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This collection of papers is designed to provide information about the "new order in student teaching" (the various field experiences in preservice teacher education programs, e.g., observation, teaching under a supervising teacher, microteaching, internship, externship, simulated teaching, etc.). Contents are (1) "Goals and Objectives of Student Teaching" by Dorothy M. McGeoch, Teachers College, Columbia University; (2) "Human Relations in the Student Teaching Experience" by Dan L. Oppleman, State College of Iowa; (3) "Creating a Climate for Learning" by John Withall, The Pennsylvania State University; (4) "College and University Responsibility in Student Teaching" by George Myers, Michigan State University; (5) "A Cooperating Teacher Views Student Teaching," by Dorothy Orians, Toledo Public Schools; (6) "The Student Teacher's Responsibilities" by Anna Jones; (7) "Student Teaching as Preparation for Work in Inner City Schools" by Elizabeth Hunter, Hunter College, and Norma Furst, Temple University; (8) "Student Teaching in the Inner City" by Lucile Lindberg, Queens College; (9) "Evaluating Instructional Behavior" by William H. Lucio, University of California; (10) "Pass-Fail System of Marking in Student Teaching" by Virgil E. Schooler, Parsons College; (11) "Student Teaching as Preparation for Teaching" by Harry N. Rivlin, Fordham University; (12) "New Directions in Field Experiences in Teacher Education," by L.O. Andrews, The Ohio State University. (JS)

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EDUCATIONAL COMMENT 1967

ON STUDENT TEACHING

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FOREWORD

Student teaching, which today tends to be defined (and confused) as various field experiences which are part of teacher education programs (observation, participation, teaching under a supervising teacher, internship, externship, simulated teaching), continues to be a much discussed and often abused subject. Friends and critics of teacher education are for it and consider it essential to any respectable teacher education program. But all such approving and positive attention still fails to keep student teaching from realizing its potential for the teacher education student. What student teaching usually is found to be in most teacher education programs turns out to be far different from what it could or should be in our present enlightened period of educational concern and knowledge.

Teacher educators are always looking for more productive student teaching experiences for their students and such thinking is evidenced in the following quotation:

The new student teaching should be a creative, fulfilling experience and at the same time provide for critical analysis in order to make student teachers and their supervisors scholars of teaching. It should not be confined to a block of time at the end of the senior college year. It should range from simple observation, to brief exposures to learners, to the development of skills in discreet elements of the teaching act (e.g., through micro-teaching), to analysis of personal skills and insights, all the way to the teaching of regular classes under the analytical eye of a professional mentor. It should be a study of teaching in various clinical situations. This new concept of student teaching demands new arrangements, revised administrative structures, and new systems of control. There needs to be a new order in student teaching.*

The editors of this edition of *Educational Comment* hope that it will provide some further information about the "new order in student teaching." They also hope that such information will be translated into meaningful student teaching action for pre-service teacher education students. This issue of "Comment" may hit or miss the mark but it is obvious that not too much can be said about student teaching if expediency, confusion, and inadequate efforts are to give way to intelligent, organized, and exciting opportunities in the realm of student field experiences.

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*A New Order in Student Teaching, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1967. p. 2.

Goals of Student Teaching

Goals and Objectives of Student Teaching

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Goals and Objectives of Student Teaching

Dorothy M. McGeoch

The term **student teaching** has been in common use only since 1950.¹ Before that time **practice teaching**, **cadet teaching** and **apprentice teaching** were used. The difference is not entirely one of terminology. When teacher training was a brief appendage to secondary education, certain carefully systematized skills were practiced in order to make them secure. The prospective teacher was trained through practice under an experienced critic teacher. By 1915, apprenticeships by which the student might gain skill in the art of teaching by the application of the principles and methods in practice were being advocated.² Here, the prospective teacher had the opportunity to understand and appreciate the work of the master teacher to whom he was apprenticed. His work was expected to be largely a copy, but an intelligently conceived copy, of the master teacher's technique.

The concept of the student teacher was supported by the very significant report of the Flowers Committee³ and has reached full maturity in the most recent statement of the Joint Committee on State Responsibility for Student Teaching.

The new student teaching should be a creative, fulfilling experience and at the same time provide for critical analysis in order to make student teachers and their supervisors scholars of teaching. It should not be confined to a block of time at the end of the senior college year. It should range from simple observation, to brief exposures with learners, to the development of skills in discrete elements of the teaching act (e.g., through micro-teaching), to analysis of personal skills and insights, all the way to the teaching of regular classes under the analytical eye of a professional mentor. It should be a study of teaching in various clinical situations.⁴

This statement illustrates another ambiguity in the use of the term **student teaching** — the extent or variety of direct experiences to which it refers. The Committee on Terminology of the Association for Student Teaching recommended the use of **professional laboratory experiences** for the total range of "contacts with children, youth, and adults in school and community, including observation, participation, teaching and other leadership activities which make a direct contribution to an understanding of basic concepts and principles as well as of individuals and their guidance in the teaching learning process."⁵ Student

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teaching was defined as "a period of guided teaching when a college student assumes increasing responsibility for directing the work of a group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks."⁶ The changing nature and increasing variety of field experiences have tended to blur the former distinctions, however, and a new formulation of terms is urgently needed. For this paper, the definition of the joint committee will be accepted. Student teaching should be understood to include observation and participation in schools and community agencies, simulated and micro-teaching, assistantships, internships, externships and other field experiences which are part of a teacher education program.

STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

The changing nature and scope of student teaching experiences are illustrated by the various statements of objectives and goals which have been developed over the years. A sampling of recent statements will illustrate their diversity.

Aleyne Haines, late of the University of Florida, sees professional competence as of major importance. She writes:

Thus, the central purpose of student teaching is to offer opportunities for prospective teachers to increase their professional competence as they assume gradually fuller responsibilities of a teacher under guidance of experienced personnel and in accordance with needs.⁷

Florence Stratemeyer in the 1965 Hunt Lecture gave her perspective on the major focus of direct experience:

To develop a teacher who is thoughtful and independent, intellectually and behaviorally — a teacher whose skilled performance is illuminated by the methods of intelligence — requires that student teaching and other direct experiences be focused sharply on the study of teaching, on helping the intending teacher to arrive at principles and generalizations that can be drawn from that study, and on applications of basic concepts in situations which have changing dimensions.⁸

Arthur W. Combs, in defining his perceptual view of teacher education, states that "the purpose of this involvement (in student teaching) is three-fold: (1) as an important learning experience in itself, (2) as an experience for the creation of needs to know, and (3) as an opportunity for the student to try himself out in a practical laboratory."⁹

In an article on "Practice in Teaching" in the *Harvard Educational Review*, Judson Shaplin lists seven assumptions, three of which imply purposes for the practice he advocates:

Teachers, through practice, can learn to analyze, criticize, and control their own teaching behavior . . . Practice has the dual role of training and eliminating the unfit . . . Practice provides the experiences which give meaning to many other aspects of instruction in education (teaching).¹⁰

He then goes on to explain the three types of practice necessary: (1) practice in the behavioral analysis of teaching and learning; (2) practice in establishing the preconditions of teaching; and (3) practice of organization of instruction.¹¹

L. O. Andrews in his recent volume on student teaching summarizes the ways in which many direct experiences currently included in teacher education curricula are thought to contribute to the education of a teacher:

1. Providing a basis for a **personal decision** to become or not to become a teacher.
2. Developing readiness for professional courses; professional experiences, professional growth and for full responsibility for teaching.
3. Developing mature professional purposes and attitudes.
4. Strengthening understanding by exposure to reality which adds feeling and other sensory impressions to verbalized knowledge.
5. Providing an opportunity to **acquire, use, and test information.**
6. Developing professional understanding of concepts and theories from professional and related disciplines.
7. Developing skill in the use of professional techniques.
8. Developing **insight and judgment** in applying professional knowledge.
9. Providing a basis for evaluating professional, social, and personal growth.
10. Providing a feeling of significant personal worth — the satisfaction that comes from giving useful professional service.¹²

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Need for Theoretical Basis

The breadth and diversity of the quoted statements is confusing and Andrews' compilation gives rise to the inference that student teaching must, indeed, be burdened with fulfilling all the purposes of professional education, and liberal education as well. This expectation is obviously unrealistic, if not absurd but it persists because there is no adequate theoretical basis for defining the contribution of direct experiences to a program of teacher education.

Grant Clothier in a recent monograph makes clear his conviction that:

. . . unless there has been a careful delineation of objectives, guided by a well-developed rationale — and these both used as a basis for building a professionally sound and workable design — the resulting program of professional laboratory experiences may well turn out to be haphazard and relatively ineffective.

If the need for a theoretical basis is accepted . . . it should now be possible to state an adequate theory. Fundamentally, such a statement should include assumptions concerning the purposes for experiences, describe the characteristics of situations in which experiences occur, and suggest the supportive conditions under which contributions to the accomplishment of the accepted purposes may result.¹³

Obviously this is not a task to be done in a day, or a year. It must be done, however, if programs of student teaching experiences are ever to achieve some of the values now so confidently expected of them. As an illustration of what needs to be done three commonly accepted purposes will be explored.

Some Possible Goals

Probably the most frequently stated goal in student teaching has to do with providing opportunities for doing the tasks that a teacher needs to do. Practice is an essential ingredient in the acquisition of any skill and there are many skills which must be mastered by a beginning teacher. What kinds of experiences then will provide the most effective practice? What is the contribution of tutoring, role playing, micro-teaching, simulated situations, small group instruction, acting as a teacher assistant, team teaching, or working in a community center to the development of the needed skills? Is there an effective sequence of experiences for all students or should an individual program be designed for each prospective teacher? Will these experiences be

confined to four or five years of preservice preparation or well planned opportunities for practice extend into the beginning years of employment, perhaps even to the awarding of tenure? Any meaningful acceptance of practice as a major objective of student teaching demands that hypotheses relating to questions such as these be formulated and tested. It demands, in short, a definition of what is to be done, for how long, under what conditions, and with what results.

A necessary corollary to the concept of doing, or practice, as a goal in student teaching is the need to study — to become, in fact, a student of teaching. A forthcoming publication on the study of teaching contains the following statement:

Student teaching in teacher education should offer opportunities for self-appraisal of the appropriateness of various styles of teaching for accomplishing specified objectives. Student teaching should be thought of as a time to **study** teaching as well as **practice** teaching. It is a time to put untried ideas to the test in a variety of real situations and to study the results.¹⁴

What kinds of experiences in student teaching will help a student teacher to study teaching? What is the contribution of the systems of analysis developed by Flanders, Hughes, Bellack, Smith and others? How may supervisory conferences, audio and video tape recordings, seminars and self-evaluation techniques be used to promote the study of teaching during the entire sequence of student teaching experiences? Again, hypotheses must be developed and tested. Teachers who continue to be students of teaching throughout their careers are unfortunately all too rare. What experiences, in what situations, under what conditions, may be shown to contribute to the objective of developing such teacher-students?

As the beginning teacher practices and studies, he also comes to accept his professional role — he becomes a teacher. The process of identification of role and of self-knowledge has been stated often as an objective of student teaching experiences. This implies that the becoming teacher is learning to understand himself, his reactions, frustrations, and perceived failures. The teacher who is to help the child develop ego-strength needs to be aware of the influence of his own behavior on his pupils and to assume responsibility for the nature of the interaction.

What is the contribution of seminars, T group sessions, or individual counseling on the development of self-understanding? Can the student teaching experience develop a teacher who re-

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spects the dignity and integrity of every human being? Has there been an honest attempt to influence significantly teacher's attitudes or to assess the actual results of attitudinally influenced behavior? Have the implications of lack of knowledge in this area ever been seriously faced? How, through student teaching experiences, does a student become a teacher?

From what has been said it might be inferred that student teaching is an activity which has not been clearly defined, has no accepted theoretical basis and is expected to achieve a multitude of value and unrealistic objectives. To an extent, this is true. The need for the development and testing of relevant hypotheses is great. Experience and reason dictate, however, that the validation of objectives begin with the three previously discussed. Together, all the student teaching experiences should provide opportunities for a student teacher to practice teaching skills, study and analyze the teaching process, and become, in his own eyes and the eyes of others, a teacher.

¹Jim Johnson and Floyd Perry, *Readings In Student Teaching* (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Book Company, 1967), p. 9.

²Edward K. Strong, "Teacher Training," *School and Society*, 1:587-593, April 24, 1915.

³Sub Committee of the Standards and Surveys Committee, John G. Flowers (Chairman), *School and Community Laboratory Experience In Teacher Education* (Oneonta, New York: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948).

⁴Joint Committee on State Responsibility for Student Teaching, Donald M. Sharpe (Chairman), *A New Order In Student Teaching*. (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1967), p. 2.

⁵The Committee on Terminology, Alberta L. Lowe (Chairman), *Selected Terminology in the Field of Professional Laboratory Experiences In Teacher Education*. (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, Undated) p. 2.

⁶*Ibid.*

⁷Aleyne C. Haines, *Guiding the Student Teaching Process In Elementary Education*. (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1960) p. 10.

⁸Florence B. Stratemeyer, "Perspective on Direct Experience," *Readings In Student Teaching*, Jim Johnson and Floyd Perry (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Book Company, 1967, pp. 281-282.

⁹Arthur W. Combs, *The Professional Education of Teachers*. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965), p. 125.

¹⁰Judson T. Shaplin, "Practice in Teaching," *Harvard Educational Review* 31:34-38, Winter, 1961.

¹¹Shaplin, *Op. cit.*, p. 38-48.

¹²L. O. Andrews, *Student Teaching* (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), pp. 23-24.

¹³Grant Clothier, *A Theoretical Basis for Professional Laboratory Experiences In Teacher Education*. Kansas City, Missouri: Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory, 1966. Unpaged.

¹⁴Dean Corrigan (Editor), *The Study of Teaching*. (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1967).



Human Relations in Student Teaching

Human Relations in the Student Teaching Experience

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Human Relations in the Student Teaching Experience

Dan L. Oppleman

Very often, if not too often, we assume that we can talk about the behavior of the student teacher as if it were some phenomenon which can be satisfactorily analyzed without relating it to pupils, the supervising teacher, or others with whom the student teacher is in constant interaction. In exploring human relations in the student teaching experience, the fact should loom large that there is a burden upon both pupils and the supervising teacher if the student teacher is to have the opportunity, not only to develop his own dimension as a result of generally good democratic human relations in the setting.

While we might acknowledge in passing that other types of classroom control and teacher conduct may indeed yield results, even satisfactory in nature, the operation of democratic processes seems invariably to produce even better relations and more successful teaching and learning. From this point, we will consider our problem to be the search for clues which may lead to and even insure desirable human relations as they occur during the student teaching experience. Our emphasis will lie with the consideration of the student teacher and the supervising teacher.

But, what are the salient features of the democratic nature of human relations in operation? Surely the most significant characteristic is unequivocal respect for the worth and dignity of all persons involved. When this respect is shared by all, much greater is the opportunity for individuality of effort, creativity, and the awareness of responsibility. Rapport, all important to effective teaching, and a relation that exists between pupils, as well as the interaction so commonly restricted to teacher and pupils, has far wider chance to grow when the keystone of mutual respect is consciously operating.

In attempting to establish democratic processes and relations in a classroom, we see far too often a guiding notion that democracy is some kind of unlimited free-for-all where every action is a matter of rights and privileges, and with no regard for responsibilities or direction. In contrast, a highly important understanding needed for valid democratic relations and processes is a twofold concept. There must be limitations and there must be executive leadership. The limitations obviously arise from local and state school rulings, or they may come from the school or college involved with the training experience. For the matter of the executive leadership, for both pupils and the student teacher,

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it must be both implicit and explicit, that this function is reserved to the classroom or supervising teacher.

But the matter of the executive role of leadership cannot be dismissed by merely having stated it. It is precisely in the extent to which the teacher shoulders this leadership responsibility that we find much of the measure of successful teaching and growth of the student teacher in his human relations. Again with mutual respect established and continued, many of the sometimes awkward situations are alleviated wherein the teacher must assert his role by vetoing some action, authoritatively disagreeing with another, or giving direct criticism. Both pupils and students do not even contemplate embarrassment nor resentment, and, for the simple reason that the teacher's role is understood thoroughly.

Before proceeding to the presentation of suggestions whereby supervising teachers can effect better human relations in the student teaching experience, one further item should be noted. It is possibly apparent that in the classroom, a teacher spends many days and weeks cooperatively working with his class, planning, discussing, experimenting, aiming for the development of genuine democratic processes. Experienced teachers know that success comes from constant application and bona fide participation by the pupils, as opposed to hit and miss efforts, or especially an attempt to "con" the pupils into desirable work habits and relationships.

Similarly, as we approach the first specific suggestion, there should be cooperative effort on the part of both student teacher and supervising teacher to establish democratic relations from the outset. This calls for provision by the college and the local administration, or these failing, then certainly by the teacher himself, for an initial period of orientation and getting acquainted for the student teacher and his new supervising teacher. This cannot be achieved when a student teacher suddenly arrives in the classroom and relates that he is "there" for six or sixteen weeks and with only a chance for a hurried introduction.

Supervising teachers should have one or more of these occasions, prior to student teaching, to visit, become personally acquainted, to discuss pupils and their records, the curriculum of the class, the teacher's hopes and plans, the student teacher's housing, and a whole cluster of items similar to these mentioned. This type of orientation, possibly augmented by a visit to the school, the classroom, and a chance to meet the principal, will

pay handsome dividends in giving the student teacher much needed security. But possibly more important, the teacher is now acting as an interested and concerned person, allowing the student teacher to begin on this note of personal regard, rather than as just one more student teacher in a kind of mill process. The teacher has laid the ground for good human relations, and of equal importance, he has realized his leadership responsibility in the democratic process. The teacher who shirks this initial step and waits for the student teacher to make overtures is playing a losing game.

There should be several more of these "first" meetings, to insure opportunity for personal assessment and to indicate clearly the phases of the student teaching experience which lie ahead. Indeed, the first phase is underway, and during this time the teacher can further lead by discussing proper dress, ways of achieving maturity, and by demonstrating techniques of classroom control, strategic use of voice, eye, and movement. The next two and final phases of student teaching are bit teaching and independent teaching, in that order.

Conferences have been mentioned, and these are important not only as planning sessions, but as times for continuing evaluation. Here will come many opportunities for the teacher not only to exercise democratic relations, but by discussing his own techniques, to favor the development of the same in the student teacher. These conferences should be of two sorts; the planned and unplanned, the latter occurring as the need arises and as a result of desire for meeting on the part of either student teacher or supervising teacher. The purpose for calling attention to the conference is to make clear the opportunity that occurs for further enhancing the quality of the relations between the student teacher and supervising teacher. It should be seen that discussing the phasing of student teaching reveals the concern of the supervisor for the student teacher's security and personal worth.

One problem that constantly crops up in dealing with the human relations of the student is that involving the extent to which the supervising teacher allows or accepts the signs of stress in the student teacher. Most educators seem to agree that some stress is good for learning, particularly when it grows out of genuine desire to become competent or is the result of curiosity of the learner. However, when the stress arises from the student's concern over competition for grades with other student teachers or a fear of failing, then a real pathological condition exists. It might be added that often a student reveals undue

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stress because he feels he is not pleasing the supervising teacher. Again, the role of the competent supervisor demands close attention to any manifestations of stress and the artful handling of them by increasing, decreasing or eliminating the factors involved.

One further suggestion, that will depend largely on the initiative of the supervising teacher, calls attention to the part he can play in making the student teacher feel genuinely that he is a colleague. A myriad of chances occur for introducing the apprentice to department members, other teachers, parents, and people of the community, which if done with concern, will enhance even more the human relations involving the student teacher. Supervising teachers often neglect opportunities arising in lounges, at lunch, at staff and PTA meetings, and in town. While it is not mandatory, many supervising teachers reveal the mutual benefits derived from having the student teacher at home for a meal, sometimes also inviting a particular parent or other interested citizen from the community.

All of this adds materially to the professionalization of the budding teacher as well as showing up and otherwise strengthening these "first times around" for the student as he completes this last professional part of his preparation.

In retrospect we can see that just as student teaching offers the best experiences we know for putting into use the store of professional training, it offers at the same time a golden opportunity for the student to be involved in the human relations he will find of concern to the rest of his career. Of significant value though, is the greater opportunity for him to learn these interactions through leadership and practice and to see firsthand that successful teaching and effective learning are developed in the matrix of democratic human relations. And finally, what better criterion can the supervising teacher have for that complex job of evaluating the maturity and sophistication of this student teacher than an objective look at the student's growth in his own development in human relations?

III

Classroom Climate

Creating a Climate for Learning

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Creating a Climate for Learning

John Withall

This paper will first of all remind its readers of three well-known psychological truths or tenets about learners and learning. After that we shall try to relate those tenets to the creating of a climate for enhancing the learning of student teachers who are trying to develop and master the professional skills essential for helping students to learn.

The three well-known tenets are these:

1. Learning is evidenced primarily by altered behaviors.
2. The teacher can only teach. This means the teacher seeks to create the cognitive, affective and environmental conditions which enable and permit the learner to learn.
3. The learning that occurs is the responsibility of and can be consummated only by the learner.

Learning and its Necessary Concomitants

Learning by human beings is evidenced primarily by altered behavior. This may involve any behavior from dotting the "i" when previously it wasn't dotted, through always turning on the car's signal light when turning to the left or right when in the past this was not done, to perceiving dope addicts and homosexuals as sick people needing psychological, medical help, in lieu of perceiving them as wicked degenerates needing to be castigated or punished. Learning was evidenced, for example, in the subsequent behavior of St. Paul after he was struck by certain insights while traveling on the road to Damascus. Learning is evidenced by the infant who discriminatingly uses "dada" and "mama" for two specific adults and not all adults. Learning (and maturation!) is observed when boys, who heretofore didn't seem to give a tinker's dam what their clothes and hair looked like, now primp and comb before the mirror. All these kinds of learnings evidenced in either covert or overt behaviors are best consummated by the learner in conditions that are conducive to such changes in behavior.

To ensure these various learnings certain opportunities and conditions have to be created by an individual or individuals fulfilling the role of a teacher. This role may involve exposing the learner to an experience, helping him appreciate the experience, aiding the learner to address himself to the significance and outcomes and to see the relevance of the phenomena to his previous experiences, his present situation and his future activities.

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Above all, the facilitator of learning, i.e., the teacher, has to create a liberating psychological setting that allows the learner, emotionally and intellectually, to marshal all his cognitive, motor and affective resources for integrating his observations, perceptions, and emergent understandings and skills with what he already knows and uses. In addition, the learner has to be afforded the opportunity to see the relevance (transfer possibilities) of his newly integrated insights, skills and understandings to future situations, problems and dilemmas.

As should be completely obvious, though many teachers act as if it were not obvious, only the learner can learn. The teacher can do nothing more than create the necessary and sufficient conditions. This involves helping to identify a problem, creating a tension in the learner by highlighting gaps and disparities, affording resources and opportunities to attack, to redefine the problem, or to assuage the aroused tension, and standing aside to let the learner react and interact with the phenomena, facts and the conglomerate of data before him. The teacher, on the one hand, is like the computer programmer. This latter writes the program. Only the computer with its discs, memory bank, tapes, transistors and electrical energy can handle the input which eventually emerges as output. No computer programmer imagines that he can fulfill the processes that the computer fulfills. Similarly the teacher exposes the learner to a program but it is the learner who takes it, internalizes it (if the conditions are appropriate), and produces a behavioral (overt or covert) output.

Creating a Climate for Student Teachers' Learning

There are three major adult professionals involved in the creation of the necessary climate for student teacher learning. These are the college teacher, the college supervisor and the cooperating or critic teacher. The crucial role is played, in this writer's opinion, by the cooperating teacher. In addition, the youngsters whom the student teacher teaches play a role in creating the climate, but this climate is determined in no small way by the prior structuring and efforts of the three adults already cited.

The college teacher's role as a facilitator of learning involves not only exposure of the student teacher to facts and subject matter through books, films, video tape, spoken word, field experiences and so on, but also the delineation of one model of instruction through his own facilitating behaviors. This has to be

accompanied by an acceptant stance towards the student teachers and their struggle to learn the skills, attitudes, values and competencies needed by a professional facilitator of learning.

The college supervisor must fulfill the function of helping the student teacher analyze his experiences and self-observations as he tries to implement these understandings and insights in the actual classroom. The college supervisor, too, must take a phenomenological stance towards the student teacher and strive to perceive and appreciate the latter's efforts in behalf of public school learners and the stresses of the classroom from the neophyte's vantage point.

It is the cooperating or critic teacher, however, who plays the most important role. This individual must not merely have the subject matter masterfully in hand. He must also demonstrate in his regular classes the strategies, technical devices and aides he employs. More important still he must be able to conceptualize, organize and communicate to the apprentice teacher what he did and the rationale for his doing it.

The function of the college instructor and supervisor and of the cooperating teacher is to forge relationships with the student teacher that will help the neophyte to learn. However, these facilitators will not simply aim at producing a professionally competent individual. They will also strive to develop an educated person. The newly prepared teacher should encompass all the arts and understandings of an effective teacher plus the deliberativeness, sense of responsibility, creativity and broad-gauged appreciations of the educated individual. This entails competence in entertaining ideas and perceptions contrary to one's own, being cognizant of what one is doing and why, and most important of all being aware of the impact of one's teaching efforts on the targets of those efforts.

To create a climate to facilitate and enhance learning and inquiry one has to perceive the teaching-learning situation as a total communication paradigm. Everything the instructor does—verbally, facially, posturally and by voice inflection and intonation contributes to the communication pattern.

We have a basic assumption implicit in all this, i.e., the teacher is in the classroom primarily to serve the learning needs of the learner and not to enhance or aggrandize himself. This is the essence of the relationship of learner to teacher. It implies a ready acceptance of the learner qua learner and an equally ready entertaining of the ideas, questions, doubts and "misper-

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ceptions" (from the instructor's viewpoint) of the learner. The relationship implies considerable objectivity or detachment on the part of the teacher but not aloofness.

Hopefully, the learning climates created by the college instructor, the supervisor and the cooperating teacher will reinforce each other and result in relationships and understandings that enhance the inquiry and coping activities of the student teacher. The goal of all this is the development of a beginning teacher who is conscious of his behaviors in the teaching-learning situation, cognizant of the theory or rationale guiding his calculated behaviors and sensitive to the impact of his communication behaviors and style on the learners he serves.

Specific Suggestions

Therefore, college teachers, supervisors and cooperating teachers, as they work with student teachers, need to do several things. They should indicate to student teachers, not merely by precept but by example and demonstration, the facilitating behaviors and strategies generally believed to facilitate learning. After they talk about motivation, they will utilize a motivating technique and highlight that technique for the examination and analysis of the intending teachers. If the topic is individual differences they will demonstrate in their own behaviors and tactics, ways to accommodate the program and activities to the range of differences among the intending teachers.

Student teachers need to be exposed or introduced to some criteria, instruments or procedures for self-examination and self-evaluation in terms of explicit behavioral and process variables. The student teacher should be exposed to the research and writings of Medley (1965), Medley and Mitzel (1958, 1962), Mitzel (1958), Bowers and Soar (1960, 1962), Flanders (1960^a, 1960^b, 1962), B. O. Smith (1962, 1964, 1965), Bellack (1965) and Withall (1949, 1956, 1960, 1961, 1963, 1967).

Supervisors and cooperating teachers must help each student teacher to conceptualize and make communicable his theory of learning and his instructional rationale. In many cases this will involve an eclectic grouping of learning and instructional principles drawn from such diverse students of human behavior and learning as Freud, Hull, Skinner, Tolman, Lewin, Kohler and Guthrie.* This constantly developing and communicable rationale can afford the teacher, whether beginning or veteran, the

theoretical underpinning to guide him in the process of both predicting and controlling the complex variables encountered in the learning situation.

Student teachers must be given opportunity to observe theory conscious professionals in action who planfully yet spontaneously guide their teaching behaviors and strategies by a stateable, organized, and developing theory of learning and instruction.

It should be emphasized that student teachers ought to be placed with cooperating teachers who are very knowledgeable in learning theory and fluent in communicating it. They also need to be placed with teachers who are compatible with the style and pace of learning of the beginning teacher. The placement of student teachers with cooperating teachers is in the main a highly hit-or-miss operation at the present.

Finally, student teachers need to be helped to test their skills, strategies and theories under competent supervision in actual classrooms and under circumstances that afford virtually immediate feedback through the study and analysis of video or sound tape records of their attempts at teaching.

Conclusion

Through such a concerted and focused effort it would seem that the best resources of colleges and public schools can be harnessed to the task of creating a learning climate and situation for student teachers which will ensure the preparation of professionally sophisticated and thoroughly competent facilitators of learning.

*The N.S.E. Yearbook (1964) and Hilgard and Bower's book (1966) afford an excellent overview of these disparate contributions to learning theory.

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Role Relationships in Student Teaching

College and University Responsibility in Student Teaching

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A Cooperating Teacher Views Student Teaching

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The Student Teacher's Responsibilities

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College and University Responsibility in Student Teaching

George Myers

As part of our continuing national self-appraisal in education, we are hearing much today about the problems encountered in student teaching. Friends and foes alike are using such terms as "chaos," "confusion" and "disarray" to describe arrangements involving professional laboratory experiences in colleges, laboratory schools and public schools. Clearly there is ample reason for concern. At the same time we would be less than candid if we failed to consider some of the hopeful trends with respect to college and university responsibilities in student teaching and internship activities.

PRESENT TRENDS

Several current developments offer considerable promise for those who believe that student teaching is beginning at last to play a more effective role in teacher preparation. These developments include:

- 1) Growing acceptance by state and federal agencies of responsibility for leadership in policy formulation and planning in teacher education and student teaching.
- 2) Recognition that high quality student teaching arrangements require genuine cooperation among persons in colleges and universities, public schools, professional groups and governmental agencies.
- 3) Awareness by liberal arts instructors that well-planned student teaching experiences are crucial to the preparation of quality teachers. There is new campus-wide concern for teacher education.
- 4) Recently published materials¹ of the Joint Committee on State Responsibility for Student Teaching provide excellent background and suggestions regarding responsibilities of the various persons and agencies involved in student teaching.
- 5) Many public school people are showing new interest in well-conceived student teaching programs as they relate to their total instructional responsibilities.

These developments, together with a changing viewpoint as to the nature of student teaching itself, are leading us toward more realistic definitions of roles and responsibilities of the various parties involved in student teaching.

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COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY RESPONSIBILITY IN STUDENT TEACHING

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

It is accurate to say that quality student teaching experiences largely depend, at this time, on solid administrative understanding, commitment and support by the teacher education institution. Only through such support will adequate personnel and financial resources be made available. Even though state department leadership is generally lacking, there is much that colleges and universities can and should do to improve the quality of laboratory experiences (this is not to deny the urgent need for state department leadership).

When college and university administrators commit their full resources to quality student teaching, the way is open to a genuine partnership among all persons involved in teacher education: administrators, college teachers, public school people, student teachers and state department personnel. This approach became evident as a result of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) Committee on Cooperation in Teacher Education's work in promoting regional conferences in 1964.

Such conferences have been helpful in stimulating college-wide participation in teacher preparation, and increasing awareness of the values inherent in well-conceived student teaching arrangements. Institutions which formerly offered a hodgepodge of overlapping and often irrelevant instruction have begun to analyze the component elements deemed essential in their pre-service experiences. Appropriate elements are being assigned to such specific courses as psychological foundations, social foundations, methods and student teaching. Thus the student teaching experience is no longer a matter of filling in any and all gaps remaining after exposure to earlier preparation.

ROLE OF THE DIRECTOR

The person designated as director of student teaching or of professional laboratory experiences has a central role in the drive to develop quality experiences for all student teachers. He should have time and support to consolidate teacher education endeavors of all persons on and off campus. He should represent the college or university in state and national organizations. He must discover ways to rise above detail activities like budget making, interviewing, selection and assignment to the point where he can give real leadership to college supervisors and cooperative teaching center personnel in their efforts to improve the student teaching experiences. As a specialist in teacher

preparation, he has a major role to play in the exploration of ways to apply the analytical study of teaching to the clinical situation. He needs to see himself as a key person for giving visibility and status to student teaching as an integral part of his institution's teacher education program.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE COLLEGE SUPERVISOR

The work of the college supervisor or clinical instructor has been explored in considerable detail in the 1964 Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching.² Although responsibilities vary widely from one institution to another, the college supervisor is generally expected to coordinate his cooperative teaching center, to lead seminars for student teachers and supervising teachers, to supervise and evaluate as a member of the school-college staff of the teaching center, and to provide leadership in in-service instruction. These functions must not interfere with his central task: to act as mentor, friend, counselor and teacher to each student teacher assigned to his center. He represents the college to the student teacher.

The college supervisor also acts as resource person to the supervising teacher, who looks to him for assistance and encouragement at every stage of his work with the student teacher. He plays a major part in matching the student teacher with the supervising teacher, and he is a readily available resource throughout the relationship. He recognizes that his effort with supervising teachers and student teachers is the most significant and time-consuming aspect of his complex role.

As he explores the dimensions of his role in the ever-changing teacher education situation, the college supervisor will find such challenges as these:

- 1) Bringing the college and the public school into effective partnership in teacher preparation, improvement of curriculum and instruction, and promotion of mutual understanding and support for teacher education.
- 2) Playing a major role as instructional leader by emphasizing the study and analysis of teaching as a fundamental concern of student teaching.
- 3) Establishing a team relationship with members of the teaching center faculty, and serving as a worthy representative of the college faculty.

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY RESPONSIBILITY IN STUDENT TEACHING

SUMMARY STATEMENT

As we face the future in student teaching and internship, there is much basis for optimism. But one thing is certain: no one can sit idly by today and be content to do business as usual. Each one of us can do more to move our programs in desirable directions, and thus help to bring in a bright new day in teacher education.

¹See the Committee's two publications: *Who's In Charge Here? Fixing Responsibilities for Student Teaching*, 1966; and *A New Order in Student Teaching: Fixing Responsibilities in Student Teaching*, 1967, Washington, D.C., National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association.

²*The College Supervisor: Conflict and Challenge*, Forty-Third Yearbook; Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1964.

A Cooperating Teacher Views Student Teaching

Dorothy Orians

At a time when there are educational upheavals all over the country, when the cry is for excellence in education — with federal funds and programs giving impetus — attention is rightfully directed to the training of teachers themselves. Everywhere disparate programs are being initiated and discussed. It is conceded by those who cry loudest that if our education is to be effective (a term that is being explained in many ways) our teachers have the central responsibility for making it so. Out of the potpourri of suggested teacher-training reforms, two have special relevance in the development of competence in tomorrow's teachers; the first concerns putting substance into the student's college curriculum and the latter concerns the student's field experience. After working with student teachers I find it impossible to think of background — primarily subject matter courses — as even a separate topic when discussing a student's potential to teach in the classroom. One is dependent upon the other. Invariably students are the first to recognize this close relationship; they feel that teaching is a projection of one's knowledge and experience. Students discover for themselves, early in their practice, that to be successful in lighting the spark of curiosity they must have enthusiasm for the subjects being taught, and they further discover that such enthusiasm is more easily generated when they themselves have adequate knowledge about their materials. When students lack background there is danger of inertia, and when this results there is anything but enthusiasm in their teaching. Teaching is a compound, and a main ingredient is knowledge. If the goal for future teachers is to strive for competence, the goal must also encompass ways to expand horizons. Since a major part of teaching is interpreting ideas, clarifying meanings, and developing in pupils a zest for knowledge, a major part of the college curriculum reform should be focused on giving future teachers more courses of substance — courses that will enable them to have a broader and deeper understanding of the world of ideas.

While the subject matter deficiency is being studied and weighed — and hopefully remedied — there is still the second vital concern of the teacher-reform movement, that of the field experience of the student when he leaves his formal study program. If we are to think constructively on ways to make future teachers competent (and no matter which meaning of this term is taken it still spells progress) we must be gravely concerned with the development of students during their student teaching

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assignment. It is in this area that the cooperating teacher can and should play a significant part. Just as there are many approaches to teaching, so there are many approaches to student teaching, especially as viewed through the eyes of a cooperating teacher. The topic is expansive and slippery. For this reason — and because it is impossible to cover thoroughly the roles of both teachers in one paper — I shall limit this discussion to a few sweeping and some specific observations that I have made during my work with student teachers and to some more or less general conclusions that I have drawn from my so-called cooperating teacher experience.

For the sake of continuity and clarity it will be assumed by the time a student fresh from college comes to the classroom to participate in the actual teaching experience that he* is well-informed about his job; that he knows something about the philosophy and theory behind teaching; that he is familiar with the growth patterns and the mental processes of children; that he has a good background of knowledge on subjects that he is to teach; and that he is brimful of ideas on how to present materials. I also think it should be assumed that he knows something of situations he will encounter in the classroom, that he has learned about the multifarious tasks of the elementary teacher,** in particular, that he has a fingertip knowledge of where to find supplementary source materials when he needs help, and that, above all, he knows why he is there in the first place. Assuming then, in essence, that it is the college's task to provide to the student basic knowledge and theoretical training, it follows that it is the cooperating teacher's task to offer the greatest opportunity possible for the student to learn about the practical aspects of implementing educational theory. In brief, the cooperating teacher asks herself: how can this student be helped in becoming a competent teacher? What can be done to show this student something of the interrelationship between a teacher and the class? What can be done to aid a student in establishing needed attitudes? What privileges should be given a student so that he may help himself to develop into a successful teacher? And finally, as a student develops, how can the cooperating teacher help in the growth process? It is hoped that throughout the fol-

*To avoid getting involved with pronouns and their antecedents, I have taken the easy way out. In this paper the student teacher will be referred to as "he" and for obvious reasons the cooperating teacher as "she."

**This knowledge, if not gained in methods courses, certainly should have been attained during the "participation program." Here students should be oriented to both duties and responsibilities of the teacher.

lowing discussion some light may be thrown on the answers to these questions, with emphasis on those aspects which I feel have been most helpful to my students in training. No special order will be followed and there will be no special pattern cut. If blue prints could be made for student teachers, the cooperating teacher might even lose her title.

Shortly after a student teacher has been assigned to a specific class and to a specific teacher, a get acquainted conference usually ensues. It is about this time that the cooperating teacher should remind herself of the old truism that "a prerequisite to good learning is a good attitude." When a student first enters the classroom his apprenticeship learning begins; he does not learn how to teach, but rather about teaching. He will spend the first part of his field experience observing classroom procedure, surveying the children, studying minds in action, discovering behavior patterns and perhaps gaining an insight into teacher-pupil relationship. Because a student often feels himself in a precarious position at this stage and because he probably is measuring and scrutinizing the personality of the cooperating teacher, it is wise for her to do something about inducing good attitudes. Since common bonds relieve tension, even between adversaries, it is advantageous during the orientation-observation period for the two teachers to chat as often as possible not only about the teaching program, its purposes, goals, etc., but also about the children in the class, their niceties, their individual differences, and finally some of their problems. By this time the student teacher has something other than himself to think about. How far this kind of orientation needs to go depends upon the personality of the student teacher. Usually, while the experienced teacher is performing, it takes more than intermittent chatty talk to put a student really at ease. Sometimes questions appear in his mind; and since the cooperating teacher is capable of catching thought waves, she knows the student is worried about whether or not he can fit into the experienced teacher's footsteps. Assurance should be given immediately, when the frowns first appear, that the student is not expected to be an imitator or a follower. In fact, it should be stressed that he is only expected to be himself and even prove that he can be.

Another way of easing tension is to use an approach that invariably establishes a calming and propitious atmosphere; the cooperating teacher, through informal discussion, makes the student realize that actually all educators are still participating in the learning process, that even after years of experience all are (or should be) still studying the business of how to teach, con-

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tinuously structuring and restructuring their methods of presenting materials, continuously shifting and reshifting their tactics on how to evoke and maintain interest. If a student knows this he soon feels a kind of compatibility, for he and other teachers, in a sense, are all on the learning level. Interestingly, out of this atmosphere certain significant ideas evolve and are caught by the student without indoctrination. He begins to realize that he is expected to be a thinking individual and use his own methods and techniques if he is to become a teaching partner. It is at this point, too, that a student senses the freedom that is so important for gaining lasting value from the teaching experience.

The key word, freedom, cannot be over-emphasized, the student teacher should not only be made to feel it, but he should also be oriented to its full implications. It is not easy for a student to throw off shackles, to step out of the protective shell enclosed around him in college classrooms, and suddenly become a free-functioning, independent individual. "To do" is much more difficult than "to say." The cooperating teacher can strengthen the student, can help him to gain steadiness by explaining his position, by telling him what is expected of him, and by carefully going over his program with him. A student can also be bolstered a bit if he is recognized as another "teacher," not as a student teacher, by the pupils of the class; it is satisfying, too, for him to be given responsibilities equal to those of the cooperating teacher. With the question of status eliminated and the rights and responsibilities understood, it is not surprising that communication between the teachers, too, naturally becomes freer and easier. The sense of security gained and the feeling of confidence acquired through knowledge and support given by the cooperating teacher will do much to aid the student in taking fuller advantage of opportunities to sharpen his teaching performance.

Perhaps the greatest privilege that can be given to the student is what I call, for lack of a better term, "freedom to try" — a freedom that involves more than the right of endeavoring to practice methods studied or observed: this freedom, when fully conceived by students, somehow acts upon them as a trigger to explore, to invent, to create. We are living in an age of explosive inquiry, and students must catch and further this spirit early in their training. Future teachers will be guiding pupils who mentally push off in all directions The moot question is: will our students-in-training be prepared for such launchings? The cooperating teacher can assist by giving the student every pos-

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sible chance to develop his own powers; she can help him recognize that he must exert himself so that he can make full use of his initiative and his abilities.

In a sense the freedom-to-try idea is one that must be processed in order to be fully realized: it begins with the student's initial observation period and it grows as the teachers work together. Some of the thinking incorporated has already been touched upon, but certain points need to be brought out and others need restating and emphasizing: students should be assured that there is no "one way" to teach and that imitation is in itself only a means and should not be an end; students should be made aware, whenever necessary, that techniques and methods used by one teacher often cannot be given to another because of differences in personalities; students should be shown that many kinds of motivations need to be used, for what is effective with one individual may not be with another; and most of all, students should be intermittently reminded that teaching children is essentially a creative business.

A cooperating teacher can further both the mood and the inclination "to try" by making a special attempt to keep the climate of the classroom one of experimentation during her teaching efforts, one which shows diversification of approach and versatility in presentation; she can also show the student how receptive children can be to change and how vastly invigorated by it. Such an atmosphere often exhilarates the alert student observer to a point where he is sitting on the edge of his chair ready to slide into teaching activities. And when he does he brings in appropriate materials to exhibit; he searches for and often delivers to the class the very latest visual aids; he harnesses and puts into use new resources for the project-workers, and he proffers his services whenever and wherever needed.

But what about the shy, retiring student teacher? the one who needs "drawing out"? The incentive to try can be awakened here if the cooperating teacher occasionally, while conducting class discussions or experiments, openly invites the student to participate and even asks him for opinions and advice. If this is done, the children look to the new teacher, and rightly so, as a source for fresh ideas and they will go to him for help when they encounter problems. He then becomes the new helper and the new guide, and if he is to keep up his new reputation he will have to exert all effort to think, plan, devise ways to "save his face."

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Once the student has actually put into practice some of his thinking, teaching becomes realistic and he senses value in trying his own skills. It is interesting to watch students during their clinical experiences for they encounter thrills of satisfaction in their self-developed and self-motivated programs just as the pupils do when they first discover the joys of knowing. Fortunately perhaps the student often encounters difficulties. Teaching can really only be learned through practice, and actually by the trial and error method: teaching is a maze that is better understood after bumping into barriers, then backing up and trying other ways, until finally there is outcome and outgo with less and less difficulty.

A student may soon forget the early learning problems once he has realized how to function as a teacher, but the cooperating teacher who has observed over the years can sense and even categorize "student teaching expectancies." Since she knows the road and how the student best learns the way, she wisely does not take him by the hand and lead him, but rather she gives him a chance to try for himself, unhampered, so that he will weigh his steps and ascertain his progress. I would rather say, after a student's proposal, "Good, try it but watch carefully while you do — you may discover you need to change as you go"; instead of, "Don't try it that way for it won't work because"

One of the biggest problem experiences of the student is the acquisition of skill to recognize and measure the learning capacities and levels of the children, both as a class and as individuals in the class. The student finds himself puzzling over such questions as: just how much is this child capable of learning in one "lesson"? how much can I pour into him without having an unassimilated overflow? Only practice — and experimenting — can give the teacher a valid answer. As the student works, using his freedom to be selective, he finds ways of fitting his teaching to his pupils, using those tactics which are most suitable and those which he feels will bring best results.

There are a few headaches, too, that the cooperating teacher expects a student to suffer. Foremost among these is his worryment over not carrying out fully his own lesson plans. Actually the purpose of lesson planning was probably understood during the theoretical training, but even so it is a shock to a student when he discovers that he "worked so hard to plan" and then didn't really follow through. If a little discussion does not settle the student, the cooperating teacher might ask him if he thought of checking her plans during the observation period. When he is

assured that adhering rigidly to lesson plans is both an impossible and an undesirable procedure, his headache leaves. If there ever is an indication that teaching is not being creative, it is a teacher's confession that lesson plans are being followed religiously. Students learn their value and their place; they discover their use as guides — tentative ones — and they learn how to sketch their plans with flexible structures. Just as a public speaker uses a bold outline to prevent his omitting necessary points, so the student teacher handles broadly his daily plans. Long-range plans, those covering an entire unit, have more worth, for they force any teacher to do some productive and creative thinking about long-range goals. The student should not fret, however, if his goals are not reached during his teaching session. The greatest significance is **having goals**: they add purpose to the teacher's task and if there are blocks in the form of diversions, digressions, or even didactic sermons, well and good. It is one sign that the student is doing some thinking and exerting effort in his trying.

Another expectation of the cooperating teacher — one that might cause small headaches in certain students — is the discovery that there are inevitable upsets in time schedules. Beginning teachers, through practice, find that a concept or idea often needs to be presented in several ways, several times, before it can become comprehensible to some children. They also are made aware that learning situations frequently become quite involved: one idea is a key to another, and this in turn unlocks the third, etc., etc. Sometimes even the student teacher gets carried away with the whirlwind of ideas when class participants are alert. Both of these experiences interrupt the ticking of the classroom clock. But, on the other hand, both are significant to the student who is learning to teach, for here he can see young minds at work and thus better understand the mental processes of children. For this reason, the cooperating teacher can profitably eschew routine in her comments. Though sticking to a schedule has merits at times, it can prove detrimental through emphasis. Students who take teaching seriously learn to place routine in its proper perspective.

Some observations on the profitable outgrowths of the field experience reveal that when a student puts his heart into his work, when he takes full advantage of opportunities afforded him, when he fully grasps the idea that teaching is a continuous search for and development of skills, then he himself achieves goals that are expected. What a student gets out of student

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teaching can be measured to a considerable extent by what he puts into it. Occasionally a student is satisfied too easily, and he is ready to settle for half-achievement: he adopts a teaching behavior based partly on imitation, partly on his own exploration, and partly on the hope that somehow when he gets into teaching, things will luckily work out. Another student will accept his teaching practice as a challenge: he is satisfied with nothing less than the real thing — he wants to work out his own teaching program, use his own ideas, and have complete responsibility for his own results. This type of student usually shows a readiness "to try" very early in the practice session. He might begin by sporadic teaching the first week in the classroom, trying out his tactics on individual pupils who have difficult learning problems. As this student grows he puts more and more of his ideas into use. I have seen a student have four or five kinds of instruction going on in one room, all at the same time and all under control, but this is the exceptional case. On the whole, students develop teaching capacities gradually, and as they grow in confidence and competence they take on more and more of the teaching load. How much, how far, and how fast students expand themselves is up to them. The cooperating teacher can usually detect signs of accomplishment in a student when he begins to criticize his own methods, when he points to his own "boo-boos," when he glibly discusses what he should have done with yesterday's assignment. When a student develops a good critical sense he is on the road to success, for from this time on his eyes will be sharper during demonstration lessons; he will see ways to implement his own ideas and theories; and he will work toward more constructive goals. Though the cooperating teacher is receding into the background she can now be of invaluable help by guiding whenever necessary with an unobtrusive but constructive hand, giving encouragement and suggestions when needed, always talking over learning situations and problems.

Perhaps at this time, the cooperating teacher's help should be viewed as moral support, moral support given to a new teacher whose desire is to search for and create a teaching style with which he can identify. And style, here, does not simply imply hammering away at teaching methods until the student molds a unique pattern that can be filed and used in the future. It is not that easy. The student is really trying to find himself in his field; he is filling a prescription that cannot be delineated. The process encompasses all that has been said thus far . . . and in addition involves such personal processes as how he thinks, how he feels, how he reacts in expressing himself. When a student

identifies with a teaching style he uses subtle tricks of communication, such as lifting the left eyebrow at the proper time, or winking the right eye to sanction approval. Such effective expressions indicate a teacher who senses the right reaction and knows the minute to apply it. With children such communication is part of their training and it is also part of the effectiveness of teaching. When a student invests his personality in his student teaching he is well on the way to finding himself.

By way of conclusion, I purpose not to summarize, not to tell what yet needs to be done to help the student, not to point to the important phases of student teaching that I have omitted; instead, I'd like to tell about a little two-word sign that will be placed on my student teacher's desk. It reads: "Be yourself." This may prove more effective than any formula I know. Again and again this injunction must be brought home to the student teacher. Individuality and personality must not be lost in the process of developing techniques or in the search for more motivating skills to add to his repertoire. The student teacher, when in front of a classroom has the key to unlock the door of inquiry and to inspire learning . . . and to a great extent he can measure his own success by the amount of learning that actually takes place while he is "at the helm." How much interest is evoked in children depends on the personality of their leader. Pupils, especially at the elementary level, love vivacity, enthusiasm and a good sense of humor. Student teachers may not know it but an alert class of children is ready to rank them on all these counts after the first few days. Children have very few inhibitions — this is their normal state — and because of this they can sense whenever their teachers are caught not being themselves. If one of the tasks of the teacher is to keep a class from being bored with their work, then it is also the task of a teacher to laugh with the children, to joke occasionally, and to let them know there is such a thing as a sense of humor. The latter, I feel, is a necessary part of the teaching-learning process. The cooperating teacher has ways of showing this and she should not fail to let the student teachers know that they are expected to show it too. James Thurber in the introduction of *The 13 Clocks* discusses the value of escapism and states that "Unless modern man wanders down these byways occasionally, I do not see how he can preserve his sanity." Humor, in its varied forms, is a kind of escapism and thank goodness teachers have free access to it.

The Student Teacher's Responsibilities

Anna Jones

The student teaching experience is the focal point in the total sequence of teacher education. Rather than an isolated experience it is the integrated culmination of theory and practice in teacher education. Courses in child growth and development and in the psychology of learning are planned to help the student understand children's behavior. Courses in curriculum give basic information about content and materials for the different grades. The responsibility for influencing children's behavior while directing their learning comes with the student teaching experience. The opportunity to observe actual classroom behavior and various teaching procedures and techniques comes during the earlier observation and participation periods within the professional laboratory sequence. Often one finds that a great variety of practices exist in the schools. Student teaching provides the important opportunity for application of learnings acquired by course work and prior classroom experience.

Opportunity is provided to experience directly, as nearly as is possible, all the duties of a teacher in the total school program. These tasks range from relatively mundane tasks to the most professional activity that every teacher is obligated to perform — that of directing learning activities.

Before one really begins to teach, he must know something about those children he is planning to teach and about the school itself. An informal talk with the principal or his assistant will help the student teacher become familiar with the school and learn what will be expected of him during this experience. This is also an excellent time to become aware of school rules and policies. Time will be well spent in becoming acquainted with the facilities and procedures of the school. A tour of the school building will be most helpful. With permission of the cooperating teacher, or someone else in charge, information may be obtained about the children in the classroom. This will involve looking into the cumulative records to find what they contain, and how the information can be of use in teaching. The responsibilities of the teacher are many and there is no better time than during student teaching to discover this.

The main focus of student teaching is on providing opportunity for students to assume gradually the full responsibility of classroom teaching under the guidance of experienced personnel. In general, the student teacher will take responsibility for only one phase at a time. When the student and the cooperating teacher feel it is appropriate, another teaching segment will be

added. In this way the student teacher gradually assumes full responsibility of the classroom. The student teacher will, more than likely, feel very apprehensive about teaching a large group of children for the first time. With the help of her cooperating teacher this feeling of insecurity can easily be overcome.

If one is to be an effective teacher, good planning is essential. Although the student teacher may think plans are not important, the need for detailed advance planning will probably become evident before the end of his first lesson. Teaching is a complex activity, and for the inexperienced person it can become even more complex. The chance for success becomes much greater if careful planning precedes teaching.

Attention should be given to both long-term and short-term planning. Long-term planning makes possible balanced progress toward long-range goals. It will also prevent fragmented, unrelated teaching. The student teacher will need to confer with both the cooperating teacher and university supervisor on developing long-range plans.

Within the framework of the long-term plans specific daily plans will need to be made. This may seem very tedious and time consuming, but it is essential if one is to be well prepared. While motivating is important it need not be too involved. Individual differences should be taken into consideration. How will you be able to keep John from becoming restless? What are you planning for the slower child? Lessons should be organized to involve all the children. Key questions to be asked need to be included. Lesson plans should be adaptable. The situation is not always going to work out exactly as planned.

Very little desirable learning of any kind can take place in the classroom with poor discipline; therefore, good control is essential. Discipline can be a very big problem for the student teacher. Each child behaves in a different way, as he seeks to satisfy his basic desires. Any knowledgeable person knows there is no static formula for keeping control.

If the student teacher is relaxed and pleasant, yet firm, good classroom control is more likely to occur. The student teacher must have respect for the children. When each child is looked upon as a person of value in society, and knows from the teacher's manner and treatment that his worth is recognized, a good working atmosphere is created. It is vitally important that the student teacher is fair with everyone. It is very easy to admire the clean, well-dressed, always prepared child, but not so easy to have the same feeling for one who is not so well-kept.

Among her other virtues the student teacher should develop a sense of humor. Many times a little laughter can be of help to

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remedy a potentially bad situation. It is important to listen to all sides of the problem before forming any definite opinions.

Student teachers must gain insights which help them to foresee situations which seem to be unusual and might result in loss of control. Problems may be prevented if the student teacher is aware of indicators of possible disturbance. At all times it is important for the student teacher to maintain self-control. If the student teacher cannot maintain self-control how can she expect her students to?

As one begins to take on the responsibility of teaching, she also begins to wonder what kind of a job she is doing. Through continuous evaluation the student teacher will be helped to analyze strengths and weaknesses. The ability to evaluate one's self may be most important and lead to greater improvement than subjective evaluation by the supervisor or cooperating teacher. Analysis of personality and teaching behavior, followed by re-planning and change, contribute to improved teaching. Am I dependable and cooperative? Do I keep an open mind, and maintain self-control? Am I able to express myself and give directions that are easily understood? Personal grooming and mannerisms are very important. Effort spent in correcting any undesirable situation will be very worthwhile.

Another important type of help comes from the constant evaluation of the cooperating teacher. Cooperating teachers may make notes while the student is teaching. These comments can be extremely helpful. The student who uses them to help her become more professional will profit immensely.

The university supervisor also plays an important role in evaluation and should be looked upon as a valuable resource. A good cooperating relationship should be established between the student teacher and university supervisor. Practices in the classroom are often difficult to relate to theories studied previously. Through discussion with a trained supervisor many doubts can be absolved. Discussing problems can often lead to a better understanding and ultimately to their solution. It is important that student teachers not be afraid to admit mistakes. Everyone makes errors, but it is only the courageous who try to overcome them.

The student teacher receives a great deal of valuable advice from a number of people. Perhaps one could succeed without this help. Careful guidance during student teaching enables one to develop techniques of his own much sooner than under a trial and error system. It is not fair to the children for a neophyte without the intensely valuable experience of student teaching to undertake the task of shaping and molding the minds of the future. One cannot afford to make mistakes freely with the human mind for the sake of practice.

Preparation for Teaching in the Inner City

Student Teaching as Preparation for Work in Inner City Schools

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Student Teaching as Preparation for Work in Inner City Schools

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Student teaching has long been considered a crucial part of the preparation of future teachers, and is most often designated by teachers as that portion of their professional preparation which has the greatest influence in determining their subsequent teaching actions. As ever larger numbers of teachers are needed in schools in our city slums, and as the problems to be faced in these schools become increasingly evident, a great deal of thought and action is going into the preparation of teachers for work specifically in schools in economically deprived areas — and student teaching programs are, of course, included in these plans.

Characteristics of Superior Teachers of Disadvantaged Youngsters

Before planning programs which might more successfully prepare teachers for work with youngsters whose families are economically underprivileged, often members of minority groups against whom society discriminates, and who, therefore, suffer a variety of social, emotional and intellectual deprivations, it is essential to attempt to define those traits found in successful teachers of disadvantaged youngsters. Professor Harry Miller of Hunter College, after surveying the current literature, has identified ten items as being important for teachers working with children of the slums. He states that, "The successful teacher of the disadvantaged child: 1. Attempts to understand the feelings of the pupils, and to empathize. 2. Sees disadvantaged children as worthy, even though he might disapprove of their behavior. 3. Believes that the children are capable of learning and growth. 4. Understands the handicaps imposed by their environment, without stereotyping individual children. 5. Looks for ways of reaching and interesting disadvantaged children; tries to be flexible and imaginative. 6. Sees a special need to set clear rules and is firm in holding the class to them. 7. Accepts differences in values and behavior styles without shock or ridicule. 8. Recognizes individual and variant styles of learning, and tries to adapt methods to them. 9. Recognizes strengths in the children and tries to utilize them. 10. Seeks ways of giving praise and concrete rewards, and recognizes the importance for the child of experiencing success."

McGeoch writes that, "It takes solid purpose, extensive preparation, dogged persistence and a pioneering spirit to teach in a slum school. A touch of toughness tempered with unflinching

compassion; a bent for organization combined with essential flexibility; a respect for high standards and a recognition of realistic limitations; a flair for innovation and creativity with a tolerance for unavoidable restrictions and limitations; a far-reaching purpose supported by a willingness to proceed, step by difficult step, toward partial realization — these are the characteristics of the teachers who chose to teach, and to remain, in the schools of the urban core.”²

Dan Dodson of New York University has said that teachers of disadvantaged children must know how to build the ego strengths of youngsters, and how to include them in decision-making processes; that is, help youngsters see that their own actions can make a difference in their lives, and help them find success in the school setting.³ The report of the Harlem Youth Opportunities, Unlimited, says that schools, and therefore teachers, in deprived communities must be, “. . . determinedly avant garde, experimental, inventive, and generous in their attention to the individual child.”⁴

Characteristics of Superior Teachers of All Youngsters

As one reads these and other statements of the qualities needed by teachers of underprivileged children, one is struck by the fact that what is considered important for teachers of disadvantaged youngsters are exactly those behaviors and feelings which would be desirable in teachers of children in any school anywhere in this country. Since it is unlikely that, just by chance, teachers in slum schools have these traits less often than teachers in other neighborhoods, it may well be that poor teaching goes less noticed in neighborhoods where the usual curriculum seems less removed from what youngsters see as relevant, and where youngsters themselves are less beset by problems in their out-of-school lives. Studies of teaching behavior have indeed shown that teachers, in general, tend to be controlling and inflexible, critical of their pupils, ask questions which call for memorized or known answers, and pay little attention to individual needs.⁵

Helping Prospective Teachers Acquire the Characteristics of Superior Teachers

It would seem, therefore, that the need is not just for improved programs for preparing teachers of the disadvantaged, but improved pre-service programs which will prepare all teachers to be better able to accept youngsters as worthy, to understand feelings, recognize different learning styles and adapt

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methods to these variations, help youngsters experience success, include pupils in decision-making, and be innovative and creative while recognizing realistic limitations. Thus, preservice programs need not institute specific courses about specific youngsters in New York City, or Chicago, or the Kentucky hills, but might introduce the future teacher to the variety found in our population, and help these students understand the importance of finding out about the children with whom they will work, what their home and neighborhood lives are like, what their values and aspirations are, and what they, as teachers, can do within the school day to work with particular groups of pupils to help them learn — socially, emotionally and intellectually. It would, of course, be logical for education departments to include the study of those youngsters whom their graduates are most likely to encounter in their teaching, but this study is most appropriate as part of a cross-cultural study — just as it is more meaningful for school children to study any people in one time or society in relation to people in other times and other societies.

Another example of ways in which teacher preparatory programs can help future teachers be better prepared to work in any school is found in the area of curriculum materials. Introducing students to the materials which they will probably encounter in certain schools has its place in education courses, but the stress ought to be upon an understanding of the importance of adapting the materials found in classrooms so that these materials may be better used by each youngster; upon ways of making materials for and with youngsters; and upon learning how to locate and evaluate new materials as they appear. Prospective teachers need to be helped to be curriculum makers, not merely consumers of prepackaged curriculum materials.

In order to help future teachers behave toward their pupils in ways which have been identified as those which foster desirable learnings, it is essential that teacher educators — both college and school personnel — incorporate these behaviors into their own work. Prospective teachers need to experience success, play a role in making decisions which affect them, be recognized as individuals with differing needs, and so on. Student teachers often experience a good deal of failure in their work — in any neighborhood. But because poor teaching shows itself more readily in the slums, student teachers tend to have more difficulty in these schools. All too often student teachers are criticized and judged rather than accepted and helped — by both their college supervisors and school personnel. Student teachers are more often told what to do, how to do it, and what was wrong

after it was done, than they are helped to decide what would be appropriate and extending for youngsters, aided in the selection of methods and materials for teaching, and then helped to evaluate their teaching in terms of their goals. Until the characteristics of good teaching are nurtured in undergraduate programs that incorporate theory and practice, teacher preparatory programs will not achieve their declared goals.

Improving Direct Experience in the Schools

Just as slum children learn to dislike school in the schools themselves, college student attitudes become more negative about youngsters during student teaching — the time actually spent with pupils. In both cases, it would seem, the experiences in the schools are not helpful. What can be done to help the student teacher experience success and retain his initial desire to be and become a helping person?

A number of new programs are attempting to provide student teachers and cooperating teachers with the kinds of experiences which will be fruitful for them and for the pupils in their classrooms. Before we mention student teaching in particular, let us look at some other kinds of direct experience, which may either precede or postdate student teaching. At Hunter College the students taking the methods course in reading and language arts are engaged in tutoring a child at least one hour a week — and these children are disadvantaged children. A close personal relationship is built up over the semester, and the students are encouraged to learn about and capitalize upon the interests of the child, to make materials for and with the child, and to evaluate the results with the child. Each pupil is encouraged to realize that he is helping the college student just as much as he is being helped in return. Many instructors in this course have arranged to have one class meeting each week in the school in which the tutoring is done, with one hour spent in tutoring, and the remaining one or two hours spent in discussion and demonstration — often with classroom teachers participating.

In addition to tutoring youngsters on a one-to-one basis, pre-service college students might teach units or parts of units to a few students in science or social studies, or in other areas related to methods courses. They might hold discussion seminars with small groups on a weekly basis, in connection with either foundations or methods courses. It is important that the participation be manageable — that at least some degree of success ensue for both student and youngsters, and that the experience be guided by school and college personnel. Ideally, every course in

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the education sequence would have incorporated in it some relevant contact with children. Even more ideally, methods courses, foundations courses and practice would be combined throughout the sequence.

Turning to student teaching, it is essential to note that the quality of the student teaching experience is of the utmost importance. Experience is not necessarily a good teacher; rather the kind of experience one has determines whether or not negative or positive learnings occur. Participation in a classroom situation where one does not receive adequate help and encouragement, does not see children helped and nurtured, and begins to pick up, by osmosis, practices which are self-defeating, will not further the preparation of a good teacher. Student teaching is primarily an apprenticeship, in that the student is placed with an already licensed practitioner in the field. As such, the system tends to conserve what is being practiced, and in many instances, this means conserving much that would be better eliminated.

Student teaching in a school in a disadvantaged neighborhood is probably not essential to later teaching success in this kind of school. While future teachers are undoubtedly better prepared by having a variety of good experiences in a variety of school settings, the actual student teaching placement should be determined by the quality of the experience to be gained. A good placement is one which develops the kind of growing, flexible teacher who can transfer learnings from one setting to another, and here the classroom cooperating teacher is all-important. The cooperating teacher is, really, the heart of the student teaching experience. Since student teaching has so much influence upon the later performance of teachers, cooperating teachers are among the most important teacher-educators. And yet, very often, they receive little or no preliminary preparation for their task, and a minimum of help as they work with student teachers. It would seem that certain colleges might concentrate much more effort upon working with cooperating teachers in disadvantaged areas, but all cooperating teachers need to be regarded as important personnel in teacher education, and considered accordingly. In this connection, these authors would like to suggest that the entire concept of the college supervisor be reexamined. We believe that most of the college supervisor's time should be spent with the school staff, particularly cooperating teachers, rather than with student teachers. An occasional visit from a college supervisor cannot have the impact upon the student of the daily continuous contact with the classroom teacher. Therefore, if it is to be assumed that the college supervisor has specialized knowl-

edge about the preparation of teachers, and help to give in this area, this help will have more impact if given directly to cooperating teachers. A more suitable name for the college supervisor might be Student Teaching Coordinator, designating the person responsible for tying together the work of the school and the college in preparing teachers. This coordinator would work primarily with cooperating teachers, in meetings, conferences and seminars, but would visit classrooms in order to assist the cooperating teacher in his work of supervising the student. Colleges must recognize that classroom supervision of student teachers, if it is to be done well, is a time-consuming task, and this extra time ought to be paid for. Money for cooperating teachers may be forthcoming from cities or from the Federal Government, but if it is not, then colleges themselves ought to be willing to pay cooperating teachers, just as they pay all other members of their departments.

Both Hunter College and Temple University have instituted programs which are designed to increase the degree of cooperation between education departments and the schools in the preparation of teachers. Groups of students are assigned to student teach in certain selected schools designated as student teaching centers, in disadvantaged areas. A college person is assigned full time to these schools, has his office in the school and is available at all times for work with student teachers and school personnel. There are variations in these programs, but ordinarily the student teaching seminar is held in the school with teachers and other school people as participants. College instructors, school personnel and neighborhood people are invited as additional resources. Visits are made within the neighborhood to various community centers, and meetings are arranged with social workers, parents, policemen, and the local candy store proprietor, among others. If methods courses are taken in conjunction with student teaching, these may be held in the schools. In some of the schools, curriculum laboratories have been arranged for the use of both student teachers and school people. In a few instances, the colleges have offered graduate courses for teachers within the school building after the school day.

A particularly promising development for the preparation of teachers has been the analysis of teaching behavior, both verbal and nonverbal, and the construction of skill sessions as means for practicing change in teaching behavior. Systems for analyzing teaching are valuable tools for student teachers and cooperating teachers. When trained in the use of systems which cate-

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gorize verbal behavior, such as Flanders Interaction Analysis⁶ or the Verbal Interaction Category System developed by Amidon and Hunter,⁷ a student can construct a tentative ideal matrix for himself in connection with a lesson he is planning, by deciding upon the verbal behavior he hopes to use in his teaching. He would then tape his teaching, tally his verbal behavior according to the system, and put his tallies onto a matrix for comparison with his ideal matrix. He may find close agreement; or he may find that while he had hoped for wide pupil-to-pupil participation, he spoke after each pupil spoke; in which case he may need to increase his capacity to wait, perhaps merely nodding after pupils speak. He may begin to use such furthering statements as, "Any other ideas?" or "Would anyone else care to comment on what John has said?" He may want to set a ground rule with the youngsters which makes clear that at least two pupils must speak before the teacher can speak. The student teacher may have planned, according to his ideal matrix, to be accepting and reflecting in his talk, and find that he used a large percentage of rejecting remarks. Then he may want to practice giving corrective feedback to pupils which does not contain rejection.

The evaluation of teaching, in these systems, is done by or with the student in terms of his expressed goals — not in terms of right or wrong. The evaluating process is a self-furthering one, and can be used to expand teaching repertoires. Supervision, after all, to be effective, must be aimed at helping the supervised person improve his own work thoughtfully and analytically according to stated goals.

Summary

Those characteristics defined as important for teachers of deprived youngsters are not different from characteristics that would be desirable for all teachers. The problem in teacher education is not so much that of fitting teachers to particular pupils as it is that of preparing flexible, thoughtful, analytical teachers who will be able to work well with children in a wide variety of classrooms, and with many different personalities within each classroom. When teacher preparation programs, working in conjunction with schools, can help student teachers and cooperating teachers succeed in helping youngsters to experience success, and when teacher preparation programs incorporate student teachers and cooperating teachers into decision-making processes and help them toward including youngsters in decision-making processes, future teachers will be better prepared to work with all kinds of children.

Elizabeth Hunter — Norma Furst

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- ⁵Arno Bellack and others, **The Language of the Classroom: Meanings Communicated in High School Teaching.** U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Cooperative Project no. 1497, New York: Institute of Psychological Research, Columbia University, 1963; Ned A. Flanders, **Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement.** Cooperative Research Monograph No. 12, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965; Marie M. Hughes, "Utah Study of the Assessment of Teaching," **Theory and Research in Teaching**, Arno A. Bellack, ed., New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1963, pp. 25-36.
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Student Teaching in the Inner City

Lucile Lindberg

The beginning of any school year is almost certain to have periods of tension for any teacher but especially for a beginning teacher. Will this new teacher be working in a community which he understands, with boys and girls who are similar to those he has met before? Or will the first day of school find him with more than the usual beginning of school anxieties because he is in a world strange to him, because the boys and girls who come into his classroom do not look, act, or speak as they have in schools where he has been before?

As human beings we vary in our abilities to adjust to changes, but no matter how well adjusted a person may be, the unknown engenders tension. Whatever we can do to lessen this tension for young teachers helps to release greater capacities for working with children.

We can say to teacher education students, "You need not be afraid. You are going into a part of the city where you have not been before but people are people and wherever you go you will find friendly, helpful folks. The boys and girls in your school may speak a bit differently and have behaviors which vary from those of children you know but the same principles of teaching are applicable everywhere. Determine their concerns and interests in the same way you would in any other school."

We can say this again and again but these are wasted words. We forget the humanness of these teachers-to-be. Newspaper headlines have proclaimed dangers. Books have described frightening incidents. Even before they leave their homes, they are frightened. By the time they emerge from the subway they are likely to be feeling deep concern.

The neighborhood is strange to them; any new neighborhood would be; but with imaginations hard at work they read more into it than is really there. Even before they meet the principal or see the classrooms or attend the first pre-school meetings they feel depressed and inadequate. The great unknown seems too much to face.

Or quite the opposite, a beginning teacher may go blithely along assuming that he can meet any situation and find that the values he holds are not the same as those held by the boys and girls he will teach. His is quite a different culture pattern. These children express themselves in quite a different way from others he has known. Ways of working, effective elsewhere, do not seem suitable here.

Children deserve the best a teacher has to offer. As we work in teacher education we must do everything we can to help our beginning teachers feel competent and comfortable in the situations where they are placed. In large metropolitan areas it is often in the inner city that new personnel is needed. Hence, special attention should be given to working in these urban areas. If students are to go forth confidently to teach in these areas, some preliminary firsthand experience is needed. They must learn for themselves the satisfactions which are felt when these boys and girl make new discoveries and learn new skills. They learn, too, that parents in depressed areas are concerned about their children. They find friendly faces in a strange place which becomes not strange at all as they come and go each day. They do all of this while they are sensing the security of a supervisor who helps them plan and evaluate their work.

As we plan student teaching assignments we should take a good look at the schools where beginning teachers are likely to hold their first positions as teachers. It seems to be helpful to them if they do a major part of the student teaching in the area where they are likely to teach; thus they can get acquainted with the boys and girls and parents while college supervisors are available to talk through their concerns with them.

However, merely placing them in any school in the inner city will not give appropriate experience. In fact, some situations would do the students more harm than good. The morale in the school and the quality of teaching makes a big difference. Many teachers in blighted areas have a feeling of depression. Their hopelessness is easily absorbed by the student teacher. Teachers who say, "Why are you going into teaching? Take my advice and get out of it before it is too late!" or, "These children understand nothing but force" or, "We can't expect much of these children," merely start the student earlier on the path of frustration and defeat.

It cannot be expected that every teacher to whom a student is assigned will be a gifted teacher. Many of them will be struggling with problems which neither they nor anyone else knows how to handle. It is essential, however, that the cooperating teacher be a forward-looking person who feels positive about the work to be done, that he be a growing person who is willing to share his own feelings of development with the student. It is important, too, that he have a strong sense of the community, of the role of a teacher in the community, and a belief in the possibility of developing the potentials of each boy and girl. Sometimes a teacher who works well with children may not do as well

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with student teachers. He isn't able to share with another adult. And some teachers whose classrooms appear to be well operated are found to be merely technicians who are not aware of the real goals of teaching.

The principal in a selected school must be willing to work with growing persons and be pleased that each teacher has his own unique ways of working. He probably will not be able to spend much time with the student teachers but he will be willing to have college personnel come and go at will and do all he can to encourage their work.

If an assignment in the inner city is to give the type of experience which will develop strength in teaching, special attention must be given to supervision. It takes time to talk through lesson plans. It takes careful observation of children. Much conferencing with cooperating teachers, attendance at grade meetings and investigation of resources is required. Supervisors need to participate in all of these activities if they are to help students develop skills and understanding.

Students need to become acquainted with community agencies and special resources in the area. The supervisor will need to help arrange meetings with ministers, social workers, librarians and others who serve the community. In this way students become aware of on-the-spot studying of a community. They need more than visits. It is a real participation and cooperation with the agencies which helps them to understand it.

Providing sufficient supervision for students who are being initiated into a different frame of reference is expensive. A supervisor probably will need to spend two or three days a week in a school. He will be there often enough to be a part of the school activities; he will no longer be a stranger.

Seldom is it possible to find a supervisor who has the knowledge required to do all of this. A college which wishes to prepare students will need to give continuous attention to in-service study by faculty. A continuous sharing of information, a probing of insights and research into new ways of working keeps the supervisor from feeling overwhelmed by the immensity of the task or from becoming depressed by many approaches which do not achieve expected results.

Even though student teachers appear adult and are about to become full fledged teachers, attention needs to be given to some orientation of their own parents. Usually in a large city the student teachers are commuters who have always lived at home. Parents fear for their safety when they go into inner city areas

and their anxieties are likely to be assumed by the student teachers. From the very first course in teacher education for the inner city, students should be helped to realize that they will be traveling some distance to their assignments. In addition it is important that the organization and design for specific experiences within the program be understood by the students considering inner city teaching. Hence these experiences will not come as a surprise.

Student teachers clamor for practical help. They wish help in day by day work. Discipline problems often overwhelm them and require special attention. Yet if the experience is to give the background needed and the student is to be prepared to work well on his own, much attention must be given to grounding all plans and evaluation solidly in theory. Because problems become so absorbing it is easy to neglect the theoretical in favor of the practical. Yet theory must be made very usable if students are to move toward careers as professionals.

Analyses of what the cooperating teacher was trying to do and what long-term goals were involved can be done in a three-way conference if the teacher is seeking to grow. Sharing in teacher growth and the excitement of planning and then evaluating helps the student teacher to assess his own growth.

Special studies of materials will need to be made. Workshops where student teachers and teachers work together to create materials are valuable and can bring new excitement to many classrooms.

Careful planning for attendance at state and national meetings which come into the area and evaluation of what has been gained will help take the professional growth one step further.

Throughout the whole of student teaching emphasis placed on self-evaluation gives depth and meaning. If the work with boys and girls is satisfying, if principal, teacher or supervisor nods approval the student is likely to feel satisfaction and stop there. It is the supervisor's obligation to help him probe.

"What was so satisfying? What evidences were there that children were learning? What was so valuable about the learning? What kinds of plans made this possible? What evaluative techniques can I use?" These are questions which a student asks himself again and again.

And always a supervisor can be asking, "What evidences do you have that you are developing as a teacher? What are your strengths? How have you gained them?"

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It is important that a student teacher get a sense of self-worth so that pressures do not overwhelm. As a beginning teacher he may find administrators or supervisors who make rigid demands. If he is completely dependent upon the evaluation of others he may either give up in despair or use techniques recommended which do not fit with his values and so lose respect for himself.

As teacher educators we have a responsibility to help future teachers to gain competence in meeting challenges. In order to do this we will have to be willing to spend more effort, time and money. Strong programs which prepare teachers for careers in the inner city are not developed easily but a continuous effort is justified where satisfying results are achieved. Student teacher, college supervisors, teachers and administrators continue to learn as they explore cooperatively better ways of working with boys and girls in the inner city.

V I

Evaluation of Student Teaching

Evaluating Instructional Behavior

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Pass-Fail System of Marking in Student Teaching

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Evaluating Instructional Behavior

William H. Lucio

This article is concerned with some current approaches to the evaluation of teacher instructional behavior.¹ Traditionally the evaluation of instruction has been related primarily to assessments of teaching personnel per se. The various views, descriptions and criteria of teaching behavior used as bases for evaluation, have generally been assumed or inferred to relate to teaching effectiveness and, ultimately, to changes in pupil behavior.² In general, the various formulations have emphasized criteria which may be grouped under the broad rubrics of (1) **process**, (2) **teacher characteristics**, or (3) **product**. Of these three, relatively little systematic study or attention has been given to **product** (or changes in **pupil behavior**).

Briefly, views of the first two criteria may be described as follows:

1. **Process.** Teacher behavior is assessed against some standard of performance or set of actions (overt teaching acts) assumed or inferred to be related to effective teaching performance. If the teacher performs certain specified acts, then pupil behavior can be predicted. In this view, teacher performance may be described, rated, or observed in terms of such factors as: (a) how the teacher structures the learning situation (time and motion analyses, (b) the extent and kind of pupil-teacher and/or teacher-pupil responses, or (c) the analysis of teacher behavior by various systems such as learner-centered versus teacher-centered behaviors, or "psychiatric criteria" for assessing "good" or "bad" classroom pupil behavior.

2. **Teacher Characteristics.** Various personal characteristics such as intelligence, personality traits, and other personal attributes of the teacher are assumed to be measures predictive of, and related to, effective teaching performance. (In both of the above views, rating devices, observation inventories, and reports involving judgments or impressions, with indices assumed to relate to teaching, have been used.)

These views of evaluating teaching behavior have been accepted as valid measures or descriptions of teacher performance and have formed the basis for much instructional analysis. However, their relation to the consequences of teaching, that is, to changes in pupil behavior, has never been clear, since such schemes suffer from several shortcomings, among them the following:

1. Each scheme implies a particular system of analyzation as well as acceptance of the objectives of the scheme without logical examination of the extent to which the

- objectives relate to the purposes of consequences of teaching.
2. Means become ends in such systems (e.g., "the good teacher is warm and friendly," or "effective teaching occurs when the teacher is permissive and non-directive").
 3. Teacher performance is described and evaluated in terms of **inference** rather than in terms of **observed results**. Particular acts of the teacher are inferred to relate to changed pupil behavior rather than to directly observable and measurable effects on pupils.
 4. The general focus in such schemes is primarily on some **acts of teaching**—on the teacher as a performer—rather than on the direct consequences for the pupil.

A Focus for Evaluation

In a sense, the function of instructional evaluation might be one of testing hypotheses. The teacher plans his teaching activities in terms of a set of hypotheses about how the educational objectives are to be achieved; that is, the focus is on the product—on changes in pupil behavior. In brief, the teacher predicts that under certain arranged instructional conditions pupils will change behavior in specified ways and collects evidence to support or deny his hypotheses. Logically, this proposition would suggest that the evaluation of instruction be focused on assessing defined changes in pupil behavior (on the **outcomes** of teaching acts) rather than on the act itself or on teacher characteristics assumed to relate to pupil behavior. Thus the act of teaching is viewed as an act which brings about a change in the learner. The evaluation of teaching is concerned with the degree to which defined behavior or results are achieved by pupils rather than with the teacher's congruence to some hypothetical model.

When attention is given to the degree to which the goals of teaching are reached, various value judgments about teaching acts or teacher competence can be eliminated. If teaching is examined in terms of results—of the changes a teacher predicts he can effect in learners—then teaching competency can be evaluated in a framework more appropriate to the teaching task. When the teacher perceives the changes he wants to achieve in pupils he deals with the essence of the teaching act. If he does not know how to articulate the desired change in pupil behavior or what he will accept as evidence that the change has occurred his teaching creativity may be stifled. Evaluative measures which are external, remote, or unrelated to assessing change in pupil behavior decrease the possibility of the teacher's determining the explicit effects of his teaching. The teacher whose attention is directed to defining goals, to determining the

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changes the learner is to exhibit, and to evaluating his teaching in terms of results is using evaluation most appropriate to the primary intent of schooling. The concern is with task analysis rather than ego analysis or with acts incidental to teaching.

A brief outline of the sequence of steps emphasizing product criteria in evaluating instructional behavior³ would include the following:

I. Specifying Instructional Objectives

- A. Select specific instructional objectives (results to be achieved) and describe the intended outcomes in terms of desired pupil behavior (what pupils need to know and do).
- B. Describe the actions the pupil is to perform to demonstrate that he has achieved the desired changes in behavior.
- C. Specify the conditions under which the pupil is to demonstrate the desired behavior.
- D. Specify the minimum levels of acceptable pupil performance for each of the instructional objectives.

II. Pre-assessing Instructional Objectives and Pupil Entry Behavior

- A. Analyze and specify the essential knowledge, skills, or attitudes which pupils need to acquire in order to succeed in reaching the instructional objectives.
- B. Determine by appropriate formal and/or informal tests, observations, or analyses of prior records which of the specified prerequisites the pupil has already acquired.

III. Evaluating Instructional Objectives

- A. Throughout all instructional activity, determine the extent to which specified and predicted results were achieved, e.g., collect comprehensive evidence to sample pupil behavior required by the stated instructional objectives in all situations where the behavior is expected to apply; give attention to both expected and unexpected behavior.
- B. Determine by a variety of measures if that learning which was intended did occur and, if not, why not, and determine what steps toward refinement are required.

In hypothesizing about the effects of instructional behavior, the probability of achieving instructional objectives may be increased materially by seeking answers to the following questions:

1. Would greater opportunity to respond actively in the learning situation have improved results?
2. Would more opportunity to practice both prerequisite and final behavior have changed the outcome of instruction?

3. Would greater provision for individual differences in interests, ability, or prior achievement have had an effect on the learner's behavior?
4. Would more emphasis on the purpose of the instructional unit have changed the learner's behavior?
5. Would modification of the rate of presentation and time allowed for response of the learner influence his performance?
6. Would more frequent and immediate knowledge of results improve the learner's performance?

Summary

Currently the development of new strategies for teaching, new knowledge of alternative ways of instructional behavior, changes in curriculum, requirements for increased teacher expertise, and similar forces call for increased professional accountability in determining the goals and outcomes of schooling. New approaches to the evaluation of instructional behavior suggests that teachers and supervisory agents will perform their instructional tasks in schools under conditions such as these: (1) there are clear statements in behavioral terms of the schools' objectives both at the instructional and classroom level, (2) the teacher, having been involved directly in identifying instructional objectives, knows and is able to state what is expected of him before engaging in any teaching and is aware of how evaluation is to be made, (3) the evaluation of instructional behavior focuses on predicted changes in pupil behavior rather than on the teacher as performer, and (4) evaluation is comprehensive, systematic, and directed at determining the extent to which predicted outcomes are achieved in number, kind, and degree.

FOOTNOTES

¹William H. Lucio and John D. McNeil, *Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought and Action*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book, Inc., 1962. Chapter 10, pages 207-12.

²See Harold E. Mitzel, "Teacher Effectiveness." *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (3rd ed.), 1960. pages 1481-1486.

³Acknowledgment is made to: W. James Popham, "An Experimental Attempt To Modify the Instructional Behavior of Student Teachers." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 16:463-67; December, 1965.

See also Lucio and McNeil, *op.cit.*

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Pass-Fail System of Marking in Student Teaching

Virgil E. Schooler

Much interest and deep concern has been generated during the past decade in the evaluation of student teachers. The literature in the field describes various ways of determining final grades as well as the several different persons assigning the final grades. At present, there appears to be no best method accepted by all institutions. Each institution, using the best thinking, has developed a system for its own program.

Some institutions have devised a set of norms based upon arithmetic computation of scores recorded on a point value scale. Some have criteria based upon concrete examples of behavior. Then, some interpret the performance of the student teacher in the classroom and the school, the participation in seminars, and in the performance of other tasks. Regardless of the patterns used, the evaluation of the student teacher is usually translated into a letter mark of A, B, C, D, or F.

Faced with this problem several years ago, the staff at Indiana University began to study the problem. A survey of several teacher education institutions issuing letter marks in student teaching was made. One of the findings was that approximately 65 per cent of the student teachers received A's, 33 per cent received B's, and about 2 per cent received C's or D's. Seldom was an F grade recorded as a student who is so poorly endowed or prepared was withdrawn from student teaching in order to protect the pupils in the classroom. The Pass-Fail system of marking was instituted on an experimental basis. It was so well received that the system was adopted.

Marking in student teaching is much different from the marking in an academic course. In an academic course all students are exposed to approximately the same learning experiences. They are usually tested and marks issued on the basis of norms for a test given. Obviously this is impossible in student teaching because each learning situation differs. Also, in the classroom one person has the responsibility of evaluating each and every learner as he is compared to the total group.

In the student teaching survey the evaluative criteria were interpreted by hundreds of supervising teachers. These supervising teachers differed in age, sex, knowledge, experience, and the number of student teachers which they had supervised in the past. What a good teacher is or does could not be agreed upon. Principals recommended certain teachers as excellent teachers;

yet the college supervisor sometimes disagreed with the principal's evaluation. Basically we are at a loss in the profession as to what good teaching really is. It depends upon the criteria used. Because of the lack of uniformity in implementing the criteria, Pass-Fail system appeared to be a better method of marking.

The Pass-Fail system of marking tends to eliminate the following negative conditions:

1. College students are so conditioned to the letter marks that their behavior is often adjusted to that they may get a "high pay check" instead of learning.

2. Frequently students try to bluff their way through a situation even though they are aware of a lack of knowledge, rather than admit they do not know.

3. Still other college students "polish the apple" with the supervising teacher to such an extent that the recommended mark for student teaching might be clearly out of line with that which the college supervisor recommends. This, of course, creates problems for the college and for the public schools as well.

4. Supervising teachers dislike making decisions concerning grades. Some feel biased or prejudiced and feel that they cannot accurately evaluate the student in terms of a recommended mark. They are highly pleased with the Pass-Fail system of marking.

Since society more or less dictates that a student makes good grades to be accepted, pressure is applied to achieve academic excellence. As a result pressure destroys the desire for knowledge. The desire is for a grade. With tensions and pressure alleviated, the learning climate is greatly improved. The student teacher may then set about the serious business of learning as much as possible about teaching. All of these above situations bring about a better learning environment.

What are the administrators' reaction to the Pass-Fail system? We all tend to stay with the traditional methods until convinced that there are better methods of accomplishing a task. Administrators are no exception. The traditional letter mark on a transcript is still being used primarily for information and

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comparison. Grades in student teaching vary so much from institution to institution that employers of teachers have ceased to put much stock in the letter grade in student teaching. They much prefer to see where the student did his student teaching and they are also interested in reviewing the descriptive statements of how the student teacher discharged various responsibilities.

The Pass-Fail system is not new. Antioch and Sarah Lawrence have been using this system of marking for years. Ivy League schools, as well as prestige state universities, are giving consideration to the elimination of letter grades. Hopefully, many colleges will adopt this system. This simply means that more and more students will not receive number or letter grades.

Recently many of the name colleges and universities have been experimenting with the Pass-Fail type of marking in the elective area especially. From all indications such schools as Princeton, California Institute of Technology, Indiana University, Brown, and Columbia, as well as many others, are gradually moving in this direction.

There would be problems encountered by the student in the changing of a marking system. For example:

1. Those students who transfer to other institutions where the Pass-Fail System is not used.
2. Those students who regard the letter grade as a reward for academic effort.
3. Those students who want to know just where they stand in comparison to others.

Problems such as these would have to be solved if the system is not adopted at all educational institutions. However, for the present time, these problems apply more to the elective areas and some academic courses rather than to student teaching situations.

Perhaps we, as educators, should be more concerned with the learning situation than the marking of it. In conclusion, the author would not advocate the elimination of letter grades, if they could be determined accurately, uniformly and fairly. He is

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advocating that there are certain benefits accruing to the student and the supervising teacher. The focus in student teaching should be on learning rather than on "grade getting."

The Pass-Fail system must be supplemented with some other evaluative devices such as profile charts, written descriptions of the students' progress, as well as a written recommendation to an employing official as to the competencies of the student teacher.

VIA

New Dimensions in Student Teaching

Student Teaching as Preparation for Teaching

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New Directions in Field Experiences in Teacher Education

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Student Teaching as Preparation for Teaching

Harry N. Rivlin

Student teaching as we know it is just not enough.

As I write this, I realize that most people regard student teaching as the most important single activity in the preservice teacher education program. I know that many students gain a great deal from their student teaching and that countless cooperating classroom teachers and college supervisors of student teaching are doing everything they can to make student teaching as valuable as possible an introduction to teaching. I admit, too, that there is such great variation in the standards and procedures of the many institutions that prepare teachers that any general statement that a specific course is good or bad can hardly be defended.

I am not saying that student teaching is bad, or unnecessary, or ineffective. All I am saying is that student teaching as we know it is just not good enough.

I think student teaching is ordinarily an inefficient way of using both student and faculty time. Student teachers often waste a great deal of time sitting idly by and "observing" when they could be used more effectively in the classroom. Many faculty members spend too much of their time in traveling to and from the school in which their students are "teaching." In these days of shortage of highly skilled manpower, it is wasteful to take experienced college faculty who have doctorates and use them to supervise relatively few students while we ignore the contributions that skilled and experienced classroom teachers can make to the improvement of the prospective teacher's classroom skills — and do so without a doctorate. Why not use our doctorate faculty to teach those courses which make the best use of the knowledge and insight they have gained from their study and research? Let's not becloud the issue by misinterpreting these statements to mean that people with the doctorate cannot help student teachers a great deal. I think they can. That is why I want to give them the opportunity to help many, rather than only a few.

Student teaching is usually regarded as the culminating experience in preservice teacher education. There is, however, so great a gap between the limited responsibilities of a student teacher and the total responsibility for teaching a full program which the newly appointed teacher is expected to be able to assume the day after graduation from college, that student teaching is inadequate for the purpose.

To complicate the matter further, most new teachers get difficult assignment far beyond their limited experience and skill. We may not like it, but new teachers are appointed to schools that have vacancies, and vacancies are more likely to occur in "difficult" schools than in "easy" ones. Professional baseball has developed a farm system whereby the recruit gains experience in minor leagues before he is expected to play in the major leagues. In teaching, however, the newest recruit is expected to step into some urban school situations that demand the ingenuity and the skill of a veteran.

The college student comes to student teaching much better prepared than was his counterpart a generation ago. The chances are that today's student has a better grounding in the liberal arts; he is more sophisticated in his psychological background and may even have had some work in sociology so that he sees learning as being a social as well as a cognitive process; and he is likely to have had other laboratory experiences prior to his engaging in student teaching.

With this background, he should be more than a student teacher. Too often he is regarded as a visitor in the school rather than as part of the school faculty. To the cooperating teacher, the student teacher is often just one more responsibility to be added to the many, the too many, he already has. Cooperating teachers work with the student teacher for many reasons: some, because they have to when asked to do so by the principal; some, because they like to have an enthusiastic young person around; and some, because they feel a professional obligation to help prepare new teachers. Rarely, however, do they welcome him as an assistant who will help the teacher to feel more successful with his own class.

I think the student teacher should come as a member of the faculty assigned to help the classroom teacher. We have long known that college professors can use assistants to good advantage, and preschool education has employed assistant teachers almost from the very beginning. In the elementary and secondary schools, however, we have only recently begun to realize how useful it may be to have subprofessionals or paraprofessionals around to assist the teacher. To be sure, much of the pressure for the employment of paraprofessionals in education has come from the desire to find new avenues of employment for the underprivileged and to give them status, but paraprofessionals can help the teacher to be more effective. They can enable the classroom teacher to give more attention to individual children who

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need it and they can free the teacher from many chores that do not need a fully certified professional person. Why not use teachers-in-training as these subprofessionals, and thereby not only get almost a second teacher for the class but also use this experience as valuable preparation for teaching?

Since the student teacher, whom I prefer to call an Assistant Teacher, is performing a service for the school, I think it is appropriate that he be paid for his work. Such payment is especially important if we are to be successful in recruiting liberal art college students. Today, there are a great many fellowships and assistantships available in practically all areas except elementary and secondary school teaching. It is unlikely that we shall ever get enough assistantships to attract the great many liberal arts college graduates we need in teaching unless we use some such device as paying the Assistant Teachers for services rendered.

To be sure, there will be difficulties when a paid assistantship is substituted for unpaid student teaching. Until there are Assistant Teachers enough to place one in every class, the school system is likely to assign them to the classes and the teachers most urgently in need of them -- and these may not be the best placements from the Assistant Teacher's point of view, as seen by the college or university. It is important, therefore, that the colleges and universities participate in the placement and supervision of Assistant Teachers.

Greater use can be made of classroom teachers to whom student teachers, or Assistant Teachers, are assigned. If these cooperating teachers are carefully selected and if they get sufficient orientation and help from the universities, they can render a great service to their assistants whom they see in action day in and day out, as compared with the college supervisor who is bound to see the young teachers much less frequently. It may be economically feasible for universities to assign less faculty time than they now do to visiting student teachers in their scattered schools. Instead, they can devote some faculty time to working with the cooperating teachers and then use some of the remaining funds to reimburse the cooperating teachers for the additional time they must spend in conferences with the Assistant Teachers. It costs the university little, moreover, to recognize the cooperating teachers' services by listing them in the catalog as clinical or adjunct members of the staff and by extending to them such perquisites of college teaching as library privileges or admission to a course tuition free.

Student teaching can be made more significant if it is treated not as a discrete experience but as a laboratory for studying the psychology of learning, and curriculum and methods. It is hard to defend the common practice of studying the psychology of learning one semester and studying curriculum and methods in another semester as though these were not two aspects of the same process of learning and teaching. To complicate matters still further, some institutions delay student teaching until all of the preliminary courses in psychology and methods have been completed as though the best learning procedure is to try to gain insights and develop skills at one time, but delay the application until later.

The most serious deficiency of student teaching as preparation for teaching arises from the great gap between the limited responsibilities of the student teacher and the complex jobs of teaching he is expected to be able to shoulder when he is appointed to his first assignment. In a sense, student teaching is analogous to the learner's permit one gets while learning to drive a car. When the student driver passes his road test and gets an operator's license, he is not given an entry blank for the Memorial Day races in Indianapolis and he is not expected to drive a huge trailer truck. Why, then, should we expect a recently graduated teacher to function effectively in a school situation that needs a highly skilled teacher?

It is essential, therefore, that newly appointed teachers be treated as beginning teachers, that they have assignments commensurate with their ability, and that they be enrolled in university courses dealing with the problems faced by beginning teachers with respect to such matters as discipline, class management, and teaching.

In short, student teaching is rightly regarded as a key part of preparation for teaching, but it just is not good enough to be regarded as the culminating experience in the education of a new teacher.

New Directions in Field Experiences in Teacher Education

L. O. Andrews

Many critics as well as friends of teacher education are fond of comparing teaching with other professions such as medicine. But seldom do they put their comparing in proper historical perspective. Interestingly enough medicine acquired something of its present prestige and economic rewards just during this present century. This author's grandfather was a doctor of more than a century ago, who received his medical education "reading medicine and going on his rounds" with a practicing physician. He was very successful in curing his typhoid and cholera patients, but he couldn't cure enough or collect his bills so as to be able to pay the rent or buy food for his family. Habitually people of that day used "grandma's nostrums" and followed the practices from "old wives tales" until the patient was expected to die before calling the physician.

Teacher educators could well afford to reflect on three of the apparent causes for the change in the status of medicine in the period from 1900 to 1930. The background sciences developed a great body of knowledge and concepts which supported rapid strides in medical practice. Physicians in this period were fortunate in finding practical cures or preventatives, for example, for appendicitis, typhoid, cholera, yellow fever, malaria, enteritis, and even effective treatment for diabetes. Following the famous Flexner study two-thirds of the medical schools were closed and medical education sharply upgraded. Teacher educators should note carefully that one of the primary charges against the poor medical schools was their lack of adequate laboratory facilities.

It takes no clairvoyance to project the fact that teacher education has a splendid opportunity to make comparable strides in the three decades which began in 1960. The behavioral sciences are witnesssing an explosion of knowledge somewhat slower than that of the physical sciences, but the quantity of useful concepts is expanding much faster than teacher educators are incorporating them into professional courses. Second, the politicians have thrown down the gauntlet to educators to solve some of the learning problems of a vast throng of children and youth, instead of throwing them out of the schools as has been all too common for generations. If teacher educators will seriously attack the problems of preparing teachers who are competent to solve the problems of these youth (as numerous efforts are now being designed) both teaching and teacher education will benefit immeasurably. Third, the revitalized NCATE (National Council on Accreditation in Teacher Education) has been given a new

constitution (October, 1965) and more adequate support so that the emerging profession of teaching now does have a vehicle for forcing improvement in its teacher education institutions.

At this point the casual reader might properly ask, "What has all this to do with new directions in field experiences in teacher education?" It may not be immediately evident to all, but the proper answer is that these three influences when properly used do hold the keys to real improvement in the related direct experiences in teacher education — that most important practical complement to professional course work on college campuses. The new concepts from the related disciplines can tell us why the procedures we try to teach students to use should work, and when and under what circumstances. The experiences of the prospective teachers must be so well designed that they learn how to solve the really difficult teaching-learning problems of youth and can develop assured self-confidence that they really can do the tasks society wants performed. And finally the profession will have to confine teacher education to those institutions which can develop and will support quality programs and whose laboratories are adequate to provide the desired experiences.

Trends in student teaching and related laboratory experiences (broadly defined) — Student Teaching is a paradox — accepted by all, even its harshest critics, but student teaching has never been given the study, attention, research and support it would need to reach modest levels of quality on any wide scale. Some of the serious limitations — those developments that haven't taken place — are:

1. No comprehensive, generally accepted **theoretical analysis** of the contribution of student teaching (and related experiences) to the development of a competent teacher has yet been developed.
2. No commonly accepted **definition of student teaching**; i.e. those characteristics which make student teaching different from regular, beginning, full-time teaching is in current use. For example, one might list for each student teacher the following opportunities:
 - a. To pick up the roles and the responsibilities of the teacher gradually
 - b. To overprepare for many of the instructional tasks
 - c. To make mistakes, usually of limited consequence, while assuming some of the teacher's roles in cooperation with a mature and competent professional teacher

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- d. To try out a wide variety of approaches, methods, and teaching procedures
- e. To observe widely all the roles of the teacher and throughout the school and community — more widely than most regular teachers will ever be able to do
- f. To explore a variety of styles, and to make a start toward developing a personal style adapted to his own capacities and needs
- g. To have close professional direction, assistance and consultation — a cooperative discussion of meanings with a highly competent, professional teacher-counselor
- h. To participate through regular group seminars in intellectualizing teaching experiences under the direction of an experienced college supervisor-seminar leader

Normally none of these are reasonably possible for the average, beginning, full-time teacher.

3. The **objectives of student teaching** are not well understood, accepted, striven for, and less seldom achieved. A suggested set arranged in order of priority from the least important but still usually necessary to the most significant and difficult are:
 - a. Evaluation (a Judgment Day — for certification purposes)
 - b. Association with a superior teacher (imitation)
 - c. Meeting the challenge of reality (keeping school)
 - d. Skill in directing learning (cookbook perfection), attempting to apply the specific steps suggested in methods books
 - e. Professional understanding (Dewey's laboratory function)
 - f. Insight, judgment (developing professional perception and intuition)
 - g. Professional decision-making (action based on principles, values, and thoughtful analysis)
 - h. Demonstrated professional competence (consolidated skill and assured professional self-confidence)
4. Limited perception of the **function** and potentialities of supervision, and inadequate **role definitions**. Both are often little understood by many members of the "student teaching team."
5. Failure to capitalize on the **criticisms of professional courses** — that is, particularly a failure to assure adequate readiness on the part of students for the professional courses they are

- required to take. The difficulty students have in translating professional ideas into teaching behaviors can largely be overcome when the lack of "readiness" of college students for professional learning is recognized and when real readiness is developed prior to the courses and not just hoped for.
6. **Inadequate analysis of the functions of those responsible for directing programs of student teaching and professional laboratory experiences.** Six functions which need to be provided and adequately supported in all colleges are:
 - a. Administration of the operation of the program including communications, records and public relations
 - b. Leadership in the development and improvement of the field laboratory in cooperation as equal partners with administrators and teachers in the schools
 - c. Leadership in the development of the field laboratory experience program as a part of the college teacher education curriculum, and particularly in the design of new experiences and the redesign of others
 - d. Human engineering: the selection, orientation, counseling, and upgrading of the skills of student teachers, cooperating teachers, college supervisors and others, and the resolution of the acute professional, personal and interpersonal relationship problems
 - e. Professional relations: local, area, regional, state, and national
 - f. Instructional: direct the instructional-supervisory program as any other professor in charge of a course or courses

A seventh function is needed to support progress and improvement in the other six — evaluation, including formal research, to acquire the data from which constant improvements can be made and recurring problems solved.

7. **Inadequate acquaintance with and use of the concepts and knowledge from the related disciplines** — psychology of perception, personality theory, learning theory, mental health, sociology, anthropology, etc. — which can be most useful in designing and operating programs of student teaching and related experiences.

The trends in student teaching today are — but there are no substantial observable developments which can be called real trends! There are two dangerous suggestions being made here and there in the guise of imaginative new approaches (which being translated means "ways to cut down the cost of student teaching") — turn the student teachers over to the public schools and forget them, or let some new super agency take all the

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student teachers from all colleges and provide an "efficient" operation. Fortunately there is also widespread, greater concern for the improvement of student teaching — a much higher visibility for this part of the professional program, together with some "viewing with alarm" the steadily increasing numbers of student teachers, the competition for places and the problems of maintaining present levels of quality.

Significantly there are a number of developments which — while not yet trends — are certainly significant possibilities for progress, such as:

1. New developments and wide interest in effective arrangements for **School-College cooperation** as evidenced by the publications issued in 1964 and 1965 by AACTE (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education).
2. **Different organizational patterns** for the "student teaching team" working in a given school or with given student teachers are being designed and tried out in several parts of the country. Whether they will prove superior to the more traditional student teaching and more recent well designed internship programs remains to be seen.
3. Much talk about and greater concern for implementing the concept of **state responsibility for student teaching**, a concept which was given greater visibility by James Conant.
4. Many states and groups of states are using **Title V funds from the ESEA** (Elementary and Secondary Education Act) for a variety of approaches to studies, planning, pilot programs, and developing state programs. In several states a person is being appointed in the State Department to serve as a supervisor, coordinator or consultant for student teaching.
5. The **ESEA** and the various federal poverty programs are providing new opportunities for experiences for prospective teachers, some new teacher education programs per se, and some research.
6. The revised **NDEA** (National Defense Education Act) and the **Higher Education Act** make it possible for institutions to include preparation for the work of cooperating teachers and college supervisors in the curricula of the funded institutes and some universities are including such emphases in their grant requests.
7. The approval of **NCATE's** new constitution, more substantial financing, and the planned program for the evaluation of its standards and their revision by the AACTE's Evaluative Criteria Committee provides considerably greater expectation of support for improvement through accreditation.

8. National TEPS through its "Non-Conference Year" emphasis is encouraging a redefinition of the role of the career teacher, and an amalgamation of preservice and in-service education into a longer and more meaningful whole. Teacher educators are recognizing the need to develop new patterns of preparation to fit the revised role definitions of instructional leader in team teaching and teacher assistants at various lower levels of professional competence.
9. Increased interest and support for research in this area, and especially through the Research and Development Centers (including the one at the University of Texas with a major emphasis on student teaching), and the Regional Educational Laboratories. The twentieth century has witnessed the amazing result of the application of new knowledge in agriculture. Pure research coming largely from university scientists was tried out on an applied or pilot basis by agricultural experiment stations and farmers were assisted in using the resulting ideas by agriculture extension agents. The same structure is now available in education with pure research supported in universities, with Research and Development Centers to test the new knowledge in application and the more numerous Regional Education Laboratories to assist school people to put the new ideas into practical use.

What college and public school staff should be doing about student teaching and related experiences!

1. Clarify administrative responsibilities and the various roles of college staff members and secure an adequate number and quality of staff.
2. Organize School-College relationships on a true partnership basis — give much, expect much, — delineate roles cooperatively, maintain an equality of responsibility and opportunity for all members of the "team."
3. Search out and pursue vigorously all possible approaches to the preparation and upgrading of the understanding, attitudes and skills of all members of the "team." Work continuously to improve role definitions, and to orient all new personnel regularly, year after year.
4. Begin using all the new media the Colleges and the Schools have available. Build skill in the use and understanding of the potentialities of these new devices while the cost decreases and the technical quality and flexibility increases. Micro-teaching in all its ramifications and the use of video-taping to produce a more total "mirror-image" for students having experiences are two of the most promising new developments. All the "hardware" for extensive programmed

NEW DIRECTIONS IN FIELD EXPERIENCES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

learning in teacher education is already available but there is a serious shortage of "software" that is, know-how from experience and high quality programs.

5. Assign at least one faculty member in each college to search for applicable concepts and knowledge from the related disciplines, and to take leadership in helping school and college faculty members to understand these concepts and put them to work.
6. Hypothesize and research ways to determine the readiness of students for professional courses, and devise and explore experiences to increase that readiness. Recognize that readiness for new experiences and for professional learning is not a static quality which automatically appears, but rather is a dynamic aspect of broadened and deepened perceptions — perceptions which can be encouraged, strengthened and directed by carefully designed experiences.
7. Start perceiving teacher education as beginning in high school and the formal portion tapering off after two or three years of regular teaching. Strive to make in-service and preservice teacher education into a continuous process with college involvement throughout.
8. Recognize the loss in spending more than two-thirds of the material and personnel resources of teacher education institutions on uncommitted students who will not likely become career teachers. Conversely design new programs of top quality to prepare real career teachers of those who are more likely to make a long-time commitment to the profession of teaching.
9. Using the best of curriculum theory begin designing experiences (as rapidly as college curriculum arrangements and resources permit) for each individual prospective teacher. This means determining needs, developing objectives, surveying facilities, designing activities, trying out, evaluating, revising, etc.

SUMMARY

Rationale for a Quality Experience Program — Each state, each college, each school system should develop the best rationale for a quality experience program that its faculty can devise. Such a rationale should be built upon the best that is known about the contributions of experience to a professional career teacher, the objectives of the college and its curricula and courses, the needs of college students, the needs of the graduates in the field, and especially the concepts and knowledge presently available in the related disciplines.

Use of the New Technology and Adaptation to the Effects of Change — Research results thus far on several aspects of the

new technology are rather inconclusive probably because the wrong questions have been asked and the evaluation of effectiveness has usually been attempted on global subjective measures. A most significant change will come in a very few years when the "software" is available so anyone can learn almost anything himself if he has a desire to learn and has modest competence in organizing his efforts to learn. The teacher will then deal much less with large groups and become a "diagnoser" of learning problems and a counselor for helping individuals develop effective personal learning procedures and strategies. Teacher educators will have to make significant modifications in the direct experiences of prospective teachers to prepare career teachers for such a revised instructional role.

Support to Operate Quality Programs — Adequate financial support for experience programs is an unsolved problem, partly because the experiences are conducted cooperately by two entirely separate sets of institutions in a non-college controlled facility — the public schools. In theory financial support is a responsibility of the states but none has yet assumed this role adequately. The federal government is not likely to do so until states demonstrate clearly what can be done under adequate support and make a strong case for it. Certainly state or federal aid for student teaching will not come just because we stretch out our hands to receive that hoped for "manna from heaven." It will require the combined efforts of all segments of the profession to secure the needed support.

Long-range Design to Produce Quality Professionals — "Tinkering" with present curricula and juggling experiences around probably will not produce a really effective, professional program. College faculties need to take leadership in the long, difficult process of designing the best professional curriculum and program of experiences which fit their own college functions using the best rationale for professional experiences they can develop. With such a design as a long-range blueprint a college, and its cooperating schools can proceed to put into operation gradually as resources of budget, staff, and quality laboratories become available. Often small pilot programs are the most feasible instruments to bring about constructive improvements.

The recognition of need, the technical resources, and the theoretical knowledge have never been greater, but so are the physical, emotional and professional demands upon the teacher. The future will be exciting for those with sufficient energy and vision to move forward in many new directions to find better ways to prepare more competent teachers for the tasks which they will face.