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Viewpoint

Undergraduates look at professional education

Kansas State University has proven historically to produce some of the finest teachers in the state. We are proud of this accomplishment, but our pride goes much deeper. Each of us has sensed a caring attitude in the faculty of the College of Education, evident in their willingness to go above and beyond their expected duties to individually prepare us as future educators. They realize that proper preparation is a must for the student willing to teach. However, we feel that many students are simply not receiving the preparation they need.

As undergraduates, we have seen students acquiring the content without learning the application. In other words, the material is there, and the knowledge of the material has been gained, but many students cannot translate it into actual teaching strategies for the classroom. A math education major recently said, "All the calculus in the world has not shown me how to explain what a square root is!" Why aren't students learning application, which is a must for proper preparation? We see two major reasons.

First, some students are not able to learn the content as readily and as quickly as they should. These slow-paced students put tremendous pressure on many professors to spend more time than necessary on content. Of course, we understand the importance of knowing the material, but we have seen for ourselves where professors in many instances have neglected the teaching of material application in order to accommodate the students who slow the progress of the entire class. Even in methods classes, all too often too much time is devoted to theory and concepts, and insufficient time on actual teaching strategies because of the slower learning students.

Second, we strongly believe that field experience goes hand in hand with learning application, which is extremely important for proper preparation. But many students lack enough of this hands on experience to help them become better prepared to teach. All too often students will enter their student teaching assignment with little or no previous exposure to a real classroom setting. In fact, surprising numbers of students in education entering their junior year have only had the experience of being just that—students. We must have our eyes opened to what teaching is all about. We need to be out in the field not only longer but earlier, so we can observe first hand the application of a variety of teaching strategies used in classroom situations.

Even though we feel that too many students are not receiving the preparation they need, we believe that it **is** possible for undergraduates to become **better** prepared than they are now, if changes are made. We would like to see a demand for higher academic excellence placed on the student in education. If, for example, the overall GPA for college work in the student's teaching field or major were to be raised to 2.7 - 3.0 to receive certification to teach, much wasted time in classrooms with slower students could be devoted to the valuable learning of application. Second, we would like to see a much greater emphasis placed on field experience. Yes, freshmen need more than a casual exposure to the classroom through an optional orientation course. They should be required to gain in depth experiences as a teachers aide.

We want to see Kansas State continue to be a leader in the production of exceptional teachers, and we feel that proper preparation is the key. We hope that the profession will consider our request for quality.

Kansas State University students:
Nancy Mikesell, senior in elementary education, Belleville, Kan.
Hope Morgan, junior in elementary education, Hoisington, Kan.
Scott Pendleton, sophomore in secondary speech education, Lawrence, Kan.
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The debate about moral education in public schools continues

Moral education in public schools: Some realities, problems and suggestions for educators

by Peggy A. Dettmer

Teaching is not the cushioned profession that many censorious writers and speakers would have everyone believe. Never mind the more obvious negatives such as low pay, fear for one's own safety, diminished esteem of the profession and lowered group morale. Within the current "blame the teacher" *Zeitgeist* lurk other pressures which include, but are not limited to, a growing rift between school boards and teachers, the back-to-basics movement, demands for teacher competency testing, and even the issue of whether and how to educate public school students in ways which will encourage moral growth.

The demand for moral education in schools is not new. Concern about the efficacy of conducting planned moral education for school children has probably existed since the onset of compulsory education. At the beginning of this century John Dewey (1909) professed moral education to be central to the school's mission. His thinking on this subject became a springboard for various philosophies and subsequent methodologies designed to instill morality in the young (Perine, 1978). Twenty years later, Hartshorne and May (1930) reported on the ineffectiveness of character education in their time. Another 35 years later, Jean Piaget (1965) was recommending strategies to enhance children's moral judgment. During the past two decades Lawrence Kohlberg (1971) has researched and developed techniques for promoting moral development in the classroom through cognitive stimulation induced by moral dilemma discussions.

Discussion about the role of public schools in providing moral education is not limited to educational theorists and researchers. The sociological movements of the late 1970s and early 1980s demonstrate an increasing public polarization over the issue of moral education. It is evident that this is one of the most intense debates taking place in public education.

On the one hand, there is evidence that parents and churches, the two societal groups traditionally entrusted with moral development, are not succeeding as well as some factions would like. Many people are alarmed by what is seen as a decreasing level of moral behavior and indicate a readiness to share the task with other social institutions such as the public schools. For example, in the 13th Gallup Poll (**Phi Delta Kappan,** 1981) on public attitudes toward schools, 70 percent of parents surveyed favored instruction in values and ethical behavior as part of the public school curriculum. This strong majority support was found to exist in all population segments and in all regions of the country.

On the other hand, there are several increasingly vocal groups who decry what they perceive to be the moral education currently occurring in public schools. Groups such as the Moral Majority and others often labeled "fundamentalists" and "creationists" oppose with fervor the so-called "secular humanism" and "moral relativity" they see in contemporary curricular programs, instructional methodologies and learning materials. These factions believe appropriate and effective moral education can not take place in the public schools as they are presently operated.

In reality, these groups want moral development to be addressed systematically in public education. What they are arguing for, however, is a specific content different from the values system they believe is propounded currently. For example, parent and citizen groups in opposition to "secular humanism" are requesting state boards of education as well as local boards to clarify the extent to which individual growth and development activities will include sociological, psychological, values clarification and/or other humanistic education for children. Creationists demand at least a balanced treatment in the classroom for both "creation science" and "evolution science." Fundamentalists who believe America is not the Christian nation they think it should be are accusing those they call "humanists" of taking over the media and all of public education.

At the same time, back-to-basics activists are taking their children out of public classrooms to enroll them in parochial and other private schools which they believe will demand orderly behavior and mastery of basic skills **and** instill basic principles of virtue. Newspaper headlines declare "Parents call two classics garbage, urge they be banned." The federal government becomes involved with court cases concerning "creationism" and censorship, as

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well as with legislation such as the Hatch Amendment. This federal law, while still relatively unknown to many parents and educators several years after its passage, states that psychological or psychiatric testing or examination of student attitudes and beliefs in certain areas cannot be administered to minors without prior written parental consent.

Thus the debate about moral education in public schools continues. However, if recent court cases and the Hatch Amendment are indicators, steps toward the resolution of the debate are being taken by others outside professional education. If we are to be more than the powerless vortex around which the issues swirl, we must do more than be aware of the controversy and pressures created for us. We must understand also the role currently played by public schools in moral development and the responsibilities we have to influence the outcome of the debate. What follows is a brief discussion of three essential realities concerning the question of moral education in the public schools. Also included are analyses of some problems these realities create for public educators and suggestions for action so that our roles might be more constructive.

Reality 1: Moral Education is a Fundamental Societal Function of American Public Education

Some educators, upon finding themselves in the middle of the debate over moral education, are asking: "Why should schools now take on this added responsibility? Why should we have to spread our already limited time and resources even further to cover this additional curriculum?"

These questions are understandable to anyone who is even mildly aware of the harried and pressed position in which today's educators find themselves. It must be pointed out, however, that these questions also reflect a myopic view of the history of public education in this country and the role of organized education in any society. The impulse for some kind of morality exists in all human communities, and each has a dominant value system which is taught to the young as part of their acculturation and socialization.

In societies with organized educational systems, the responsibility for moral education falls largely to the schools. This is particularly true in the specific case of American public education. Though critics of our system might take the point much further, few of any persuasion would argue that one of the fundamental reasons behind compulsory public education in this country has been to help insure new generations' understanding and appreciation of basic American values. Our democratic way of life still depends upon the public schools to instill and maintain a national consensus concerning basic societal values necessary for its continuance. Thus, whether we like it or not, moral education is a fundamental function of American public education.

One basic problem created by this reality concerns the nature of our contemporary society. We are a pluralistic people. In seeing the differences contributed by various groups as adding strength to the whole, we have come to prize diversity. As a society we are now faced with the reality that a major element of that diversity has to do with values. Morality and values are communally based and subjective. There is scarcely any human behavior judged immoral by one group of people which might not be acceptable to another group. Consider, for example, values that concern eating human flesh, setting defective newborns out to die or letting old people starve who are no longer considered assets to the community. Then, too, there are the values regarding the whipping of children, drinking tea or coffee, charging interest on money loaned and saluting the country's flag. Finally, there are more enigmatic behaviors such as fasting, penance, self-denial, flagellation, silence, solitude and celibacy. It should be clear that no absolute standard of moral behavior exists today. Therefore, a constructive approach would seem to be to formulate a workable, pluralistic definition of morality which could be applied effectively to the group-life situation of schools and communities. Morality could be defined as:

> that set of ideas about right and wrong within a society's customs that regulates relationships and modes of behavior to enhance the survival and well-being of the entire group.

If we embark along this road, we must recognize that students' cognitive and affective horizons must be expanded beyond the boundaries of their own immediate surroundings to include the larger environment beyond school walls, their own communities, and even their own national borders. Schools will have to accept the responsibility for teaching about such things as global interdependence. Furthermore, we need to recognize that if we commit to a systematic, planned program of moral education based on the above definition, other changes will be necessary. For example, Kohlberg maintains that schools are not especially moral as they are now arranged. He posits that the school atmosphere is generally a combination of a "punishment stage" and a "law and order stage" which creates an authority-based pattern of behavior. Thus students are told what to think rather than helped to discover how to think and form independent judgments for right and wrong that will allow them to take their places in an interdependent world. To change this situation, we as educators must be willing to examine ourselves and modify our teaching.

Reality 2: Moral education is as basic as reading, writing and arithmetic

Some voices in the debate about moral education in the public schools argue that schools cannot teach the "basics" and so they believe that schools should not be entrusted with the complex task of moral development. Obviously, if moral education is a primary societal function of schools, then it is a basic and should be considered as important as the other basic skills. What could be more fundamental than group survival and progressive development of our communities and nation? How can such development be assured without the stability and continuity provided by common national agreement upon moral precepts shared across generations and geography?

The problem created by the importance of moral education as a basic element of schooling is not so much whether schools should systematically plan and implement programs of moral education, but rather, what specifically should those programs contain. What is worth preserving? Within the basis of moral education, what is really basic? These questions about content provide the focus for the moral education controversy which has been intensifying during the last several years. Given extremes such as the "creationists" who do not want evolution em-

phasized and the "civil libertarians" who are against any restrictions of curricular content, how do we as educators know what to teach?

It seems necessary here to differentiate between moral education and moral indoctrination. The latter concentrates on content while the former is essentially a process. The latter assumes that those in control know what is right/best/appropriate for all, and the former exemplifies a faith that individuals who possess good thinking skills can make decisions about right and wrong for themselves. Planned moral development in schools would include building those important skills within the cognitive domain such as the abilities to analyze antecedents and consequents, to generate alternatives and to evaluate possible solutions. Can we give the next generation anything less than these skills when we know how rapidly the world is changing and how different the conditions of their adult world are likely to be from those of ours?

Reality 3: Moral education occurs every day in every classroom

Strangely perhaps, conscientious teachers and some critics of contemporary education agree on one point. Both question the ability of teachers to assume responsibility for the moral development of children other than their own. The teachers point out that they were not trained to be instructors of morality; and understandably, they hesitate to tread into such a sensitive and controversial area. The critics note that there is no guarantee assuring teachers are morally superior to any other group in society. Thus they question the qualifications of teachers for instilling moral development.

Though the question of teacher capacity seems to be an important issue, it is one which must be relegated at this time to the realm of "academic debate." The reality, if we choose to confront it, is that moral education "comes with the territory" for anyone working with young people, particularly in explicitly defined learning situations such as public school classrooms. Teachers tell children what to do and make evaluations of their work and behavior. They monitor social relations within the schools, and they reward and punish students for a variety of things. They cite certain youngsters as character models to be emulated by the others. Even bulletin boards and worksheets mirror values of teachers and curriculum designers who may or may not be aware of their power of influence in the moral domain. If teaching behavior were monitored and recorded by an impartial observer, most teachers would be shocked at the frequency of their perhaps implicit but ever powerful moralizing. Thus, the school and the classroom provide a natural and unavoidable daily environment for the shaping of children's values in ways which can be both extremely explicit and intended and terribly subtle and unconscious.

The research indicates that the power teachers have is not limited to the communication of general values and expectations. Children's basic judgmental responses are modifiable also through adult cues. Bandura and Walters (1969) found that a child's acquisition of adult moral standards is the gradual process of imitating observable values and behaviors of others to a considerable extent. Modeling emerged in the Cowan study (1969) as a significant determinant of moral judgment regardless of the direction in which the behavior was being modified. These findings are particularly important for the adolescent who is beginning to look less to parents as paradigms and more to other adults as identifying figures. Teachers are certainly among those significant adults who can and do serve as vital models for children's developing moral sence.

Thus, whether it is good or not, whether we like it or not, all teachers are instructors of morality, and moral education occurs every day in every classroom. One problem this reality creates for educators is an issue of awareness; another is an issue of personal commitment.

First, do we really understand the role and influence we have in the moral development of students? Are we aware of what specific values we are modeling and communicating with the myriad of actions we take each day in our classrooms? And second, do we want the responsibility? Can we be confident that students are receiving the "right" messages from us? How might we change our behaviors to improve the moral education provided by our presence? And how much time, energy and personal involvement are we willing to commit to the effort? To begin to answer these and other questions, we must be aware of several things.

We need to know one major requisite of encouraging moral growth lies in its demonstration, i.e. the modeling of appropriate behavior such as the cognitive skills noted earlier. Teachers model appropriately for students by being willing to learn, to listen and to change positions on an issue as more information is gained, but not by reacting to annoying behavior with emotional heat while preaching tolerance and understanding. Students grow when they model teachers who exhibit a clear consistency between their rhetoric and their behavior and who seem to know where they are going to derive satisfaction from their lives. Students are particularly responsive to those teachers who are genuinely interested in them and their ideas, who can be reached because they listen and appropriately question, who avoid preaching, and who demonstrate patience without exhibiting sarcasm and authoritarianism. Teachers need to be aware that some students have attained a personal level of moral development above that of their age peer group. They can suffer greatly from what may be termed an invalidation of their perceptions. Thus, they in particular need teachers as models and facilitators to accept their perceptions and to help them build upon and refine them. We need to know all these things as we decide about our individual roles as instructors or morality, **and** we need to remember that as long as we are teachers, we **are** in this role. The only question is whether or not we choose to approach it in a planned and thoughtful manner.

The essence of planned moral education in schools should be for the teacher to create opportunities for students to organize their own experiences in ever more complex ways and then internalize the material so they can pursue further development after formal education is over. There have been many strategies designed to aid teachers in stimulating moral development in systematic ways. These include role playing, peer counseling, learning of ethical philosophy, tutoring, interviewing, direct instruction, disciplining, values clarification, study of logic and generally the provision of a warm, understanding and supportive atmosphere. Some attempts have been made also to outline particular vehicles for moral education within specific subject matter areas.

For instance, arts and sciences can be utilized to develop a stage and level of aesthetic comprehension, expression and judgment. Appropriate use of materials for

learning might include literary works, newspapers, biographies and famous credos and maxims. Certain contemporary cartoons may be used to promote moral development. Because principled morality is enhanced by the capacity to take another's role and understand another's perspective, the study of biography can provide students with vicarious modeling of values. Biography and other literature nonthreatening vehicles for encouraging development of moral values while at the same time attending to basic skills of reading.

Social studies are also a rich source of possibilities for promoting moral growth. There are issues to discuss, historical decisions to analyze, questions to ask and ideas to probe, all stemming from the real world. Therefore they are accepted more readily by students as personally relevant. Newpapers can become texts for moral issues as well as current events.

Science and math contribute toward stimulation of principled thought and abstract reasoning. Problem-solving, the study of logic and reasoning about ethical issues within science, provides appropriate exercises for encouraging moral growth. Science and math can enhance moral development through the use of inquiry, investigation, formulation of principles and analysis with careful articulation of possible solutions.

All of these methods and strategies can be defended as appropriate learning materials for the generally acknowledged basics while providing opportunity for moral growth. The key to success with such materials is to know them thoroughly. Then the teacher should study not one, but several highly recommended books on theory of moral development and application of moral education. Materials then can be selected which provide opportunities to develop moral growth in nonthreatening ways. The basic principle underlying effective use of strategies in sensitive areas is that teachers must be learners themselves, never stopping in their search for new evidence and ideas.

All in all, moral education has an ominous sound and the current controversies surrounding it seem threatening to educators until the essentials are reexamined:

- Schools are value-laden institutions with societal functions relating directly to the survival and progress of our nation.
- All teachers are engaged in moral education even as they wonder if they are doing it right.
- Moral education must continue if we as educators are to fulfill our responsibilities to the next generation and thereby to our society.

With the current interest in moral education **and** the diminishing influence of church, parents and traditions, we as educators may feel compelled—but also have the opportunity—to structure some deliberate moral education within our schools and educational system.

Scratch a critic of moral education, and it is likely that underneath is someone who just wants to do things his or her way. However, if a learning climate is created in which students find the courage to be imperfect, learn how to correct mistakes, develop reasoning powers and practice principled behavior, those teachers will be performing that essential part of their responsibility which does indeed "come with the territory."

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Comments on the Second Report of the Teachers Leaving the Field Committee: An address to the Flint Hills Educational Research and Development Association

Why are Kansas teachers leaving the profession?

by James N. Akin

Introduction

My comments today are based on the second report of the "Teachers Leaving the Field Committee," charged by the Teacher Standards Board of the State of Kansas, to determine and document specific reasons for teachers leaving their profession, and to ascertain the magnitude of the departure.

The committee is and has been comprised of two school teachers, a board member, a career development person, a vocational-technical teacher, a personnel administrator, representatives of the State Department of Education, a School of Education faculty member, . . . and one superintendent who never participated.

We received considerable support from the Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory (MCREL) during the first year, from the State Department of Education, from school administrators from throughout the state, and of course, from departing school teachers.

Questionnaires were made available to 1,729 teachers who had indicated to their administrators that they were leaving their districts. A total of 743 useable responses (43 percent) were received in time to be used in the report. Data which was received later is being used in an analysis of shortage fields.

Procedure

All 307 districts in Kansas were asked to provide lists of teachers who were leaving their districts at the end of the 1980-81 school year. One hundred eighty-four (60 percent) of the districts provided the researchers with lists of departing teachers. Administrators were asked to provide the departing teachers with questionnaires which were completed and anonymously returned to the Kansas State Department of Education.

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PROBLEM

Teacher supply/demand has been receiving increasing attention since 1976 when I completed a report which was distributed by the Association for School, College and University Staffing (ASCUS). That report has been continued as an annual activity and has been joined by numerous other surveys, reports and articles on this subject from throughout the United States.

There is a documented decline in the rate of graduation or "production" of new teachers from universities. This decline approaches 60 percent over the past decade in the United States and exceeds 50 percent in Kansas. In addition, many experienced teachers are known to be leaving teaching. The likelihood of those teachers returning to teaching at some future time is unknown. Future demand will be affected by changes in the teacher/pupil ratio, tightening economy, the "back to basics" movement and changes in the number of students to be educated.

The special thrust of this study was to document characteristics of a representative sample of Kansas teachers who were leaving their teaching jobs at the end of the 1980-81 year. The goal of the study was to provide information to guide future efforts toward improving conditions toward the end of attracting and retaining highly qualified teachers for the schools of Kansas.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Early groupings of the data included analysis by (1) elementary and secondary teachers, and (2) those who planned to or wished to teach the following year versus those who are dropping out of the field. Other variables included mobility, long term teaching prospects, sex, type of school, size of district, subject taught (position description), age, years of experience and reasons given for leaving.

SUMMATION OF DATA

Approximately two-thirds of the departing teachers did not wish to teach the next school year in a different district. These "non-seekers" included 162 males (35.1 percent) and 299 females (64.8 percent). Fifty-one percent of the departing females and 68 percent of the departing males had not accepted and were not seeking new teaching positions for the 1981-82 school year.

Of the 439 teachers (approximately two-thirds of the total) who indicated they would not plan to teach the following year, 97 (22 percent) said that they would plan to teach sometime in the future; 165 (38 percent) indicated that they would not teach again; and 177 (40 percent) said that they didn't know whether they would ever teach again. Twenty-two percent of the 720 responding teachers were leaving Kansas and were lost to the state teacher pool.

The larger the district the less likely departing teachers were to be seeking new positions. Of the four groups of schools (by size) the percentage of departing teachers planning to relocate into new positions ranged from 42 percent, 39 percent, 38 percent to 29 percent in the smallest to the largest districts, respectively.

Certain subjects (or job assignments) appeared to have a higher than average rate of teachers dropping out of the profession; these were elementary (self contained),

science, fine arts areas, reading, home economics, counseling and industrial arts.

Of the 743 teachers leaving their districts 52 percent were age 30 or younger. Approximately 37 percent of those departing teachers who were of age 26 through 40 planned to continue teaching in another district. Those teachers aged 41-55 who were departing expressed much greater interest in relocating into a new teaching position. Early mobility should not be surprising since mobility is tolerated only during early years by district salary schedules.

Teachers not planning to teach during the next school year viewed classroom problems as more significant than did teachers who were seeking new teaching positions (2.85 to 3.45 with 1 = greatest and 5 = least significance). Teachers with one year of experience ranked classroom problems higher than did other departing teachers **only** if they were not planning or wishing to teach the following year.

Personal reasons were more significant to females (2.26) then to males (2.92) among those who did not plan to teach the following year. Men at the senior high school level reported personal reasons as significant more often than did men at other levels while females at the senior high school level less frequently indicated that personal reasons were significant than did women at other levels. Elementary teachers indicated that the most influential factors causing them to leave their teaching positions were: (1) family responsibilities, (2) lack of administrative support, (3) salary, (4) spouse moving and (5) other personal reasons. Secondary teachers said that their reasons for resigning were: (1) salary, (2) lack of administrative support, (3) extra duty assignments, (4) "other" personal reasons and (5) fringe benefits.

An interesting side comparison reveals that males who were not planning to move to a new teaching position and females who did plan to teach the following year reported financial reasons as being more important in their decision to depart. Females tended to rank school climate as being more significant (2.82) than did males (3.00). Community reasons were more important to teachers leaving smaller as opposed to larger school districts and to those who were planning to teach elsewhere as compared to those who are dropping out of teaching.

SUMMARY

Personal reasons were more influential to departing teachers if they were female, had taught two to five years, taught at the elementary level, were leaving a large district or were seeking a new teaching position.

School climate was cited as more significant by departing teachers who were female, had one to nine years experience, taught at the senior high level in districts with 1,000 to 4,999 students and were seeking or had obtained new positions for the next school year.

Finances were more likely to be identified as very significant by departing teachers who were male, had ten or more years experience, taught at the senior high level, were leaving one of the largest districts and were not planning to teach during the following year.

Classroom problems were more likely to be identified by departing teachers who had one year of experience (however, those teachers with ten years experience or more were also concerned about this), had taught in one of the largest schools (least significant in smallest) or were not planning to teach the following year.

Community factors were more often cited by teachers who had taught one year (however, teachers with ten or more years of experience also cited this item), taught at the middle school level, taught in one of the smallest schools, or were planning or hoping to teach during the following year.

FUTURE EFFORTS

The committee has selected two major thrusts for the current year: One effort will be to gather information about and to understand the teachers' perception of "lack of administrative support." This may be a general frustration aimed at a general lack of support for teachers and education or may deal with specific issues. The committee will also gather information from other research efforts to supplement the two reports which have been completed by the committee.

Teacher dropouts may be reduced by studying teacher career development.

Why educators should consider teacher career development

by Paul Burden

Administrators, supervisors, school board members, legislators and the voting public make decisions about supervisory practices, staff development programs, funding and other support services that affect teachers. By recognizing the characteristics of teacher career development, these decision-makers can help reduce the number of teacher dropouts, help meet teachers' needs at different career stages and promote further teacher development.

A brief review of teacher career development is provided here along with a discussion of reasons why educators should consider teacher career development.

Research on teacher career development

A growing body of research indicates that teachers have different job skills, knowledge, behaviors, attitudes and concerns at different points in their careers (e.g. Burden, 1970, 1980; Fuller, 1969, 1970; Fuller and Bown, 1975; Newman, 1978; Peterson, 1978), and that these changes occur in a regular developmental pattern. These studies provide evidence for stages in teachers' career development.

Teacher career development deals with changes teachers experience throughout their careers in: (1) **job skills, knowledge and behaviors**—in areas such as teaching methods, discipline strategies, curriculum, planning, rules and procedures; (2) **attitudes and outlooks**—in areas such as images of teaching, professional confidence and maturity, willingness to try new teaching methods, satisfactions, concerns, values, and beliefs; and (3) **job events**—in areas such as changes in grade level, school, or district; involvement in additional professional responsibilities; and age of entry and retirement.

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Fuller and Bown (1975) identified four stages of concerns in the process of becoming a teacher after reviewing research by Fuller and others: (1) preteaching concerns, (2) early concerns about self, (3) teaching situation concerns, and (4) concerns about pupils. Fuller (1969, 1970) proposed three phases of teacher development. The three phases of concerns were with: (1) self, (2) self as teacher, and (3) pupils. Details about job events, attitudes, and knowledge gains in these reports were sparse. Aspects of job mobility have been described by Burden (1983).

Evidence for three stages of development in the early part of a teaching career was reported by Burden (1979, 1980) from an interview of experienced teachers. Details concerning research design, methodology and findings can be found in these earlier reports. Briefly stated, stage I, a **survival stage,** occurred during the first year of teaching. The teachers reported their limited knowledge of teaching activities and environment; they were subject-centered and felt they had little professional insight; they lacked confidence and were unwilling to try new methods; they found themselves conforming to their preconceived image of "teacher."

Stage II, an **adjustment stage,** occurred for these teachers in the second through fourth years. The teachers reported that during this period they were learning a great deal about planning and organization, about children, curriculum and methods. They gradually gained confidence in themselves and began to discover that students are people.

Stage III, the **mature stage,** was comprised of the fifth and subsequent years of teaching. Teachers in this stage felt they had a good command of teaching activities and the environment. They were more child-centered, felt confident and secure, and were willing to try new teaching methods. They found they had gradually abandoned their image of "teacher," had gained professional insight and felt they could handle most new situations that might arise.

Newman (1978) obtained middle-aged experienced teachers' perceptions of their career development in an interview study and identified stages of career development for each decade of the teaching career reflecting changes in attitudes, satisfactions, mobility and professional behaviors. Three attitudinal phases of teacher career development were reported in a study of 50 retired teachers conducted by Peterson (1978). Other research studies which have examined only part of teachers' careers (e.g. only the first year or the first few years) seem to confirm the stages of teacher career development reported in all the above studies.

Implications for educators

By recognizing the characteristics of teacher career development, practitioners, teacher educators and researchers can help achieve the objectives which are discussed below.

(1) Reduce the dropout rate in the early years

Survival rates for teachers reported in several available studies have not been consistent. In a recent study, Mark and Anderson (1978) reported that in 1972 the survival rate after four years of teaching was about 60 percent, up considerably over the 30 percent in a 1960 Oregon study that they reviewed.

Even after four years of college training, including student teaching, many teachers begin their first year not knowing whether teaching is the best career choice for them. This uncertainty is consistent with Super's (1975) description of the exploratory stage of career development. Teacher educators could include information about teacher career development and the teaching career in the preservice teacher education program. With this fuller view of the teaching career, some preservice teachers might conclude that teaching wasn't what they were expecting and switch majors to explore other careers before finishing their teacher education programs. Thus, having information about teacher career development available for students in the preservice program may help some individuals select themselves out of teaching. Those who continue in the teacher education program would presumably be more certain, by comparison, of their career selection and would have more commitment. The dropout rate in the early years of service would likely be lower.

Administrators, supervisors and staff developers also could help reduce the dropout rate in the first few years with an understanding of the characteristics of teacher career development. With a recognition of the unique needs and concerns of teachers in the early years of service, better assistance could be provided. It is likely that the dropout rate would be lower if these teachers could get the help they need during their early years. Fortunately, there has been increasing interest in meeting the needs of teachers during induction, typically defined to include the first three years of teaching following the completion of the preservice program (Hall, 1982a). Recent reviews provide more information on induction (Elias, Fisher & Simon, 1980; Johnston, 1981; Hall, 1982b).

(2) Meet teacher needs at different stages in their careers

From the data available on teacher career development, it is clear that teachers have different skills and needs at different points in their careers. By knowing the characteristics of teacher career development and the influences on development, supervisors and administrators can respond to teachers' needs at different stages. After examining teacher development research studies, Glickman (1980, 1981) suggested developmental supervision as an alternative practice for helping teachers at various points in their careers.

Teacher stress and teacher burnout have received considerable attention recently. Factors relating to teacher career development provide insight into stress teachers may experience at different points in their careers. Furthermore, with an understanding of teacher career development, more appropriate assistance may be provided to meet teachers' needs at different points in their careers, thus reducing teacher stress and increasing teacher vitality. For each career stage, Burden (1982) suggested that supervisors provide different types of assistance and use different supervisory approaches in an effort to meet the teachers' needs and reduce stress at these stages.

(3) Facilitate further development

Hunt and associates (1971) demonstrated that teachers at more advanced developmental stages were viewed as more effective classroom teachers in several ways. Burden's (1979, 1980) work suggests that there are sequential, cumulative and hierarchial changes throughout the teaching career. Research on teacher effectiveness suggests that teachers at higher developmental and conceptual levels may be more flexible, more stress-tolerant and more adaptive in professional functioning than teachers at lower conceptual levels (Hunt and Joyce, 1967; Murphy and Brown, 1970; Kohlberg, 1969).

If more advanced stages result in more effective instruction, as some of these studies suggest, supervisors and administrators should facilitate development to these advanced stages. Teachers' understandings and interpretations of their own development can be a positive influence on their further development. To achieve that objective during inservice programs, Newman, Burden, and Applegate (1980) suggested a number of specific ways teachers could examine their long range career development.

(4) Build a data base for a theory of teacher career development

When practitioners, teacher educators and researchers examine teacher career development, they may recognize some deficiencies in the available data and may be interested in conducting additional research to add to the data base. Research in this area is in a state of infancy and additional research would help define and clarify developmental characteristics and influences, and thus help achieve the objectives discussed above.

With more data, a theory of teacher career development could be proposed which would provide a conceptual framework for developmental influences and characteristics. Others have called for the development of this theory (Getzels and Jackson, 1964; Schutes, 1975; Ryan, 1979; McNergney and Crook, 1980; Sprinthall, 1980; and Sprinthall and Theis-Sprinthall, 1980). In a review of teacher education, Schalock (1980) focused on the absent research and discussed the value of data in theory development.

Conclusion

Administrators, supervisors and school board members can help reduce the number of teacher dropouts, help meet teachers' needs, and promote further teacher development when they recognize the characteristics of teacher career development. Decisions by these people concerning supervisory practices, staff development programs, funding, and resource services could be supportive of teachers who have different skills and needs at different points in their careers.

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If we are serious about excellence in education, every high school should have a "university in the school" program.

The relationships between public education and higher education: Neutrality, symbiosis or antagonism

by Richard E. Ishler

Current situation

In describing the relationships which currently exist between the public schools and higher education, neutrality, symbiosis and antagonism are all applicable.

1. **Neutrality**—one of the dictionary definitions is "a state of disengagement." This probably is the best definition of the current relationships. We don't pay much attention to one another. The schools do their own thing and higher education tends to ignore them except for "college nights" when we try to entice "their" students to become "our" students. Conversely, public schools tend to think of higher education folks as "ivory towerish," unapproachable, steeped in theory and totally unfamiliar with the real world of the classroom.
2. **Symbiosis**—The dictionary defines symbiosis as the living together of two dissimilar organisms in close association or union, especially where this is advantageous to both. Clearly, schools and universities are dissimilar organizations, and this term cannot be used to describe the current relationships between lower and higher education. I will make the case later that this could and should be the type of relationship which we must strive for and one which would be advantageous both to the public schools and to higher education.
3. **Antagonism**—Webster defines antagonism as the state of being in active opposition to someone or something. This term may be a little too strong to adequately describe the current relationships between schools and universities, primarily because the opposition to one another is more passive than active. Dr. Richard Lyman, until recently the President of the Rockfeller Foundation, said "One reason why the dividing line between schools and universities in this country so often seems more like a grand canyon than a grade crossing is because secondary school teachers and scholars have so little sense of being involved in a common enterprise." Therein lies the problem. Today with more than 50 percent of all high school graduates going on to college, an antagonistic relationship between schools and universities is detrimental to our youth.

Relationships between schools and universities for teacher education programs

Most formal relationships which exist today between schools and universities are for the purpose of providing laboratories for field experiences for teacher education programs. While these arrangements are useful and beneficial for teacher training programs, they leave much to be desired, i.e., they are necessary but not sufficient. Most are not really "cooperative" arrangements, but rather they are controlled by the schools. While the schools could, and some do, benefit greatly as a result of having college students at various levels of training (observers, participants, student teachers, interns) available to assist in the educational process, the following conditions prevail:

1. University students and university professors are considered to be "guests" in the school and are not treated as partners.
2. Many public school teachers view university students, particularly observers and particpants, as a nuisance and do not take advantage of their expertise to assist them in teaching the children in their classrooms. There are few efforts to recognize that these people can make a contribution to the teaching/learning process. But teachers do complain about not being able to individualize education for their students.
3. Many "excellent" teachers will not accept student teachers because they perceive them as liabilities rather than assets in their classrooms. This is particularly appalling because research clearly indicates that the cooperating teacher is the single most important influence in shaping behaviors of student teachers. Furthermore, student teachers adopt the teaching behaviors of cooperating teachers and, thus, it behooves us to place student teachers with the best teachers in the school.
4. University supervisors of student teachers spend a great deal of time in the public schools, but if they give advice or are in any way critical of curriculum

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or teaching methodologies, they are not very welcome in the school. School people often resent being told how to do something in a different and perhaps better way.

Need for cooperative working relationships

Most public universities have an open admissions policy. This means that any student who makes it through high school has the right and indeed the privilege to enter a public university. Today nearly 80 percent of the students finish high school. Hence, we receive students of all abilities and of all degrees of preparedness to do college work. We can take one of two different positions regarding this reality:

1. We can take their money, or their parents' money, maintain our standards, and say "tough" if they don't succeed. And, of course, many will not succeed even if we provide remedial education for all who are in need of it.
2. Or we can establish collaborative programs with public schools to improve the education of college-bound students. It's such a simple point—and yet in recent years this school/college relationship has been essentially ignored. We've pretended that we could have quality in higher education without working with the schools which are, in fact, the foundation of everything we do.

My premise is that schools and universities must begin to work together to improve the educational system—elementary school through graduate education. But, the relationship must be truly cooperative because the University people cannot simply tell the elementary and secondary teachers what to do.

Principles for building bridges between public school and higher education

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is undertaking a major project in school/college partnerships, and Ernest Boyer, (1981), President, says the following principles are absolutely crucial if we hope to build bridges between secondary and higher education:

1. **Educators at both levels must agree that they do indeed have common problems.** Knute Rockne once said to his football team at Notre Dame at their first practice, "We are going to start with the basics. Gentlemen, this is a football." This is how basic this principle is!

   Since the mid 1960s, the verbal and mathematics SAT scores have gone down; as have ACT scores in English, social science and mathematics; the Iowa test scores have declined in all areas for grades nine through twelve; National Assessment for Educational Progress data show declines in science at each age level and a decline in writing skills at ages 13 and 17. Ironically, a recent Kettering Foundation survey revealed that 50 percent of the students in the elementary grades and 25 percent of the high school students feel that they are not being asked to work hard enough in school.
2. **The traditional academic "pecking order" must be overcome.** For many years colleges and universities have had a "plantation mentality" about the schools. Higher education set the ground rules and the schools were expected to passively go along. Consider, for example, that teachers, principals and superintendents are rarely consulted when admission requirements (or graduation) are set even though they may have an impact on the public school curriculum. Ways must be found to bring educators at all levels together and break down the ivory tower vis-a-vis workers in the vineyards attitudes.
3. **If Collaboration Is To Succeed, The Projects It Fosters Must Be Sharply Focused.** It is important that goals be clearly delineated and that projects initially be limited to one or two. Some of the successful collaboration efforts have started with curricular areas like English and calculus where courses in the last year of high school and the first year of college overlap.
4. **Those who participate in collaborative activities must get recognition and rewards.** Such rewards for successful projects include giving adjunct professor status to certain high school teachers, tuition reduction and university personnel receiving service credit toward tenure, promotion and salary increases.
5. **Collaboration must focus on action, not machinery.** The most successful school/college programs are those for which people see a need and find time to act, with little-red-tape or extra funding. Consider the powerful impact on schools and on public attitudes if each college across the land were to have at least one department work with a high school or two on upgrading some program activity in music, in language, in science, or in the visual arts. And much of this can be done without elaborate arrangements and extensive funding.

Examples of collaborative efforts between schools and universities

The following are exaples of possibilities for schools and universities to begin their collaborative arrangements.

1. Personnel from school districts and universities work together to develop curriculum in the various subject areas, articulation of curriculum K through college.
2. A university could "adopt" a school which sends large groups of students to it particularly if those students are not generally well prepared. They can collaborate to improve the skills of college-bound students.
3. Universities can teach freshman level courses to college-bound high school students in the local high school. This can become an honors program at the high school.
4. Project Advance at Syracuse University (1981) is the largest program in the U.S. offering the high schools regular college courses for credit, taught by high school (not university) faculty. SUPA was initiated in 1973 in six Syracuse high schools but in 1980-81, served 76 high schools and 4,000 students in New York, Massachusetts, Michigan and New Jersey. High school students take courses in biology, calculus, chemistry, English, psychology, religion and sociology which are transferable to any college or university. These courses are taught by high school teachers trained by Syracuse University and supervised by professors of appropriate

departments. Evaluations have shown that these students who are generally in the top 20 percent of their class, do as well as or better than college freshmen who take the same course on the university campus. This program has been so successful that Syracuse is getting calls from high schools across the country wanting to participate. If we are truly serious about excellence in education, there should be a "university in the schools" program in every high school; and the local college or university should be directing them. Such programs would not only help gifted students but would also bring recognition to gifted teachers.

5. Exchange of Consultants or Resource Personnel. University faculty could be available to schools and public school teachers could be available to universities to serve as resources or consultants. Semester exchanges could even occur, i.e., a high school English teacher would teach at the university and the Professor would teach in the high school. This would facilitate understanding and cooperation.
6. Bay Area Writing Project—This University-School project began at Berkeley in 1978. It has succeeded precisely because the partners agreed to solve one specific problem. Simply stated, the purpose of the project is to help high school teachers improve their teaching of writing. Summer institutes and in-service training led by university faculty and by high school teachers are used to achieve this goal. Those selected are named "University Fellows." They become consultants to other schools in the district and receive release time. This project is funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities, Carnegie Foundation and the California State Department of Education. The most recent evaluation of the project shows that students who are taught writing by teachers participating in the project, perform on the average about twice as well as those taught by non-project teachers.

In summary, there is a tremendous need for schools and universities to work together to provide educational programs which will ultimately be beneficial to both lower education and higher education. The climate is right for such relationships to be established. Who will take the initiative to begin the talks which are necessary to break the ice and the barriers, real or perceived, which exist? I challenge the leaders in institutions of higher education to make the first moves. Cooperation is in the best interest of all of us.

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This study showed that student teachers can influence cooperating teachers views in planning activities and using curriculum materials.

Impact of student teachers on cooperating teachers

by David P. Lopez
and
John I. Thomas

Introduction

Are senior student teachers able to carry out major responsibility for the final phase of their professional preparation? As perceived by their cooperating public school teachers, to what extent can they influence the ways elementary school teachers view teaching? In a recent study the authors, as part of New Mexico State University's instructional team responsible for the training and supervision of senior student teachers, sought to answer these questions. What follows describes their training experiences, significant results of their professional preparation, and the nature of their influence on their cooperating teachers' views of nine process skills of teaching.

The Process Skills of Teaching: Professional Preparation

During the 1981 spring semester, the authors prepared the student teachers to implement nine carefully selected process skills of teaching in public school classrooms selected for student teaching. These consisted of planning appropriate activities for pupils, organizing activities to meet pupils' academic needs and personal interests, employing effective teaching methodologies, using productive curriculum materials, applying techniques for motivating pupils, reinforcing pupils' learning, establishing rapport with pupils, individualizing learning experiences and evaluating the academic progress of pupils.

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The Teaching Laboratory

The teaching laboratory established for this preparation included 68 senior elementary student teachers. The authors instructed and supervised 38 of these. A major focus of the laboratory centered on the professional preparation of New Mexico's 46 percent ethnic minority population (36.6 percent Hispanic, 8 percent American Indian, and 1.4 percent Black). Consequently, the students' training was designed to prepare them to teach in culturally diversified classrooms. The development and implementation of the process skills investigated in this study constituted the heart of their preparation.

The student teachers assumed a very large responsibility for their professional preparation. They opted to work for a C, B or A grade by individually selecting course syllabus activities necessary to prepare them to implement the nine process skills effectively in their public school classrooms. As a result of observation, guidance and supervision of their progress by the authors, they arrived at their decisions primarily on the basis of what they sought to develop and improve. For example, student teachers who felt they needed to improve their skills in planning and organizing appropriate activities for their pupils selected those activities in the syllabus designed for these purposes. Thus they were called upon to write lesson plans, present them to peer groups for criticism and suggestions for improvement and submit them to the teaching laboratory's instructors for further assessment. This was followed by implementation of the plans in their public school classrooms.

To earn a grade of "A" only one option beyond those included in the basic requirements and in the "C" and "B" options was required of the student teachers. This option was to implement a project of their own choosing for a period of four to eight weeks in their student teaching classrooms. A partial list of the projects outlined in the course syllabus for this purpose included:

a. A social studies unit taught through simulation.
b. An operetta and study of its era.
c. A program for creative children.
d. An individualized learning program.
e. A program for gifted children.
f. A reading program taught through dance, music and drama.
g. A learning-centered classroom.

Additionally, student teachers assumed responsibilities for projects other than those stated in their course syllabus. That is, they opted for projects they felt would improve their pupils' academic performance and thereby positively influence their cooperating teachers' views of the nine process skills of teaching which constituted this study.

Integrative Seminars

To note the impact of the student teachers' application of the nine process skills on their cooperating teachers' views of teaching, the authors conducted weekly seminars during the full-time student teaching phase of the semester (eight weeks). Each seminar converged on the successes and problems associated with the student teachers' application of the process skills in their public school classrooms. As supervisors of the 38 students comprising this study, the authors focused their attention on the inte-

gration of the students' personal goals with the process skills implemented in their student teaching.

On-site seminars were conducted in the individual classrooms of the student teachers to better note the varied teaching environments, materials used, classroom organizations, pupil accomplishments and other aspects related to the application of the process skills, especially as they pertained to their individually selected projects for implementation in the schools.

Implementation of the Process Skills

To ascertain the extent to which the student teachers' application of the nine process skills of teaching influenced their cooperating teachers' views of teaching, the authors devised a questionnaire directed to this problem, collected and tabulated the data, analyzed them and interpreted the results.

Collection of Data

Data were collected from all participating teachers. A questionnaire composed of the nine process skills of teaching investigated in this study was designed for this purpose (See Table 1).

The cooperating teachers were asked to rank the extent to which their views of the process skills were influenced as a result of their implementation by their student teachers. A Likert-type scale, ranging from no influence and slightly influenced to strongly influenced was used to measure the degree of the teachers' perceptions. Table 2 shows the data collected and the degrees of influence.

Analysis of Data

To analyze the data, the findings of this study were clustered into two categories as shown in Table 2. One category depicts the number of cooperating teachers who were influenced in varying degrees by their student teachers' implementation of the process skills. The secondary category shows the number of cooperating teachers who were not influenced at all by their student teachers' use of the process skills of teaching.

As shown in the data, the highest degree of influence by the student teachers on their cooperating teachers' views was in the process skill of planning appropriate activities for pupils and in their use of productive curriculum materials. Thirty-four of 38 cooperating teachers were influenced slightly to strongly in the former, and 32 of 38

Table 1

Cooperating Public School Teachers' Perceptions of Student Teachers' Influence on Selected Process Skills of Teaching

Please place a check mark (✓) in the box that best reflects your position on each of the following statements.

MY STUDENT TEACHER HAS INFLUENCED THE WAY I WILL IN THE FUTURE . . .	Strongly Influenced	Moderately Influenced	Slightly Influenced	No Influence
plan appropriate classroom activities for my pupils.				
organize classroom activities to meet my pupils' academic needs and personal interests.				
use effective teaching methods.				
implement curriculum materials productively				
apply techniques for motivating my pupils to learn.				
reinforce my pupils' learning.				
establish rapport with my pupils.				
individualize my pupils' learning experiences.				
evaluate the academic progress of my pupils.				

Table 2

Cooperating Teachers' Responses to the Degree of Influence Exerted by Student Teachers on Selected Teaching Criteria

Process Skills of Teaching	Strongly Influenced		Moderately Influenced		Slightly Influenced		No Influence	
	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%
Planning appropriate activities for pupils	1	2.6	19	50.0	14	36.8	4	10.5
Organizing activities for pupil needs and interests	1	2.6	11	28.9	10	26.3	16	42.1
Using effective teaching methods	1	2.6	9	23.6	18	47.3	10	26.3
Implementing curriculum materials productively	2	5.2	18	47.4	12	31.5	6	15.7
Applying techniques for motivating pupils to learn	1	2.6	8	21.0	14	36.8	15	39.4
Reinforcing pupils' learning	2	5.2	6	15.7	13	34.2	17	44.7
Establishing rapport with pupils	1	2.6	5	13.1	12	31.5	20	52.6
Individualizing learning experiences	1	2.6	4	10.5	13	34.2	20	52.6
Evaluating academic progress of pupils	1	2.6	4	10.5	11	28.9	22	57.8

were influenced similarly in the latter category. The next highest degree of influence was in the employment of effective teaching methodologies, with 28 of 38 cooperating teachers influenced slightly to strongly by their student teachers' teaching methods.

According to the data, the student teachers influenced their cooperating teachers least in the process skills of establishing rapport with pupils, individualizing instruction and evaluating the progress of pupils. More than half of the cooperating teachers stated they were not influenced by their student teachers' use of these teaching skills, as shown in Table 2.

It is pertinent to note, also, that the majority of the 38 cooperating teachers were influenced slightly to strongly in their student teachers' implementation of those process skills related to organizing classroom activities (57.8 percent), motivating pupils (60.4 percent) and reinforcing pupils (55.1 percent).

Summary and Discussion

Two fundamental questions were the focus of this study. Are senior student teachers able to carry out major responsibility for the final phase of their professional preparation? As perceived by their cooperating public school teachers, to what extent can they change the ways elementary school teachers view teaching?

Given the opportunity to freely select and implement projects in their respective public school classrooms, the 38 student teachers comprising this study established enriching and rewarding experiences for the pupils they taught. Although the achievement of an "A" grade may well have provided the stimulus for these experiences, the results nevertheless were especially gratifying for the pupils. Some of the pupils, for example, participated in the early American westward expansion via role simulation. Others, similarly, moved northward from Mexico in the 1500s with Juan de Onate to explore and settle the Southwest, taking on the simulated roles of wagonmasters, farmers, soldiers, scouts and Indians. Still others learned about dinosaurs through self-instructional activities, such as those implemented in learning-centered classrooms established by the student teachers.

Individualized learning, peer tutoring and self-paced activities for pupils were representative of other projects carried out by student teachers from four to eight weeks during their student teaching phase. Some of their projects were not restricted to the classrooms in which they taught. Three student teachers, for example, went so far as to implement a project of Spanish language instruction cooperatively for pupils across several classrooms.

To what extent did the student teachers influence the ways their cooperating public school teachers viewed elementary school teaching? With respect to the nine process skills of teaching examined in this study, the data showed that better than 50 percent of the cooperating teachers' views were influenced moderately to strongly in planning appropriate activities for their pupils (52.6 percent), and using curriculum materials productively (52.6 percent). These findings have proved useful in the assessment of New Mexico State University's teacher training

program for senior student teachers in elementary education. It may be inferred from the data that the Department of Curriculum and Instruction is significantly training its student teachers in these two process skills of teaching, and that the student teachers have influenced a significant number of cooperating public school teachers to consider changing their ways of planning activities and using curriculum materials in elementary school classrooms to achieve more productive results.

The data have also pointed out the shortcomings of the department's student teaching program in the development of process skills of teaching centered on the establishment of rapport with pupils, teaching in terms of their individual differences, and evaluating their academic progress. More than 50 percent of the cooperating teachers perceived these process skills, as implemented by their student teachers, as having influenced them least to change their views of teaching. Ostensibly, greater attention must be given to procedures necessary to improve the application of these three process skills by student teachers.

Additional research into the nature of the varying degrees of influence shown in Table 2 is clearly in order. What, for example, is there about the ways the student teachers planned activities and used curriculum materials that influenced better than half of their cooperating teachers moderately to strongly to change their views of these two processes of teaching? And, conversely, what needs to be improved in the ways student teachers establish rapport with pupils, teach to their individual differences and evaluate their academic progress that may be of value in influencing cooperating teachers to teach better? It is pertinent, therefore, that the training program for senior student teachers in elementary education take into account these data. There is a need to examine in greater detail the entire dimensions of the nine process skills of teaching that constituted this study with the view of continuing the development of those skills perceived as influential by cooperating teachers, and to develop those process skills of teaching perceived by them as having little or no influence on their views of teaching.

Meaningful curriculum development comes about when there is an increased awareness about the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy.

The leadership hierarchy in school-based curriculum development

by
Gerald D. Bailey
and
J. Harvey Littrell

Activities involving curriculum development have never been greater than at the present time. Many school districts have intensified their efforts in becoming more efficient and effective in producing quality students. Two things are vital for dynamic curriculum development: (1) knowledge of specific steps involved in curriculum development and (2) understanding of the leadership roles played by people needed in carrying out the steps of curriculum development.

While there has never been universal agreement on the exact steps of curriculum development, there is general agreement that curriculum development involves goals, scope and sequence charts, curriculum guides, objectives and some form of evaluation. Even when school districts are somewhat familiar with the steps of curriculum development, however, major breakdowns have occurred when school districts attempt to implement some or all of the steps of curriculum development without a leadership model or plan.

The Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy[1] illustrated in Figure 1 is divided into four spheres: Sphere 1 includes superintendent, curriculum director, curriculum steering committee and curriculum subject area committee; Sphere 2 includes consultants; Sphere 3 includes building level administrators; and Sphere 4 includes school board members, lay citizens and students.

The Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy illustrates (1) who is directly and indirectly involved in curriculum development, (2) the lines of responsibility between and among curriculum leaders and (3) those people affected by curriculum development activities—from superintendent to the patrons in the community. The superintendent, curriculum director, curriculum steering committee and subject area committees have direct leadership responsibilities for curriculum development.

School board members, lay citizens and students play an important but less direct role in the curriculum development processes. The consultants and building level administrators have a special relationship with all of the people involved in the curriculum development hierarchy. Each play a vital role in assisting all curriculum workers become more effective in their jobs.

Sphere One: The superintendent's role in curriculum development

The role of the superintendent is critical in the total development of school-based curriculum. The entire school looks to the superintendent for leadership. Directly or indirectly, the superintendent establishes an environment which extends or restricts the kind and number of opportunities for participating in curriculum development activities. As a consequence, it is vitally important that the superintendent have: (1) A complete understanding of curriculum leadership hierarchy, (2) the capacity to share and delegate responsibilities and (3) the ability to exhibit leadership when monitoring the various steps of curriculum development.

The superintendent must be able to exhibit strong leadership without dominating or smothering emerging leadership in the curriculum structure. The enthusiasm and excitement shown toward curriculum development by faculty is often in direct proportion to the enthusiasm and excitement shown by curriculum leaders. Support of staff through released time, materials, finance and personal encouragement will significantly affect the efficiency and effectiveness of curriculum workers.

If the superintendent perceives curriculum development as **change**—change in terms of positive student growth, then that top administrator must be an agent who fosters and channels that change in an orderly and meaningful fashion. This orderly and meaningful change comes about when the superintendent exercises the skill of shared decision making among those people affected by the curriculum. Curriculum development becomes most effective when those affected by the curriculum share in the creation of that curriculum. Without shared decision making, curriculum development remains in the hands of the superintendent or a small number of faculty members. The administrator's ability to orchestrate all other components in the cooperative decision-making process is vitally important.

The curriculum director's role in curriculum development

The curriculum director is designated as the individual who is responsible for coordinating curriculum development activities. While this person is ultimately responsible to the superintendent, the major leadership responsibilities call for implementing and monitoring the major steps of curriculum development.

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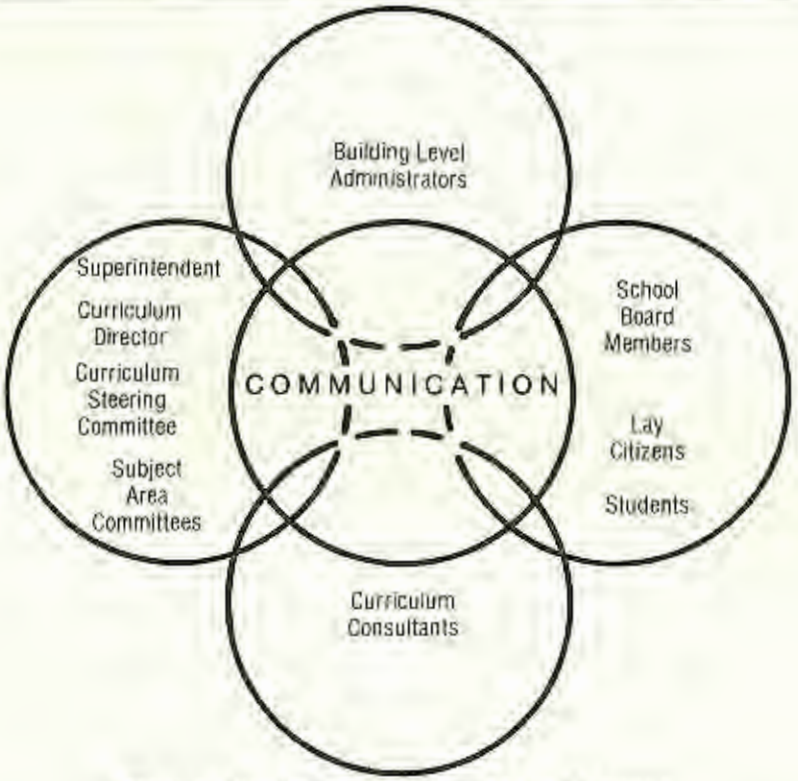

Curriculum Leadership Hiereachy Spheres
Figure 1

In small or rural schools, the superintendent of a school district may often serve two roles—that of a superintendent and that of a curriculum director. In this situation, it is extremely important for the superintendent to recognize this dual responsibility.

Major responsibilities assumed by the curriculum director include:

1. Scheduling those activities which deal with the basic steps of curriculum development.
2. Serving as curriculum resource person to teachers who need assistance in specific subject matter areas, or in locating resources for use by teachers.
3. Interacting with teachers on curriculum issues. The curriculum director should be responsible for alerting faculty to issues which address current problems in the curriculum.
4. Insuring that the curriculum is being implemented according to the basic curriculum plans developed by the school district.
5. Keeping records or the actions and/or decisions of the various curriculum study groups.
6. Insuring that curriculum guides are being utilized in the total curriculum process. This responsibility includes regular evaluation activities aimed at determining the value of the curriculum guide and how the guide can be improved.
7. Implementing evaluation activities which assess the curriculum's total effectiveness. The development of evaluation tools may be part of this responsibility.
8. Securing the services of consultants when necessary to assist other curriculum workers in dealing with curriculum problems and work.
9. Reporting directly and regularly to the superintendent about the progress being made in curriculum development activities.
10. Serving as liaison to building-level administrators, parents, school board, lay people and students. The role of a curriculum liaison allows the curriculum director to identify issues and problems which can be acted upon.

In many respects, the curriculum director must possess characteristics similar to the superintendent. This person must be committed to shared decision making which allows curriculum workers to provide input when decisions are made about the curriculum. The curriculum director must have ability to (1) communicate well without dominating or alienating other curriculum workers, (2) stimulate others in the importance of curriculum work by both word and deed and (3) assume direct and indirect leadership roles as the curriculum development situation demands.

If the superintendent holds dual positions—administrator and curriculum director, then an equal amount of professional workload must be allocated to the function of the curriculum director as well as that of superintendent. This "juggling act" is extremely difficult for rural and small school administrators. However, the role of the curriculum director is as important as the role of the superintendent in the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy.

The Curriculum Steering Committee's role in curriculum development

These K-12 committee members are either elected or selected representatives of the total faculty and deal directly with curriculum issues. The Curriculum Steering Committee is usually responsible to the curriculum director who establishes the curriculum agenda.

The cooperation between the curriculum director and curriculum steering committee is extremely important. The combined leadership skills of the curriculum director and curriculum steering committee affect the total curriculum structure of the school district. Responsibilities and tasks of the curriculum steering committee are jointly determined by the curriculum director and committee members. They include the following:

1. Serving as a sounding board for faculty members who identify curriculum issues which need to be addressed by the school district.
2. Participating and guiding faculty in planning the basic components of the curriculum—goals, competencies, objectives, scope and sequence and curriculum guides.
3. Determining steps which need to be initiated to improve the curriculum.
4. Editing materials written by the faculty and writing documents which relate to the basic components of the curriculum.
5. Collecting information which evaluates how well the curriculum is being implemented (e.g., The use of surveys which include teachers, students school board members and parents.).
6. Developing and implementing evaluation measures in cooperation with the curriculum director (e.g., follow-up studies which measure how well goals are being achieved by the school.).

The structure of the steering committee is extremely important. The steering committee members should be composed of teachers representing the various grade levels found in the entire school distrct (K-12). In many instances, we see school districts with two steering committees—one at the elementary level and one at the secondary level. This kind of dual structure often hinders or prevents communication when teachers are trying to solve problems which affect the total school district. A single steering committee structure in the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy is usually more desirable.

The selection or election of the steering committee is also extremely important to the success of curriculum development. The committee should be composed of teachers who are willing to (1) accept responsibility, (2) demonstrate leadership skills among their peers and (3) exhibit human relation skills which include providing information and listening at critical points in the curriculum communication process. Obviously, the most important qualification is that of professional competence.

The Subject Area Committees' role in curriculum development

The subject area committees, by design, should have a close relationship with the steering committee. The subject area committees are the curriculum workers in the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy. As was the case in the steering committee, K-12 faculty representation should be present on each subject committee. Except those subject areas taught solely at the junior/senior high school (e.g. business education). Subject area committee members are actively involved in determination of district goals, subject goals, scope and sequence charts and development of curriculum guides. Each subject committee's success at these tasks is vitally important to the total functioning of the other steps in school curriculum development.

As a consequence, the curriculum director and steering committee must orient subject area committees to their tasks and identify the importance of the subject area committees in the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy. Two major understandings which must be perceived by the subject area committees are: (1) curriculum change is a deliberate and systematic process; and (2) broad-based or shared decision-making is a major principle in curriculum development.

A major curriculum strategy which insures the effectiveness of subject area committees is the amount of working time made available to them. Regularly scheduled meetings with specific and detailed directions from the curriculum director and steering committee is imperative to insure the success of these committees. However, when these responsibilities are added on to the existing responsibilities without adequate provision of time, the tasks of the subject area committees become burdensome.

Sphere Two: The role of the consultant in curriculum development

Schools which employ an outside curriculum consultant should understand the role of a consultant. Curriculum consultants should provide assistance with the process of curriculum development. They do not produce the products found in the curriculum. Consultants aid the school district participants in making decisions. Decisions are not made by the consultants. Consultants suggest alternative solutions to problems; they do not solve the problems for the district.

Effective, efficient school curriculum leaders make prudent and regular use of consultants. Often the consultant can initiate activities which are difficult or impossible for the administrator or curriculum director. Essentially, the consultants can play two vital roles in the total Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy: They can (1) provide orientation to faculty on curriculum development steps and procedures, or suggest alternatives; and (2) orchestrate the school district activities involving one or more of the major steps of the curriculum.

Personal and professional qualities in consultants should be considered when involving them in the curriculum leadership. Curriculum consultants should possess the following competencies or qualities:

1. a philosophical commitment to curriculum development as a long-term process rather than short term or single activity process.
2. credibility as a teacher and leader whose curriculum concerns are student-oriented.
3. human relation skills which permit a harmonious working relationship with the total staff rather than only a working relationship with administration or curriculum director.

Sphere Three: building-level administrators

The role of the building-level administrator has been underestimated in the past. This person serves a key role as both a facilitator and guide to teachers in the building. First, the building-level administrator must provide a support environment for the teachers who are engaged in curriculum development. Teachers often feel uncomfortable with curriculum development since they do not have in-depth knowledge about the specifics of curriculum. The administrator must do everything possible to help the teachers feel secure in their activities. In both action and deed, the administrator must communicate support for their activities. A major method of communicating this support is reinforcement for expended energies. The rewards for curriculum work are not always highly visible to teachers. When an administrator is able to recognize quality work through some form of verbal or written reinforcement, curriculum productivity is likely to be higher.

Second, the building-level administrator must model the enthusiasm needed for curriculum work. If teachers recognize administrator's high interest and enthusiasm, they are more apt to model those same behaviors. Likewise, if indifference and disdain are modeled, teachers are more likely to exhibit those qualities.

Third, the build-level administrator often plays a key role in facilitating the total communication process between elementary and secondary teachers. Often false barriers have been created between these two groups; the building administrator can help bring these two groups of people together in discussions or activities.

Fourth, one of the most important skills exhibited by the building-level administrator is knowledge about the total curriculum development process. Answering questions and discussing curriculum issues with teachers are vitally important. At times, his/her knowledge of the steps of curriculum are as important as those of anyone else in the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy. Teachers perceive administrators as models. As a consequence, the building-level administrator must show leadership by answering questions or insuring that teachers get their questions answered during curriculum activities.

Sphere Four: The role of the school board in curriculum development

School board participation in the curriculum development process is obviously essential in the school district. Since this governing body makes many decisions which will affect the school district, its involvement and awareness of the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy as it relates to curriculum development may be as important or more important than any of its other responsibilities. The superintendent and curriculum director are directly responsible for keeping the school board regularly informed about curriculum problems and issues which need to be addressed. School board members should not take a direct leadership role in the curriculum development process, but they should be a functioning, contributing body. Perhaps a major role school board members have is to ask questions about the curriculum and curriculum development processes. Securing answers to questions about the extent to which faculty are involved in curriculum development, the content of the curriculum at various levels, and the resources needed for curriculum improvement would aid them in making decisions about needed support. The financial and moral support and understanding of the school board is the pivotal factor in the success of curriculum development.

The role of lay citizens in curriculum development

Lay citizen participation in curriculum development is paramount for all school districts. The degree of lay citizen participation in the school district, however, is heavily dependent on the financial social-economic make-up of the community. Lay citizens involvement in the curriculum, as in the case of student involvement, should be regular and systematic. Lay citizens should play an important role in determining the "what" of curriculum but not the "how" of curriculum. Their participation in the setting of goals for the district is essential. Their role should not be one of domination or control of the other curriculum committees. Equally important, the role of lay citizens in the curriculum development process should not be one of tokenism. Their orientation to curriculum development and participation on the various subject committees can be invaluable in contributing to the establishment of a quality curriculum.

The role of students in curriculum development

Needless to say, the role of students in the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy has been historically controversial. In theory, curriculum experts have regularly advocated student involvement in curriculum development. In practice, however, student involvement in curriculum development has been limited. Irrespective of the problems associated with student participation in the curriculum, it is important in broad-based curriculum development.

The degree of student involvement should be monitored carefully. Under normal circumstances, students neither have the experience nor the knowledge to be the primary decision makers in the curriculum. However, students do possess an overwhelming amount of information which can be used in the total curriculum process. Student involvement should be regular and systematic. It is essential that the students should not perceive their involvement or role in curriculum development as one of tokenism. The fear of student involvement often stems from the difficulty of channeling student input in a constructive manner. This does not need to be the case. Carefully channeled student input can lead to a great sense of curriculum involvement and appreciation by those people who are most directly affected by it.

Ensuing results of proper implementation of the hierarchy

Overall, four results are obtained from proper implementation of the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy in curriculum development:

1. The school district recognizes the importance of specific leadership roles needed in curriculum development.
2. The school recognizes the lines of responsibility between and among the leaders in curriculum development.
3. Curriculum fragmentation or stagnation is isolated at the point at which it is occurring in the curriculum development steps or leadership hierarchy.
4. Improved communication and relationships between among curriculum workers involved in the curriculum results from knowing how curriculum leaders can and should function.

Meaningful curriculum development comes about when there is an increased awareness about the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy. Those school districts which

spend time identifying, creating and implementing the Curriculum Leadership Hierarchy have found curriculum work much more efficient and enjoyable.

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Quality students should not be denied quality education.

A proposal for federal preparatory schools

by Wallace Dace

The need for federally subsidized, high quality public education, available to all gifted students regardless of race, creed, color or family financial circumstances has come to be keenly felt recently by thoughtful observers of the American educational system. Various articles in the press attest all too vividly to the serious decline in academic standards of many public school systems, especially in the larger cities.

According to a story in **Time** magazine (July 12, 1982, p. 53) the Boston public school system, the nation's oldest, "may now be one of the worst." A study conducted by the **Boston Globe** discloses serious deficiencies in academic achievement, reading skills and teacher morale. Perhaps the most serious problem uncovered by the **Globe** was the fact that "there is no citywide curriculum for teaching basic skills in each grade and no standard of promotions. As a result, 89 percent of the students are promoted each year." And yet, "a third of the 10,000 high school students taking more than two academic courses flunked more than half their basic academic subjects last winter."

Many other articles in newspapers and periodicals report similar situations in our larger cities, brought on by declining city tax revenues, cuts in federal support and antagonisms within the states between the smaller communities and the large cities. Hence, the places to begin a new federal program in quality education appear to be the larger urban areas. Further, in addition to a pressing need for help, the cities also provide very large student-age populations from which to draw, by examination, those gifted children who should be admitted to federal preparatory schools.

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Finally, the element of academic competition among the cities should be considered. Competition is a useful principle in a free society. It forces prices down in the industrial sector, generates improvements in items like automobiles and video recorders and in education, by a process of general osmosis; it is clear that competition from private schools has improved standards in public schools. City governments like to feel their municipalities are nice places to live in as well as to visit. Boston doesn't want to be known as the city with the worst public schools in the country any more than it wants to see the Red Sox in last place in the American League East.

Federal support for education is commonplace in Europe. Federal Departments of Education and Culture subsidize primary, secondary and technical schools, universities, research institutes, theater, opera and ballet companies, libraries and art museums, among other institutions for the public good. In America, only the military academies and a few research institutes are supported at the federal level even though it is only the federal government that has the enormous financial resources necessary to achieve a significant improvement in the level of both public education and cultural opportunities for the American people.

In Europe, the primary-secondary educational systems tend to follow along two fairly distinct routes. All students take the first three grades together, starting at about age 6. Then, at age 9 or 10, students choose between schools which prepare them, on the one hand, for the practical worlds of commerce, industry, civil service, engineering and the performing arts or, on the other hand, for the worlds of law, medicine, the theoretical sciences, literary scholarship and philosophy.

Training for the first group of endeavors tends to stop with the high school or technical school diploma, but the second group requires further study at a university. Those students who wish to pursue this route take examinations which are designed to indicate their aptitude for university-level study, and those who pass enroll in special preparatory schools with fairly rigid courses of study. In France this type of school is called a **lycee** and in Germany, a **Gymnasium**, but the curricula are much the same in all of these university-oriented schools, regardless of country.

Over the years a kind of European consensus has developed regarding the preparation of students for the university. They should be acquainted with at least one other culture other than their own and preferably two—this cultural knowledge being obtainable by thorough study of languages and literatures. They should be well prepared in history, geography and some of the other social sciences. They should have a sound knowledge of the biological and physical sciences and be satisfactorily trained in mathematics.

This kind of primary-secondary education is available in America, but it is usually provided only in very expensive, private preparatory schools, many of which charge as much for room, board and tuition as the most expensive private universities. It would be a substantial shot in the arm for public education in America if university preparatory schooling of high quality were available to **all** students who qualify for such schooling, regardless of family income.

A proposal for such educational opportunity would perhaps not fall on deaf ears in Congress. There are mem-

bers of both the House and the Senate who hold deep and abiding convictions regarding the fundamental importance to our democracy of a good education, available to all. Hence, a plan to establish high quality federal preparatory schools in a number of large cities, as a pilot project, would very likely receive serious consideration by the appropriate congressional committees.

Such a plan should be sufficiently broad to draw enough votes in Congress to be passed and sent to the President. The more cities marked for these new schools, the more votes the project should receive in the Congress. There are 60 cities with populations over 260,000 and about 44 million people live within their city limits. If another 56 million people live in the suburbs of these cities, then a program of 60 federal preparatory schools, one in each city, should serve the needs of about 100 million people. If the program proved to be popular with the public, it could be expanded to reach the smaller cities.

The Department of Education in Washington would be the logical administrative agency to supervise the federal preparatory schools. The Secretary of Education would appoint the principal of each school who would, in turn, recruit the faculty and staff. The secretary would be responsible, in general, for the curriculum of each school, the standards of teaching and the budget. This would include determining the total cost of operating the 60 schools for each fiscal year, in advance, and submitting this budget to the President. When the overall budget was approved by the Congress, the principals would be informed of their budgets for the following year.

In recruiting the faculty, the principal should be guided by the general assumption that each teacher should hold the Ph.D. degree in the appropriate field. Many students are graduated from university doctoral programs every year who would make excellent teachers in their fields but who do not feel comfortable with the stress and emphasis on research and publication associated with university teaching. This large pool of teaching-oriented Ph.Ds could be called on to provide the bulk of the faculties of the federal preparatory schools. Students who had completed all the course work for a Ph.D. but had not written the dissertation, might also be considered.

Further, the principal would be responsible for planning the teaching schedule, supervising the administering of the examinations which determine the admittance of the beginning class each year, seeing to the operation of the cafeteria and other aspects of maintenance, administering the budget and generally running the school in a manner satisfactory to the Secretary of Education. Faculty should receive tenure after a four-year probationary period, and their pensions should be administered by the Civil Service. A uniform salary schedule should be established by the Secretary of Education which could be modified, as circumstances required, by the principal. The principal would include a report on the school's activities for the year with the annual budget request. The final duty each year would be to award the diplomas to those students who, in the principal's opinion, had completed the prescribed course of study satisfactorily.

The school year should consist of two semesters of 16 weeks each, running from September to May with the usual holidays. The faculty would work on a nine-month basis, and the top members of the administration, on 12. The total course of study should run over a period of eight years with each student regularly taking six subjects per day. With an hour allowed for lunch, the school day should run from 8 a.m. to 3 p.m.

Each student would take a fixed course of study, six subjects per year for eight years. If one failed a subject, the entire year would have to be repeated.

The faculty teaching load should be limited to three hours per day, or 15 hours per week. By giving the teachers time to grade papers and prepare proper tests, the standards of teaching should be high, and the jobs themselves should attract very capable people. Since a total of 288 classes would have to be covered per day (48 subjects multiplied by six sections of students) and the teachers cover only three classes each per day, the faculty would

The 48-subject program may be summarized as follows:

YEAR						
8th	English VIII	French VIII	German VIII	History VI	Integral Calculus	Physics II
7th	English VII	French VII	German VII	History V	Differential Cal.	Physics I
6th	English VI	French VI	German VI	History IV	Solid Geometry & Trig.	Chemistry II
5th	English V	French V	German V	History III	Plane Geometry	Chemistry I
4th	English IV	French IV	German IV	History II	Algebra II	Biology II
3rd	English III	French III	German III	History I	Algebra I	Biology I
2nd	English II	French II	German II	Geography II	Arithmetic II	General Sci. II
1st	English I	French I	German I	Geography I	Arithmetic I	General Sci. I

have to number 96 or more. Adding in administrators, library staff, cafeteria personnel and maintenance workers would probably bring the total staff of each school to about 120 persons. Since class size should be held to about 20 to 25 students, the total enrollment should not exceed 1,000—resulting in a teacher-pupil ratio of about one to ten.

In Europe, teachers usually take a class through four years of work. In this way, they come to know their charges well and can demand the most from each pupil, since they will know if a particular student is not working up to full potential. If this system were adopted for federal preparatory schools, an English teacher in a given year, for instance, might be teaching a first-year class meeting for the first time, a third-year class that had met for two previous years and a sixth-year class that had been meeting for one previous year. The next year, a teacher would have the same students at levels one year higher.

Language study is usually divided into two four-year segments. In the first four years the pupils read from all historical periods, from the middle ages to the present, but the stories and poems chosen are those which can be readily understood by children aged 11 to 14. From ages 15 to 18, the pupils start over again at the beginnings of literature and again read their way up to the modern period, but this time they are exposed to the more complex poems, plays, stories, novels and essays. The teachers have the entire say-so over what is read in each class at each level and thus are not subject to boredom by having to teach the same things over and over. This system, too, might well be adapted to the new federal perparatory schools.

The requirement of both French and German in a quality preparatory school does not seem excessive. The richest modern literatures are written in French, German and English, and educated persons everywhere tend to be acquainted with all three. Nor is eight years of training more than what is required to become genuinely fluent in a language. There is a tremendous difference between being able merely to order a meal in a French restaurant or ask directions of a French bus driver, and discussing the issues of the day with an educated Frenchman or reading the plays of Racine in the original. Too many Americans remain in the first category all their lives because their language preparation was inadequate at the primary and secondary levels.

The value of the rest of the curriculum appears to be self-evident. A thorough grounding in geography is essential to obtaining a substantial grasp of history from ancient times to the present. Short segments of political science, sociology and economics could be inserted in the history program at the discretion of the teacher, so long as sufficient time is allowed for the student to master the essentials of world history, "the record of man's struggle for freedom," as Kant defined it.

Mathematics, from arithmetic through integral calculus, forms the basis of scientific study, while two years of each of the major sciences, biology, chemistry and physics, seem little enough preparation for continued study at the university level of modern achievements in science and medicine.

The cost of operating 60 schools of the kind envisaged here would not be excessive in view of the considerable return to the nation in the form of enhanced intellectual achievement on the part of men and women who have been seriously challenged in primary and secondary school. If salaries averaged about $20,000 per year for a staff of 120 persons, the payroll would run to about $2.4 million. Rent on a suitable building together with operating and maintenance costs ought to run no more than $600,000 thus bringing the annual cost per unit to about $3 million. This cost multiplied by 60 units would bring the total outlay to about $180 million annually, in its initial phase, something less than the cost of a B-1 bomber. Ideally, the students should pay only for lunch, but a few additional expenses such as books, supplies and science laboratory fees would probably be unavoidable.

The kind of public preparatory school described herein would provide the basic elements of a good, general education. A student so educated could enter college and test out of a great many required courses. In fact, a student who had received a Federal Preparatory Diploma could probably finish undergraduate college work in three years, or even two, and enter graduate school to prepare for law, medicine, scholarship or theology at an earlier age than is now customary.

Our best students should receive the best possible primary and secondary education. Quality students should not be denied quality education on the grounds that such a thing promotes "elitism." An intelligent student who wants to learn, who reads, writes, thinks, enjoys homework, is educable in the highest sense, should not be held to the level of the average students in the class in the name of democracy. This is a perversion of a great concept, because one of the basic elements of democracy is the protection of the rights of minorities. And intelligent, gifted, motivated students like the young William James and the young Thomas Edison are inevitably members of a minority, whose right to unlimited intellectual growth should be carefully protected by our democratic public school system.

Appendix

The sixty largest cities in the United States with their populations are listed below. Figures are taken from the 1980 **Directory of the Mayors of America's Principal Cities**, published by the U.S. Conference of Mayors, 1620 Eye St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.

1. Akron, Ohio (249,815)
2. Albuquerque, N.M. (284,617)
3. Atlanta, Ga. (425,666)
4. Austin, Tex. (313,009)
5. Baltimore, Md. (827,439)
6. Baton Rouge, La. (302,236)
7. Birmingham, Ala. (280,544)
8. Boston, Mass. (618,250)
9. Buffalo, N.Y. (400,234)
10. Charlotte, N.C. (281,696)
11. Chicago, Ill. (3,074,084)
12. Cincinnati, Ohio (410,441)
13. Cleveland, Ohio (625,643)
14. Columbus, Ohio (533,075)
15. Dallas, Tex. (848,829)

16. Denver, Colo. (479,513)
17. Detroit, Mich. (1,314,206)
18. El Paso, Tex. (391,049)
19. Fort Worth, Tex. (367,909)
20. Honolulu, Hawaii (713,500)
21. Houston, Tex. (1,455,046)
22. Indianapolis, Ind. (708,867)
23. Jacksonville, Fla. (532,346)
24. Jersey City, N.J. (239,998)
25. Kansas City, Mo. (458,251)
26. Long Beach, Ca. (338,344)
27. Los Angeles, Ca. (2,743,994)
28. Louisville, Ky. (330,011)
29. Memphis, Tenn. (667,880)
30. Miami, Fla. (354,993)
31. Milwaukee, Wisc. (661,082)
32. Minneaplis, Minn. (371,896)
33. Nashville, Tenn. (430,941)
34. Newark, N.J. (331,495)
35. New Orleans, La. (580,959)
36. New York, N.Y. (7,422,831)
37. Norfolk, Va. (284,033)
38. Oakland, Ca. (332,028)
39. Oklahoma City, Okla. (369,438)
40. Omaha, Nebr. (371,012)
41. Philadelphia, Pa. (1,797,403)
42. Pittsburgh, Pa. (449,092)
43. Phoenix, Ariz. (679,512)
44. Portland, Ore. (379,826)
45. Rochester, N.Y. (262,766)
46. Sacremento, Ca. (262,305)
47. Saint Louis, Mo. (519,345)
48. Saint Paul, Minn. (272,465)
49. San Antonio, Tex. (783,765)
50. San Diego, Ca. (789,059)
51. San Francisco, Ca. (663,478)
52. San Jose, Ca. (573,806)
53. San Juan, P.R. (486,596)
54. Seattle, Wash. (490,586)
55. Tampa, Fla. (271,365)
56. Toledo, Ohio (366,525)
57. Tulsa, Okla. (338,765)
58. Tuscon, Ariz. (302,359)
59. Washington, D.C. (700,130)
60. Wichita, Ks. (267,276)

It should be clear that no single pencil and paper test can assess teacher competence.

Assuring teacher competence

by Leonard M. Chaffee

Recent articles in both popular and professional publications reflect the interest of citizens and educators in the topic of teacher competence. Several states now require new teachers to pass some type of examination prior to being certified. In Kansas, recent deliberations of the State Board of Education serve as a public expression that, at least some people, believe that "something needs to be done" to make certain that only competent teachers are permitted to teach in our schools. Although it seems ridiculous for those of us in the education profession to have to reaffirm our belief that teachers must be competent, the response should be quite simple! Of course, we **all** want to assure the competency of those who teach our children.

The competencies necessary for successful teaching are complex. Scannell and Guenther[1] have defined the broad expectations of a professional teacher as follows: "Possesses self-understanding; has knowledge of lifelong human growth, development and learning and applies this knowledge to teaching children and adolescents; is skilled in human relations; understands curriculum planning and is skilled in choosing and adapting instructional strategies to implement varying curricula; understands the educational needs of exceptional learners, the procedures used to identify them, and the recommended educational methods for instructing them in the least restrictive environments; evaluates student learners and uses educational research methodologies to improve instruction and student learning; understands the scope of the teaching profession and the school as a social-political organization; is a liberally educated person; and, has adequate knowledge of at least one subject area included in the public school curriculum."

Another writer[2] has stated: "The professional education program should include: (1) the comprehensive study of pedagogy, including direct experiences in teaching and learning which relate theory to practice, (2) a concentration in one or more teaching fields, (3) a solid foundation in the liberal arts and sciences, including basic skills and (4) an inter-disciplinary view of the undergirding disciplines of education."

I provide these lists of competencies only to underscore the complexity of the role assigned teachers. Although I am in favor of using some type of test as part of the process to determine minimum competency, we must be careful to avoid "quick fix" solutions. A certification examination will not replace well-conceived programs which assure the continuous evaluation of those preparing to be teachers. Such an examination must be only one component of an evaluation system which includes the application of appropriate standards for entry into teacher education programs, the continuous monitoring of student progress throughout the program and means for evaluating the success of students' student teaching experiences.

Given the complexity of the teaching role, it should be abundantly clear that no single pencil and paper test can assess teacher competence! In considering a certification process designed to assure the competence of beginning teachers, it is especially important that plans for such a process include an extended opportunity for teacher candidates to demonstrate, in the real school world, their abilities to apply specific competencies within the areas noted earlier. A mechanism must be provided through which students may relate theory to actual practice in clinical settings. An initial teaching certificate should be awarded only after successful completion of this teaching experience conducted under the supervision of a team of mentors composed of a master teacher, a supervisor/administrator and a teacher educator. If such a supervisory team cannot give a positive evaluation, the process should permit an additional period of teaching under supervised conditions in another educational setting.

In Kansas, the State Board of Education has the responsibility for accrediting colleges and universities that prepare school personnel for certification. Policies related to institutional accreditation are extensive and include standards related to admission, retention, exit and follow-up policies and practices.[3] The Board's evaluation process includes an on-campus visit by a team of professional educators for the purpose of ascertaining that standards are being met.

For several years, Kansas teacher education institutions have had in place several important components of the initial-certification process being discussed, including the assessment of competency in basic skills. Although some would include the assessment of basic skills competency as part of an examination to be administered under the auspices of the State Department of Education, I would urge that this portion of the process remain a responsibility of each teacher education institution. Indeed, our state universities now have a common policy in regard to the assessment of basic skills as a part of teacher education program admission requirements. In designing a new initial-certification process, it would be wise to build on what presently exists.

Although it may appear defensive, I want to remind our readers that we should proceed from a positive view as we review the processes for assuring teacher competence. I am troubled by those who use various statistics related to "falling test scores" and "reports of barely liter-

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ate students" being graduated from our schools. The vast majority of teachers in Kansas have been (and are) doing a fine job. Although some people would have us believe differently, it is helpful for me to remember the recent Gallup Poll[4] which reported that parents with children in public schools view teachers and schools in their communities positively. Especially interesting are the results of a recent survey[5] conducted by researchers at Emporia State University which indicated that 86 percent of Kansans who have children in public schools rate both the schools and the teachers of their children as A, B or C. Futher, when asked to identify particular strengths of the public schools, the most frequent answer given was—teachers!

As we continue to seek improvements in the certification process and in all phases of education, let us remember that we are working to improve an already fine profession. It is imperative that we devise more effective means of both helping members of the public at large know better the successes of our schools and making the profession more attractive to both experienced and potential teachers. Questions of teacher competence cannot be divorced from the reward structure. In a recent study[6] conducted in Kansas, inadequate salary was most often cited as the reason for experienced teachers leaving the profession. According to data provided by the Kansas State Department of Education,[7] the average salary for teachers in the 1980-81 school year was $15,252. The same report indicated that the average salary for 1981-82 is $16,712 (estimated). The actual average will not be available until the end of the school year. Given these facts, we are fortunate indeed to have had many fine people enter the profession of education over the years.

Dealing only with the initial certification process and ignoring financial aspects will not improve our ability to attract and retain quality teachers. Again, although I support the use of an examination as part of the process for determining initial certification, this concept should not be considered in a vacuun.

Footnotes

[1] Dale P. Scannell and John E. Guenther, "The Development of an Extended Program," **Journal of Teacher Education**, Vol. XXXII; 1 (January-February 1981), 9.

[2] Dean C. Corrigan, "Creating the Conditions for Professional Practice: Education's Unfinished Agenda," **Journal of Teacher Education**, Vol. XXXII; 2 (March-April 1981), 30.

[3] "Regulations for Certifying School Personnel and Accrediting Institutions and Approved Programs Offering Teacher Education," State Board of Education, Topeka, Kansas.

[4] George H. Gallup, "The 13th Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools," **Phi Delta Kappan**, Vol. 63; 1 (September 1981), 35.

[5] "Kansans' Attitudes Toward Education," School of Education and Psychology, Emporia State University (January 1982).

[6] William S. LaShier, Jr., Rod Helfley, and Wan Yung Ryoo, "Why Are Kansas Teachers Leaving the Profession?" A Report Submitted to the Kansas Professional Teaching Standards Advisory Board (January 1982).

[7] "Average Classroom Teachers' and Principals' Salaries of the 306 Unified School Districts of Kansas for 1980-81 and 1981-82," Kansas State Department of Education (January 1982).

Quality is in no way equivalent to prominence

Multi-cultural education, a need for conceptual clarification: further remarks

by Robert P. Craig

I

Whatever else may be said of it, culture has chiefly to do with the symbols and other vehicles of expression used to achieve and to sustain both commonality and distinctness in human relationships in a social setting. As John Greenway wrote, "Anthropology has only recently discovered the concept of culture; it has not yet had time to explain it."[1] Our provisional characterization of culture is intended to point toward the development of an adequate explanation as a further means of illuminating multi-cultural experience. What we will consider below are insights about multi-cultural experience drawn from numerous partial explanatory efforts available not only from anthropology, but from philosophy, biology, sociology, psychology and other fields as well. And that's quite a task!

Not everything that goes on in a particular human relationship is cultural. Only those uses of symbols and other vehicles of expression are cultural that take shape within particular social settings and that are thereby shaped by social factors within those settings. Rather than emphasize the universal or the special, the general or the particular aspects in separation from each other, we shall consider the common elements of experience wherever and however they may appear. This will not tell us what culture is; but it will aid in developing a few insights into multi-cultural education.

Nor shall we come to understand what any cultural phenomenon is about in merely general terms. Just as a psychoanalytic patient can never be accurately understood merely as an example of some theoretical category, neither can the more extensive phenomena of culture. The dynamics by which both the more common and the more distinctive elements are achieved must be attended to, as must the mechanisms by which these are maintained—especially those by which conflicts between the various elements are dealt with. I am not suggesting that sociocultural phenomena are to be understood in precisely the same way as individual experience, only that the two investigative processes are similarly complex because human beings are the subject in question. Furthermore, the investigators are themselves bound to bring their own individuality and their own cultural identity into either process of inquiry.

II

Culture is to be seen as a complex, variable system of symbols and other vehicles of expression, as a system by which communication takes place and community is formed. As the system becomes more complex, schooling becomes increasingly important as a social medium for cultural maintenance and achievement. "Schooling" is defined as any formal social organization that exists for the purpose of education. "Education" is briefly defined as any process conducive to human growth in which the affected individuals are themselves active participants.[2]

Yet some forms of socialization in schools have little to do with actual human relationships because they rely on fake abstractions, such as inappropriate labeling, racism, for instance; or because they purvey symbols that have lost their meaning in relation to current experience; or because they can only be applied in ways alien to reality. These forms of socialization are cultural to a very low degree, if at all.

Other forms of socialization are valid for relatively non-cultural purposes but could become cultural in later experience. For example, computer games, historical surveys and technological forecasts can all be used to present a range of possible social interactions. Even though no recommendations for action can be made in any given instance, definite boundaries are inevitably set.

To that extent, the student may be socialized into a more or less limited set of possible social interactions, insofar as he/she is unable to move beyond that set by any other means. The student is not necessarily locked into a particular set as he/she enters into new relationships, but the individual is unquestionably limited by previous socializing influences. Since the vehicles of expression by which the student **could** communicate or form community within the new relationships are not yet present, culture as we have characterized it is, as yet, inchoate at best. Nevertheless, a definite socializing process has occurred and may affect the direction that cultural expression eventually takes to a considerable extent.

Children's books present particularly notable examples of all these distinctions. A child could be so limited in the various socializing influences through available books and other media, and so impoverished in his/her repertoire of cultural means of expression, as to emerge from schooling with very little cultural advantage.

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A person in an extremely disturbed schizophrenic state will be in a similar fix, even though the individual might otherwise be quite learned, because he/she has a low capacity for genuine human relationship and is deficient in the closely related capacity to sublimate instinctual drives by cultural means.[3] The person will use some of the products of culture, without being able to share cultural life with others. The individual may contribute to culture, in the sense that the person brings forth material that can be used by others for cultural purposes—while in the individual's own split-off life he/she is virtually bereft of culture. In boycotting the world, in refusing to develop human relationships, the person effectively withdraws from genuine cultural experience as well.

III

What does all this have to do with the school? How can the school be an effective agent of socialization? I believe John Dewey had important insights into such questions. Though in quite general perspective, Dewey has shrewdly analyzed the "cultural quality" problem in schooling by distinguishing four special functions of a school within a complex society.[4]

The first function is to provide a simplified environment, one in which the complex life around the student is broken into fairly fundamental and manageable portions. These are presented in a way that permits interaction by the student in a manner appropriate to the person's stage of cognitive-affective development. They are progressively ordered to move from the more simple to the more complex. Already at this elementary level, selections are being made so that the student's learning is not a haphazard affair. Multi-cultural objectives are called for, moreover, not just because a given society might be ethnically pluralistic, but because it is complex throughout. Criteria are also suggested at this level that begin to form a pattern for such objectives.

The second function of the school for Dewey is to serve as the chief agency of the society for selecting the best, especially what will make for a better future society. These things are reinforced; what is relatively undesirable is excluded, so as to establish a purified social medium for action.

Obvious dangers lurk here, as in any public context where value judgments are being made. The attempt, cannot, however, be avoided, because value judgments of this sort will be made in any case. In setting multi-cultural objectives, further criteria must be established that will indicate a range of approaches and experiences within which the more highly valuable cultural elements can be explored and reinforced. Within a more open and democratic society, the list would have to begin with modes of genuinely appreciating diverse ways of experiencing the world through different cultural means.

Dewey's third function of a school within a complex society is to provide some balance among the various elements that exist within the social environment, so that each individual can escape from the limitations of a more narrow inherited environment, can fruitfully mingle with people of other backgrounds and can unite with them in activity toward common aims. In this respect, multi-cultural objectives would not support bland assimilation, a uniformity that lacks respect for differences of belief, custom and identity and does not know what to do with those differences. Nor would it support strict separation, in which individuals are encouraged to form factions and to reside there without any regard for alternative ways of life.

A fourth function is to enable the individual to coordinate the diverse influences of the many social environments he/she may enter, a steady and integrating experience that brings the simplifying, selecting and balancing functions to fulfillment. In setting multi-cultural objectives with all these basic functions of schooling in mind, it is important to recall Dewey's depiction of a social environment as consisting of all "the activities of fellow beings that are bound up in the carrying out of the activities of any one of its members."[5] If this action-laden picture is superimposed upon the characterization of culture in terms of the development of human relationships, we shall have to search beyond such broad categories as "Black," "middle class," and "Chicano" in order to find the material toward which multi-cultural objectives may be appropriately directed.

IV

These functions and the several types of criteria for setting multi-cultural objectives would appear to be indispensable if there is to be a creatively intelligent approach to multi-cultural education in the schools.[6] Clearly, the recommended process moves far away from the time-worn plea for assimilation—this only ends in uniformity and elitism. As Dewey himself well knew, in a more open and democratic society the surprises, the blendings, the new encounters are just as important as the more settled elements. Multi-cultural education in such a setting must foster these things and must provide means for their critical assessment.

The so-called "little things" often count most, because they are often the best indicators of what is humanely most significant. Therefore, to leave them out in the interest of covering only what is most prominent in cultural experience is to imperil the entire effort. Quality, in short, is in no way equivalent to prominence. At this very moment, for example, I am emphasizing the "little things"—like gestures of friendliness, the nuances of dress and what we carry around in our pockets—through some of the symbols at my disposal and in order to spark a possibility of relationship between us. This is a cultural act done within a highly intellectual social setting and with marked feeling. Nonetheless, the point is tucked away in the midst of a longer discourse and, at this particular time, must be elevated from that discourse in order to gain the high importance it deserves. It, like much of multi-cultural experience, is a "little thing" in momentary appearance only.

Footnotes

1) John Greenway, **The Inevitable Americans.** (New York: Knopf, 1964), p. 68.

2) The distinction among educational settings, processes, and aims or products is elaborated on by Terrence Tice in "Alternatives in Education: A Framework for Inquiry," in **Alternative Education in a Pluralistic Society,** edited by Charles Moody, et. al. (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1973), pp. 1-12.

3) These aspects of schizophrenia are noted by R.D. Laing. See, **The Politics of the Family and Other Essays.** (New York: Pantheon Books, 1972).

4) John Dewey, **Democracy and Education.** (New York: Macmillan Company, 1966), pp. 20-22. In a sense, Dewey's entire book actually constitutes a development of these themes.

5) Ibid., p. 22.

6) I have elaborated on this in Robert P. Craig, "Multi-Cultural Education," a Need for Conceptual Clarification." **Educational Considerations,** Vol. IX, Number 2 (Spring 1982), pp. 2-4.

Schools need to think seriously about why they are doing what they are doing.

The purposes of schooling

by John Martin Rich

Charles Silberman concluded in his national study of American education that the central problem of schools is "mindlessness": "it simply never occurs to more than a handful to ask **why** they are doing what they are doing—to think seriously or deeply about the purposes of consequences of education."[1] I want to pick up on this vital observation but treat it in a much different way.

Once the notion of **purpose** is placed in a central position in schooling, it can be used to untangle some difficult problems. Our discussion of purpose will tie into life plans or ways of life. Schooling, it will be argued, should play an important role in assessing life plans. By introducing professional plans (as part of a life plan), I hope to show how the choice of a life plan would affect teacher education.

Purposeful activities

Thus I want to talk about the purposes of schooling rather than education. This is a significant difference because in speaking about education it is proper to discuss both formal and informal provisions; and education may also be discussed in ideal terms, which may be inspirational but not always applicable to schooling. Additionally, education could be viewed universally, but schooling needs to be considered in relation to the community and various social and political forces. By school is meant "a deliberate arrangement persisting over a period of time that involves teachers and students for the purpose of promoting learning."[2]

All social institutions need purposes to function effectively. This is especially true of schools since they are designed to bring about certain results. An individual is purposeful when he/she is guided by a definite aim, when he/she keeps an end or an aim-in-view which is thought to be worthwhile. Purpose is tied to action because the worthwhileness of the purpose motivates the individual and action is needed to achieve the end sought.

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Those who argue that the importance of **meaning** and **purpose** has been overestimated and we should instead get on with the business of teaching and learning rather than waste time with such silly speculations engage in a self-defeating argument. The critic wants others to understand what he says and therefore wants it to be meaningful to those whom he seeks to influence and for whom he has a purpose in seeking to dissuade. In fact, all school activities need a purpose in order to make sense to the participants; consequently, it is appropriate for students and school personnel to ask: "Why are we involved in this activity?"; "What is it designed to accomplish?"; "How does it relate to accepted principles and policies?"

Whenever purposes cannot be discerned, an obligation for engaging in an activity needs reassessment. Insisting that this is the way something has always been done is an insufficient reason, as it is in order to ask: "Why was it originally done that way and are the reasons still valid?" Thus a conscious effort must be made to state the goals or objectives for all activities.

When students perceive classroom activities as meaningful, it enhances their interest and motivation. As students develop, they can be expected to assume increasing responsibility for their own learning and study activities; yet for them to be able to do so means that their teachers have modeled purposive behavior and provided sufficient supervision and guidance.

But what is the upshot of these different purposes? Each student ultimately needs an overall direction to his/her life. Some tendency is provided to the extent that each activity is purposeful; however, the activities themselves need coordination and integration so that they contribute to a general direction in life based upon some overall perspective; otherwise no basic plan or overarching connection among the numerous activities would exist.

Schools and life plans

This general direction and overall connection is found in a life plan: a system organized around basic values which prescribes the good life. A life plan, in one sense, could be thought of as an image, model or a sketch. Each person becomes his own artist by making several sketches of various types of life plans, then trying to put oneself in the picture, adding some details to create realism, envisioning how one would fit into such a scene, and then either accepting or rejecting it. Or, if one had warranted reasons, one could accept a ready-made life plan or combine aspects of more than one ready-made plan (so long as they are consistent with one another).

Thus if schools expect students to make connections and integrate their various activities into a meaningful whole, students will be helped to become sufficiently knowledgeable to choose or formulate a life plan wisely. Moreover, it would be inconsistent for schools to try to make all of their activities and policies purposeful and then refuse to give students assistance in making connections in their lives. Yet it might be agreed that this is a vital decision—the chief value decision that each person will make—but that institutions and agencies other than schools should provide the needed assistance. It would appear, however, that schools are better equipped to handle this function than most families, religious institutions, and the media, because schools can be more objective and impartial in handling various life plans; less in need to indoctrinate or use sanctions to ensure precon-

ceived outcomes; and can offer a greater knowledge base, learning resources, and teaching skills. This is not to say that fostering the study and choice of life plans is the **only** purpose of schooling, since a study of rationales for liberal outcomes will turn up other purposes.[3] It is, however, one of the more important and neglected purposes.

Different life plans or ways of life can sometimes be found among various racial and ethnic groups; these plans are also represented in the world's major religions. Such sources do not exhaust possible ways of life. There are philosophical models—Epicureanism, Stoicism, Utilitarianism, Humanism, Scientific Naturalism and others; historical models based on ideals of earlier ages; literary models that could start with such figures in mythology as Dionysius and Apollo; and political models based on such systems as communism, anarchism, communitarianism and others. Information about actual preferences was gathered by Morris in an empirical cross-cultural study of preferences as to 13 different ways to live.[4]

But is the student's choice of any life plan acceptable or are there grounds for preferring some life plans to other? Rawls says that a maximal class of plans can be created where each member of the class is superior to those not included in it, but each included in the maximal class is on an equal level with one another.[5] To determine what life plans will be admitted to the maximal class, it is necessary to apply principles of rationality: first, the plan should be consistent with principles of rational choice when these principles are applied to the plan; second, the person choosing the plan should be fully aware of relvant facts and carefully considered the consequences. A person's aims and interests are rational, according to Rawls, when they are promoted by the plan that is rational for him. A rational plan is not a detailed blueprint but a hierarchy of plans with subplans added during the course of one's life.

Rawls introduces the Aristotelian Principle as an additional selection device.[6] The principle states that human beings enjoy using their abilities (innate or trained), and their satisfaction grows the more their abilities are developed, or the greater the complexity of the material to which they are applied. Agreed that one may likely enjoy an activity more as proficiency increases (although this is not necessarily true in noncompetitive situations), it is the second part of the principle that is controversial—that of two activities people do equally well, they prefer the one that involves more intricate and complex discriminations. Someone who can do both generally prefers algebra to arithmetic and chess to checkers. The reasons for such preferences are that complex activities call for ingenuity and invention and satisfy novelty and variety.

Rawls' does not give evidence to support the Aristotelian Principle as an empirical generalization. Moreover, it may not fit everyday observable practices where some persons who are proficient at complex tasks choose, for whatever reason, simpler activities. Perhaps Rawls exaggerates the boredom found in simple activities and leading a relatively simple life. Or perhaps schools should promote complex activities because at least some people will find them more satisfying or because they make a greater cultural contribution than simpler activities; however, Rawls does not actually make these claims. In any case, although many complex tasks need to be fulfilled in advanced industrial societies, it is unlikely, without more definitive evidence, that the Aristotelian Principle could be applied universally as a criterion to help determine what criteria will be admitted into the maximal class. All that could be said is that persons who exhibit good powers of concentration, self-discipline, divergent thinking and abstract reasoning would be wise to employ the Aristotelian Principle in helping to choose a life plan.

In addition to the principles of rationality and modified use of the Aristotelian Principle, it would seem that educators would also encourage students to evaluate life plans in terms of the extent to which the plans encourage continued education (whether formal or informal) throughout the life cycle. And any life plan that denies certain persons or groups the opportunity to choose a life plan should not be admitted to the maximal class. The burden of proof to cite relevant reasons for so denying other individuals or groups should be on those who advocate doing so.

Schools need to provide students with knowledge about different life plans, their characteristics and what they entail, and an understanding of the requisite abilities to live fruitfully within the chosen way. Once a student has gained the necessary background, he can critically evaluate the different life plans using the criteria enumerated and the consequences of living each plan in terms of his own temperament and aspirations. The choice itself will determine what general and specific abilities need to be developed; the school can provide opportunities for acquiring the general abilities; the specific abilities will need to be gained as a result of study and experience in participating in the life plan.

Professional plans

But how does all of this apply to teacher education? Within each life plan are subplans which are personal, social and professional. The personal plan pertains to the individual's own desires, abilities and aspirations. For instance, an individual may desire to live a life of extensive travel and adventure. Or another individual may choose a holy life devoted to the search for religious truths. The social plan concerns one's citizenship responsibilities and responsibilities to others within the plan chosen. A social plan, for example, may involve a duty to take care of parents in their old age. A professional plan constitutes one's formulation of career aspirations and, in more complete plans, provides general guidelines for attaining these aspirations.

Let us say that in the future most schools begin to prepare students to study and evaluate life plans. This would than mean that students would enter teacher education with the broad outlines of a professional plan; however, since such students would likely have thought more carefully than today's students about their career aspirations and the procedures for realizing them, they would come to college armed with greater knowledge of what they want and would be more selective in identifying the teacher education program which is most congruent with their aspirations. Ultimately this would result in a better fit between the individual and the progam and contribute to a lower attrition rate.

But teacher education programs themselves would change to meet these new demands. An enlarged framework for teacher education would be able to fit professional plans to the program and make programs sufficiently flexible to accommodate more than one type of

professional plan. For instance, some plans may expect to use teaching skills in industry, museums, research institutes or educational television rather than in more conventional teaching situations. Some teacher education programs would be able to accommodate such diverse plans and others would not. The latter group would need to counsel students to seek more appropriate programs elsewhere.

This does not mean that because professional plans can be diverse and unique that teacher education would necessarily have to continue to expand to be all things to all people. For one thing not all professional plans are realistic in terms of student abilities and the available programs; other plans feature aspects which contradict sound educational principles and therefore would need modification. For instance, a plan based on using rote learning as the principle learning device would need to be altered.

Those programs most likely to be able to meet the diversity in plans would be those which seek to identify the basic principles and common understandings that tie together this diversity and render it more intelligible and meaningful. This common base of knowledge and principles drawn from educational research and the foundations of education would serve as a source of unity as students acquire specialized skills and supervised practice related to their plan.

As Nietzsche said, "If we have our own **why** of life, we shall get along with almost any **how**." The **why** of life lies in the life plan. Schools respond to that **why** by early help in understanding and choosing a life plan, and teacher education responds further in satisfying the **why** by helping to fulfill the professional plan.

Footnotes

[1]Charles E. Silberman, **Crisis in the Classroom** (New York: Vintage Books, 1971), p. 1.

[2]See my article, "What is a School?" **Journal of Educational Thought**, 10, No. 1 (1976), 119-25.

[3]In my article, "A Rationale for the Liberal Education of Educators," **Journal of Teacher Education**, 31, No. 3 (1980), 27-30.

[4]Charles W. Morris, **Varieties of Human Value** (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956).

[5]John Rawls, **A Theory of Justice** (Cambridge, Mass: Howard University Press, 1971), pp. 407-16.

[6]Ibid, pp. 424-33.

Review

Bloom for the lay reader

All Our Children Learning: A Primer for Parents, Teachers, and Other Educators. by Benjamin S. Bloom, New York: McGraw Hill, paperback edition, 1982. 275 pp. $6.95

The purpose of **All Our Children Learning** is, according to Bloom, to communicate his ideas and research to a wide audience. For this purpose, Bloom has chosen 13 papers which were "orlginally given as presentations to large and varied audiences for some special occasion" (p. vii).

Within the education community Bloom is a fertile and productive thinker, gifted in producing conceptual frameworks like the taxonomy of educational objectives. He has more recently clarified and stated pragmatically important concepts such as "formative and summative evaluation" and "mastery learning" in ways that educators have adopted and adapted. After notable success and a long career in education as a popularizer of ideas (if not an originator), Bloom understandably wishes to spread these ideas to a wider audience.

In his introduction titled "New Directions in Educational Research and Educational Practice," he states that contemporary research in education is moving from the study of "**fixed** or **static** variables to variables which are **alterable** either before the teaching-learning processes or as part of these processes" (p. 1). He presents the following five fixed versus alterable variables:

Fixed	*Alterable*
Time Available for Learning	Time the Student is Engaged in Learning
Intelligence	Cognitive Entry (Behavior)
Summative (Evaluation)	Formative Testing
Teacher Characteristics	Qualities of Teaching
Parent Status	Home Environment Processes (pp. 2-12)

Emphasis on alterable variables is characteristic of Bloom's pragmatism. He maintains that the shift to alterable variables "enables researchers and educators to move from an emphasis on prediction and the classification of students to a concern for causality and the relations between means and ends in teaching and learning" (p. 1).

The thirteen papers in **All Our Children Learning** are presented in four sections, "Overviews of Education," "Home and School," "Instruction and Curriculum Development" and "Evaluation." Three papers make up each of the sections except "Instructions and Curriculum Development" which contains four. Within each section the papers are arranged from the more recent to the earlier papers.

"Innocence in Education," the first paper in section one, "Overviews of Education," presents a paradox: Professional educators have very little definite knowledge of educational processes to act upon while "journalists, reformers and faddists" have panaceas. Bloom advocates

"systematic ordering of our basic knowlege [about education] in such a way that what is known and true can be acted on, while what is superstition, fad and myth can be recognized as such and used only when there is nothing else to support us in our frustration and despair" (p. 15). He calls for "conceptual and empirical research necessary to establish more complete causal relationships" (p. 17).

He identifies seven areas for research. One is individual differences in learning, where the kernal of Bloom's idea is that students vary in the rate at which they can learn much more than in their capacity to learn. Under the right learning conditions, he claims, 90 percent of the students can learn school subjects "up to the same standard that only the top 10 percent of students have been learning under present conditions" (p. 18).

A second topic is school achievement and its effects, both positive or negative, on personality. A third is teachers versus teaching; "it is not what teachers are **like** but what they **do** in interacting with their students in the classroom that determines what students learn and how they feel about learning and themselves" (p. 20). Fourth is the question of what can be learned. Emphasis on learning of information is practically universal, at least as judged from teachers' tests and examinations. In the last 20 years schools have also attempted to stress "interests, attitudes and values in the affective domain" (p. 21). Bloom points out that knowing what to teach and how to teach it also involves what **ought** to be taught. Fifth, he relates the "manifest and latent" curriculums. The latent curriculum is powerful, but not obvious, teaching about "time, order, neatness, promptness and docility" as well as competition and "the consequences of the social pecking order" (p. 23). Sixth, he treats testing and "how testing and evaluation may serve education rather than dominate it" (p. 25). Seventh, Bloom points out that education extends beyond schooling and that education is part of a larger system. The home environment is one obvious part of the larger social system and the economic system of the nation is another. Also parts of the social system affecting education are religious institutions, mass media, the political system and the status system. He states, "It is in these interactions of the subsystems of a nation in relation to both education and the great social problems that new understanding will most probably develop" (p. 27).

"Innocence in Education" contains mention of all the main content of Bloom's succeeding papers in the book. The remaining papers simply elaborate the themes established.

Bloom's impact on international education is illustrated in "Implications of the IEA Studies for Curriculum and Instruction." As a founder of the International Association for the Evaluation of Education Achievement, he advocates curriculum reform by "highly creative workers who use appropriate evidence and research at each step to insure that the new is really an improvement over what it is to replace" (p. 49).

In the last paper in the first section, "Twenty-Five Years of Educational Research" (Bloom's presidential address in 1966 to the American Educational Research Association) he states that of the 70,000 research studies from the 25 year period preceding 1966, he regards only 70 as being crucial and significant.

In the second section, "Home and School," Bloom gives ideas about the importance of early learning in the home and the positive effects of nursery school and kindergarten programs "to overcome some of the educational deficiencies commonly found in culturally deprived children" (p. 67). This is from a paper written in 1965 when cultural deprivation was a popular idea. A second paper reviews research in home environmental processes related to elementary school achievement including a checklist of such conditions adapted from a 1963 dissertation by R. H. Dave. The last paper in the section on home and school suggests that schools be reorganized to accommodate individual development by supplying an environment marked by "special groupings of children with common problems, new strategies for learning, more adequate techniques for defining the problems in educationally meaningful terms" (p. 111).

Section three begins with a paper that Bloom presented as a keynote address at the 1978 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Conference, "New Views of the Learner: Implications for Instruction and Curriculum." The new view of the learner is from Bloom's **Human Characteristics and School Learning** (1976). One of the "constructs" that Bloom presents sums up the new view as follows (his italics): **"Most students become very similar with regard to learning ability, rate of learning, and motivation for further learning when provided with favorable learning conditions"** (p. 135). The second paper, "Learning for Mastery" (1968), describes the background and approach for creating such favorable learning conditions. The third paper, "The Role of Educational Sciences in Curriculum Development" (1963), describes a plan for a center for curriculum development and research. The final paper in this section, "Peak Learning Experiences," identifies and describes those rare classroom sessions that are "so powerful that many students have almost total memory of it twenty years later" (p. 193).

The final section of the book, "Evaluation" begins with "Changes in Evaluation Methods" (1978) which differentiates evaluation as a part of instruction and learning from evaluation as a means to determine the effectiveness of instruction and learning. The second paper, "Some Theoretical Issues Relating to Educational Evaluation" (1969) sets up the rationale for explicit objectives for curriculum, or what came to be known as behavioral objectives. In this paper he also discusses formative and summative evaluation, particularly emphasizing formative evaluation as a "healthy corrective to the teaching process, since it finds difficulties early enough to do something about them as the sequence of learning-teaching develops" (pp. 242-3). The final paper, "Changing Conceptions of Examining at the University of Chicago" (1954), describes the extensive effort beginning in 1931 to develop objective, reliable, and valid examinations for the general education curriculum at the University of Chicago.

All Our Children Learning, though an admirable attempt does not, in my opinion, communicate to a wider audience better than the more technical or complex presentations in Bloom's other books. I would have preferred that he write an entirely new summation of his ideas and research. This collection suffers from repetition that could confuse and possibly frustrate the parent, teacher or other educator for whom it is intended. What is needed from Bloom to communicate to a wider audience is an elaboration of the perspective provided from contrasting static versus alterable variables. Compared to his **Human**

bargaining and affirmative action (why affirmative action was included here instead of under personnel administration is beyond me), and fiscal aspects of educational management. The final section, Part III, focuses on the leadership context. Here the authors finally discuss the concept of contextualism. They describe context as "the interrelated conditions in which events occur and thus a useful term for attempting to characterize the connections and coherences that define the ethics, esthetics, and epistemology of administration as a special kind of human activity." Therefore, contextualism would have us view educational administration in terms of its context in the total human and natural environment. Unfortunately, this chapter would have made much more sense early on in the book instead of at Chapter 10. The remainder of the chapters in the final section focuses primarily on administrative leadership in terms of interpersonal behavior, administrator-board relations and the principalship. The authors conclude with a brief discussion of administration as a continuous beginning with some behavioral requisites necessary for survival: action orientation, decision making, objectivity, authenticity, (in an existentialist sense) and tolerance. Unfortunately, the contemporary context the authors write in seems to the 1970's with little reference to the future of public education.

All three books provide a diverse approach to the study of educational administration. A much closer reading will be necessary to make an informed judgment about the impact on the field of educational administration.

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Review

Democracy in education

Democracy In Education — Boyd H. Bode by Robert V. Bullough, Jr. (Bayside, New York: General Hall, Inc., 1981). 258 pp.

Robert Bullough's book has been around since 1981. But it has scarcely received the attention it deserves. It is a book about a man who was immeasurably successful as a champion of progressive education, but who nowadays seems to have been almost forgotten along with the ideals and good sense he professed.

Boyd H. Bode was a friend and follower of John Dewey. But he was no mere servant of the master. He began as a Dewey critic; and while both men could be described as products of their age, each displayed a rather rugged independence when it came to their intellectual outlook. Bode was a Dewey-follower primarily in the sense that he came to terms with changes in tradition somewhat more slowly and reluctantly than Dewey.

Like Dewey, his passion was democracy, and he saw education as the means for promoting and improving democratic life. To us this passion might seem a little quaint, even naive. Perhaps we have become jaded, but we are inclined to think of education as more narrowly focused, as serving the special interests and needs of individuals or groups within the larger society. Curiously enough, Bode was part of the modern tradition in western culture that considers it impossible to transcend self-interest. However, he did not interpret this, as many have, to mean that genuine communication and real community are unattainable. On the contrary, he saw it to imply that we have a tangible and practical starting point for developing the kind of society that supporters of the classical tradition can only dream of.

For Bode our modern conception of democracy has come about through science and the struggle of the ordinary person to participate more fully in life. The democratic movement found its underlying unity in the demand that standards be established through reference to human experience and that judgments be made in terms of circumstances and function. It was a revolt against limitations. But however much this has changed our way of life materially and institutionally, our understanding of these changes, what Bode called our "outlook" or "philosophy" has lagged far behind. What has resulted are "cultural cleavages" which force people to believe and act in contradictory ways and, therefore, to lead a kind of schizophrenic existence.

If at one time schools presented students with a more or less coherent way of life, now there is only mass confusion. To the young everything looks absurd. They can discern no central purpose with which to ally themselves, or more accurately, they have no clear perception of the fact that there are conflicting tendencies in our civilization that compete for their allegiance. In their aimlessness most young people have defected somewhat from the views of their parents and in the process they have become skeptical or cynical, which means a disregard or disbelief in moral values.

Bode's advice was to give education, and, therefore, students, a sense of direction or purpose. What could this be except democracy? Bode put the challenge this way: "... are we willing to accept the principle of a free intelligence as a basis for our social outlook or philosophy of life? It is in reference to the creation and recreation of a democratic social outlook that education finds its meaning and, as far as I can tell, American education has no such program. This is its greatest defect." (p. 61) We must begin by making our situation clear, and to do this by bringing out the conflicts in our culture. Then we must show students how to think straight, how to study, investigate, verify and discriminate. The aim is to "prove all things" and ultimately to prove democracy, to help bring about and validate a truly moral existence.

Here Bode had a problem, for he also suggested that in democracy we have no choice, it is our karma. If history is not ours to deny, and if it is already the case that democracy, i.e., science and the struggle of the ordinary person to participate more fully in life, has already changed the way we live materially and institutionally, one wonders what there is to worry about. It would seem to be just a matter of time before our outlook or philosophy would fall in line with the facts. "On our part," Bode tells us, "we

need to help them (youth) recognize the place intelligence has played in human progress, to help them see how progress is the result of human and not divine intervention." (p. 97) Whether Bode falls into the trap of the hardline Marxist or the 19th century pantheist, both of whom admonish us to dedicate our lives to achieving the inevitable, will depend on how we interpret this remark. One expects that Bode was trying to be inspirational, that he wanted us to believe that a good and just world was, if not guaranteed, at least possible. But even so, Bode was never able to be very specific about how democracy could be realized in a world that was decidedly undemocratic. Needless to say, recent events have not been encouraging. Worse yet, we seem to be losing our conviction that we even know what democracy is.

Maybe it is unfair to blame Bode for our present ills. After all, he never claimed to be a tactician; and perhaps the reason we find ourselves wanting for a deeper understanding of democracy is precisely because we have ceased reading people like Bode. Herein lies the importance of Bullough's book. It reintroduces us not only to a rigorous concern for the meaning of democracy, but to the profoundly human context that motivates democratic ideals. The book is presented in 15 chapters plus an epilogue. General themes that are covered include the nature of philosophy, progressivism in education, curriculum making and the relation of schooling to social reform. By and large, the material is organized biographically, that is, we begin with Bode's youth and his early intellectual struggles. We proceed to the initial stage of his career when he was preoccupied with shaping his conception of philosophy. Next we find out how he made the connection with education and are introduced to his theories of learning and curriculum. Lastly we are shown how Bode applied these ideas to the problems of democratic living.

The book might be seen as an intellectual biography, or as history in the guise of literature. Information is provided in the form of contrived conversations. As Bullough describes it, "The manuscript is divided into five parts. Each part contains a series of imaginary dialogues between Bode and his colleagues or between colleagues that address critical topics and issues in the field. Bode's life and work provide the lens through which these issues and topics are viewed. To give the reader a better understanding of Bode and of his times some dialogues focus upon particular aspects of Bode 'the man.' Dialogues are used because it is believed that this format is most capable of conveying both the spirit of the times and of the man. As nearly as possible the language utilized within the dialogues is authentic. The language is deliberately 'folksy' because Bode was folksy." (p. 4)

As might be expected, this device is quite controversial as historical method. But in this case it is magnificently employed. For Bullough's objective is not so much concerned with strict historical reconstruction as with philosophical and pedagogical illumination. In our time we have been deceived by false idols, by bandwagoning approaches to change, by the desire for control rather than for understanding, by technological substitutes for thought, and by the preference of conformity and comfort to criticism and growth. Bullough needed a method as well as a model to counter these trends. His choices fit together well. With his method we can view ideas in their real-life context. In his model we have a genuine educational statesman who, like all statesmen, exemplified clear thinking and moral courage even under the most difficult circumstances. I agree with Bullough: "In a time when education is dominated by entrepreneurs Bode presents a refreshing reminder that there is more to education than technique and salesmanship." (p. 9)

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