────────────────────┘           │
│  │   │        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │   │        │ 2.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │ P │        │           of             │           │
│  │ H │        │      The Student         │           │
│  │ I │        └──────────────────────────┘           │
│  │ L │        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │ O │        │ 3.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │ S │        │           of             │           │
│  │ O │        │      The School          │           │
│  │ P │        └──────────────────────────┘           │
│  │ H │        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │ Y │        │ 4.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │   │        │           of             │           │
│  │   │        │   Key School Faculty     │           │
│  │   │        └──────────────────────────┘           │
│  │   │        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │   │        │ 5.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │   │        │           of             │           │
│  │   │        │      School System       │           │
│  │   │        └──────────────────────────┘           │
│  │   │        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │   │        │ 6.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │   │        │           of             │           │
│  │   │        │  School of Education     │           │
│  │   │        └──────────────────────────┘           │
│  │   │        ┌──────────────────────────┐           │
│  │   │        │ 7.   Characteristics     │           │
│  │   │        │           of             │           │
│  │   │        │ College's Supervisor     │           │
│  └───┘        └──────────────────────────┘           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

PHILOSOPHY OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Total In-Put Situation

FIGURE 2

Personal-Emotional
Experiences

FIGURE 3
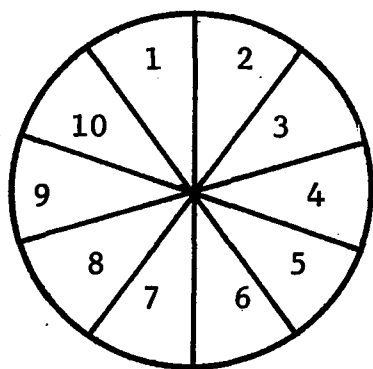
Professional Development
Experiences

FIGURE 4

Figure 3

Personal-Emotional Experiences

1. Family life

2. Emotional or love life

3. Social life

4. Introspective life

5. Self-concept or image-formation

6. Professional role conceptualization

7. Total life space influence (feelings, fear, reactions, world affairs)

Figure 4

Professional Development Experiences

1. Continuing personal education activity

2. System-sponsored personnel development activity

3. Consultation with academic specialists

4. Consultation with educational specialists

5. Self-study by the school

6. Personal self-analysis by the student

7. Professional organization activity

8. Study of professional ethics

9. Role analysis and expectations

10. Development of a personal philosophy and set of standards for teaching
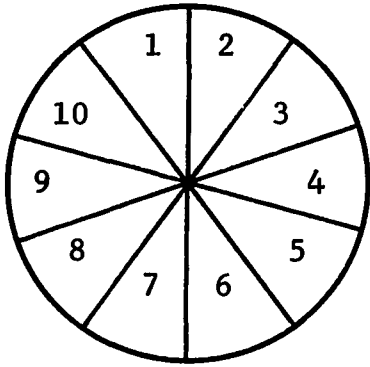
Community-wide View
and Experiences

FIGURE 5
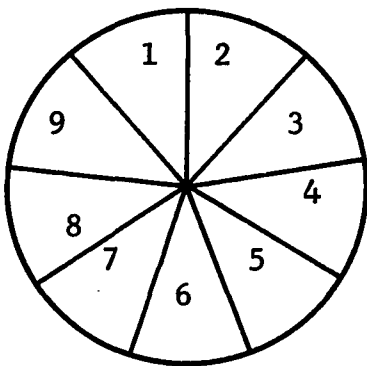
System-wide View
and Experiences

FIGURE 6

Figure 5

Community-wide View and Experiences

1. Civil authority and the school

2. Police authority and the school

3. Interdependent relationships--school and community

4. Ethnic and economic make-up of community

5. School patrons and parents

6. P.T.A. activity

7. Social and political life in community

8. Expectations held in the community for the schools

9. Financial role of community and controls exerted

10. Students as present and future citizens

Figure 6

System-wide View and Experiences

1. School board functions

2. System-wide faculty meetings

3. Supervisors and coordinators for the system

4. Inter-school exchange of ideas

5. System-wide policy makers

6. System-wide curriculum scheme

7. Source and disbursal of finances

8. City-wide administration channels of communication

9. Roles of central office staff in relation to the
    teaching function
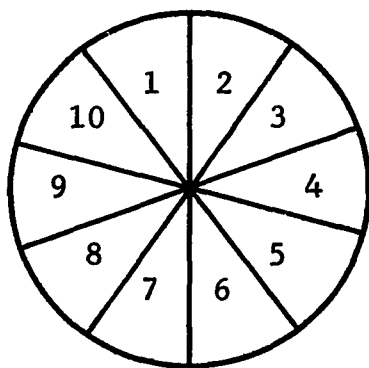
Total School Experiences

FIGURE 7
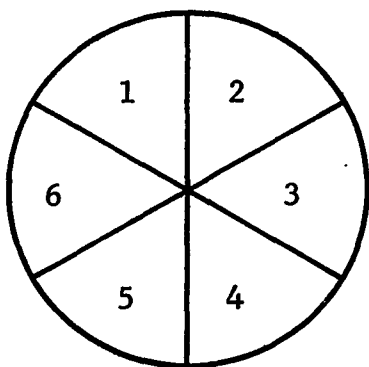
Support Activity for
In-class Experiences

FIGURE 8

Figure 7

<u>Total</u> <u>School</u> <u>Experience</u>

1. Guidance function

2. Library function

3. Extra-curricular function

4. Behavior in free-time functions

5. Administration and office staff functions

6. Routine and records functions

7. Faculty meetings functions

8. Department meetings functions

9. P.T.A. functions

10. Building and grounds functions

Figure 8

<u>Support</u> <u>Activity</u> <u>for</u> <u>In-class</u> <u>Experiences</u>

1. Introspection as preparation and feedback

2. Planning

3. Study, select, and arrange materials

4. Study of content areas

5. Study and investigation in human relations realm--
   study students

6. Feedback, counsel and guidance from colleagues
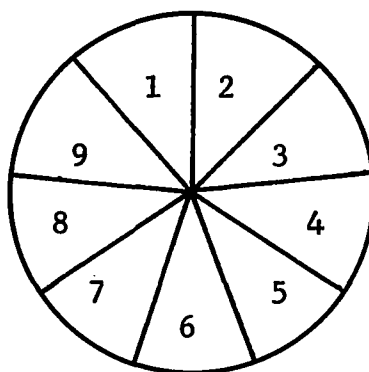
In-School Experiences

1. Observe in specialty area and other fields

2. Participate in specialty area and other fields

3. Teach individuals

4. Teach small groups

5. Observe and work with bright students

6. Observe and work with slow students

7. Follow one group of students through different environments

8. Teach selected classes with supervision

9. Teach full load without supervision

FIGURE 9

Chapter V

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA GATHERED TO TEST SOME QUESTIONS
AND ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

This chapter is composed of three sections. In
the first section the results of the opinionaires, which
allowed participants to evaluate the student teaching
programs, are tabulated. The results show the reaction
of administrators to the innovative programs in a general
statement of approval or disapproval. The opinions of the
cooperating teachers are reported on two items--general
approval or disapproval of the program and whether they
would participate in a similar program again if asked.
The student teachers were asked to react to the different
experiences which comprised the innovations. All three
groups were asked for specific suggestions concerning
helpful experiences and hindering experiences and for
suggestions for future programs.

There were seven administrators in the two innova-
tive programs and the writer received responses from six.
There were thirty-one student teachers completing the

innovative programs and the writer received responses from twenty-seven. There were twenty-five cooperating (or home-base) teachers working with the thirty-one student teachers. Six of these teachers were used for two consecutive semesters with two different student teachers. Of the twenty-five teachers, twenty-two responded to the questionaires.

The second section presents the results of the administration of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory to pairs of former student teachers and their former co-operating teachers. The test was used in order to get a comparison of the subjects in regard to their attitudes toward students, teaching and themselves as teachers. Percentile scores are used for the comparison and were arrived at by calculating a raw score,[1] and converting it to a percentile based on the norms for academic, secondary teachers with four years of training.[2] (See Appendix D for norms used.)

---

[1]The raw score was calculated by subtracting the wrong answers from the right ones.

[2]Walter W. Cook, Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory Manual (New York: The Psychological Corporation, n.d.), p. 9.

The third section reports the results of the writer's use of the Flanders Interaction Analysis Category System to construct matrices for the cooperating teachers and student teachers available for the follow-up study. (See Appendix F for the category system used and Appendix G for a sample matrix representative of the nineteen people in the study.)

Section One reports on the opinions of participants concerning the innovations in order to further evaluate and weigh the experiences to be lifted from the prototype studies to build the model. Even though an experience might foster variety of experiences or more college instruction, it would not be a desirable experience to recommend if it proved to be unacceptable to those who tried it. The opinionaire results were used in the selection of experiences with which to build the model.

The purpose of the data in Sections Two and Three was to allow the writer to conduct a tentative check on the assumption that more variety and college experience would make the emulation of one teacher (by the former student teacher) less likely to occur. Unfortunately, there were very few of the total population of the study available for the follow-up study. Of the nine students

in the clinical professor program <u>not</u> <u>one</u> was available.[1]
Of the seventeen in the "control" or non-experimental group,
only three were available, and of the twenty-two to complete
the mini-faculty programs, only seven were available.[2] All
of which meant that only ten people were available out of
the fifty student teachers supervised by the writer during
the three years of the prototype studies. The results of
that limited sample are presented although they afford an
inadequate basis for making any judgment about the assump-
tion they were designed to test.

———————————

[1]A student had to be currently teaching in
North Carolina to be considered "available".

[2]Two other former students replied after the
study was completed.

Table 19

PARTICIPANT'S EVALUATIVE OPINIONAIRE RESULTS
(ADMINISTRATORS IN THE INNOVATIVE PROGRAMS)

General Opinions of the Program	Favorable 3	Unfavorable 2	Neutral 1
Administrators in the Innovative Programs - 7 Administrators responding - 6			

Advantages Listed:

1. Better communication with university.
2. Better coordination within this school.
3. Supervisor an asset to us.
4. Much greater variety for student and teacher.
5. Total school view enhanced.
6. More daily assistance available to student teacher and my staff too.
7. Teaming and grouping stimulated new ideas for the staff and pupils--influenced the whole school.

Disadvantages Listed:

1. The timing on out-of-school observations and trips.
2. Lack of preplanning with staff beforehand.
3. Hinderance to knowing students well.
4. Hinderance to continuity of program.
5. Several teachers felt inconvenienced by "in and out" situation.
6. Homebase teacher had less effective relationship with student teacher.
7. Complex and confusing to some teachers and students-- needs great flexibility.

Suggestion for Future:

1. More lead-time.
2. Planning schedule and calendar more judiciously.
3. More time for the students to be in the public schools.

See Appendix H for copies of the opinionaires used in the research in this section.

Table 20

PARTICIPANT'S EVALUATIVE OPINIONAIRE RESULTS
(HOMEBASE TEACHERS IN INNOVATIVE PROGRAMS)

General Opinions of the Program	Favorable 19	Unfavorable 1	Neutral 2
Willingness to Participate Again if Asked	22		

Homebase teachers in the program - 25
Homebase teachers responding   - 22

Advantages Listed for Homebase Teachers and Student Teachers

1. Variety and a wider perspective of teacher's whole role.
2. Seeing one subject as it fits into total school scheme.
3. Frequency and closeness of college supervisor's consul-
   tations.
4. University supervisor's help to cooperating teachers
   and administration.
5. School and university's close cooperation.
6. Different grade levels and types of students, illus-
   trating the need for knowing students well and for
   individualizing instruction.
7. New ideas, help, advice and materials for homebase
   teacher.
8. University's concern for what the public school needed.
9. Student teacher's close relationship with the college
   supervisor (not "out in the field alone").
10. More of a team approach (public school teacher, student
    teacher and university teacher all helping plan for the
    pupils).
11. Constant college contacts for staff and student teacher.
    (Achievement of total school view for student teacher.)

Table 20 (continued)

Disadvantages Listed for Homebase Teachers and Student
Teachers:

1. Homebase teacher needed to know far enough ahead to
   plan smooth transition.
2. Complexity of the "in and out" situation was confusing.
3. "The week away from this school hindered my plans."
4. They knew students less well and were inclined to teach
   subjects and not students.
5. "Our administration did not allow full participation."
6. "The program was not as easy for homebase teacher but
   of such great benefit to the student teacher that it
   was worth the effort."

Suggestions for Future Student Teaching Programs:

1. Student teaching during Fall semester only.
2. Allowance of more lead-time for planning among those
   who will work together.
3. Longer student teaching period.
4. Schedules for various experiences systematically planned
   ahead.
5. More three-way conferences.
6. Smoother transition from teacher to teacher in seeking
   variety.
7. Better preparation for practical teaching before they
   come to student teaching.
8. Revision of the calendar of events in the mini-faculty.

See Appendix I for copies of the opinionaires used
in the research in this section.

Table 21
PARTICIPANT'S EVALUATIVE OPINIONAIRE RESULTS
(STUDENT TEACHERS IN INNOVATIVE PROGRAM)

Experience	Favorable	Unfavorable	Neutral
More than one teacher	25		2
More than one grade level	26		1
More than one content area	27		
Assignment to College Supervisor	23	2	2
In-school Seminars	21	3	3
Conferences with homebase teacher	23	4	
General cooperativeness of homebase teacher	19	7	
Shift for observation i.e. in another school	26		1
Close instruction and supervision by college	26	1	
Knowing one group of students well	27		
Knowing a teacher well	26		1
College supervision by a clinical professor	14	8	1
Close coordination of methods classes & student teaching	26	1	
Methods teacher as a clinical professor	24	2	
General opinion of total program	27		

Student Teachers in Innovative Program - 31
Student Teachers Responding - 27

Recommendations for future student teaching and preparation:

1. Plan the scheduling of experiences more carefully--each having some team teaching and some conventional teaching.
2. Previous to student teaching students should learn practical teaching duties and routine.

Table 21 (continued)

---

3. Educational Psychology before student teaching should prepare one for the great human relations areas of student teaching.
4. Offer a program of wide experience "like this one"--1/2 semester in junior high and 1/2 semester in senior high.
5. Systematically plan observations before student teaching so that different kinds of students are studied.
6. Offer opportunity to teach with more than one teacher but not too many.
7. Give them a chance to see the administrative role in teaching.
8. Provide longer and earlier student teaching--never at the end of the year.
9. Have better evaluation and follow-up study after student teaching.
10. Improve the timing for several experiences.
11. Offer a program allowing great variety but better timed.
12. Make the blocks of courses more relevant.
13. Make the methods courses more practical and realistic.
14. Coordinate student teaching, methods and educational psychology.
15. Allow for more coordination of observation and participation before student teaching--beginning as an aide by the Sophomore year and gradually becoming more professionally responsible.
16. Modify present grading system.
17. Offer more than one methods course.
18. Have a college supervisor full-time in the school.
19. Have a college supervisor study school and teachers ahead of time and plan accordingly.
20. Pick cooperating teachers more judiciously.
21. Provide total-school experience.
22. Allow for teaching in two schools.
23. Require student teachers to live in community and to work more closely there.
24. Use challenging and difficult situations, too.

See Appendix J for copies of the opinionaires used in the research in this section.

While the mini-faculty was being conducted in Asheboro a similar program was conducted in an open team-teaching, non-graded school. The guidelines of the writer's program were not strictly followed so that program is not incorporated in the results above. Opinions and recommendations were collected from the students at that program and from those in conventional programs in the writer's classes. They are presented in Appendix L and Appendix M.

Table 22

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY RESULTS
FORMER STUDENT TEACHERS (NOW TEACHING IN
NORTH CAROLINA) AND THEIR
COOPERATING TEACHERS

Student Teacher	Percentile Rank	Cooperating Teacher	Percentile Rank
Conventional- 2*	67%	Conventional- 2	72%
Conventional- 5	87%	Conventional- 5	35%
Conventional-17	42%	Conventional-17	63%
Mini-Faculty- 3	49%	Mini-Faculty- 3	95%
Mini-Faculty- 7	88%	Mini-Faculty- 7	13%
Mini-Faculty-13	64%	Mini-Faculty-13	62%
Mini-Faculty-20	80%	Mini-Faculty-20	79%
Mini-Faculty-21	62%	Mini-Faculty-21	62%
Mini-Faculty-22	62%	Mini-Faculty-22	76%
Mini-Faculty-23	10%	Mini-Faculty-23	38%

Norm Used - Experienced Teachers - Academic Secondary
        (four years of training)

*Each student and cooperating teacher was given a symbol to
 replace their names as Conventional-1, or Mini-Faculty-1,
 etc.

     See Appendix E for a sample of the questions in
the Inventory on which the above table is based.

     See Appendix D for the norms on which the above
percentiles are based.

Table 23

THE FLANDERS INTERACTION ANALYSIS RESULTS
PERCENTAGE AND RATIO ANALYSIS
OF FLANDERS MATRICES

	Teacher Talk		Student Talk		Indirect to Direct Ratio		Revised Indirect to Direct Ratio	
	The Student	The Teacher	The Student	The Teacher	The Student	The Teacher	The Student	The Teacher
Conv.- 2	47%	62.5%	33.8%	30.5%	.528	1.05	.662	2.44
Conv.- 5	63.3%	54.3%	30.5%	25.1%	.86	.20	1.08	.19
Conv.-17	63.2%	51%	33%	22.7%	.87	.78	3.05	1.0
M.F.- 3	58.7%	69.5%	40%	13%	1.56	.29	5.95	.97
M.F.- 7	57%	57%	21%	30%	.39	.33	1.53	.345
M.F.- 13	65%	61%	26.8%	12%	.49	.65	.557	2.1
M.F.- 20	11.3%	64%	71%	27%	.415	.75	.27	1.14
M.F.- 21	70%	61%	25.8%	12%	.84	.65	2.1	2.1
M.F.- 22	61.8%	59.5%	24.6%	27%	.75	.985	1.2	1.25
M.F.- 23	69%	55%	21.5%	26.8%	1.17	.432	2.3	.74

See Appendix F for a copy of the category system used to gather the data on which the above table is based.

See Appendix G for a sample matrix like those calculated on each of the above subjects.

EVALUATION, INTERPRETATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON THE STUDY

The writer gave as the purpose of this research the designing of a model for a student teaching program which would provide for a variety of experiences and for more college instruction during student teaching. The position taken was philosophical and not experimental in that the writer was attempting to define and clarify a rather neglected question.

The reasons given by the writer for proposing a design with the aforementioned characteristics were (1) her contention that an undesirable situation exists when a student teacher has only one model of teacher behavior to study (perhaps imitate), and (2) her assumption that a variety of experiences with different cooperating teachers and more college instruction during student teaching would make modeling (or blind emulation) less likely. These are admittedly value judgments on the writer's part and are yet to be empirically or experimentally tested.

The writer presents the design which grew out of her study as a vehicle for the future testing of these assumptions and perhaps answering the questions raised by the problem. Of course, basic to this study and any other venture in educational philosophy, is the aim toward improving education--in this case teacher education.

Stabler said of a philosopher,

He defines, clarifies meaning, logically weighs and values. He proposes the path to the "desirable" .... he may approach a problem without experimental evidence but with only the conventions of ordinary language usage as a guide.[1]

Of the philosopher of education he said,

His aim is not to experiment, to classify, and organize data in order to explain or predict, but rather to investigate the adequacy of such data and principles and their relevance to crucial educational decisions .... philosophers are concerned with the assumptions, both implicit and explicit, that underlie certain educational principles .... He explores value considerations; that is the role of philosophy in education.[2]

The writer said that the commonly accepted principle of the one-to-one apprenticeship in student teaching was being accepted and practiced without proper investi-

---

[1]Ernest Stabler, The Education of the Secondary School Teacher, (Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University Press, 1962), p. 66.

[2]Ibid., pp. 64-66.

gation. An underlying assumption of the current practice
is that a one-to-one relationship is desirable or else it
would not be so widely used. The implication of the
practice, as it influences teachers and teaching, needs
study because of its possible impact on public education
through the teachers it prepares.

The writer is not the first to philosophize about
the question of the apprenticeship. Dewey did so back
in 1904 in his essay on studying (not practicing) teaching
by bringing theory and practice into synchronized and
systematic analysis during laboratory experiences.[1]

The writer does raise a different issue by
recommending a variety of experiences and more college
instruction during student teaching as possible solutions
to the problem of modeling after one teacher and hence
becoming "only an apt apprentice."[2] The writer also

------

[1]Association for Student Teaching, Theoretical
Bases for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher
Education: Forty-fourth Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa:
The Association, 1965), p. 35. (Dewey's essay is quoted
by L. O. Andrews in the Yearbook.)

[2]An expression frequently used in speeches and
articles by Dean Robert O'Kane of the School of Education
of The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

presents a design for student teaching, which contains the two values that she commends to the education community for evaluation by it.

Koerner, in a statement representative of many educators and critics of educators said, "Education is as yet far too inexact a phenomenon for meticulous analysis."[1] The writer, agreeing with that position, chose to arrive at a model through the use of a tool from the social sciences --participant observation.

The technique requires the researcher to be immersed in a social segment. The writer designed two innovative student teaching programs and became a participant observer in both of them. She also supervised students in the conventional program of the School of Education of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. From the innovative programs she gathered data in daily logs or diaries, recording the experiences and relationships that developed during the program. Each conventional program was summarized in the usual evaluative procedure used for those programs. In addition to the writer's logs, she had access to the critical incident journals which were kept

---

[1]James D. Koerner, The Miseducation of American Teachers (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963), p. 1.

by the students and shared with their supervisor.

The writer was not seeking to <u>prove</u> anything, but rather to <u>design</u> something. After years of reading con- tradictory studies that claimed to <u>prove</u> a variety of points in education, the writer heartily agrees with Koerner, who said,

> ...all important questions in the education of teachers must be answered on essentially suasive grounds; very few "data" exist on the best way to prepare people to teach.... In teacher education the state of the art is infantile...a cul-de-sac of conflicting evidence.... The only way out is through one's reasoned convictions.[1]

The fact that no comprehensive theoretical base exists for teacher education in general or for the laboratory phase in particular does not eliminate the need to "go on producing from the experience and knowledge at hand and construct a program."[2] The writer is in agree- ment with the M-STEP philosophy represented by that quo- tation and so presents her experiences as a participant observer in student teaching programs as evidence which can be used as the basis for a decision.

_____

[1]Ibid., p. 3.

[2]Howard Bosley, Director, <u>Emerging Roles and Responsibilities</u>, Vol. II of <u>Teacher Education in Transition</u> (Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1969), p. 164.

Acknowledging that the design is tentative and incomplete, concentrating as it does on the two factors of variety and more college instruction during student teaching, the writer defends its worth as a vehicle for further study and refinement. Herbert La Grone, Dean of The School of Education at Texas Christian University, said, "...one of the truly significant features of the diagramatic approach, or as some people call it 'a model,' is that the model may be incomplete and still serve as a tool for thought."[1]

La Grone reminded educators that a model, "a good one," can be handled in verbal form. He commended the Bloom, Krathwohl taxonomies as examples.[2] The writer presents the model (design) which grew out of this study in both verbal (outline) and graphic form.

---

[1]La Grone in E. Brooks Smith et al, editors, Partnership in Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: American Association of College for Teacher Education and The Association for Student Teaching, National Education Association, 1966), p. 178. (A publication growing out of the joint 1966 workshop in "School-College Partnership in Teacher Education").

[2]Ibid., p. 183.

David Ryans has said that, "meaningful educational
objectives are more likely to be ones that have proceeded
from a systematic sequence of thinking, planning, research
and evaluation."[1] It could also be said then that this
writer's contribution is the "thinking and planning" stage
for this particular problem. Ryans also wrote, "Research
usually issues from a set of assumptions and organized
thinking based on inferences from earlier research findings."[2]

The writer took the scant "research findings" con-
cerning the influence of cooperating teachers in shaping
student teachers (see Chapter Two) and made "certain
assumptions." Thinking and planning for this study were
organized around certain "inferences" from those earlier
research findings through "extrapolation" which "went
beyond the verifiable sensory perception data and took into
account inferences that may be reasonably drawn about the
phenomenon under consideration."[3]

---

[1]Association for Student Teaching, op. cit., p. 3.
(David Ryans is quoted).

[2]Ibid., p. 3.

[3]Ibid.

THE ORIGINAL DESIGNS FOR THE PROTOTYPE STUDIES

The original programs are also possible models which could be used for research designed to zero in on either of the two central concepts--the clinical professor or the mini-faculty. This writer's research seems to reject certain factors that are central to the clinical professor idea, but that point needs a longitudinal study under controlled conditions. One factor least favored in the opinionaires was the college supervisor as a teacher in the public school. The merit of that part of the clinical professorship needs more study.

EXPERIENCES AS A PARTICIPANT OBSERVER

The tool of participant observation utilized in this study could prove to be a valuable and most appropriate means of involving classroom teachers in educational research. Teachers frequently complain that educational scholarship is irrelevant to the classroom issues and problems. If properly instructed in the skill of participant observation, teachers could become a bridge between the classroom situation and educational research. They could be taught to assist in building the "body of knowledge" in

education so that research does address itself to their problems. Teachers may be poor consumers of educational research because they have not been taught proper tools with which they can assume some responsibility for relevant research in their natural laboratories, the classrooms. The writer strongly urges that teachers be taught to use more sociological and anthropological concepts and tools to study teaching which is a social phenomenon.

One weakness in the writer's research was the fact that the conventional programs were not observed and recorded in the same manner as the three innovative programs. Having acted as participant observer logging the experiences in three programs, the writer should have handled the data from the conventional program in the same manner--the logs.

One result emerging from the participant observation roles was that it was found that a college supervisor could become an accepted part of a public school team. Perhaps that fact could be built upon moving toward Dr. Amershek's idea of making the university study of education and the public school (the field) one.

There are numerous possibilities for the use of sociological tools to study education when one begins to think of education and schooling in terms of groups, social dynamics, roles and other social concepts.

FINDINGS FROM THE EVALUATION OPINIONAIRES

The responses to the opinionaires yielded valuable insights and suggestions as to relationships and dynamics that needed consideration before the model could be formulated. In answer after answer the need for lead-time and pre-planning was emphasized.

The writer found it very difficult to get past central office staffs and principals and to work directly with the teachers who would be involved. Each prototype program emphasized pre-planning in the design but the expediency of time and organizational delays obstructed the proper execution of that vital phase. Teachers and administrators alike asked for better pre-planning and orientation to any program a school of education might use. In the study wherever that phase was ignored there were conflicts and disruptions. In one school where the administrator was covertly hostile and overtly cool to the program, the teachers expressed the least satisfaction with the program. Even those teachers admitted that the program held great benefits for the student teachers.

It was interesting to read that those teachers and administrators felt that one danger in the program was that

student teachers would <u>not</u> know the students and would tend to "teach subjects not students." On the other hand, all the student teachers in that program responded that they <u>did</u> know a group of students very well. They further stated, among the significant things they learned about teaching, that knowing students was crucial to teaching them. No respondent, even in that least cooperative environment, indicated that any interest of the public school and its pupils was <u>not</u> safeguarded in the program.

The objections to the programs (few as they were) repeatedly came under the category of less convenience for the cooperating teachers. Future programs should, therefore, try to reconcile convenience for the teachers in the public schools with convenience for the college's student teachers. It is the belief of the writer that some new political structure will have to grow up, providing different relationships and roles. Perhaps some of the M-STEP organizational structures can prove fruitful and safeguard the self-interest of both institutions within the framework of a <u>mutual</u> interest.

There was almost universal agreement from teachers, administrators and student teachers that a variety of experiences with different teachers is desirable and helpful. The timing and scheduling were criticized in many responses.

Nearly all agreed, also, that close college supervision was helpful to the school personnel as well as to the student teachers. There was consistent agreement from all parties that student teaching should be longer and should have systematic clinical experiences preceding it.

One criticism the writer now holds for the opinion-aire usage is that the different forms of the opinionaires should have been more parallel to allow for more similar summaries of responses. It is realized, of course, that one would not ask students, teachers and administrators exactly the same questions. The information sought from administrators was on the level of their own involvement and hence differed greatly from that asked of the teachers. The teachers, in turn, were asked about areas where the student teachers' experiences intersected their own. The student teachers were asked about their reactions to the specific experiences which made the programs innovative. Some differences would have to be maintained because of the natures of the three roles, but more parallelism should be sought where possible if the study is duplicated.

The results of the responses are overwhelmingly favorable to the programs even though they were carried out under very restricted circumstances. It is realized that

personalities enter into the situation in powerful ways. The writer is strongly public-school oriented and found generally cordial acceptance in each school. Those two factors probably influenced the outcome and the evaluations to an extent which is not shown. The approval might have rested somewhat on a good relationship with the college supervisor and not so much on acceptance of the basic concepts in the innovations. That possibility should be considered. A program would have little utility if it were limited severely in its applicability. Yet, it is understood that any supervisory arrangement is only as effective as the people who "man" it.

THE MODEL

The experiences from the logs, the opinions given in interviews and opinionaires and the student teachers' critical incident journals all yielded experiences and suggestions from which the writer selected experiences deemed desirable and eliminated experiences deemed un-desirable. From those desirable ones the model is built.

The data from the logs presented in Chapter Four show that certain key principles govern the roles and the dynamics of any program. Those principles are intended to

serve as a guide or recommendation for judiciously utilizing the model for future planning.

The principles that emerged are: individualization, a systematic study of teaching, the planning and the setting of goals for the systematic progression through various experiences. Such a program would be lengthy and perhaps expensive for it would facilitate a study of teaching in the light of theory and practice rather than the practice of teaching in the light of the status quo. Not all universities could or should adopt such a plan. Some school systems would find it to be disruptive (given their philosophy) to play such an important role in teacher education.

The writer submits that schools and colleges must cooperate more efficiently in teacher education or there may be a return to the old campus, or laboratory school, type of study. Evidence can be seen for that trend, out of ordinary public schools and into laboratories, in the plans for national institutes in education. In those institutes, away from the real classroom, teachers are once again being prepared.

In summary it could be said that many factors emerged from the logs as contributory to the outcome in student teaching. It was shown, however, that any factor could be

controlled or compensated for to some extent if the

following guidelines were adhered to:

1) There is a need to be systematic in planning;

2) There is a need to determine and set goals to reach
   or principles to study;

3) There is a need to root the whole program in a genuine
   analysis and study of teaching;

4) There is a need for individualization as a guiding
   principle in planning; and

5) There is a need for mutual involvement and inter-
   dependence of both university and public school
   personnel in planning and implementing a program.

The model is limited in that only two variables

were emphasized in its construction, variety of experience

and more college instruction. Other variables that need

study and consideration are:

1) The "givens" in the student teacher's make-up,

2) His preparation,

3) His previous experience with teachers and teaching,

4) The school in which he does his student teaching,

5) The school in which he begins his career,

6) Outside influence,

7) The administration of his school,

8) The other faculty members,

9) The personality of the cooperating teacher,

10) The public school pupils,

11) Community attitudes,

12) The curriculum, and

13) Emotional overtones or climate.

A person's total life space at a given moment influences how he will behave as a teacher. Study should be given to all of the above and to the others that a careful analysis could probably isolate.

Incompetent people carrying out this (or any) model could produce ineffective teachers. Variety and more college instruction does no more to <u>assure</u> that a <u>study</u> of teaching will take place than lengthening of time of student teaching in "real" classrooms <u>assured</u> the development of good teachers in previous "reform" movements.

If the philosophy of teaching and the understandings of the college supervisor are faulty, then any given program will produce unsatisfactory results. People make any program. Some supervisors and some cooperating teachers produce unusually fine teachers within the conventional program. The people who implement any program must have (1) an understanding of their proper roles, (2) energy and ingenuity to carry them out, (3) expertise and knowledge sufficient to facilitate learning, (4) clarity of

purpose and (5) a strong grasp of the means whereby an instructor facilitates the learning of another. In short, the supervisor in this or any model of student teaching must be a superb teacher himself if he is to educate potentially superb teachers in turn.

Even if modeling does currently exist it is not proven to be undesirable. That question needs a definitive study. The control of other variables (see above) might diminish it more than the two emphasized in this study.

One could attack the problem from several other directions also. One could simply eliminate the use of public school teachers. National Teaching Institutes may be a move in that direction.

One could simply increase the amount of time the college supervisor is with a student teacher and leave intact the one-to-one relationship with a public school teacher.

One could teach analytical tools (such as the Flanders' System) for the study of teaching previous to the entry into student teaching and depend upon an analytical attitude toward teaching to diminish modeling.

One could move the student teacher into the public schools at various times throughout the four years of college and allow for a study of teaching throughout one's academic career. That would eliminate the one massive "dose of practice" at the end. The emphasis there would be on timing and synthesis and not on variety per se.

This writer recommends in her use of the model a series of clinical experiences that are coordinated with tutorials to form the educational sequence in teacher preparation. Foundation courses and academic ones should utilize actual experiences to enhance learning and the relevance of the skills and understandings being taught.

The following is a possible way to utilize the model for what the writer sees as a most adequate preparation for teaching (given the current state of the science of education):

1) The student functions as a Teacher's Aide - part of a day for a semester during the Freshman year. (Questions to be answered are: Do I like children and schools? Is this life-style compatible with my values and self-image?);

2) The student functions as a Teaching Assistant - part of a day for one semester during the Sophomore year (a chance to bring broad liberal understandings into synthesis or focus on the philosophy of a discipline and how you fit it into education). The duties would be instructional, not clerical;

3) The student functions as a <u>Teaching Associate</u> -
part of a day for one semester, Sophomore or Junior year,
participating with a teacher in instructing larger and
larger groups (a chance to bring the psychology, sociology,
philosophy and history of education into focus in the real
world of education). If this is in a junior high school
the next experience should be in a senior high school;

4) <u>Student Teacher</u> - all day for a whole semester,
junior or senior year (Fall only). An intensive analysis
of teaching utilizing the tools previously mastered--
testing theory and trying techniques to arrive at one's
own style. This should be in junior high school if the
previous experience was in senior high school;

5) <u>Intern Teacher</u> - Fifth year on-the-job training--
a chance to teach with close supportive supervision in a
class that is one's own. (Holds a provisional certificate
and receives one-half pay);

6) <u>Professional Teacher</u> - (Different certificate
and pay) - independent instructor holding an advanced
degree and capable of leading a team or fulfilling other
leadership duties.

7) <u>Master Teacher</u> or Teacher-Instructor (a special
certificate and pay) - special preparation to accept the
role of inducting others into the profession. Some master
teachers would supervise several intern teachers. Also,
Numbers One, Two, Three, and Six above could form a team
and one master teacher could supervise two or more teams.

8) <u>Director of Teaching</u> - a joint appointment from
a school of education and a public school - capable of
working with a principal in a "center" to coordinate the
work of all of the teachers who are still less than pro-
fessionally certified (aides and interns). This person
would also be responsible for the continuum of in-service
education which would take teacher preparation on through
one's career.

The above is admittedly an <u>ideal</u> situation. It

uses the model to design a whole program of four years.

For utility sake the model does not presuppose such an

ideal program; it can be used within the constraints of most current curricula of education. The model is, then, a skeleton, a tentative framework on which different themes might be played and different specifics could be "hung."

FINDINGS FROM THE TWO OBJECTIVE INSTRUMENTS

Basic to the philosophical position taken by the writer was the assumption that a variety of experiences and more college instruction (during student teaching) would tend to diminish the tendency for the student teacher to emulate one teacher. To check that assumption in a limited format, the writer sought to compare the student teachers in each program with their cooperating teachers by the use of two objective instruments measuring two factors in their current behavior.

The Flanders Interaction Analysis Category System yielded a matrix of the climate in the classrooms as reflected in verbal interaction. From those matrices percentages of student talk and teacher talk to total talk were calculated. From them, also, the indirect to direct and revised indirect to direct ratios were calculated.

The two percentages may be used to compare the
relative frequency of teacher talk to student talk during
the class tabulated.

The two ratios may be used to compare the degree
of indirect teacher verbal control (or influence) to direct
teacher verbal control.

Indirect influence is considered to be Categories
One through Four (see Appendix for the category system).
In the revised indirect to direct ratio, only Categories
One through Three are used.

Direct influence is considered to be Categories
Five through Seven. In the revised version only Cate-
gories Six and Seven are used in the calculation.

Generally one might say that indirect teacher talk
consists of those statements which are not constraining
and restricting on the students' behavior (verbal and
active). A teacher's direct verbalization is made up
of statements that confine, direct or correct the students'
behavior.

In the follow-up study the writer visited each
"available" student teacher and cooperating teacher. A
tabulation of a class was then made using the category
system. A total population of fifty student teachers

began their student teaching during the three years of the research. Only forty-four cooperating (homebase) teachers were used. The intention was to select randomly subjects from those currently teaching in North Carolina and available for study.

Of the nine student teachers in the Clinical Professor Program at Smith High School not one was available. Four are out of North Carolina; two are in graduate school and three have left teaching for other fields (i.e. library, counseling and administration). The writer could, therefore, obtain no follow-up data for that program. That fact, of course, was an unforeseen development and presents a problem to be considered in uncontrolled, or field, research over a lengthy time span.

Of the seventeen students in the conventional program during the three-year period of the study, only three were available to the writer--the others being out of teaching or out of North Carolina (two refused to take part). There was, of course, no point in random sampling that small number. It represented only a minute "sampling" within itself.

From the twenty-four who started the mini-faculty in Graham and Asheboro, only twenty-two completed it since

two girls obtained medical withdrawals from the university.

Of that twenty-two only seven were available. In one case

a student was located after the deadline for the study.

The writer set February 21st as the cut-off date after which

no one could be added to the list to visit.

Each student teacher and cooperating teacher was visited

and took the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. The writer

also calculated a matrix by the Flanders' System on each.

Of the fifty student teachers who began the total

study during the three years, only ten were available for

the follow-up. That small number severely limits any

interpretation which might logically be made from the data.

Flanders Interaction Analysis

First, it should be acknowledged that a more valid

comparison could be made for two persons with the Flanders

tool if matrices represented the same kind of class with

similar lesson goals. This was field research and the

writer had to use whatever kind of situation existed on

the particular day of her visit. The classes varied

greatly--some were groups of superior high school seniors;

one was of a sixth grade art class; one was comprised of

students' acting out the trial of Joan of Arc; in another

the teacher was going over a test and correcting misconceptions.

For the Flanders' Scale to be used with great accuracy to compare the class climates maintained on two teachers, it should be administered several times in a variety of classes and a synthesis of the group of matrices developed. If one could control the kinds of classes to be used it would be possible to arrive at a more valid comparison.

The Flanders data (see Chapter Five) shows the percentage of teacher and student talk based on total talk. It also shows the ratios of total indirect influence to total direct influence. These figures, plus others calculated for each matrix, enables the researcher to graph the verbal interaction and hence show who is initiating and controlling the verbal behavior. The matrix shows also whether the teacher's responses and elicitations are indirect (i.e. encouraging student expression) or direct (i.e. discouraging student expression).

In the area of teacher talk as a percent of the total talk all of the conventional pairs were within fifteen points of each other and six of the seven in the mini-faculty pairs were just as close. In fact, three of the mini-faculty pairs (MF-7, 13 and 22) were extremely close in percentages. An extreme difference was seen in MF-20. The purposes and

structures of the two classes were so dissimilar that the difference could be attributed to that fact alone.

In the area of student talk all three of the conventional pairs were very similar. In the mini-faculty there were four pairs with marked differences between the former student teacher and the "homebase" teacher (MF-3, 13, 20 and 21). Three pairs were within ten points of each other.

In the area of indirect to direct ratio only one of the three in the conventional pairs was similar. In the mini-faculty only one was similar (MF-7).

The revised indirect to direct ratio shows that there was no pair (in the conventional program) who were quite similar. In the mini-faculty there were two pairs who were very similar (MF-21 and MF-22). MF-21 and her cooperating teacher were both going over and correcting a test; therefore, they used very little direction or criticism. MF-22 and her cooperating teacher were both moving among the students who were working at their seats. Both were answering students' questions.

It is the opinion of the writer that several matrices would have to be made in differing circumstances to establish what could reasonably be called a teacher's "style."

The intent of the teacher controls the type of influences (direct or indirect) which would be appropriate to a given situation. The Flanders' Scale is sometimes erroneously interpreted to make a judgment favoring the indirect (Numbers One through Three) categories and criticizing the use of direct categories (Numbers Six and Seven). Flanders makes no such value judgment. He speaks only of what "mix" is appropriate, given the teacher's goals. The age of the pupils and the content area are also strong contributing factors which would need to be more nearly controlled.

The former student teachers and cooperating teachers were often conducting entirely different types of lessons with quite different pupil groups. Those factors played a part. From this limited data one could not tell how great a part they played. Given the total picture from the tabulation and description for the Flanders' Scale through all the information on the matrix and given also the comparative percentiles from the MTAI the writer can make only a very tentative judgment--a judgment as to whether the former student is, indeed, modeling after the former co-operating teacher. For instance the MF-21 pair had 62% on the MTAI and 70% and 61% on Flanders' teacher talk; 25.8% and 12% on student talk; .84 and .65 on the indirect to

direct ratio; but 2.1 each on the revised indirect to direct. The writer would say that in this particular instance there is some evidence of modeling by a pair in the innovative program.

A look at the Conventional-2 pair shows somewhat dissimilar MTAI percentiles of 67% and 72%, 47% and 62.5% on teacher talk in the Flanders system, 33.8% and 30.5% on student talk in the Flanders, _very_ dissimilar indirect to direct ratios of .528 and 1.05 and revised indirect to direct ratios of .662 and 2.441! In that case a conventional pair shows no evidence of modeling.

The writer's assumption had been that there would be more modeling or emulation from the conventional pairs and less from the mini-faculty pairs. The limited evidence here does not uphold that view. Because of the previously-mentioned limitations for this follow-up and in light of the overwhelming opinions from the literature search, the writer does not discard the assumption. Instead, it is recommended that further testing with a larger sample and in more similar (possibly controlled) circumstances be conducted. A longitudinal study following several hundred pairs of teachers might give an acceptable answer. Tentatively, the writer must say that her assumption was not

borne out by the data gathered in her follow-up. It will
be interesting to see the results of such research done
with pairs of teachers who participate in programs based
on the writer's model.

Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory

The fact that so few people were available for the
follow-up raises questions that, perhaps, need further study.
What is the "drop out" rate for teachers? What kind of
teachers leave the profession? What kind of preparation
did they have? What kind of preparation seems to encourage
professional dedication over time?

The limited number in the study severely limits any
conclusions which may be drawn from the test data. Another
caution is that there seems to be a bias in the inventory
in favor of those with elementary training and/or experience.

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory yields a
percentile rank when a teacher's raw score is compared with
the appropriate norms. If the writer's assumption were
correct there would be more similarity between the percen-
tiles of the pairs in the conventional program than of the
pairs in the mini-faculty (where variety and more college
instruction were provided).

Contrary to that assumption three pairs of the MF group are markedly similar (MF-13, 20 and 21). The writer conjectures that that fact might be the result of the very limited exposure either of the three had with other teachers due to the limits imposed on their experiences by a self-evaluation study being conducted in the school. These three student teachers stated in their opinionaire that they worked so exclusively with one teacher that they considered themselves assigned to one teacher only. In fact, MF-13 and 21 had the same cooperating teacher who was reluctant to share "her" student teacher. All three girls spent their planning and conferring time with that one teacher when they were not with the college supervisor. There was little opportunity for another teacher to influence either of them.

In four of the seven students from an innovative program there was more than a ten percentile differential. In one (MF-23) there was more than a twenty percentile differential. In one (MF-3) there was more than a forty percentile differential. In one (MF-7) there was more than a seventy percentile differential. Those data would support the writer's assumption.

On the other hand, three subjects (MF-13, 20 and 21) had a two or fewer percentile differential. Those three were usually similar--probably being closer than the same person might score on two consecutive testings or on two forms of the test.

A look at the three in the conventional program reveals only one out of the three to be relatively similar (Conventional-2), with 67% and 72%, a five percentile differential.

On the other hand, Conventional-5 and 7 show differentials (percentiles) of over fifty and twenty respectively. There were not the similarities for the conventional pairs which were predicted by the writer's assumption.

The sample is far too small to be conclusive and the writer reserves judgment for a later and more thorough testing of the assumption before abandoning the idea. Experience, logic and a weight of literature evidence still support the contention that there is more opportunity for modeling in a conventional (one-to-one) relationship than in a variety of experiences with different teachers. It would seem that different instruments and a different design might profitably be used for another look at the question.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Though the writer did not find the Flanders system suitable for a pre-test, it would seem that the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory could have been used as a pre-test for some indication of a degree of similarity or difference present in the pairs of teachers before the student teaching experience. If the primary aim of the research had been the testing of the assumptions such a design would have been mandatory. Perhaps another instrument would lend itself more easily to a pre- and post-test situation in future replication of the study.

The small number of subjects available for the study certainly indicates an area that needs further study. The writer came upon frequent reference in the literature to the fact that professional education is not adequately financed in some universities because graduates from the education departments do <u>not</u> continue to serve society in that capacity. There needs to be a systematic attempt to educate and <u>retain</u> professionals with a career dedication to teaching. Perhaps there is a key to the "dropout rate" to be found in the preparation such graduates receive. The entire burden can <u>not</u> be placed on females leaving to have

children as some have claimed. The two males in the program
were no longer teachers, one having been drafted and the
other having entered upon another career.

Given the loose design of the follow-up, the writer
can only say it neither supports nor strongly denies the
assumption it was to test. In short, it did not move the
state of the knowledge on the subject very far ahead.

It is the hope of the writer that future use of the
model will enable the situations tested to be more nearly
controlled. If a program is designed to supply variety,
for instance, it should not be so tied to the old methods
as to hinder variety being achieved. Such was the case in
the writer's experiences with the established systems within
which she worked. If the model is studied and adopted by
a school of education and a public school system there would
have to be considerable revision in the attitudes of all
persons toward the methods and roles which are appropriate
in student teaching.

The first use of the model will probably take place
as part of the conventional education curriculum where
student teaching is only "one massive dose at the end."
The writer submits the model as a means for bridging the
gap from the conventional to the "ideal" as presented

earlier in this chapter. Teacher education, as a continuum from the freshman year throughout the career, seems to be coming in for more and more study. Several of the M-STEP programs have elements of the "ideal." Several schools of education are attempting modifications of Dr. Conant's proposals. The climate for change seems to be present. This study seeks to be a stimulus for a phase of that change.

Though desiring change, the writer cautions against injudicious moves in any direction without thorough study of some basic questions that remain largely unanswered in teacher education. Some of those questions are:

1) Does clinical experience make a significant difference in teacher education?

2) If so, when should it come?

3) How should it be organized and focused?

4) Where should it take place?

5) What are the key roles involved?

6) How are they best performed? By whom?

7) What factors operating in the student teacher should be considered for admission policies?

8) On what basis should the schools be selected if they are to be used for the laboratory?

9) What is the proper "mix" of college and public school influence during the laboratory or clinical study?

10) What is gained with each in-put? What is lost?

11) On what basis should "homebase" teachers be selected? Who should select them?

12) What factors make them successful in inducting new professionals?

13) What organizational pattern more surely stimulates a study and analysis of teaching?

14) Would that better prepare teachers than a simple apprenticeship?

15) What kind of person is most successful (based on the "product") as the college supervisor?

16) What should his role be?

17) How can his efforts best be orchestrated with those of the public school personnel?

18) How can one measure more accurately success or failure in the "product", the future teacher?

19) What is the role of the state departments of public instruction to be?

Obviously there are still many questions present in teacher education and conversely very few answers. One cannot fold one's hands and wait for sophisticated theories and tools before one acts. One must begin with philosophy because basic to all the questions raised above is the foundation of knowledge or philosophy.

The philosophy of teacher education is _not_ in its infancy; it has not yet been born! Educators must systematically search for values, meanings and beliefs before they

can systematize their research moving toward the goals and
definitions set by the philosophers. In the meantime
action must go on, but random action unfounded on reasoned
philosophy can be futile, counter productive, even dangerous.
Educators must teach future teachers somewhere, some way,
but they are asking for guidance from their philosophers
so that their efforts may build a systematic fabric or
"body" of knowledge.

This study is one small step in projecting <u>one</u>
suggestion as to what teacher education should be. It
looked at what teacher education could do with the clinical
phase and projected a design which it recommends for trial.

Chapter VII

A SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to develop a model
for a student teaching program. Two values to be em-
phasized in the model were a variety of experiences and
more college instruction during student teaching. The
reasoning used to support those values was based on the
contention that in most conventional, one-to-one, student
teaching programs, student teachers tend to model after
their cooperating teachers because they have few in-
fluential alternatives to study and learn from.

A few research studies and abundant opinions were
found in the literature to support the writer's contention.
Next, it was reasoned that if a one-to-one relationship
encouraged modeling (blind emulation) then experiences
with a variety of teachers in a variety of situations would
tend to diminish such a tendency.

Much of the literature research and several years
of experience--as an education student, a public school
cooperating teacher and a supervisor of student teachers--
indicated that cooperating teachers may have very powerful

340

influence during student teaching because the schools of education exert so little influence at that time.

Holding the philosophy that clinical experiences in teacher education should be a genuine analysis of teaching rather than an apprenticeship for teaching, the writer sought to design a model which would allow student teaching to be broadly conceived. There was an aim for a model which would allow for a genuine study of teaching in the light of the best educational theory, which would allow for a variety of experience, and which would provide for more college instruction during student teaching. The writer believes that the model presented herein is such a design.

The method used to construct the model was to build it from experiences which actually developed during prototype studies deliberately seeking variety and more college instruction. Those experiences were recorded in daily logs kept during the writer's participant observation of the prototype student teaching programs.

The writer searched the literature for innovations in laboratory experiences, which were currently being recommended. It was decided to incorporate the ideas that seemed appropriate to the university which was involved in

the study, focusing them around the central concept of a
clinical professor. At the time Dr. James Conant and
others were writing extensively in favor of such a pro-
gram, and Northwestern University was implementing the
clinical professorship in an experimental program.

The writer designed an original middle-range model
to be implemented in Greensboro, North Carolina, in the Fall
of 1968. The program centered on a university person who
taught a class every day in a public school, taught college
classes and also supervised the student teachers in that
school. The writer had a joint appointment with the
Greensboro City Schools and The University of North Caro-
lina at Greensboro.

During that school year the writer taught a world
history class at Ben L. Smith High School and assisted the
principal in curriculum matters. Nine student teachers were
assigned to the writer and their work with various public
school teachers was orchestrated by her. The writer
was also in daily contact with the students for conferences,
for seminars and for demonstration classes in her world
history class.

The students were deliberately given experiences
with different teachers, different content areas, different

student types, and different phases of the total school system. They worked with special education students and the gifted, with a humanities team as well as self-contained history and geography classes. They participated, as well as observed, in a junior high school if they were assigned primarily to a senior high school and vice versa.

The evaluation by the participants showed the program to be highly regarded. The public school representatives suggested that one modification be made for the next year. They felt that the clinical professor could serve the best interests of the public schools by not teaching and by giving her time to working directly with the curriculum and instructional issues in the pair of schools. Dr. Kenneth Newbold labeled the amended program a mini-faculty.

The writer incorporated the suggestions that grew out of the evaluation of the Ben L. Smith program into a new interim or middle-range design which she titled a mini-faculty. Because of personnel changes in Greensboro, the program was not put into effect in the Fall of 1969. In the Spring of 1970 a decision was made to try the new program in Asheboro, North Carolina.

Asheboro did not seek the program and had no chance to influence the planning for it. The model of the mini-faculty was simply imposed on an already fixed student teaching program. Because the decision allowing the writer to use Asheboro came very late, there was not enough lead-time to allow the classroom teachers and principals to plan with the writer for the implementation, hence there was hostility and reluctance from the first in one school. That fact is borne out in the opinionaires returned by the faculty of that school.

The staff allowed all the innovation possible within the limits of existing expectations regarding the one-to-one relationship. Some student teachers had considerable variety in Asheboro; others had very little. All of them had, however, almost daily contact with the writer who again supervised the program and kept participant observation logs.

In Asheboro it was learned that such a program could be used even within the framework of a closely structured school organization. It was learned, also, that certain scheduling matters needed to be modified. Above all it was learned that lead-time for extensive orientation and planning with the classroom teachers was vital. The participants (administrators, teachers and student teachers) made

valuable suggestions for future modification in their
opinionaires.

Next, the mini-faculty was tried in the Graham,
North Carolina, Middle School and High School in the 1970-71
school year. The writer supervised a group of student
teachers from different disciplines and arranged their work
with a variety of teachers. Almost daily seminars and con-
ferences were held with the student teachers. In those
sessions there was an attempt made to analyze the reality
of the classroom and school by means of different tools
and theories learned from educational research. There
was an opportunity for the students to work with different
grade levels, content, types of students and teachers. The
college supervisor (the writer), the student teachers and
the classroom teachers composed teams that worked as col-
leagues in planning, evaluating and teaching the public
school pupils.

From the logs kept in all three programs, from the
opinionaire results, from conferences and interviews, and
from the critical incident journals which all student
teachers kept, the writer gleaned the experiences from which
to build the model or design which is proposed here.

Discrete experiences were gleaned from the logs and categorized as fostering variety or hindering it, fostering more college instruction or hindering it. Those discrete experiences were then subjected to further content analysis and classes of experiences were combined to eliminate overlapping and duplication. They were judged to be mutually exclusive by the writer. The aforementioned steps were taken for each of the thirty-one student teachers to complete the innovative programs. The writer thus compiled such an experience list for each student teacher.

Next, the writer synthesized the experiences into one composite list of classes of experiences which could subsume all the discrete experiences of all the student teachers. That list was then submitted to a series of questions whereby the writer tried to list all the factors which she judged to be operating to cause or allow a certain experience. This step yielded a lengthy list for each program.

The writer then abstracted from the list of factors the essential elements which could be seen to be operating. It was found that certain essential elements could cause or allow both the fostering and hindering experiences. It was found, too, that generally the same essential elements were

present in each of the three studies. From those the writer built the design or model. The opinions and recommendations were used as a guide in evaluating the desirability of a given experience.

The writer attempted to build a model which could be used in the present curriculum circumstances that exist in most schools of education and public schools. It is a skeleton on which specific programs could be built to meet the conditions of each unique situation. The model, also, lends itself to projecting toward the "ideal" in student teaching as recommended by the writer.

Certain strong points of the conventional or one-to-one program were observed and utilized by the writer also. Concurrent with the innovative programs she also supervised seventeen student teachers in a conventional experience. Opinions and recommendations were sought from these additional groups and are presented in the appendices.

Three prototype studies had been designed and implemented, the participant observation had taken place, the logs had been subjected to content analysis, the discrete experiences had been reduced to essential elements and the model had been designed--in outline and graphic form. The writer next sought to test one of the basic assumptions of her philosophy.

Did variety and more college instruction make modeling less likely to occur? Neither of the three programs was controlled to the degree that the model called for, but it was decided to see what two objective instruments would show about the degree of similarity between pairs of student teachers and cooperating teachers after the student began to teach as a professional.

The two instruments used were the Flanders Interaction Analysis System and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. The Flanders System would yield a matrix whereby verbal interaction in the two classrooms could be compared. The Minnesota Inventory would yield percentiles whereby attitudes could be compared when based on appropriate norms. It was decided to randomly sample those pairs the student teacher of which would be teaching in North Carolina in the Fall and Spring of 1971-72.

Completely to the surprise of the writer, who had not foreseen the development, there were available none of the participants from the clinical professor study at Smith, only three from the conventional program, and only seven from the mini-faculty programs. No random sampling was made. The ten pairs of subjects were visited and the instruments administered. The results were, of course, so limited

as to be inconclusive. They did <u>not</u> give the writer much evidence to support the contention and <u>did</u> give considerable evidence to refute it. The writer made recommendations concerning that point and several others at issue in the previous chapter.

The study ended on the note that the model presented here is commended as a suitable vehicle for the testing of these and other questions which the writer raises concerning the clinical experience phase of teacher education.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BOOKS

Adams, Harold P., and Dickey, Frank. Basic Principles of
    Student Teaching. New York: The American Book Co.,
    1956.

Allen, James, Jr. (President of the University and
    Commissioner of Education). The Interim Report of the
    Five College Project. Albany: New York State Education
    Department, Division of Teacher Education and
    Certification, and The University of the State of New
    York, 1967.

Amidon, Edmund, and Hunter, Elizabeth. Improving Teaching:
    The Analyses of Classroom Verbal Interaction.
    New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.

Amidon, Edmund, and Hough, John B. (eds.). Interaction
    Analysis: Theory, Research and Application. Reading,
    Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1967.

Amidon, Edmund, and Flanders, Ned A. The Role of the Teacher
    in the Classroom: A Manual for Understanding and
    Improving Teachers' Classroom Behavior. Minneapolis:
    Paul A. Amidon and Associates, 1963.

Andrews, L. O. Student Teaching. New York: Center for
    Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
    A Decade of Thought on Teacher Education: The Charles
    W. Hunt Lectures. Washington, D. C.: The Association,
    1969.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
    Subcommittee in School-College Relationships in
    Teacher Education of the Committee on Studies.
    Cooperative Structures in School-College Relationships
    for Teacher Education. Washington, D. C.: The
    Association, 1965.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
    Professional Teacher Education II: A Programmed
    Design. Washington, D. C.: Teacher Education and
    Media Project. The Association, 1968.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
    Yearbook. Vols. I-IV. Washington, D. C.: The
    National Education Association, 1948-1950.

Association for Student Teaching. Achieving Quality in
    Off-Campus Professional Laboratory Experiences.
    Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1957.

Association for Student Teaching. Concern for the
    Individual in Student Teaching. Forty-second
    Yearbook. Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association,
    1963.

Association for Student Teaching. Practicing Democracy
    in Teacher Education. Twenty-fifth Yearbook,
    1945-1946. Lockhaven, Pa.: The Association, 1946.

Association for Student Teaching. Professional Growth
    Inservice of the Supervising Teacher. Forty-fifth
    Yearbook. Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1964.

Association for Student Teaching. Prospective Teachers
    Learn from Experiences with Children and Youth.
    Professional Bulletin Number Seven. Cedar Falls,
    Iowa: The Association, 1957

Association for Student Teaching. The Supervising Teacher.
    Thirty-eighth Yearbook. Cedar Falls, Iowa: The
    Association, 1959.

Association for Student Teaching. Theoretical Bases for
    Professional Laboratory Experiences in Teacher
    Education. Forty-fourth Yearbook. Dubuque, Iowa:
    Wm. C. Brown Co., Inc. for The Association, 1965.

Association for Student Teaching. Yearbook. Lock Haven,
    Pa.: The Association, 1951-1956.

Batchelder, Howard T., Lawrence, Richard E., and Myers,
    George R. A Guide to Planning for Off-Campus Student
    Teaching. Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for
    Student Teaching, 1959.

Bennie, William A. Cooperation for Better Teaching.
    Minneapolis: The Burgess Publishing Co., 1966.

Biddle, Bruce, and Ellena, William J. (eds.). Contemporary
    Research on Teacher Effectiveness. New York: Holt,
    Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Bolster, Arthur S. Jr. The Clinical Professorship: An
    Institutional View. Mimeographed Essay. Speech
    presented at a Conference at Northwestern University
    in October, 1966.

Bolster, Arthur S. Jr. See Letter from, 1967.

Barrowman, Merle (ed.). Teacher Education in America:
    A Documentary History. New York: Teachers College
    Press of Columbia University, 1965.

Bosley, Howard E. (dir.). Teacher Education in Transition,
    Vol. I: An Experiment in Change. Baltimore: Multi-
    State Teacher Education Project, 1969.

Bosley, Howard E. (ed.). Teacher Education in Transition,
    Vol. II: Emerging Roles and Responsibilities.
    Baltimore: Multi-State Teacher Education Project,
    1969.

Bottrell, Harold E. (ed.). Introduction to Education:
    Understanding Teaching Through Developmental
    Laboratory Experiences. The Stockpole Social Science
    Series. Harrisburg, Pa.: The Stockpole Co., 1955.

Brauner, Charles. American Educational Theory. Englewood
    Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

Brown, Thomas J. Student Teaching in a Secondary School
    and Guiding a Student Teacher: A Removable Manual.
    New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960.

Bruner, Jerome S. Toward a Theory of Instruction.
    Cambridge, Mass.: Belknap Press of Harvard University
    Press, 1966.

Bruno, Louis. <u>Statement of Standards for Preparation of School Professional Personnel Leading to Certification</u>. Olympia, Wash.: Washington State Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, April, 1968.

Buros, Oscar Krisen, Walter W. Cook, Carrol H. Leeds, and Robert Callis. <u>The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook</u>. <u>Item 699</u>. Highland Park, N. J.: The Gryphan Press, 1965.

Cartwright, William H., and Hamilton, William B. (eds.). <u>The Duke University Centennial Conference</u>. Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1953.

Clark, C. M. (ed.). <u>The Outlook in Student Teaching</u>. Fortieth Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching. Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association, 1961.

Combs, Arthur W. <u>The Professional Education of Teachers</u>. Boston; Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965.

Conant, James B. <u>The Education of American Teachers</u>. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963.

Connecticut Commission for Higher Education. <u>Teacher Education in Connecticut and Teacher Education: An Urgent Matter</u>. Hartford: The Academy for Educational Development, Inc., 1967.

Cook, W. W., and Leeds, C. H. <u>The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory Manual</u>. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1951.

Corrigon, Dean. (ed.). <u>The Study of Teaching</u>. Washington, D. C.: The Association for Student Teaching, 1967.

Cronback, Lee J., and Gleser, Golding C. <u>Psychological Tests and Personnel Decisions</u>. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1957.

Crow, Lester D. <u>The Student Teacher in the Secondary School</u>. New York: D. McKay Co., 1964.

Cyphert, Frederick, and Spaight, Ernest. _An Analysis and Projection of Research in Teacher Education._ Cooperative Research Project Number F-15. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1964.

Davies, Don and Amershek, Kathleen. "Teacher Education: Student Teaching," _Encyclopedia of Educational Research._ Fourth Edition. Robert L. Ebel, Editor. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1969.

Denemark, G. W. (ed.). _Criteria for Curriculum Decisions in Teacher Education._ Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1964.

Dewey, John. _The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers_, Third Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Scientific Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1904 (reprinted in Barrowman, Merle, _Teacher Education in America_).

Dussault, Gilles. _A Theory of Supervision in Teacher Education._ New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College. Columbia University, 1970.

Edelfelt, Roy A. (ed.). _The Role of the State Educational Agency in the Development of Innovative Programs in Student Teaching._ Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1969.

Edwards, Helen E. _Building Good Relationships: A Major Role of the College Supervisor._ Professional Service Bulletin Number Sixteen. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., Inc., for the Association for Student Teaching, 1961.

Elam, Stanley. (ed.). _Improving Teacher Education in the United States._ Bloomington, Ill.: Phi Delta Kappa, 1967.

Fenton, Edwin. _The New Social Studies._ New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

Festinger, Leon, Rucker, H. W., and Schacter, S. When Prophecy Fails. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956.

Fezereisen, Katheryn. Guiding Student Teaching Experiences. Lock Haven, N. Y.: The Association for Student Teaching, 1952.

Flanders, Ned A. Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitude and Achievement: Studies in Interaction Analysis, United States Office of Education Cooperative Research Project Number 397. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota, College of Education, November 30, 1960.

Flowers, John G. School and Community Laboratory Experiences. Oneonta, N. Y.: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948.

Gage, N. L. (ed.). Handbook of Research on Teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.

Greene, Gwynn. Problem Situations in Student Teaching. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

Griffiths, Daniel E. (ed.). Behavioral Sciences and Educational Administration. Sixty-third Yearbook of The National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.

Gruhn, William T. Student Teaching in the Secondary School. New York: Ronald Press, 1954.

Haines, Alezne C. Concern for the Individual in Student Teaching. Forty-second Yearbook of The Association for Student Teaching. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., Inc., 1963.

Haines, Alezne C. Guiding the Student Teaching Process. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963.

Halpin, Andrew. Theory and Research in Administration. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963.

Hanna, Genova. Studies in Professional Laboratory
    Experiences in Teacher Education. Research Abstract
    Bulletin Number 3. Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association
    for Student Teaching, 1959.

Hoskew, O. D. The Education Clinic. Washington, D. C.:
    The American Council on Cooperation in Teacher
    Education, 1949.

Hazard, William R. (ed.). The Clinical Professorship in
    Teacher Education. A Report of the Conference at
    Northwestern University, October, 1966. Evanston,
    Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1967.

Hazard, William R. (ed.). The Tutorial and Clinical
    Program of Teacher Education. Evanston, Ill.:
    Northwestern University Press, 1967.

Hernsing, Esther D. (ed.). Realignments for Teacher
    Education: Twenty-third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.:
    American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education,
    1970.

Hoddenfield, G. K., and Stinnett, T. M. The Education of
    Teachers. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall,
    1961.

Honizman, R. K. Synopsis of Innovations and Revisions of
    the Flanders System of Interaction Analysis.
    Philadelphia: Temple University, 1964.

Hunter, Elizabeth. The Cooperating Teacher at Work:
    Case Studies of Critical Incidents. New York:
    Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia
    University, 1962.

Iannaccone, Lawrence, and Button, H. Warren. Functions of
    Student Teaching. Department of Health, Education and
    Welfare Project Number 1026. Washington, D. C.:
    United States Printing Office, 1964

Iannie, Frances A. J. Research and Professional Experiences
    in Teacher Education. Bulletin No. 20. Cedar Falls,
    Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1963.

Jahoda, Marie, Deutsch, Morton, and Cook, Stuart W. (eds.).
    Research Methods in the Social Sciences, Vol. II.
    New York: Dryden Press, 1951.

Jeep, Henry A. Helping A Student Teacher Assume
    Responsibility for His Own Growth. Cedar Falls, Iowa:
    The Association for Student Teaching, 1956.

Johnson, James A. A National Survey of Student Teaching
    Programs. U. S. Department of Health, Education and
    Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Research
    Project No. 6-8182. Grant No. OEG 3-7-068182-2635.
    Baltimore, Md.: Multi-State Teacher Education Project,
    1968.

Jongmans, D. G., and Gutkind, P. C. W. (eds.).
    Anthropologists in the Field. New York: Humanities
    Press, Publishers, 1967.

Joyce, Bruce R., and Harootunian, Berj. The Structure of
    Teaching. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc.,
    1967.

Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavior Research.
    New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Kluckhohn, Clyde, and Angeli, Robert. The Use of Personal
    Documents in History, Anthropology and Sociology.
    New York: Social Science Research Council, 1945.

Kneller, George F. Introduction to the Philosophy of
    Education. Second Edition. New York: John Wiley &
    Sons, Inc., 1964.

Koerner, James D. The Miseducation of American Teachers.
    Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963.

Krumbein, Eliezer. (ed.). Innovations in Teacher Education.
    Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1965.

La Grove, Herbert. A Proposal for the Revision of the
    Pre-service Professional Component of a Program of
    Teacher Education. Washington, D. C.: Teacher
    Education and Media Project of The American Association
    of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1964.

Lieberman, Myron. Education as a Profession. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956.

Lindsey, Margaret and Associates. Inquiry into Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories. New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1969.

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

Lindzey, Gardner, and Aronson, Elliot. The Handbook of Social Psychology. Second Edition. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1968.

Lucio, William. (ed.). Supervision: Perspectives and Prospectives. Washington, D. C.: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1967.

Mallia, Elizabeth Maccia. Model in Theorizing and Research. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Ohio State University, 1965.

McGeach, Dorothy. Direct Experiences in Teacher Education: A Story of Three Programs. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

McGeothlin, William J. Patterns for Professional Education. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1960.

McGrath, Earl J., and Russell, Charles H. Are School Teachers Illiberally Educated? New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961.

McGrath, G. D., Jelinsk, James J., and Wachner, Raymond E. Educational Research Methods. New York: The Ronald Press, 1963.

McGuire, Vincent, et al. Your Student Teaching in the Secondary School. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959.

Mead, Arthur R. Supervised Student-Teaching. Richmond:
    Johnson Publishing Co., 1938.

Michaelis, John U. "Teacher Education: Student Teaching
    and Internship," Encyclopedia of Educational Research.
    Third Edition. Chester W. Harris, Editor. New York:
    The Macmillan Co., 1960.

Miller, Leon. (ed.). Research on Student Teaching,
    1950-1965. Research Bulletin No. 5, Cedar Falls,
    Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1965.

Milner, Ernest. You and Your Student Teacher. New York:
    Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia
    University, 1954.

Multi-State Teacher Education Project. M-STEP Today: An
    Interim Report of Project Activity. Baltimore, Md.:
    The M-STEP Project, 1965.

Nash, Curtis, and Lofthouse, Yvonne. New Developments,
    Research and Experimentation in Professional
    Laboratory Experiences. Professional Series, Bulletin
    Number Twenty-two of The Association for Student
    Teaching. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., Inc.,
    for The Association, 1964.

Nash, Curtis, and Alterman, Rolland. Research and
    Professional Experiences in Teacher Education.
    Professional Series Bulletin Number Twenty.
    Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student
    Teaching, 1962.

National Council on Accreditation of Teacher Education.
    Standards Guide. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1957.

National Education Association. Changes in Teacher
    Education: An Appraisal. Report of the Columbus
    Conference, National Commission on Teacher Education
    and Professional Standards. Washington, D. C.: The
    Association, 1963.

National Education Association. A New Order in Student
Teaching. Washington, D. C.: National Commission
on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of
NEA, 1967.

National Education Association. Professional Imperatives:
Expertness and Self-Determination. Report of the Fort
Collins Conference on Teacher Education and Professional
Standards. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1962.

National Education Association. The Real World of the
Beginning Teacher. Report of the Nineteenth National
Teacher Education and Professional Standards Conference.
Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1966.

National Education Association. The Teacher and His Staff:
Differentiating Teaching Roles. Washington, D. C.:
The Association, 1969.

National Education Association. Joint Commission on State
Responsibility for Student Teaching. Who's in Charge
Here? Fixing Responsibilities for Student Teaching:
A Discussion Paper. Washington, D. C.: National
Commission on Teacher Education and Professional
Standards of NEA, 1966.

National Society for the Study of Education. Dynamics of
Instructional Groups. Fifty-ninth Yearbook, Part II.
Chicago: University of Chicago Press for the Society,
1960.

Nesrold, Alice G., and Hogense, Hazel L. Helping Student
Teachers Through Conferences. Lock Haven, Pa.:
Association for Student Teaching, 1954.

Pelto, Pertti J. The Study of Anthropology. Columbus,
Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965.

Perrodin, Alex (ed.). The Student Teacher's Reader.
Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1966.

Pfeiffer, Robert. (Chairman). The College Supervisor:
Conflict and Challenge. Forty-third Yearbook of The
Association for Student Teaching. Cedar Falls, Iowa:
The Association, 1964.

Pfeiffer, Robert. Working with Student Teachers. Pro-
    fessional Series Bulletin Number Four. East Lansing,
    Mich.: The Association for Student Teaching, 1955.

Raths, James, Poncella, John P., and Van Ness, James. (eds.).
    Studying Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-
    Hall, Inc., 1971.

Sarason, S. B., Davidson, K., and Blatt, B. The Preparation
    of Teachers. New York: Wiley Press, 1962.

Shunk, Bernadine. The Outlook in Student Teaching.
    Forty-first Yearbook. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co.,
    Inc. for The Association for Student Teaching, 1962.

Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classroom. New York:
    Random House, 1970.

Simon, Anita, and Boyer, E. Gil. Mirrors of Behavior.
    Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1967.

Smith, E. Brooks, et. al. Partnership in Teacher Education.
    Washington, D. C.: The Association of Colleges for
    Teacher Education and The Association for Student
    Teaching, 1966.

Smith, E. Brooks, and Johnson, Patrick (eds.). School-College
    Relationships in Teacher Education: A Report of a
    National Survey of Cooperative Ventures. Washington,
    D. C.: The American Association of Colleges for
    Teacher Education, 1964.

Stabler, Ernest. The Education of the Secondary School
    Teacher. Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University
    Press, 1962.

Steeves, Frank L. Issues in Student Teaching: A Casebook
    with Related Problems in Teacher Education. New York:
    The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1963.

Stiles, Lindley J. et. al. Teacher Education in The United
    States. New York: The Ronald Press, 1960.

Stradley, William E. Supervising Student Teachers.
     Danville, Ill.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers,
     Inc., 1968.

Stratemeyer, Florence B., and Lindsey, Margaret. Working
     with Student Teachers. New York: Bureau of
     Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University,
     1958.

Tanruther, Edgar M. Clinical Experiences in Teaching for
     the Student Teacher and Intern. New York: Dodd, Mead
     and Co., 1968.

Taylor, Bob L. (ed.). Mental Health and Teacher Education.
     Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. for The Association
     for Student Teaching, 1967.

Verdiun, John R. (ed.). Conceptual Models in Teacher
     Education. Washington, D. C.: The American Association
     of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1967.

Wandt, Edwin. (ed.). A Cross Section of Educational
     Research. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1965.

Weiss, Robert M. The Conant Controversy in Teacher
     Education. New York: Random House, 1969.

Wise, John E. (S. J.), Nordberg, Robert B., and Reitz,
     Donald J. Method of Research in Education. Boston:
     D. C. Heath and Co., 1967.

Woodring, Paul. New Directions in Teacher Education: An
     Interim Report. New York: The Fund for the Advancement
     of Education, 1957.

Woodruff, Asahel D. Student Teaching Today. Study Series
     Number Five of The American Association of Colleges
     for Teacher Education. Washington, D. C.: The
     Association, 1960.

Wright, Muriel E., and Proctor, Virginia H. Systematic
     Observation of Verbal Interaction as a Method of
     Comparing Mathematics Lessons. United States Office
     of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 816.
     St. Louis: Washington University, 1961.

Young, David B. The Analysis and Modification of Teaching
    Behavior Using Interaction Analysis, Micro-teaching and
    Video-tape Feedback. A paper presented to the National
    Association of Secondary School Principals Fifty-second
    Convention. Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1968.

Zirbes, Laura. Encouraging Creativity in Student Teaching.
    Professional Bulletin Number Six. Dubuque, Iowa:
    Wm. C. Brown Co. for The Association for Student
    Teaching, 1958.

                        PERIODICALS

Aden, Robert. "An Experiment in Training Social Studies
    Teachers at North Texas State University." Peabody
    Journal of Education, 39: 341-345, 1962.

Amidon, Edmund, and Hunter, Elizabeth. "Direct Experiences
    in Teacher Education: Innovations and Experimentation,"
    The Journal of Teacher Education, 17: 329-331, Fall,
    1966.

Babchuk, Nicholas. "The Role of The Researcher as
    Participant Observer and Participant as Observer in
    the Field Situation," Human Organization, 21 (Number 3):
    225-228, Fall, 1962.

Barnes, Donald L. "Changing Emphasis in Teacher Education,"
    The Journal of Higher Education, 11: 343-344,
    September, 1960.

Barr, A. S. "The Assessment of the Teacher's Personality,"
    School Review, 68: 400-408, Winter, 1960.

Becker, H. S. "Problems of Inference and Proof in Participant
    Observation," American Sociological Review, 23:
    653-660, 1958.

Becker, H. S., and Geer, Blanche. "Participant Observer and
    Interviewing: A Comparison," Human Organization,
    16 (Number 3): 28-32, Fall, 1957.

Bennie, William A. "Teacher Education and the Student Teaching Program," American School Board Journal, 144: 18, April, 1962.

Bradley, R. C. "Clarifying the Supervising Teacher's Role," Teachers College Journal, 38: 92-94, December, 1966.

Braun, Gertrude. "Cooperative Teacher Education Programs," Teacher Education Quarterly, 17: 15-18, Fall, 1959.

Brim, B. J. "Attitude Changes in Teacher Education Students," Journal of Educational Research, 59: 441-445, July, 1966.

Campbell, Donald E. "Dimensional Attitude Changes of Student Teachers," Journal of Educational Research, 6: 160-162, December, 1967.

Car, Alden J. "Classroom Paradox," Journal of Teacher Education, 13: 165-168, June, 1962.

Chase, Frances S. "Teacher Education for the Next Decade," School and Society, 92: 140-142, March 21, 1964.

Cook, Walter W., and Leeds, C. H. "Measuring the Teaching Personality," Educational and Psychological Measurement, (No. 3), 7: 409, 1947.

Cox, Don. "Initiating a Program of Pre-Student Teaching Laboratory Experiences," The Journal of Teacher Education, 9: 159-161, June, 1958.

Della Piona, G. M., and Gage, N. L. "Pupil Values and the Validity of the MTAI," Journal of Educational Psychology, 46: 167-178, June, 1955.

Del Popalo, Joseph A., "Experiences a Student Teacher Should Have," Journal of Teacher Education, 11: 75-78, March, 1960.

Fitzpatrick, William J. "The Battle over Student Teaching," School and Society, 88: 50-51, January, 1960.

Flanders, Ned A. "Intent, Action and Feedback: A
     Preparation for Teaching," Journal of Teacher
     Education, 14: 251-260, September, 1963.

Flanders, Ned A. "Interaction Analysis: A technique
     for Quantifying Teacher Influence," Paper Presented
     at The American Educational Research Association
     Conference, February, 1961. (Repeated and heard by
     the writer Fall of 1967 at University of North Caro-
     line at Chapel Hill).

Flanders, Ned A. "Using Interaction Analysis in the
     Inservice Training of Teachers," Journal of
     Experimental Education, 31: 313-316, September, 1963.

Gold, Raymond L. "Roles in Sociological Field Observations,"
     Social Forces, 363 (Number 3): 217-222, March, 1958.

Goodlad, John T. "An Analysis of Professional Laboratory
     Experiences in the Education of Teachers," Journal
     of Teacher Education, 16: 263, September, 1965.

Grayson, William H., Jr. "Student Teaching: Increasing
     Responsibility," High Points, 44: 28-32, June, 1962.

Grey, Loren, and Greenblatt, Edward L. "An Experiment in
     Team Supervision," Journal of Teacher Education,
     14: 154-162, June, 1963.

Haines, Allyne Clayton. "Role Dilemmas in Student Teaching,"
     Journal of Teacher Education, 8: 365-368, December, 1957.

Hoy, Wayne K. "Organizational Socialization: The Student
     Teacher and Pupil Control Idealogy," Journal of
     Educational Research, 61: 153-155, December, 1967.

Hunt, David E., and Joyce, Bruce R. "Teacher Trainee
     Personality and Initial Teaching Style," American
     Educational Research Journal, 4: 253-259, May, 1967.

Inlow, Gail M. "A Comparative Study of Student Teaching
     Practices in Thirty-eight Midwestern Institutions,"
     Journal of Experimental Education, 28: 337-349,
     June, 1960.

Kingsley, Margaret. "Helping the Student Teacher Become a Teacher," Educational Leadership, 14 (No. 3): 143-146, December, 1956.

Kluckhohn, Florence R. "The Participant Observer Technique in Small Communities," American Journal of Sociology, 46: 331-343, November, 1940.

Kropp, Russell P., and Anderson, John E., Jr. "Teacher Roles Before and After Internship," Journal of Educational Research, 56: 366-369, March, 1963.

Lantz, Donald L. "Changes in Student Teachers' Concepts of Self and Others," Journal of Teacher Education, 15: 200-203, June, 1964.

Levina, Madeline G. "Extending Laboratory Experiences: Part II," The Journal of Teacher Education, 12: 29-35, March, 1961.

Lindsey, Margaret. "The Teaching Team: Student Teacher and Supervising Teacher," Teachers College Journal, 38: 41-45, November, 1966.

Mead, A. R. "A Symposium on Teacher Education," Journal of Teacher Education, 14: 37, March, 1963.

McAuley, J. D. "How Much Influence Has a Cooperating Teacher?" Journal of Teacher Education, 11: 79-83, March, 1960.

Medley, D. M., and Mitzel, H. E. "A Technique for Measuring Classroom Behavior," Journal of Educational Psychology, 49: 86-92, April, 1959.

Miller, S. M. "The Participant Observer and 'Over Rapport,'" American Sociological Review, 17: 97-99, 1952.

Nazal, Marshal. "Effects of an Internship Upon Selected Goals of the Program," Journal of Teacher Education, 58: 711-714, May, 1955.

Nazal, Marshal. "Some Effects of Student Teaching Patterns Upon Professional Attitudes," Journal of Educational Research, 52: 355-357, May, 1959.

Nash, Curtis E. "A New Program in Teacher Education," The Journal of Teacher Education, 12: 124-127, March, 1961.

Neal, Charles D., Kraft, Leonard E., and Krocht, Conrad R. "Reasons for College Supervision of the Student-Teaching Program," Journal of Teacher Education, 18: 24-27, Spring, 1967.

Newsom, George L., Jr., Gentry, Harold W., and Stephens, Lester D. "Changes in Consistency of Educational Ideas Attributable to Student Teaching Experiences," Journal of Teacher Education, 16: 319-323, September, 1965.

Peik, W. E. "Teacher Personnel," Review of Educational Research, 13 (Number 3): 209-329, 1943.

Pomeroy, Edward E., and Burdin, Joel L. "New Programs and Reshaping Teacher Education," The National Education Journal, 57: 15-18, May, 1968.

Poor, T. L. "Extern Program Blends Theory and Practice," Journal of Teacher Education, 4: 128-130, June, 1953.

Price, Robert D. "The Influence of Supervising Teachers," Journal of Teacher Education, 12: 471-475, December, 1961.

Purpel, David. "Student Teaching," Journal of Teacher Education, 18: 20-23, Spring, 1967.

Reicker, W. Ray. "Trends in Student Teaching - 1932-1952," Journal of Teacher Education, 4: 261-263, December, 1953.

Sandgren, Duane L., and Schmidt, Louis G. "Does Practice Teaching Change Attitudes Toward Teaching?" Journal of Educational Research, 49: 673-680, May, 1956.

Schwartz, Morris S., and Schwartz, Charlotte Green. "Problems in Participant Observation," American Journal of Sociology, 60: 343-353, January, 1955.

Schwartz, Sheila. "The Principal's Role in Student Teacher Programs," Journal of Teacher Education, 13: 78-81, March, 1962.

Scott, Owen, and Brinkley, Sterling G. "Attitude Changes of Student Teachers and the Validity of the MTAI," Journal of Educational Psychology, 51: 76-81, April, 1960.

Scrivner, A. W. "Professional Laboratory Experiences," Journal of Teacher Education, 12: 48-53, March, 1961.

Severyn, Bruyn. "The Methodology of Participant Observation," Human Organization, 22 (Number 3) 224-235, Fall, 1963.

Shaplin, Justin T. "Practice Teaching," Harvard Educational Review, 31: 34-38, Winter, 1961.

Simon, Anita. (ed.). Classroom Interaction Newsletter. Philadelphia: Temple University, approximately once a semester.

Sleeper, William N. "Storm Warning in Michigan: Student Teaching," Peabody Journal of Education, 35: 288-344, January, 1958.

Smith, B. Othanel. "A Concept of Teaching," Teachers College Record, 61: 229-41, February, 1960.

Smith, Herbert F. A. "The Depth Dimension in Student Teaching Supervision," Peabody Journal of Education, 38: 18-20, July, 1960.

Sorensen, Garth. "What is Learned in Practice Teaching?" Journal of Teacher Education, 18: 173-178, Summer, 1967.

Standlee, Loyd J., and Popham, W. James. "Too Much 'Pedagogy' in Teacher Education?" The Bulletin of The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 45: 80-81, December, 1961.

Steeves, Frank L. "A Summary of the Literature of the Off-Campus Cooperating Teacher," Educational Administration and Supervision, 38: 127-137, March, 1952.

Stier, Leland D. "Orientation of Prospective Teachers," Educational Forum, 25: 167-173, January, 1961.

Travers, Robert M. W. "Toward Taking the Fun Out of Building a Theory of Instruction," Teachers College Record, 68: 49-60, October, 1966.

Vidich, Arthur. "The Participant Observer and the Collection and Interpretation of Data," American Journal of Sociology, 60: 354-360, January, 1955.

Wilhelms, Fred. "Exploring New Paths in Teacher Education," Theory Into Practice, 3: 12-16, Fall, 1964.

Wilhelms, Fred. "The San Francisco State College Teacher Education Project," Journal of Teacher Education, 12: 209-215, June, 1961.

Appendix A

PROJECTIONS FOR THE USE OF CLINICAL PROFESSORS
IN TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM AT UNC-G

Helen Miller

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro is embarking on modified approaches to its teacher education program in the Fall of 1968. The School of Education intends to begin, in a limited way, the policy of utilizing clinical professors to help supervise their student teachers. As you know, this program is comparatively new and as yet inadequately defined even in the sparse literature available on the subject.

Building on Dr. James Conant's original suggestion in The Education of American Teachers the School of Education would like to devise a program that will fit the unique needs and relationships that exist between this institution and the cooperating public school systems with whom it works. Therefore it is seeking the suggestions and reactions of key public school personnel along with members of the State Department of Education and other college and university staffs.

It is the belief of this School of Education that a meaningful sharing of the responsibility for teacher education must be achieved by preparing institutions and the public schools. Such a real sharing of the planning and execution of the prospective teacher's clinical experiences is essential in order to eliminate the present duality in teacher preparation. Too often one hears today that the schools of education teach pre-service teachers only unworkable theories. And, on the other hand, it is sometimes said the public schools are a bottleneck to progress; they brainwash all the creativity out of eager prospective teachers. It is a sad state of affairs, but true, that often student teachers have to function like sly schizophrenics in order to walk the hazardous tightrope between pleasing the university supervisor, who may have outdated (if any) experience in the classroom, and the supervising teacher, who has a jaundiced eye for the "impractical, idealistic" theories of the university teacher. On what common ground can these three (university faculty member, public school teacher and student teacher) function to become the team that is necessary to stimulate and guide a successful clinical experience?

The program called a clinical professorship should create a climate of mutual respect and professional compatibility for it will place emphasis on their common expertise in teaching--an expertise these two people (clinical professor and supervisory teacher) possess to an uncommon degree. Each will be chosen for just that characteristic-- competence in the classroom and in the teaching-learning situation wherever it exists.

What is a Clinical Professor?

A clinical professor is a member of a public school faculty and also a full faculty member of a university school of education. His credentials in both roles depend upon his being a superb teacher of public school pupils and college students as well as researcher and diagnostician. He will not only demonstrate the best in teaching practices but he will be able to tie these to relevant theory and research for his college students. He will be able to take first-hand classroom experience of that day into his university classes. He can get into print that which the public schools need and want to know; he can blend their ideas with those of the university to the benefit of both. Educational research and publication should reach a new standard of excellence and relevance for public school consumption as a consequence.

He should have the unique opportunity to serve as a catalyst within the academic discipline he represents. The field of education is made up of university scholars and the public school faculties in which university graduates ultimately function. Such a catalyst should be able to present to each element the views and basic needs of the other in a way to bring about a meeting of the minds and, hopefully, action. He can involve the historian or the mathematician or the linguist in the needs their students will have within those disciplines if they plan to teach. By his own scholarship he will tend to build academic respect for the role of teacher.

The clinical professor can present the public school view and its needs in the university planning and policy-making sessions. He can bring the germinating, fresh ideas of the university into the public school where they can flower or fail in the real soil of a classroom setting. The stimulating feedback on the newest theories, the newest techniques, the newest methods, can give cross fertilization from university lecture hall to public classroom and _vice_ _versa_. Public school teachers will be "up" on what scholars are theorizing or proposing, and the university professor will be "up" on what teachers think and want. The principal,

in whose school the clinical professor works, will determine just how this interaction can best be used to influence his curriculum and his faculty.

Teaching a class in a public school and functioning as a faculty member of that school will give the clinical professor his public school base and point of reference. There he will perfect and maintain the strategies and concepts he will demonstrate and teach in the university classes. Also he will be available while in the public school, to assist, as the principal sees fit, with on-going faculty education. He will serve as a resource person in any way that will help to make for him a real position of respect and compatibility in the faculty. This will take much tact and finesse on his part and on the part of the administration in presenting his role to the faculty as a whole. The principal must be a fully informed and cooperating member of the teacher preparation team.

The clinical professor will supervise the student teachers who come into that system in his discipline and will actively plan and coordinate their program with the principals and supervising teachers. He will tailor a unique program for each student teacher and will orchestrate the proper blend of observation, participation and teaching in a variety of combinations of time, subjects and people.

The clinical professor will conduct classes, seminars and demonstrations as needed among the student teachers as their clinical experience progresses. The conventional understanding of what constitutes a period of student teaching may change radically if the need arises.

At the university he will act as liaison to his academic discipline departmental staff, trying to involve that faculty and their suggestions in each student's preparation to teach. He will interact with these scholars, inviting them into the classroom to see their students in action. In turn he will urge public school teachers to continue their involvement with their disciplines. This mutual involvement should assure the very best presentation of that discipline to public school children.

In his university role the clinical professor will represent the public school's special problems to those involved in research. Through him, theory and reality should be able to temper and test each other. In his classes college students should get comprehensive instruction in the art of teaching, while applying the theories of teaching (and learning). Consequently, his students should be more realistically prepared for their student teaching experience.

At the university, too, the clinical professor will
probably teach graduate classes for in-service teachers.
He should be able to make such classes relevant and timely
for busy teachers who want to investigate newer concepts
and strategies. One such graduate class may be a course to
help prepare teachers to become supervisory teachers--a role
that needs much more selectivity and preparation than is at
present the case. Here he will lay the groundwork for
future teamwork with these teachers with whom he may share
the responsibilities for planning and evaluating a student
teaching program in the future.

Anticipated Benefits:

1. The director of each student's experience will
have a public school point of view as well as university
orientation.

2. The dichotomy of only theory in university
setting and only practice in the public school should be
eliminated. Theory and practice will blend and complement
each other in both environments.

3. Each student will benefit by having more co-
operative and uniform planning of his experience; today
much is left to chance or lost by default because the

public school assumes the university is taking a certain responsibility and _vice_ _versa_.

4. Better qualified university supervisors-- specialists in subject matter field and in theory and "art" of teaching because they still teach in a public school.

5. University faculty members will be more accessible personally and professionally to supervisory teacher in the public schools.

6. Public schools can and should exert more influence and responsibility in helping to prepare their future teachers.

7. Above all the student teacher will have en- hanced opportunities to experience meaningful instruction at the time of actual teaching. His supervision will not be polarized in intent and emphases but will focus and blend harmoniously, for both supervisors will speak the same language and work with him in a complementary fashion. He will have every chance to be an even better teacher by trying a variety of approaches to teaching.

8. But the benefits do not end there. As new teachers are hired into the system, they will have an opportunity for skilled help and direction on the spot

day-by-day as the clinical professor operates in his public school role. The certificate issued after four years of college does not make an accomplished teacher. The clinical professor, as a public school employee, will be available for help in exploring those one thousand and one problems which arise when real teaching begins. A principal could utilize this function as best fits his school's needs.

9. The clinical professor can be the school's tie to the source of new ideas and new practices of the university researchers. Through him the public school personnel can have a first-hand link to the theory being formulated and thus there will be two-way feedback from the world of reality to the university scholar and from him into the classroom where his theory and technique could be applied. A healthy respect and spirit of cooperation should and could exist between the scholar in education and the practitioner. The public school children can only benefit from the much needed harmony.

10. This program's recognition of the supreme importance of the teaching expertise and its relevance to competence in teacher education should raise the prestige of all teachers.

MODEL STUDENT TEACHING RELATIONSHIP

Public School Unit (Principal)   School of Education
                                      of University or
                                      College (Dean)

Other Public   Supervising   Clinical Professor
School Teachers   Teacher

Student Teacher

Roles and Relationships:

1. The university and public school unit hire jointly one person who will function in the interest of both as they cooperate to furnish the clinical experiences in teacher preparation.

2. The clinical professor is a fellow faculty member with the public school supervisory teacher and thus shares mutual interests and understandings.

3. The clinical professor, with the authority of the university, will help to plan a program and to place a student teacher in the proper school situation. He will then help to determine whom the student will observe, where he will participate and when and with whom the student will teach.

4. The clinical professor will conduct classes, seminars, and demonstrations as needed to augment the clinical experience. The principal will of course aid and guide him as will the public school faculty by suggesting these as needed.

5. One or more supervisory teachers may be used to give the student teacher the most suitable clinical experience.

6. These public school teachers will work with the clinical professor and the student in developing his program as he progresses in teaching skill and experience.

7. The supervisory teachers will make suggestions freely to the clinical professor so that the student can have relevant and varied experiences.

8. The supervisory teachers will cooperate fully in conferences with the student teachers and in counseling them in particular fields. They may request that more classroom work be done with the clinical professor in a given area as they see the need.

9. The supervisory teacher will participate fully in evaluating the student teacher but final responsibility for assigning the grade will be the clinical professor's since the credit course is a college function. (It would be desirable to eliminate grades as such.)

10. During his clinical experience the student will be subject to the pertinent directives and policies of both the university and the public school unit.

11. The student will have a team composed of supervisory teacher, clinical professor, and principal to help him map out his activities for student teaching. He will experience a variety of situations both as observer, participant and teacher.

12. He will have university instruction available from the clinical professor as he goes through his period of student teaching and as follow-up to that experience.

13. He will have close immediate supervision and help from the supervisory teachers in structuring, executing, and evaluating his plans.

Appendix B

PROPOSAL FOR A MINI-FACULTY RELATIONSHIP

Rationale for Proposal:

For years educational research has pointed out the
dominant influence of cooperating teachers and the school
on the future philosophy and performances of student
teachers. It has reflected almost a futility as far as
university supervision and influence during student teaching
and thereafter. Research also showed conflicts of interest
and effort on the part of the two agencies--the laboratory
of the public school and the instruction and guidance pro-
vided by the university.

The central idea back of the so-called mini-faculty
is that of bringing the university's role in line with its
effectiveness. That role would be the selection of the
school and personnel and the providing of instruction for
those people doing the supervision. Afterwards, the direct
supervision in the classroom would be by the public school
teachers, calling on university instructors only as a
specific need arises.

A university person would study each student's
strengths and needs, and, in consultation with the

principal, or his designate (for instance department heads),
plan an individual program that might include experiences
with several different teachers. The aim is to get away
from the one-to-one idea that all prospective teachers need
the same time, the same routine, and the same chance to
meet only one set of circumstances.

The university liaison person would spend a portion
of his time in residence in the teaching center. He would
study the people and the situations in order to decide
judiciously where to place which student when. He would
confer with them individually and in groups. He would
obtain academic specialists (i.e. members of the math or
English faculty) if the need arose. He would hold con-
ferences and instructional seminars with the student
teachers according to the needs pointed out by those
teachers doing the direct supervision and conferring.

It would be hoped that a unity of purpose and
direction can be achieved that will truly facilitate the
initiation into the profession of novice teachers with a
broader base of experience. Such unity of purpose should
bring a school of education and its client, the public
schools, a greater opportunity to learn from each other
as they cooperate in this area.

Steps for Implementation of Proposal:

1. As a pilot study it is proposed that one person, who might be termed a clinical professor type, would enter a day-by-day relationship and role in a public school complex, comprised of a junior and senior high school.

2. The principal and staff of the school should be involved in the planning in the early stages and should be allowed to reject or elect participation in the plan.

3. At an early meeting of key personnel goals and roles should be determined and noted. There should be established mutual respect and accord. Operational procedures and channels of communication should be set up to the satisfaction of all.

4. The time to be spent in the public school should be sufficient to assure timely availability, but not so much as to preclude maintenance of a university role also. Perhaps the time should be flexible and under the principal and dean's direction.

5. Opportunity to confer with the classroom teachers should be extensive at first as they are familiarized with the new approach. At the same time the clinical professor will be learning to know them and the variety of situations in the school. The key factor involved is the instruction

teachers receive as to what their responsibilities are and as to the university philosophy and intent for its student teachers. Effort should be made to avoid burdening already busy teachers with after school meetings.

6. Every effort should be made to fit this mini-faculty and its operations into smooth congruence with the established faculty so that the public school students are not handicapped by it. Indeed, properly conducted such an arrangement should give added depth and dimension to the experiences of these students.

7. The clinical professor should keep the faculty of the school of education informed and involved (as the need arises). Academic departments should also be kept informed and involved.

8. The students from the school of education who will participate should be selected as early as possible; their preparation and instruction should begin at once.

9. Opportunity should be provided for all those participating to evaluate the program periodically in some objective manner.

Chart of Operational Procedure:

It should be worked out in detail and finalized for each individual school. Some such framework as the

following might result:

1. Initial Contact - Superintendent and prospective principals (no principal should accept without faculty consent).

2. Follow-up Contact - Superintendent, principals who will participate, dean of school of education, clinical person.

3. Initial Planning Session - principals, clinical person and, if possible, department heads.

4. Subsequent Planning Sessions - differentiated as to purpose and need; probably including all teachers of a given department with the clinical person.

5. Instructional Sessions - university personnel and the teachers who will serve as cooperating teachers, preparing for their added responsibilities.

6. Initial Implementing Session - student teachers, school staff and clinical person.

Questions of Administration Which the Principal Will Probably Work Out With the Dean and the Clinical Person:

1. Providing desk and/or office space for the clinical professor.

2. Definition of duties and responsibilities to be assumed by the clinical professor in the public schools.

3. Methods for resolving complaints or requests from student teachers, from the clinical person, from the teachers, and from the principal.

4. Time expected or needed from the clinical person for his public school duties.

5. The advisability and availability of a class whereby the clinical professor might conduct demonstration lessons as an adjunct to the program (at the discretion of the principal).

6. The providing of time for the teachers to become informed about the program and their duties.

7. The providing of compensation to the public school people involved.

8. The question of joint appointment for the clinical person--to the university and to the public school.

Appendix C

MINI-FACULTY

A model of a schedule that could accommodate
the experiences needed. Flexibility is needed
to fit teacher's schedule and curriculum plans
--also students' needs.

Week   I. Homebase--orientation 2 days (plan ahead to
            what will be taught). Participate with home
            teacher 3rd day. Observe other teachers in
            your field 2 days. One individual conference--
            one group conference.

Week   II. Period one and two participate with home teacher.
            Two other periods participate with Teacher #2.
            Last period with homebase. Confer as needed
            with both teachers.

Week   III. Teach Period one and two of homebase. Observe
            Teacher #3. Teach for Teacher #2, one class.
            Homebase last period. Conferences as needed.

Week   IV. Teach Periods one and two of homebase. Parti-
            cipate with Teacher #3. Teach with Teacher #2.
            Homebase last period.

Week   V. Teach Periods one and two homebase. Participate
            with Teacher #2. Teach with Teacher #3.

Week   VI. Into Junior High or Senior High opposite of
            homebase. Observe three days. Participate
            two days.

Week   VII. If practical do a small segment teaching. (A
            poem, a current event lesson, a skill two or
            three days.) Finish the week with homebase and
            plan selective participation.

Week VIII. Full responsibility for homebase load.

Appendix D

PERCENTILE RANK EQUIVALENTS FOR RAW SCORES ON THE MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY FORM A

SECONDARY TEACHERS

Academic		Nonacademic		
4 years training	5 years training	4 years training	5 years training	Percentile Rank
103	112	98	98	99
87	100	81	84	95
81	90	67	74	90
67	75	47	64	80
57	69	40	56	75
50	63	34	49	70
34	53	21	41	60
23	45	10	33	50
13	35	2	29	40
1	24	-12	8	30
-5	16	-20	-4	25
-12	9	-29	-8	20
-29	-12	-48	-20	10
-43	-26	-64	-34	5
-58	-65	-85	-50	1
264	218	98	70	N
24.7	40.8	9.7	28.9	Mean
40.6	39.5	42.7	36.5	SD

Appendix E

SAMPLE QUESTIONS FROM THE MINNESOTA
TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

SA - Strongly Agree   U - Undecided or   .D - Disagree
 A - Agree   Uncertain   SD - Strongly
                                                       Disagree

1. Most children are obedient.

2. Shyness is preferable to boldness.

3. Teaching never gets monotonous.

4. If the teacher laughs with the pupils in amusing
    classroom situations, the class tends to get out
    of control.

5. Unquestioning obedience in a child is not desirable.

6. There is too great an emphasis upon "keeping order"
    in the classroom.

7. A teacher should never discuss sex problems with
    the pupils.

8. A teacher should not be expected to sacrifice an
    evening of recreation in order to visit a child's home.

9. Children's wants are just as important as those of an
    adult.

10. The boastful child is usually over-confident of his
    ability.

Appendix F

SUMMARY OF CATEGORIES FOR INTERACTION ANALYSIS
FLANDERS

TEACHER	I N D I R E C T I N F L U E N C E	1. ACCEPTS FEELING: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings is included.
		2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES: praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "um hum?" or "go on" are included.
		3. ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENTS: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As teacher bring more of his own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.
		4. ASKS QUESTIONS: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.
TALK	D I R E C T I N F L U E N C E	5. LECTURING: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
		6. GIVING DIRECTIONS: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.
		7. CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY: statements intended to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.

Appendix F (continued)

STUDENT TALK	8. <u>STUDENT</u> <u>TALK--RESPONSE</u>: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement. 9. <u>STUDENT</u> <u>TALK--INITIATION</u>: talk by students, which they initiate. If calling on student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category.
	10. <u>SILENCE</u> <u>OR</u> <u>CONFUSION</u>: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Appendix G

SAMPLE MATRIX - TEACHER - CONVENTIONAL - 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	16	11	6	7	7	2	3	0	3	0		
2	10	17	6	2	8	0	0	0	12	0		
3	2	3	15	1	10	0	0	0	5	0		
4	6	3	2	8	2	2	2	3	18	2		
5	5	3	4	13	77	3	7	0	16	2		
6	1	2	0	0	2	10	3	0	2	1		
7	2	1	0	3	6	0	24	0	4	0		
8	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0		
9	12	13	5	11	16	4	4	0	126	3		
10	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	4	36		
Total	65	53	38	48	131	21	43	3	191	44	637	Matrix Total
%	10	8.3	6	7.5	20.5	3.3	6.7	4.7	30	7		

Teacher Talk   62.5% - Cols. 1-7 ÷ Total
Student Talk   30.5% - Cols. 8-9 ÷ Total
ID Ratio   1.05 - Cols. 1-4 (Indirect)÷Cols.5-7 (Direct)
Revised ID Ratio   2.44 - Cols. 1-3 (Indirect)÷Cols.6-7 (Direct)

Appendix H

ADMINISTRATOR'S EVALUATION SHEET

Name_____

Position_____

   As you know we attempted to implement some of the concepts of the _____ in student teaching this _____ in the _____ schools. We were seeking to find both the merits and the flaws in the program. Your reactions to the following questions as part of our assessment of the program will be appreciated. Please answer freely and as fully as you feel inclined.

             H. M.

1. Would you classify yourself as favorable, guarded, unfavorable to the program at its inception?

   Now?

   Comment.

2. List merits you have seen in the program for the student teachers themselves.

3. List drawbacks you have seen in the program for the student teachers.

4. What advantages have you seen in the program for the homebase teachers?

5. What disadvantages have you observed in the program as it affects homebase teachers?

6. What benefits has the program had for others of your teaching staff?

7. What hindrances has the program had for others of your teaching staff?

Appendix H (continued)

8. What benefits have accrued to your pupils during the program?

9. What harm has come to your pupils as a result of the program?

10. What burdens has the program placed on your role as an administrator in your school?

11. What help has the program been to you in your role as administrator in your school?

12. What effect has the program had on your usual role in the orientation and guidance of a student teacher?

13. Would you say the student teachers in the program have been as well prepared for their future roles as teachers as they would have been in a conventional program?

    Comment.

14. Could you recommend any of the students in the program?

    Comment.

15. How well did you get to know the student teachers?

    Comment.

16. Were the student teachers cooperative to you and your guidance?

    Comment.

17. Was the university supervisor cooperative to you in the administration of your area of responsibility for the student teaching function?

    Comment.

Appendix H (continued)

18. Was having this segment of the university community transplanted to your school, in general, an asset or a burden.

19. Did the university supervisor try to work through and with your teachers in matters of observation, conferences, counseling, seminars and evaluation?

    Comment.

20. Make any general reaction which you feel these questions have not allowed you to make.

Appendix I

HOMEBASE TEACHER EVALUATION SHEET

Name_____

Position_____

As you know we attempted to implement the
_____ concept in student teaching this
_____ in the _____ schools.
We were trying to ascertain its merits and its flaws. We
will appreciate receiving your reaction to the following
questions as part of our assessment of the program. Please
feel free to answer fully and freely. Space is provided
for comment you feel not covered fully in the question.

In the area of planning a variety of experiences.

1) Did the fact that your student teacher sought a variety
   of experiences hinder you?

   If so, how?

   Comment as you wish concerning the practice.

2) Did the variety of experiences hinder or help the
   student teacher in your opinion?

   Comment as you wish.

Your role of conferee with student teacher.

1) Were conferences needed so frequently as to become
   burdensome to you?

   Comment.

2) Were your conferences well received by the student?

   Comment.

Appendix I (continued)

3) Did you have evidence the conferences were effective?

   Comment.

4) Did you find conflict of influence exerted by your
   advice and that of the university supervisor?

   Comment.

Benefits of the experience for you.

1) How did this role as cooperating teacher compare to
   any you have held before?

2) Was it generally a pleasant or unpleasant experience?

   Comment.

3) Do you feel you benefitted in any way, professionally
   or personally from the experience?

4) Would you cooperate in such a program again if asked.

   Comment.

In area of inconvenience to you.

1) Was it easy of difficult to exert influence toward
   progress in this student's teaching?

   Comment.

2) Did the student need excessive amounts of your time
   and guidance?

   Comment.

3) Did the university supervisor make excessive demands on
   your time for conference or planning?

   Comment.

Appendix I (continued)

4) Was the welfare of your students and their education safeguarded?

Comment.

5) Would the conventional program of student teaching have been more convenient for you?

Comment.

6) Did you have difficulty establishing a close relationship with the student?

Comment.

7) Did you have difficulty achieving a cooperative relationship with the university supervisor?

Comment.

8) Was your sense of morale and status adversely affected by the changes this program carried out?

Comment.

The "in-residence" status of the university supervisor.

1) Were the visits too frequent?

Comment.

2) Were they beneficial to your students' adjustment and teaching performance?

Comment.

3) Were they detrimental to your relationship to the student teacher?

Comment.

Appendix I (continued)

4) Did the university supervisor work chiefly through you
and your guidance of the student teacher?

Comment.

5) To your knowledge did the university supervisor prove
to be of assistance to you or any others of the school
community other than the student teachers?

Comment.

6) Have you any evidence that this system brings about any
closer coordination of public school and university aims
for the student teacher?

Comment.

In area of philosophy and goals.

1) Did you have evidence you and the university worked
toward the same general goals for the student teacher's
progress?

Comment.

2) Were there instances when philosophy and techniques
taught by the university placed the student teacher
in conflict with your (or the school's) philosophy
of teaching?

Comment.

3) Were the general innovations of the program worthy of
the effort entailed?

Comment.

4) Were the innovations properly carried out?

Comment.

Appendix I (continued)

5) Would earlier acquaintance with the program have influenced your reaction to it?

   Comment.

6) Would a role for you in planning such a program (previous to its implementation in your school) have influenced your reaction to it?

   Comment.

7) Would you classify yourself as favorable, neutral, unfavorable to the program as it began?

   Comment.

8) How would you classify your position regarding the general philosophy of the innovations tried?

   Comment.

9) Have any basic ideas of your faculty about teaching in general or student teaching as such been affected by the program?

   Comment.

The broadening of experience to include another secondary level.

1) Should it be continued?

   Comment.

2) If so, when should it come?

   Comment.

3) How can it best be carried out in your opinion?

   Comment.

Appendix I (continued)

4) What help or hindrance did you see in it for you?

   For your student teacher?

5) Do you think your student teacher could function equally well at both levels?

   Comment.

In-school seminars with university supervisor.

1) Were they disruptive to your role as guide and counselor to the student teacher?

   Comment.

2) Did you have opportunity to suggest items your student teacher needed to have further instruction in?

   Comment.

3) Were they a burden or hindrance on school staff or facilities?

   Comment.

Compensation.

1) How did you understand your pay would be handled?

2) How do you think the matter could be most fairly handled?

Evaluation.

1) Did you have a suitable role in evaluation of the student teacher?

2) Did you have sufficient opportunity to evaluate the program?

Appendix I (continued)

General reaction.

1) What are the greatest strengths you see in this
    program?

2) What are the greatest weaknesses?

Appendix J

STUDENT TEACHER EVALUATION SHEET

Name_____

Cooperating Teacher's Name_____

Secondary Teachers Worked With_____

_____

　　　　As you know we attempted to implement the _____
concept in student teaching in the _____schools.
We were trying to ascertain its merits (if any) and its flaws
(if any).　We will appreciate receiving your reaction to the
following questions as part of our assessment of the program.
Please answer fully and freely.

　　1)　To your knowledge, how was your student teaching
　　　　program different from conventional (or what you
　　　　expected).

　　2)　What advantage did you experience (or observe in
　　　　others) in having opportunity to work with more
　　　　than one teacher?

　　3)　Did you work with different grade levels?　Which?

　　4)　Did you work with a variety of curriculum content?
　　　　What?

　　5)　What disadvantages did you experience, or observe,
　　　　in working with more than one teacher?

　　6)　What advantages, or disadvantages, did you feel in
　　　　being assigned to the university supervisor and a
　　　　school rather than to one teacher?

Appendix J (continued)

7) How helpful were the in-school seminars? How could they be improved?

8) Did you have sufficient planning and evaluating conferences with your cooperating teachers?

9) Were the public school teachers able to carry most of the observing and conferring load in criticizing your teaching?

10) Were your experiences well planned as a result of the university supervisor getting to know you, the teachers and the school well?

11) Did you have sufficient direction from the teachers with whom you worked? From the university supervisor?

12) How valuable was the look at Junior High (or Senior High) situation?

13) Was your supervisor available when you needed her?

How would you modify that situation?

14) Did you get to know a body of students well?

Did that make a difference in your teaching?

15) Did you have an opportunity to establish a close working relationship with one teacher to whom you could go with problems?

16) Would there have been any advantage in your supervisor's being a teacher in the school and illustrating her concepts and instructions to you in her own actual classroom?

17) Did you have continuity of teaching with a curriculum phase--continuity enough to allow you to see progress and results?

18) What experiences (teaching and other) did you have under this program which would not have been possible in a conventional student training arrangement?

19) What did you want to experience that was denied you?

    Why?

20) What experiences did you have which were not beneficial to you as you judge them now? Why?

21) How was your relationship to the rest of the faculty affected by this program?

22) How were relationships with public school students affected?

23) Do you think you had a genuinely broader, or only more significant, look at yourself as a teacher?

24) Would close coordination of methods classes--demonstration, instruction, observations and participation--within a public school (where you could later student teach) be beneficial?

Appendix J (continued)

25) Would you like your methods teacher to be able to bring you into her class in a public school to illustrate to you the concepts and skills she is teaching you?

26) Would you recommend this system of student teaching to one who could choose a program?

Explain.

27) Imagining that there are no restraints, list the recommendations you would make for a student teaching program to best prepare one for his first job.

Appendix K

COVER LETTER ACCOMPANYING OPINIONAIRES

Dear_____,

I am finally writing that dissertation for which
my experiments in student teaching were designed. You
were a part of either one of the experiments or the con-
trol group (following a conventional program under my
supervision). I am interested in you and your career
since you left UNC-G, and would like to ascertain where
you are now living and whether you are currently teaching.
I hope you are very happy and successful at whatever you
are doing.

I look forward to establishing renewed contact with
all of you whom I supervised, being especially concerned
about your current work. Are you teaching? If so I hope
you like it and I feel assured you are successful in it.

If you are currently teaching I would like to visit
your school, with your permission and that of your principal
if you can obtain it. I want to administer two objective
instruments to measure something about you as a teacher
now--the Flanders Scale to get a matrix of the climate you
have in your class and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude

Inventory (remember it?) to measure your current attitude toward teaching.

I will do the same for the person who served as your homebase teacher and I wish to show a chart which will compare the two. There will be only numbers and statistics presented, no names. No one will ever know these results except you, me and your cooperating teacher (if you two desire to know).

Please write me at once as time is short or call collect 888-9032 my home in High Point. That would save time. I need to contact the school where you student taught after I hear from you with your and your current principal's permission. That is very important; I'm sure you understand.

I will then contact all of you again. If there are prohibitive numbers teaching in North Carolina I will have to randomly select a manageable number given the time limit involved. I look forward to hearing from you or talking to you soon. I have thought of you often and wondered about your life after UNC-G.

Appendix K (continued)

Sincerely,

Helen Miller
Mrs. E. D. Miller
807 Quaker Lane
High Point, N. C.   27262
(Phone 888-9032)

Appendix L

SUGGESTIONS AND COMMENTS FROM THE PINE CREST GROUP

Response to the opinionaire was voluntary. (The writer just sent the questions to them on their supervisor and accepted the number then returned, using only student teachers in that program.)

1) I had to teach only three days a week on two days they had large groups.

2) My classes were only 12-18 in number and we all met in one large room.

3) I saw different teachers in the team use their specialty.

4) I worked with only one grade level.

5) The in-school seminars with the university supervisor helped me evaluate myself more objectively.

6) I would like to have experienced a conventional class- room at some time in the day.

7) The planning of some work had been done so far ahead that I had little opportunity to plan.

8) We needed more time.

9) More practical methods and techniques taught before we started student teaching.

10) More observations before we begin to student teach, gear them to methods, etc.

11) I worked with three grade levels and three teachers and we individualized the instruction into laps.

Appendix L (continued)

12) There were too many conflicting opinions and policies in the team.

13) There needed to be more consistency for the pupils' sakes.

14) I would like the supervisor to have taught a demonstration class so I could see she knew what she was doing.

15) I would not recommend this school until they iron out their inconsistencies.

16) We need to have complete control and be regarded as a teacher not a student.

17) Needed to be treated with respect.

18) I worked with two teams.

19) We needed more frequent and longer meetings with supervisor. She came once a week.

20) My team held few conferences with me to plan or evaluate.

21) Methods, etc. should be integrated with student teachers for whole semester in the schools.

22) Eliminate history of education courses and do more with mental hygiene and more observation of real students.

23) No disadvantages in working with a whole department except sometimes one might feel he doesn't quite belong anywhere.

24) Orientation for students and cooperating teachers should be more realistic before student teaching begins.

25) Helpful to have clinical supervisor there almost every day.

Appendix L (continued)

26) Had great advantages working with several teachers and grade levels.

27) We needed more preparation in counseling and diagnosing individual students than in philosophy of education.

28) Student teachers should be paid and it should last at least one semester.

29) I could not really do justice to anything but the student teaching in my humanities group for I lacked preparation in broader fields.

Appendix M

THE CONVENTIONAL PROGRAM

Opinions were sought and recommendations solicited--10 responses from those I taught and/or supervised.

Summary of those:

1) My college supervisor came to see me only twice--not much help.

2) My cooperating teacher supervisor never helped in any way. His pat answer to any question was "you'll find out."

3) He did no work the entire time I was there. It was a major disadvantage to have only one teacher.

4) Teacher's lounge gossip was a bore and an aggravation.

5) I learned I couldn't depend on text books; they aren't relevant, needed my own resources.

6) If your one teacher is bad you are "stuck."

7) Having only one teacher keeps you from getting confused with different ideas.

8) I didn't work with any slow students.

9) Had too much on T. V. not my own planning.

10) Needed chance to do team teaching; school doesn't have it.

11) We don't need so much observation.

12) I needed more help with tests and evaluation.

13) Need entire semester for student teaching with methods and educational psychology fused with it.

14) I needed more extra-curricular experiences.

15) I needed more routine and whole-school view of teacher's role.

16) The preceding education courses did not prepare me at all.

17) My teacher was very traditional; I would have liked to try new ideas.

18) I didn't have opportunity to individualize instruction and teach each child because I was limited by my co-operating teacher.

19) In Home Economics our supervisor visits us once a week and we all have an on-campus seminar midway through student teaching.

20) I didn't get the help I needed.

21) I was too limited in observing other teachers.

22) I spent too much time in charge of the classroom.

23) I taught full load for five weeks; the university said I'd do it only one week and gradually drop classes.

24) My cooperating teacher helped me little with what to teach. I now know I don't want to teach.

25) Needed more different age levels to work with and had only one level of students as re ability.

26) There was conflict for the university wanted us in other classes and grades and this teacher refused those oppor-tunities.

27) Supervisor usually left before I could confer with him.

28) Since I got no help from cooperating teacher I
    needed my supervisor more than she could come.

29) My cooperating teacher's goals and philosophy were
    opposite of mine--"If I'm talking they are learning"
    was her creed. She allowed only her methods and
    gave me no freedom.

30) I was never allowed to take charge.

31) My teacher's view on methods and discipline was
    opposite what I had learned. She didn't seem to care
    whether they learned.

32) I found I needed better professional and content
    courses. They are not geared to real teaching.