This monograph deals with the subject of school-community-based teacher education, and states that it is designed to broaden the future teacher's clinical experience and is oriented toward involving more concerned and knowledgeable groups in the community power structure. The monograph is written in the form of 18 questions with detailed answers, and some of the topics covered include (a) why such education is necessary and desirable, (b) judicial decisions and Equal Employment Opportunities Commission guidelines, (c) personnel licensing, (d) forms of school-community based teacher education programs and how to develop them, (e) cost of the programs, (f) how to gain support for the programs, (g) how to assess community-school teacher education centers, (h) governance, (i) recruitment and education of teachers and administrators, and (j) staffing of community-school teacher education centers. The catalog of examples discusses models for (a) governance, (b) financing, (c) structure, (d) process, and (e) staffing. The appendix lists the addresses of persons who provided the sample of programs used in this document.
WHAT IS SCHOOL-COMMUNITY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION/

WHY SHOULD ADMINISTRATORS BE INTERESTED IN IT?

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS COMMITTEE
Study Commission on Undergraduate Education & the Education of Teachers 1975

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WHAT IS SCHOOL-COMMUNITY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION AND WHY SHOULD ADMINISTRATORS BE INTERESTED IN IT?

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INTRODUCTION

The following "training document" is the second statement from the School Administrators Committee of the Study Commission. The first was The University Can't Train Teachers. This document looks at how far we have come in three years toward the kind of teacher education advocated in The University Can't Train Teachers. The first chairperson for this committee was Ms. Barbara Sizemore, who chaired the committee until she resigned to join the staff of the American Association of School Administrators and went on to become the Superintendent of Schools in Washington, D.C. Presently Ms. Sizemore is embroiled in controversies in Washington, D.C., some of which relate to principles supported in this document. Ms. Sizemore was succeeded in the chairmanship of the committee by Robert Spillane, Superintendent of the New Rochelle Public Schools, who has been a leader in the School Management Study Group and has advanced many of the notions contained in this document, particularly those concerning citizen participation in budgeting. The members of the committee have been or are distinguished school administrators who have worked hard at citizen participation in education and teacher education. The site visits and original writing were done by Frederick Edelstein under the direction of the committee. The proposals in the document are not definitive or final. Other groups working with the Study Commission have made alternative proposals. However, in a period of increasing concern for divisions between community, home, and school, between education and culture, the proposals contained in this paper deserve serious consideration.

Paul A. Olson, Director
Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers
Lincoln, Nebraska
June, 1975
I. What is “school-community-based” teacher education?

This is teacher education which is designed to broaden the future teacher's clinical experience and is oriented toward involving more concerned and knowledgeable groups in the community power structure. Thus it is conceived to be (1) conducted and controlled wholly or in substantial part in the schools and communities where teachers plan to teach (or schools and communities like those); (2) based on the assumption that schooling is properly an extension of childrearing and the informal educational processes of the community and, therefore, requires the teacher to know and respond to the school's surroundings as well as he/she knows and responds to the school; (3) based on the notion that teacher education and in-service education for practicing teachers ought to involve the parent group—along with administrators, other teachers and higher education people and their resources; and (4) involved with the teacher's right-to-a-job as based on what a teacher is and can do rather than on her/his credit hours gained, summer trips traveled, or “growth points acquired.” This is a large order for any form of teacher education, and it is one that requires much more personal involvement from a lot more people than present forms.

II. Why will such education be increasingly necessary and desirable to administrators?

Administrators will increasingly need to be able to convince courts and public and professional forces that they have hired the best possible available teachers for jobs—given the goals of the school and the parents:

1. The Griggs v. Duke Power Co. decision in the Supreme Court and follow-up Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) statements demand job-related, non-formal-test-related criteria for determining who is eligible for a job;

2. Various court decisions have defined the (considerable) extent to which schooling is an extension of childrearing and community self-sustenance;

3. Other decisions indicate that schools and teachers may be held jointly responsible if they fail to do those basic jobs for which public authorization of compulsory schools was originally made.

Moreover:

1. A concerned and vocal public is increasingly demanding a role in the hiring, evaluation, and retaining of teachers;

2. The teaching profession is increasingly willing to share responsibility for education with parents and the community;

3. Teachers-in-training and new teachers are increasingly demanding that they have more on-the-job experience;

4. Administrators such as the Great City superintendents are saying, “If Higher Education doesn’t give us better teachers, we won’t hire their turn-outs any more and we will train our own.”

In short:
The licensing process

The "accountability" process

Administrators

Teachers

Parents

require that teacher education and re-education be field-based, practical, and specific to specific communities and jobs in them.

III. Why do you bring in the Griggs decision and the EEOC guidelines when they are not relative to teaching? Haven't they only been applied to mechanical jobs—plumber's jobs, electricians' jobs, etc.?

No. True, the Griggs decision by the Supreme Court began by saying that the Wonderlic Personnel test, the Bennett Mechanical Aptitude test, and the high school diploma requirement could not be used to prevent promotion of black workers to more advanced jobs in the Duke Power Company where it was clear that these tests had a discriminatory impact on the hiring and/or advancement of minority workers and when it was also clear that the tests had not been validated as related to Duke Power Company jobs. The principle announced by the decision "forbade all non-job-related impediments to the holding of a job." Subsequently this decision has been used as the basis for throwing out New York City licensing requirements for principals (Mercado and Chance v. Board of Examiners), the National Teachers Examination (NTE) (Nansemond County [Virginia]), and other conventional licensing and testing impediments to the holding of a job in the education professions which do not bear a clear relation to what people do in the job. [Requirements for completion of certain course work prior to licensing also appear to be subject to question here: The law has already ruled at least once that a "general education" requirement for licensing (as, a certain number of liberal arts courses contributing to "general education") was arbitrary.]

William Robinson, associate general counsel for the EEOC, has described what the EEOC guidelines say about how teachers or principals are to be licensed in the future.1 The guidelines suggest three kinds of validations that might be permissible under the Civil Rights Act, Title VII: "criterion-related validation," "content validation," and "construct validation." Criterion-related validation involves constructing a statistical relationship between test performance and work performance as measured by some previously defined performance criterion. The data for the statistics may come from a sample group who are tested and then put to work for a period of time (like new or trainee teachers), or by testing on-the-job employees (like in-service teachers). In either case, a statistical evaluation is made of how well the test performance predicted work performance. Criterion validation requires that test scores or possession of background training be demonstrably correlated with superior job performance when measured by specific performance criteria. Content validation uses a "subjective comparison" between tests (or "samples of work") and job rather than statistical correlation— but content validation's shortcoming is that a test may look similar to a job but may in fact not be validly like it. Construct validity rather obscurely uses a relationship between physical or mental traits (called constructs) needed on the job and a test which "measures" the same physical or mental traits.

1 This paragraph and the following one closely paraphrase an unpublished discussion by EEOC Associate General Counsel William Robinson contained in a review of "The Power of Competency-Based Teacher Education," a report of the Committee on National Priorities in Education.
The EEOC and civil rights attorneys prefer the more reliable criterion-related validation; an important first step in developing the needed performance criteria is to analyze the components of the job to be performed and determine their relative importance. "Developers of performance criteria must be careful not to discriminate for or against a union or parent group, or other employees. The sample group chosen to be tested must also be truly "representative of the normal or typical candidate group, for the job or jobs in question"; this includes the necessity of including representatives from minority group applicants.

Assessment of the effectiveness of teacher-education programs must properly include both measurements of teacher behavior and competence and of changes in pupil achievement and well-being:

In other words the test must have utility at a statistically relevant level, but this statistical measure alone is not sufficient. A validity study may show test scores to be significantly related to grades received in a training program, and the study may also show that eventual performance on the job bears no relationship to grades received in the training program. . . . It is perhaps appropriate to repeat the need to identify performance criteria which take into account the possible differences between necessary teacher competencies and their effect on student behavior in the black ghetto as opposed to a predominantly white rural school district. It should also be noted that the correlation between test score and performance on the job should be shown separately for each minority group included in the sample.

A requirement for "continuing" certification will also be difficult to establish. The basis for opposition to performance-based recertification or continuing certification will vary, but to the civil rights lawyer the problem is chiefly one of assuring that performance-based certification remains validated and is applied fairly to each individual teacher who also must be guaranteed a meaningful opportunity to protect his rights. Many Southern school districts, under court order to desegregate, discharged large numbers of long tenured, well educated and "certified" black teachers on the grounds of incompetency. Civil rights groups and teacher associations have successfully challenged many of these firings through court action.2

III. What does all this say about the purpose and character of education personnel licensing?

Many people feel that teaching and principals' jobs cannot be described apart from the description one gets from actual on-the-job experience. Hence, in validating or revalidating the right-to-teach represented by a license, the need for school-based teacher education and reeducation may come to be greater than has dawned on us now.

In the Mercado and Chance case in New York, the judge ruled for a community-based process for licensing principals, at least until a better process—one more just racially and more cognizant of the needs of schools and children—was created: boards of examiners' tests were invalidated, though the requirement for state-certification or the equivalent was retained; and "development of local performance standards by community school boards, participation by parents and staff in the

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2 This quotation is from Robinson's unpublished commentary on "The Power of Competency-Based Teacher Education."
interviewing of applicants, and performance evaluation of acting appointees on a regular basis” were called for.3

In another New York case, the kind of knowledge which derives from community-school-based experience was treated as very important:

In a significant decision arising out of New York City’s school decentralization battle (Council of Supervisory Association v. Board of Education (1969)), that state’s highest court refused to invalidate an experimental new system for choosing the principals in decentralized districts and upheld selection criteria requiring “knowledge and relationship with disadvantaged communities, the cultural level there, the means and methods of securing increased parent involvement, the ability to stimulate them and the community to engage in a broader-based education.”4

And in the Nansemond County (Virginia) case,5 the circuit court rejected NTE scores as the basis for determining whether black teachers could continue to hold a job, on the ground that the NTE did not reflect the jobs which teachers do and particularly the variety of jobs which teachers working at various levels and teaching different subjects do. The NTE claims to test the knowledge gained through normal College of Education and liberal arts undergraduate course work given in an accredited institution offering education toward a license. School-based, and even school-community-based, teacher training may be useful simply because it is pretty hard to say that people can’t do a job when they have already done it.

William Robinson’s discussion and our own research suggests that licensing should involve (1) prior specific definitions of education jobs in a community, (2) a locally-determined assessment of individuals as to whether they can do or are doing the job (competency) as well as a community assessment of their ability to benefit children, and (3) a recurrent assessment procedure based on the original or evolving job descriptions. Licensing may no longer be “permanent.” (It is already not permanent in some states.)

IV. What about the “other court cases” you mention?

Although litigation between schools, teachers, and community groups has not gone very far yet, it is possible to see that courts, having shown themselves already amenable to increased community, parental, and cultural control of education processes, will interpret the responsibility for beneficent teaching to be that of both individual teachers and the school system—which is an argument for school administrators' knowing how teachers are taught and re-taught and having a say in that education. Whether or not the courts require such an arrangement, it appears to have common sense sanctions.

In a recent case in Iowa, a teacher has been held responsible by school systems or parents for

3For a full discussion of this case, see the Study Commission’s final report’s chapter on accreditation and licensing; in press. The discussion is by Michael Rebell, the lawyer for the plaintiffs in the case.

4From the Study Commission’s final report’s chapter on accreditation and licensing.

5The crucial brief in the Nansemond County case is that prepared by NEA lawyer David Rubin; brief available from the Study Commission.
not "teaching well enough," specifically because her students' standardized test scores did not improve enough. In the Peter Doe case, a suit is being lodged against the San Francisco schools because an apparently intelligent boy was allowed to graduate with reading skills at a fifth or sixth-grade level." These cases may give us a system that will hold not only individual teachers responsible for good teaching, but also school systems; concerning these cases, Stephen Sugarman of the University of California at Berkeley has written:

Plaintiffs can come into court with their teaching experts. If all the experts agreed on one method and the schools were obviously not following it, the case would be clear. But teaching reading is much more complex than this; it is because we cannot be sure of the "best" teaching method or style that Peter's problem becomes so difficult.

To mount a case of education malpractice against the teaching of individual teachers will not be easy. The organization of most of our schools makes it difficult to identify teaching incompetency; often obtaining professional testimony as to what a teacher actually did or did not do in a particular classroom would be nearly impossible. Our deference to teachers which permits them to work independently reflects the profession's uncertainty about the most effective teaching techniques—in all subjects but especially in reading. Increased sophistication about teaching skills and social science measurement techniques, and growing consensus about what a particular child is supposed to accomplish during a given year in school may help identify bad teaching by reference to how much particular children have learned.

The reader might begin looking to the Coleman Report or its reanalyses at this point, but they do not seem very helpful. The Coleman Report told us that most student achievement variation occurs within schools and not between schools and, in turn, that interschool resource differences have little impact on student achievement. Yet it did not tell us about the impact of curtailing in-school malpractices. The Coleman Report's questioning of the cost effectiveness of school seems to assume that resources are now effectively deployed. That is the very assumption challenged by Peter Doe's suit.

The question remains whether the public can reasonably expect better conduct from the schools—and, if so, whether such conduct is likely to make a difference in how much students learn. Supporters of the Peter Doe case believe they can prove that if schools corrected their mistakes many more children would learn. They point to the fact that some public schools in all kinds of locations—in ghettos, in rural America, in suburbia—graduate nearly all of their students as learners, and, therefore, prove that children with nearly every set of characteristics can succeed in school. To move from such generalities to proof in specific cases may be difficult. We do know there are some children who do not have the intelligence to learn and some children with neurological ailments about which the school can do little. The schools may come forward and identify other children they cannot help.

Perhaps through education malpractice suits the courts will provide a forum for addressing the difficult question of the causes of learning and nonlearning. From this perspective, judicial competence to determine the cause of negligence is less of a problem. So long as plaintiffs have the burden of proof and the causes of learning failure remain obscure, many nonlearners will not be able to demonstrate that their school was at fault. This perspective assumes that in order to avoid liability, schools will probably have to admit their own limitations. A heightened realism about what schools can and cannot do
could be a valuable result of such litigation. It would be a major gain if damage suits prompted schools to improve communication with a student and his family regarding his progress and what he can expect from schooling. These suits might also influence schools to identify better the special needs of students and counsel them accordingly. Even if malpractice lawsuits were unsuccessful when aimed directly at the substance of education they might very well effect substantive changes.

Uncertainty about what teaching methods “work” plus uncertainty about what schools should do may make this an area that courts would prefer not to enter at all. Avoiding the problem will not be difficult for proving negligence and cause is only one of the problems that nonlearners face in suits against their schools.

In spite of the uncertainties as to what teaching methods work best, Sugarman argues for the probable success of Peter Doe-like malpractice cases which accuse schools of “negligence” or “contributionary negligence” if their staff fail to do a good job of teaching particular children. If and when such suits are filed, a school’s knowledge of how its own teachers were educated and even of what they can do may well be important. Sugarman further suggests that teacher accountability schemes which reward or punish teachers on the basis of the average performance of their pupils will not satisfy the need to show that each student has been treated with proper care. Knowledge as to what teachers can do with children as a group and with all types of learners will be crucial.

The cases which deal with schooling as an extension of childrearing include the Yoder (Wisconsin) and Bobby Clay (Miccosukee Indians in Florida) cases which release children from school in certain communities where informal educational practice of the community is deemed adequate and where the religion of the community dictates that children not go to school beyond elementary level. Other cases have limited the power of schools to use the Bible for devotions or serve certain foods in the schools if such actions go against parental convictions. The cases suggesting that the courts increasingly regard school as an extension of childrearing are summarized by Gerrit Wormhoudt in The Twelve-Year Sentence. They suggest that teachers, like principals, will have to have “knowledge and relationship with the communities . . . and parents, the culture, there, the means and methods of securing increased rapport with parents . . ." and so forth. It is hard to see how this can be done without some form of extensive community and school experience—either in the specific community or in the kind of community where the teacher wants to work—teaching a fairly specific kind of knowledge at a fairly specific level.

There may be other solutions: simulation, tests, etc. But the school administrator who wants to be sure that somebody he hires can do a job had better be pretty sure that she/he has already done something like that kind of job.

One school administrator on the Study Commission’s School Administrators Committee has said, “We had better know what our teachers can do—who can do what and how well. Otherwise,

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7 Ibid., p. 237.
given the pressure of the courts to rationalize the relationship between jobs and salaries, we may wake up some morning with no salary schedule.”

V. What do all of these legal developments imply for the day-to-day life of a school administrator?

We can’t be sure yet. Teacher licensing and the responsibilities of teaching staffs and schools to students have not undergone serious judicial scrutiny as yet. However, if the directions indicated by Robinson, Wormhoudt, Sugarman and others are followed, school administrators may want, for their own self-protection, to be certain that they have hired and kept on the job the best possible people for meeting the goals of the schools and of parents. Obviously most school systems want to be able to do this on some basis just as a part of good management.

VI. You say the profession and the public have called for more school-community-based teacher education and collaboration in general? Can you elaborate on this too?

—Deans of Education have called for such reforms in Obligation for Reform—the report of the Higher Education Task Force on the Improvement and Reform of American Education.

—The NEA, in responding to recent incidents in Appalachia, has called for more collaboration between parents and teachers but has also called for investigation of people who make a business of manipulating parents in school-community confrontations.

—The PTA has called for stronger parent roles in policy-making and recruitment.

—Don Davies’ “Citizen Participation in Education” group is organizing hundreds of citizens groups and has created a bibliography of citizen participation in all forms of education—including the education of teachers.

—The School Administrator’s Committee of the Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers has called for maximum parity in teacher education and re-education among parents, administrators, teachers, community and students.

VII. What would the form of such education be? How would we get started and what would we have to do?

That’s hard to say in a sentence or two. When we get into it more, we can describe possibilities for many aspects of it. It would probably involve:

1. The establishment of clear community goals for the area’s future and, as part of this, for a neighborhood’s schools or string of schools in like circumstances.

2. The identification and arranging of educational experiences likely to assist children and parents to meet those goals.

3. The development of job descriptions or parent-school-student contracts as to what each
party or group is to do in the learning process in that specific community.

4. The development of good places for educating teachers. These might include (a) places where children, teachers, and parents can relate in a mutual educational process—not necessarily a school building; (b) a system for assisting teachers and administrators to get both work and living experiences in the community's agencies, businesses, streets, and play areas; (c) various equipment and helps to understanding teaching, school-community relationships, how children learn, etc. (some kind of resource materials center); (d) processes for describing or manifesting on-the-job what the job of education is in the specific community of concern and for evaluating the performance of people doing the job or what the job does (community validation-certification process); (e) resources for making a theoretical analysis and a community analysis of what is taught, how it is taught, what the process means for people's learning and life chances. David Hawkins has written to the Study Commission:

   Field-based work with teachers-to-be needs to explore in depth what I have called the spontaneous educational potential of a given human and material environment. What does this mean?

   It means (a) the search for strengths of children already living in that environment—skills and aptitudes it fosters, whether or not these have any presently recognized relation to "the curriculum"; (b) the search for features of that environment itself which would be worthy of further development and exploration—it's work-a-day aspects, its geographic and historical character, its riches as input to the expressive and scientific talents of children; (c) a linking of (a) and (b) to curriculum in the sense of a general outline of worthy educational aims, including not only those connected with how to live in the environment, but equally those connected with the big ecumenical world of arts, politics, science, the professions.

5. Finally, creating good places for educating teachers will require structure and governance systems for administering the whole education-reeducation process for pre- and in-service teachers, administrators, parents, and children, for allocating resources and holding people responsible. It may not matter so much whether the place itself is called a Teacher Center, a Community School for Educating Teachers, a Training Center-complex, or whatever. But we can get into that later.

VIII. What do administrators who are thinking about the development of school-community-based teacher education say about it?

Early in the history of the Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers, a group of school administrators proposed an extensive movement of the teacher education and reeducation process-continuum into the schools and the surrounding communities, with a major role for administrators, teachers-in-service, and parents. Their position paper proposed that the following components be included:

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Letter to the Study Commission, January, 1975, Study Commission files. David Hawkins is a University of Colorado physicist, mathematician and philosopher of science who also runs a center for children and for in-service teachers, The Mountain View Learning Center, in Boulder, Colorado.
A. Statistics:

1. Education statistics need to be gathered in relation to general social cost statistics which reflect the consequences of poor schools and badly educated teachers in categories such as the costs of prison programs, dropout programs, job training programs and so forth.

2. We need both to gather and publicize education statistics which illuminate the market and tell what kinds of teachers are needed (and where) and what kinds are not needed.

B. The professional aspect of the training of teachers needs to be centered in the schools and controlled by them as "technical training" comparable in some ways to industrial training. The role of higher education in the education of teachers may be to provide a good general or liberal education in the first three years of college. School-based professional training should be offered in the fourth and possibly the fifth years.

C. School-based training may profit from getting Institute of Higher Education (IHE) personnel more closely involved with local schools and teacher education than is traditionally the case. IHE faculty may do research integral to and desired by the community or may demonstrate advanced learning and learning techniques to teachers and students.

D. School-based professional training should include a strong component of teaching by the community, and control by parents and students. It should respect the lifestyle, value system, language, and expressive system of the culture in which the school which provides training is located; both teacher-trainees and IHE training faculty should respond to these culture aspects.

E. School-based undergraduate training should continue up to the first long-term licensing period of five years or whatever, and should involve some sort of credentialling-in-neighborhood by the school system and parents.

F. The federal government should channel no funds of a research or scientific nature (NSF, NIMH, etc.) or for non-teacher training purposes to those institutions of higher education which refuse to fulfill their obligations to the schools.

G. School-based undergraduate professional training would cost no more than present higher education training and would require a form of collaboration among the schools, the state, and the federal government comparable to present methods providing for funding which depend on collaboration of higher education, the institution, the state, and the federal government in such areas as science or among industry, the state, and the federal government in industrial training.

Primary funding should be "institutional reform funding" as opposed to "purchases of services" funding.

H. The following specific ancillary directives were given:
1. The Study Commission should make an assessment of needs and models in school-based undergraduate training of teachers.

2. They should do a study relating school, state, and national budgeting procedures for the education of teachers.

3. Teacher recruitment should begin in the schools and should encourage everyone’s interest in the teaching process.

4. Any clinical school should provide feedback and evaluation to higher education as to its effectiveness in teaching, particularly in the liberal arts—whether these courses teach students not only specific materials that schools want communicated to children, but also theoretical structures that make students more effective teachers.

5. The idea of “performance” and “behavioral objectives” should possibly be redefined in broader, less narrowly behavioristic terms, and in non-quantified, verbal terms.

Later, the same School Administrators group made further recommendations, based on value assumptions supported by administrative and school research, as to the circumstances in which school-community-based education of teachers is likely to work. Some of the assumptions are:

A. Administration in general works best as a decentralized function working with small flexible units. This holds also for teacher education. Small schools and teacher education units are to be preferred to large impersonal ones.

B. One can’t educate teachers in the abstract; the education of a teacher has to be at the school and in the homes, streets and alleys, agencies, and businesses surrounding the schools; how one educates or reeducates a teacher or principal cannot be separated from how schools are managed and organized.

C. The old distinction between pre-service and in-service education for teachers needs to be blurred so that all education for teachers is seen as a single lifelong process—educating them in a neighborhood to serve its parents and children—and implying to those clients that all education is a continuing lifelong process, and that everyone can and should both teach and learn.

D. Higher education has a strong incentive to develop an imaginative collaboration with the schools, because the teacher surplus appears to have left us with too many pre-service recruits between now and 1980. The main “market” in the rest of this decade for higher education services is probably in in-service training—particularly if higher education can find creative ways to work with schools and parents on in-service training and also shift most of its pre-service work into the places where education is actually done—in the schools, homes, job places, play places, and their environs.

E. The school principal needs to return to her/his old function as a “principal teacher” and teacher of teachers.

F. A shift in the uses of state and federal money for both IHE’s and Local Education Associations (LEA’s) will be required if a good system is to be created.
IX. What will an effective system of school-community-based education for teachers cost?

Obviously, people will be more willing to pay for the way of educating teachers proposed in this document if they strongly feel that teachers and schools are improving enough to justify the money which they are putting into education-for-teachers. Present systems for managing the school, field, and community-based segments of teacher education are generally not very well funded or coherently managed, and part of this has to do with how present management systems are constructed. For example, although present federal Higher Education General Information Systems (HEGIS) collect excellent data about clinical hospitals—offices, laboratories, floor space, personnel—virtually no management information is collected on comparable aspects of “clinical schools” or on community field work education experiences. Virtually nothing is done to relate costs of pre-service to in-service costs and benefits.

Some money could perhaps be freed up during the present personnel surplus to support community-school centers. If teacher education units were made smaller and were better supported, community-school centers could be possible. If one compares full education programs for teachers with programs for students in other areas, the cost per full time equivalent (FTE) in education programs is lower than that in most other professional preparation sequences. The statistics on these matters are complicated, but some facts stand out.¹⁰

1. Sixty-five per cent of teachers in training in 1970 went to low quality institutions (28.6 per cent to middle quality and 5.4 per cent to high quality)—using the Gourman quality ratings and the College Ratio quality ratings. (These are based on an assessment of a variety of factors which suggest level of support for the total institution, such as scholarships, fellowships, salaries, and library; some other factors in the Gourman and College Ratio ratings, such as board of directors and faculty morale, may not reflect fiscal support.)

2. Within institutions, education sequences and education-related sequences tend to be less well supported than other comparable professional areas (National Center for Higher Education Management Systems report on institutions):

**NCHEMS INSTITUTIONS:**

**EDUCATION:** % Lower Credit Hour Support

(a) History and philosophy areas are less well supported in 100 per cent of the NCHEMS institutions examined.

(b) Field or practicum courses in education are less well supported in 75 per cent of the NCHEMS institutions examined.

**OTHER AREAS:** % Lower Credit Hour Support

(a) History and philosophy areas in arts and sciences are less well supported in none of the institutions examined.

(b) Fieldwork or practicum courses in social work, nursing, engineering, etc. are less well supported in 25 per cent of the NCHEMS institutions examined.

¹⁰These statistics were developed from an examination of fifty-two National Center for Higher Education Management Systems analyses of costs per credit hour in education and costs per full time equivalency in education by the Study Commission Information Committee, Gary Rex, staff member.
(c) Clinical areas in education (special education, etc.) are less well supported than other clinical areas in 50 per cent of the institutions examined.

c) Clinical areas outside education (speech pathology, audiology, etc.) are less well supported in 50 per cent of the institutions examined.

The cost of education programs for each "full time equivalent student" appears to be about $1,300-$1,500 per year across all four undergraduate years. Costs in other human services professional or pre-professional areas tend to be considerably higher: $1,300-$1,800 per FTE major in the freshman-sophomore courses and $2,000-$2,800 in junior-senior ones. The real costs of the education of a teacher-to-be may be a little higher in the junior and senior years; but, since hardly any of the costs of practical action work in the field, school or community are represented in present data gathering arrangements, the special costs of junior-senior professional training appear to be mostly borne by the school-system, by the cooperating teacher, or by the community.

The total costs of teacher education in this country will not be expanded in a teacher-surplus period in the education world and a recession-inflation period in the general economy. Since more than 30 per cent of the education personnel educated in IHE’s have little intention of teaching, however, the number of candidates intensively trained in practical schools and the surrounding community could be limited drastically and the amount spent on each pre-service student for his experience in school-community teacher education centers could be expanded.

The Study Commission estimates that the states spend between $3 and $4 billion annually on pre-service teacher education—much of it on on-campus professional training that students in general, the student NEA, and recently graduated teachers find ineffective. Were states and their Schools of Education to concentrate on the segment of their student body seriously interested in teacher education—to concentrate their funds on them, particularly on providing good school-community fieldwork experience for them—it seems possible that they could move $500-$700 million of their present expenditure for educating teachers into good community-school-field places for readying young faculty that would leave $500 million for the proposed billion-dollar system to be described shortly.

The money diverted from present higher education activities to these school-community centers might be supplemented by present in-service money. But the costs of present in-service education are even harder to calculate:

First. Most in-service education has traditionally consisted of teachers taking summer or evening courses in IHE’s and paying for the work themselves or having it subsidized in part by the school system. Sometimes the school system pays indirectly by giving the person a higher salary for "growth points" or an advanced degree. However, most research on this sort of diffuse, teacher-selected education separated from the circumstances in which teachers work suggests that it does not make people better teachers, while salary increments and promotions based on such criteria may be challengeable under the Griggs decision.

Second. More recently some school systems have developed in-service activities which include curriculum training, short courses, sensitivity training—most of it pretty unsystematic, underfunded, and conducted on a catch-as-catch-can basis. Few school systems or states spend much money on this sort of education. In a recent study of in-service programs in a Midwestern state, 47 per cent of

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the teachers surveyed rated their in-service experience to be of no value and 40 per cent of the administrators were unable to describe an effective in-service activity in the past three years.12

Third: St. Paul, Minnesota, which appears to spend more on in-service education for teachers than most systems, spends about $35 per teacher per year. A few systems have developed (with the cooperation of higher education, teacher unions, community groups, and local school people) more systematic long-term places for educating and reeducating teachers: teacher centers, training center complexes, clinical schools, etc. The cost-situation for these developments is still unclear; however, some surmises may be developed. For instance, a much higher direct expenditure on in-service education would be required. New York, which has had fairly well developed in-service and in-system programs, now spends less than 25 cents of state monies per teacher per year on in-service training and spends from nothing to $15,000 per school district of local school district monies on in-service. Many New York districts reported no in-service costs, and only Great Neck, at $50,000, reported more than $15,000;13 in contrast, Polaroid Corporation spends $500,000 per year on in-service programs—$50 per employee. Western Electric, which has about as many employees as the state of New York, spends $1-$2 million annually on in-service programs; the armed forces commonly have 10-14 per cent of their personnel in formal classes at any one time, with necessary funding. The Study Commission has suggested an annual direct expenditure of $50 per teacher from each local school district. But that isn’t enough—and because it isn’t, the money will have to come from somewhere else.

Actually a good community-school in-service system seems more likely to cost $500 per in-service teacher per year. The evidence for this figure is quite varied. First, the Fleischmann Commission, which assessed probable costs in every New York educational area quite carefully, proposed for New York a series of “Lighthouse Schools” to provide “practical experience for intern or apprentice teachers, in-service education for classroom teachers, and opportunity for applied research and experimentation.” Fleischmann-proposed Lighthouse Schools are similar to the community-school centers for educating teachers proposed by the Study Commission and would have the support that in-service/pre-service training centers should have. The Fleischmann proposal for New York State alone was for 250 Lighthouse Schools funded at $90 million in 1972; inflation would demand at least a present funding of $100 million for New York, or $400,000 per school annually above typical local school expenditures—these costs to be carried by the state. There was to be one Lighthouse School for each 15,000 public school students; each would therefore serve about 600 teachers (25:1 ratio) plus the pre-service teachers needed to meet new teacher supply needs ($500 for each of the in-service teachers served = $300,000 plus $100,000 for pre-service teachers).14

The population of New York is approximately one tenth of the population of the U.S. If the Fleischmann projection were extended to the country, 2,500 Lighthouse schools would be required and a $900 million to $1 billion annual investment required. Of this investment, about three fourths would possibly be for in-service education and one fourth for pre-service.

12James O’Hanlon and Lee A. Witters, “Break-Through In-Service Education for All Schools” (Lincoln, Nebraska: Nebraska Department of Education, September, 1967).


The costs of other actual centers educating teachers vary:

a. Teacher Active Learning Center: 60-90 teachers served—$15,000 plus two staff members or $250 per teacher served;

b. Bay Area Learning Center: 750 teachers weekly—$500,000 annual cost;

c. Amity Buxton estimates: $200,000—$250,000 per year would serve a large school system’s in-service needs and serve 400-500 teachers per week in-service, or $500 per teacher;

d. The Illinois Quality Schools Network proposal: $19.67 per common school student for staff planning, development, and start-up costs, or apparently about $400-$500 per teacher during the start-up period.

It appears that a middle-of-the-road estimate of what a serious in-service teacher center would cost is from $500 to $600 annually for each teacher offered support on a weekly basis.

The cost for each pre-service person offered assistance in the school-community teacher education center would probably exceed the costs for in-service teachers. If one were to accept for laboratory field training the 300,000-plus senior students who each year graduate as certified teachers and accept similar numbers for preparatory education in the junior and sophomore years, one would have one million people in intensive training. But, as we have observed, Study Commission and Rand statistics suggest that only about 40 per cent of the people who are in some sort of teacher-candidate positions are seriously interested in becoming teachers; another 30 per cent are mildly interested; and another 30 per cent are using the education degree as an educational resource for other purposes. If we were to concentrate on the 400,000 “serious” people in the sophomore, junior, and senior years, seeking about 130,000 graduates annually between now and 1980, the “teacher surplus” might be settled. So might other problems. A manageable number, about 150 pre-service students (sophomores, juniors, and seniors) would be assigned to each of the 2,500 community-school teacher education centers. Costs for this group of 400,000 “intensive-education” pre-service teachers would probably be as much as $700 per student per year (what the Fleischmann Commission appears to have estimated) for the community-school component of their work.

An investment of $1 billion sounds like a great deal. However, the federal government presently spends $965 million annually on teacher education—about $265 million for “temporary systems” in-service programs which may end to nothing and about $700 million for various scholarships and other financial aid to teacher education students.15

The development of a $1-$1.1 billion program for the support of community-school teacher education centers would require something like the following package:

1. That the federal government direct the present $265 million annually in federal in-service teacher education monies scattered among more than thirty programs into building a long-term system.

2. That much of the one fourth ($175 million) of the federal money provided for stipends.

15 Cf. The Government Accounting Office (GAO) report, Supply and Demand Conditions for Teachers and Implications for Federal Programs (Washington, D.C., 1974), passim, for a full list of all federal programs relating to educating teachers.
to teacher education students (about $700 million) go to tuition which could be used for community-school teacher education center program support. This would raise the federal support figure to about $400 million annually (combining 1 and 2).

3. That higher education reduce College of Education enrollments or “intensive professional training” enrollments by about one half without losing total legislative fiscal support so as to enable it to divert at least $600 million in human and fiscal resources from the total $3-$4 billion spent annually on teacher education in IHE’s to community-school teacher education centers.

4. That local school systems spend up to $50 per teacher per year on the two million-plus teachers and administrators active in the country—an expenditure which would raise the total to $1.1 billion (combining 1, 2, 3 and 4).

This analysis does not include any assumptions as to the monies that school systems themselves are putting into pre-service and in-service programs indirectly through paying tuition for college courses, through granting “growth points” and lifetime salary increments for additional college credits and degrees or for travel which may not improve teaching quality or for central office curriculum staff which do part-time in-service work. The total cost of such inadequately assessed indirect subsidies for non-contextual in-service should be the subject of an intensive cost benefit study. [It should be understood that the cost figures in this section are very rough. They are included both to indicate what we know and to indicate the need for more refined studies, as well as for action.]

X. How long will it take to get the kind of support proposed in this document and what are possible strategies for gaining it?

The kind of state or federal support necessary to fund school-community-based teacher education may be slow in coming. But there are examples where such programs have been recommended or where they have been implemented and are now actually operative, and these examples are instructive. Certainly states or smaller units can get programs going faster than the federal government can organize, systematize, and legitimize any national scheme.

In New York, the Fleischmann Commission, among its many recommendations to the Board of Regents, included some on school-community-based teacher education, particularly the Lighthouse Schools concept mentioned in the previous section. Although many of the Fleischmann Commission’s recommendations are being acted upon by New York, these teacher education recommendations are not being used; they are being ignored.

In Dallas, the public school system now has four federally-funded teacher centers in operation where pre-service training is done. Staff members from cooperating area IHE’s split their time with their institutions and the teacher center to tailor training experiences for their own students to situations and needs pertinent to Dallas. The centers also run staff development programs for in-service teachers, serving about 500 of the 6,500 teachers per year in groups treating math, science, and other selected areas. There are theory seminars, content studies and curriculum development over about an eight-day period, and the orientation is to teaching, learning, and living in the Dallas community. The training is by Dallas for Dallas. The program, now in its fourth year, is flexible, and enthusiasm among participants seems to be increasing because of this flexibility. It is expected to continue serving the Dallas area.
In Florida, a teacher-center bill has been passed and ten teacher training centers are in operation throughout the state. In addition, Florida will soon have a full capacity to calculate the costs of in-service and pre-service teacher education through a new data-collecting system. Not only will there be a capacity to generate overall cost of credit hour of instruction in each discipline area—including pre-service teacher education—but there will be a capacity to determine the components of costs comprising the overall figure, according to John C. Prothero of the Florida Department of Education (quoted in materials sent to the Study Commission for its December, 1973, newsletter).

In California, the Ryan Bill was passed to provide for teacher training in community schools. Each training institution has to set up its own program for credentialling, with the law requiring a community advisory board between institution and client community, with representation by all ethnic groups and other concerned groupings of the community. Chico State College, for example, has a semester program for pre-service teachers involving full-time school-based experience. The students thus enter fully into the life of the school, although unless they live in the community (i.e., do not commute from campus area or housing) they may not, or may not have the chance to, participate in the life of the community. Methods courses are also taught on-site in the schools during this semester, by university faculty in the schools and by resident school faculty. A good deal of in-service work on an informal basis has also been developed in this program. An advantage of the law as written is that there is no monolithic credentialling program: the diversity that is California can be reflected in institutions' planning their own programs to serve their clienteles. The law does not guarantee community-based teacher education, but it is moving in that direction: it does not force institutions into prescribed molds but allows them to plot their own courses within guidelines set by the law. A sore point right now is funding: credential programs must be developed by institutions, but there is no financial support for extra staffing or release time granted for regular staff, who must thus do the development themselves. The Ryan Commission also demands follow-up work on students who have left the program; but there is likewise no financial support or release time compensation for this work. Part of the problem should be alleviated when the start-up period for program development is over, however.

This is the time for school administrators to encourage their own systems, institutions of higher education, and states to initiate changes in teacher education—during the “surplus” period when many training institutions are seeing the need for redirecting their programs without losing their funding, and are seeing the advisability of counseling students (and suggesting other programs for them) who may not really want to teach. Colleges may be able to redirect funds now being spent on candidates not really interested in teaching who would be surplus if they were licensed. And there are local schools and communities who are concerned about teacher education and who are willing to plunge into the education of teachers themselves. It is time for more schools or LEA's and the IHE's to initiate some cooperation which will be to the advantage of all concerned in teacher education. (See also the question XIV, on how schools and IHE's can get programs working together.)

Teacher Corps, Bureau of Educational Personnel Development (BEPD), the Career Education division and the Community Education division of the Office of Education should be mentioned as possible resources in providing teacher education that reaches into the communities, homes, streets, and industries, and schools that move beyond the traditional learning environments and assume a community base. Some of these projects do not, however, provide parents of children being brought into schools a role in development of personnel or of licensing criteria, and as a consequence they lack some of the power which they may need to have in the future to enter into a meaningful collaboration with administrators, teachers, and others in the education of children and of future students.
teachers. The Teacher Center bill, sponsored by the organized teaching professions, may, if modified to recognize the interests of consumers in education, also help fulfill some of the vision proposed here.

XI. How might the assessment process work in the community school teacher education centers proposed here?

In school-community-based teacher education, the community has a substantial role in the entire program, including a continuing assessment of the program's applicability and of who is to do the jobs of training and teaching. The community people are the ones who can and must determine the direction the community is heading, e.g., whether it is to grow industrially or in other senses, remain agrarian or pastoral, or in some way decline—in population or income or cultural cohesion or whatever. The community's perceptions of these matters of its future will influence what is to be taught in the schools and will also bear on the kind of teachers necessary and their training. The school must take part in creating the future of the community, but the time is past when the school can be a power entity in itself—the ivory tower manipulating the community toward some kind of alien "cultural awareness." Community, parents, and kids in concert must flow into the school to give it life and direction—while school flows into the community to share expertise, techniques, critical methods derived from research and training—and school and community reinforce and build each other.

A community needs to ask itself planning questions—whether it is approaching a visible crossroads of its own, or changing its educational programs in response to necessities such as we have been outlining throughout this document—or even if it is doing neither of these things—for it may need to ask the questions to avoid stagnation. Such questions include: Who are we, and what are our values? What can we live with and without in our community and our educational processes? What is our community going to be like in the future and how will this influence education? How can education be as little disruptive or degenerative as possible to the cultural processes of the community? For instance, if an Indian community has the options of accepting a white-backed coal industry or of remaining pastoral, the ultimate choice would influence education and teacher education in the community. In general, the community would have to decide if education would be oriented toward heavy machinery or sheep herding. In particular, they would have to decide, for example, how their oral literary tradition would have to be adapted to either option.

The integration and relationship between school and community will be defined in part by accurate job descriptions. The community, with the help of school administrators and others, must define what teachers should be able to do in the schools. Administrators need to know that people they hire have had on-the-job training that is consistent with the Griggs decision, and that the EEOC Guidelines, that is, directly related to the job (see question III above). But it will not be easy to prove that "consistency" statistically. And before that question can be dealt with, administrators need to know what they and the community decide the job is that they are hiring for—so that they can pick an appropriate person and so that they have some protection in times of rehiring, local recertification, or disputes or litigation over these or, say, over incompetence. Recall the Mercado decision mentioned earlier, in which the judge ruled that parents and communities have some say in the certification of principal educators—and which called for "development of local performance standards by community school boards, participation by parents and staff in the interviewing of applicants, and performance evaluation of acting appointees on a regular basis."16

16 Quoted in the credentialling and licensing chapter of the Study Commission's final report, from Judge Mansfield's follow-up decision in the case.
Training of personnel to fill these job descriptions will be the task of school-community-based teacher education. Some of this training will be pre-service, as described in the process question below, and some will be in-service, with assessment provided for both. Part of the assessment of in-service teachers can be by counseling from parent groups who identify areas of need in teaching and who can perhaps directly help teachers with the problem areas.

Part of the assessment process of pre-service teachers done at the community level might consist of on-the-job teaching-theory combination activities (see also the question on process, where several models of theory training combined with clinical experience are discussed) where interns, individually or in teams, advised by school faculty and IHE theory teachers out in the schools on a school-IHE cooperative plan for teacher education, are allowed to try what they can do. Parents must have a say in whether what they can do corresponds to the goals of the community for education; parents and the governance body of the teacher education project (see question XIII following) should be well represented at both teaching experiment/assessment trials and theory seminars held for the “apprentice teachers” during their assessment period. This kind of assessment process would lead to a validation of teachers—and programs—consistent with the Griggs case; when those concerned with education of the children who are the community’s future are involved in saying who the people are who will educate those children in the schools, and when the parents and community are in the schools themselves seeing who is becoming available to teach what and how, assessment can and will follow specific job-oriented lines. If parents and community spell out that they want matters X, Y, and Z taught in styles and manners A, B, and C, they can then look for personnel who can teach accordingly, and begin to avoid conscious or unconscious discrimination against any persons who are qualified to do what the community wants done.

XII. How would the districts be arranged?

The Fleischmann Commission report, as mentioned in question IX, discussed cost units of 15,000 students/600 teachers as useful division guides for districts. That report did not, however, take much into account the cultural makeup of these primarily cost/budgeting units. But the number is a useful start for our ideas of dividing districts for education and teacher education. There are many factors influencing the organization of districts for school-community-based teacher education. In some states gathering together a unit of 15,000 students and 600 teachers might entail a huge and unwieldy geographical area—which would require prohibitive travel distances of teacher trainers and trainees to and from a teacher training center, whether the center were in one school, centrally located on its own, or a multi-center in several schools. Moreover, in a lightly populated state such a large geographical division might sweep together very diverse culture areas preferring to do their own community-based teacher education or preferring to work with similar communities in another state or “district.”

This suggests another consideration, that of a taxonomy which ideally should be established at the national level, to identify similar culture districts which would need similarly trained personnel and between which such personnel could move without need of tremendous retraining (for the necessary skills would be similar) or meticulous recertification (for they would meet the job specifications in the new area). This idea of dividing into culture districts is important to us, in our desire for community-based education that depends on the goals of communities for themselves. But the concept has problems. In heavily populated areas it may be impossible for every culture group to have its own school district and teacher training district: people and states probably will simply be unable to afford all the necessary facilities, staffs, and resources. They may have to adopt
something like the 15,000/600 plan and compromise on some cultural elements.  

The sparsely settled areas, on the other hand, may have to go more to the culture district plan with its possibly irregular boundaries and unequal numbers. A versatile taxonomy of districts across the country as they develop—probably a federal information system but hopefully a flexible one which would reflect changes in the taxonomy very quickly—would help to keep the country-wide system in touch: it would facilitate teachers’ relocation and should—if the information is disseminated to the general public as it should be—facilitate relocation of families as well. For that is the great problem of establishing culture districts and hoping they will provide viable teacher education, and of seeing the country’s communities as diverse in their cultures and aims for themselves: the great mobility of the population today, fostered by industry and government, gives many of America’s urban and suburban communities a sleek superficial sameness, a facade of homogeneity that is as dulling to cultural diversity as excessive mobility is destructive to children’s learning capacity.

It is not possible to have an educational system designed to meet people where they are, in diverse communities, that will produce people who are interchangeable parts anywhere in the country. What we want in the way of districting to meet size/population and cultural needs may not be possible, given the mobility and homogeneity we mention. But Pope’s veil of dullness has not descended on us yet: there are communities which are excited about the quality of education their children and teachers receive and which are mobilizing their resources to make changes. As and if some of these succeed, we can hope that others will follow. In districting matters we may often have to let people in the communities decide where the boundaries are going to go.

XIII. How would governance be done?

The first thing to note here is that at present the IHE and LEA governance systems are by and large separated and highly centralized, but that the direction now is to bring them together cooperatively and to decentralize them. This has happened in New York, Washington, the Twin Cities, New Rochelle, and other middle-sized cities. It is being proposed for many larger cities. As regards the education of teachers, teachers, parents and administrators need to be represented, obviously, but IHE’s also need to be represented on local governance boards for many reasons: (1) the IHE’s need to know what schools really want in the way of teachers and they need to stop turning out “standardized products” unoriented to real schools even in their own service area; (2) IHE’s need to be more personally involved with the pre- and in-service training continuum—including the counseling and recruitment of community people and kids for staff and for future trainees; (3) IHE’s need opportunities to confront the gut feelings of the service area, the area that after all gives the IHE life support! Many IHE’s and LEA’s have become so large and centralized (and dogmatic and encapsulated from surrounding communities—“laws unto themselves”) that they no longer “think” of themselves in terms of parents and children and the marketplaces of the world but rather as serene enclaves of “learning.” Closed-off IHE’s and LEA’s need to change if increased concerned-party

17 There is legal precedent for the kind of “compromise” necessary. The San Felipe del Rio case in Texas provides that multi-culture classrooms must establish system of reciprocal learning and mutual respect for all cultures present in the classroom.

18 The research on the distinctive features of black language and culture needs to be more widely disseminated—research by such scholars, black and white, as Roger Abrahams, Imamu Baraka, Johnheintz John, William Labov, and J.L. Dillard. The cultural distinctiveness of Appalachian, Oriental, Native American and, say, New Mexico “Highland” Chikano groups is no longer in question. Recently the attention to cultural distinctiveness for educational purposes has extended to Amish and Mennonite groups in the research of Donald Erickson, to Eastern European groups in the research of Michael Novak, Joshua Fishmann and others.
involvement in teacher education is to come about—change in the direction of smaller units of management that include empowered representatives from concerned groups to make the formal policies and plans for the training process for teachers. As the organization of governance works itself out, several IHE's may be found working with a single LEA, or with a community-school within an LEA, or several LEA's or culture districts serving diversified communities may work with one IHE; this itself is an argument for decentralized and flexible governance model alternatives: no one form of governance will work for all cultures' or schools' or communities' interrelations with IHE's in the administration of teacher education. [Recall the Ryan Bill's flexible stance for California's diversified teacher education needs, question XI preceding.]

Teacher education and reeducation governance might be organized by a school or cluster of schools representing a "culture district" to include probably no fewer than 500-1,000 people of an identifiable, "community"—lest the units become so small as to be wastefully repetitive—and to include probably no more than ten neighborhood schools. The basis for governance must be the community's aims and goals for itself and its youth—not the IHE's or even the LEA's concept of what teachers must be. Parents would have to be able to support the governance system for teacher education, or the system would not be viable. If the school is seen as a kind of citadel that closes kids and teachers in and parents and businessmen out, obviously community people won't have an active part in governance. But where the school flows into the community, as in the schools-without-walls, such as Metro or Parkway High Schools, or like JFK School in Atlanta, there will be all kinds of opportunities for community people to interact with students and administrators, and governance of teacher training will much more readily receive constant informal input from the community.

Decentralization is a core point and a primary sore point in development of local governance of teacher education; it is harder to achieve in the formally-entrenched, more distant, IHE conglomerate than in a local school system. This argues for beginnings in decentralization to be made at the LEA or community school level and correspondingly for beginnings in teacher education local governance at the in-service level, to branch into pre-service and the IHE as opportunities arise or are made. IHE decentralization is clearly a need in larger universities in any case; Harold Hodgkinson has written, in Institutions in Transition, the largest and most thorough study of higher education, ever made (according to the Carnegie Commission):

There are also a great many studies of size of work groups in factories, public agencies, discussion groups, task forces, and training encounter groups; all of which indicate a negative relationship between size and individual participation, involvement, and satisfaction. As the group gets larger, no matter what the activity, more highly developed specialization will take place. Contrast, for example, the typical pickup sandlot baseball game with the little league game of today. In the pickup game there were just enough players, and everybody had to continue if the game was to be played at all; everybody played every position. On the little league teams, however, typically thirty or forty boys are trying out for the team, so that at any given moment more people are watching than playing. Specialization develops; some people do nothing but pitch; others play first base or catch; nobody has the experience of playing all the positions. Most are glad if they have a chance to play at all.

It is not the function of this paper to go into this matter, but one might consider possible alternatives in order to provide a feeling for small-sized organizations even on a
large campus. Something on the order of selective decentralization will probably have to

Greatly varying degrees of decentralization among schools or LEA's working to coordinate their
governance activities with each other or IHE's will also present difficulties: where the degree of
decentralization is extreme and the training necessary to a culture community so specific that it
prevents people from transferring their skills to any new district, decentralization to the degree we
advocate may be unworkable. Some taxonomy of districts where similar skills are required will
need to be constructed, along with some sort of job-description picture of the reeducation required
to adjust to new districts or culture areas.

Governance groups of teacher education processes need to include equal or carefully weighed
representation from "Parents," "Administration" (of LEA and IHE), "Community," "Teachers," and
"Students" (as exemplified by the PACTS\footnote{PACTS is a model of Supt. Barbara Sizemore in Washington, D.C., schools.) But this seemingly obvious ideal structure was lacking in some respects in all the sites
visited by the Study Commission team, lacking particularly in community input and power to form
(or form with other groups) teacher training policy and planning. The Louisville Teacher Corps
project seemed to have a semblance of ongoing community boards, and the school-community coordi-
nator worked with the federal dollar programs. But none of the boards were created to work
specifically in the area of governance of teacher training, and the Louisville Teacher Corps was not
re-funded and the district is involved in consolidation with the County School System because of
court-ordered desegregation. Therefore, development of such system-wide governance boards is in
doubt. They do exist in many schools, but their future is questionable.

The PACTS model might be changed if it were a question of a Native American tribal board
governing teacher education on tribal land: then "Community" could mean tribal representatives
and "Administration" would probably be the BIA. In the Navajo Teacher Development Project
(contract between University of New Mexico, University of Arizona, and the Navajo tribal Divi-
sion of Education), a supervisory committee of tech professional and non-professional people was
selected by tribal education leadership, through a reservation-wide sampling of people; this external
governing board makes the major policy decisions for the program.

One problem in rural areas (including many Indian reservations) is that of transportation and
communication: distances, availability of transportation, and road conditions many times bar
effective community participation in governance. But while this may limit the number of times the
governance structure meets, it should not inhibit its existence and participation in the decision-
making process.

XIIIa. What would governance bodies do?

The development of community participation in teacher training governance should begin with
the strengths of the present community governance mechanisms, move into in-service, and then (as
the IHE's come to recognize its uses and/or to decentralize) move into pre-service training areas.
For instance, communities can begin with student-parent groups who in some cases can evaluate
present teachers or recommend the continuance or dismissal of faculty. Such groups could offer alternative suggestions for the training process along with other recommendations. Teacher groups in many areas will also want to look at staff and program decisions and affect governance of teacher centers. In the future, community groups will make or assist in making policy, planning job descriptions for teacher training and teacher, 1 give input in development of educational experiences in the community for prospective and acting teachers and administrators. Communities may then branch out to include other reference groups (IHE administration and faculty, etc.) responsive to the school district-culture district. All these groups could be represented on a decentralized local determination governance board. Indeed, this would be a natural extension of the present Title I Parent Advisory Councils into personnel areas. Community groups, in mobilizing for educational change, generally begin by asking who teaches in the school, then ask what kind of upgrading effect the community can have on the performance of in-service people. Finally, they may ask how they could have an effect on the people coming in—first, through the hiring and recruiting process, and second, through participating in training the people who are to come in.

If an entire LEA works with an IHE, the resulting governance board may be unwieldy, depending on the size of the LEA; in such cases the boards may more profitably represent community schools within LEA's (plus the other community groups) working on their own with IHE's. In any case, the important point is the decentralization of governance to involve people from all groups concerned with the processes of teacher education, functioning within and according to their own cultural context.

The community-school governance board as above constituted could become "a power to conjure with" throughout school-community-based education. It will be vital in other areas besides that of governing what goes on in teacher education processes in the school-community context. It might have to do with the selection of teachers for available positions—whom is going to teach. It could well have to do with the establishment of job descriptions in education that are community specific, and it is an obvious group to participate in the development of teacher certification and recertification mechanisms. The parent and community components, along with other concerned community members, even if not on the board, will be concerned with diagnosing trouble areas in teacher performance, and with recommending and implementing improvements—which may well be not in the area of "more credit hours" but in the area of help the parent and community can give directly to better teachers’ relations with their classes.

Finally, representatives of IHE’s and LEA’s faculties and administrations, community people, students, and parents seem to be the obvious group to deal with the all-important job of developing general directions for handling financing of school-community-based teacher education, of organizing and distributing the money available for teacher education. In this regard: first, how can those who control funds interact to pool the money available for use; next, how can they distribute the money, how can they get it out into the programs for use of the teachers involved in training. There are several alternatives for pooling money. One is the dual budget. This budgeting measure assumes that the traditional means of assessing cost and of allocating funds within IHE’s and LEA’s are found valid for school-community-based training and accurately descriptive of their respective contributions. Budgets are separately prepared for each participating institution, resulting in separate financing—raising of dollars, payment of staff and overhead, etc.—but the institutions share costs of executing the program. This system would probably work best in a structure which included an IHE and one or several LEA’s in contract arrangements. An example of this kind of budgeting is afforded by Portland-Urban Teacher Education-Project (PUTEP). PUTEP’s monies (federal funds and Portland School District No. 1 funds) finance the one-year intern program in Portland schools, but not the education and related college work prior to the internship. Here the budgeting is
sequential: the preliminary course work is on the IHE's budget (Oregon State is the cooperating IHE); the year's internship and training for in-service teachers is combined in the PUTEP budget.

An alternative is the single budget model, which pools the financial resources of the involved institutions. Institutions in a consortium or in a situation of just one IHE with one or more LEA's contribute a general fee plus a fee per student of participant, either in hard money or in-kind contributions for administrative and operational costs. This general fund would be managed by the cooperative governance structure. Multi-Institutional Teacher Education Center (MITEC) in a four-county area of West Virginia illustrates this system in part; MITEC coordinates school-based experiences for prospective teachers, receiving a flat yearly fee from each college participating, plus a placement fee per student teacher placed. The county school systems pay according to their amount of involvement, and MITEC also receives funds from the State Department of Education. MITEC is not an ideal example because it is primarily concerned with student teaching (is primarily pre-service) and must cooperate with another agency to do in-service work; however, its elaboration into a system for more comprehensive teacher education is feasible.

There are a number of possible ways for distributing combined financial resources (such as college tuition, state and local taxes) to provide equal educational financing for a state's teachers and equal protection for students in schools and community. The Serrano case and dependent decisions on equalization of educational revenue stand in the background.20 The Wisconsin Improvement Program provides one model. Here a group of LEA’s and IHEs contribute funds for a paid, four-month internship for trainees after prior course work. Paying the intern, combined with "intern licensing" done by the State Department of Education, gives the individual more legitimacy than traditional student teachers have had. Community-based teacher centers as in-service and pre-service training centers can be financed as separate components or as parts of integrated systems; they receive monies from various sources: school districts, universities, state education monies, federal grants, foundation grants, donations, and tuitions and fees. The site visits suggest that teacher centers are best financed as a regular part of the budget of the training organization for that school district or culture district or region, i.e., that they receive hard money from the coordinated IHE-LEA-state organization involved in teacher education. When the teacher center is a component of an LEA, with the function of providing experiences, resources, and workshops, it can become a hard line in the school system budget but be allowed to receive other monies via grants and contracts from universities, foundations, and federal agencies.

There will be some cost increases, perhaps for involvement of community personnel or for intern stipends and in-service staff development; but increased financial cooperation from IHE funding will help offset them. During the initial phases of new programs, increased costs may also be inevitable in getting the bugs out, finishing commitments entered into under past programs, and compensating for locked-in costs and already budgeted dollars. These costs are temporary and should be underwritten by the state. Corporations which benefit from educational services might also be subjected to a special education income tax on gross profits generated in a particular state. Cost-benefit analyses should include potential savings which accrue to society by virtue of support

20 A proposal brought before the Study Commission, not as yet tried, is that pre-service and in-service teachers might receive credit coupons worth a stated dollar value (equal to a predetermined cost of training an individual per year) to be spent on training provided by a recognized agency in the state whose program is consonant with local school district or culture district plans for staff development. Or, the sum total of money available might be allocated on a cooperative financing basis to a consortium of LEA's, teacher centers, or a combination of groups forming the training organization. The consortium could then allocate the funds at a cost per teacher to different components of the training process or to a subcontracted group.
for better teaching savings which are reflected in lower costs for prison programs, dropout programs, job training programs, etc. Recall the School Administrators' recommendations in question VIII.

The governance body will have to deal with not only organizing and distributing funds but with federal, state and local agencies' attitudes toward fund equalization and allocation. In a teacher surplus time, monies for teacher education may be scarce if the public perceives the issue as one of "putting more money into an oversupplied system of teacher education." There are, however, many community locations for trained personnel which could absorb the seriously-interested teacher trainees (the four-of-ten students that research indicates are seriously interested in teaching), so that funding agencies can be approached on several bases: (1) that they should (while training centers are reducing numbers of pre-service teachers through counseling) maintain funds at present levels of purchasing power to allow for start-up resources for "community-school teacher training centers"; (2) that they should provide additional funds to redirect teacher education into communities and to develop people for new community-based school and non-school roles at the pre-service level while in-service people are placed in a variety of community systems as part of revitalizing relations between school and community systems, under the auspices of federal programs such as Career Education. Funds once attracted—whether Teacher Corps, Career Education, Title I teacher education or state funds—must be channeled into the school district or culture district in ways which will permit permanent community parity in cost of budgeting, without undercutting general societal support or the will to allocate most resources to critical need areas. In this connection, state equalization decisions as follow-up to Serrano may be helpful. Recall question X preceding and the comments on funding: financial support may be difficult to initiate, as in the case of the provisions of the Ryan Bill in California, where no funds for staffing or release time for involved staff were allocated in the law, which nonetheless asked for development of closer relationships between IHE's and communities, with community advisory boards to be established, in processes of teacher credentialling program development. Governance bodies may have a tough row to hoe to get programs started—to get the financial cooperation with IHE's going.

XIV. Given IHE-LEA-community commitment to cooperation in a decentralized teacher education governance process centered in an identifiable "culture district" or other identifiable community or neighborhood district, what kind of devices would be used to keep the IHE-school-community parts together either permanently or until new cohesive institutions emerged?

The kinds of interlocking between these groups which would result in the production of school-community-educated teachers would depend in part on the kind of teacher education structures or relationships in use before changes began. The original relationships or structures might be: (1) an IHE-"practice teaching arrangement" with a school (the IHE remains responsible for the production of the teacher and the school is basically only the incubator or foster mother of the fledgling teacher); (2) a local school district's in-service program, where it is up to the LEA to develop its own varyingly satisfactory methods of increasing the serviceability of its teachers; (3) a teacher center for pre-service and in-service teachers, whether teacher union-sponsored, state-sponsored, or "alternative organization"-sponsored; (4) community teacher education responsibility group, such as a PAC (Parent Advisory Council) group, or a community-control group or board or a "citizen-participation-in-education" group. Alternative structures to these could bring more groups concerned with the education of teachers into the act together, increasing both the material and skilled human resources available to train teachers. One alternative would be the contract, where the institution having the prime certifying and recertifying responsibility for the training of teachers would contract with
other groups for the education of pre- and in-service teachers. An LEA, for instance, would be able to contract with private citizens (individuals or groups), university faculty, teachers unions, school personnel and/or consultants to do the technical and critical education. Northwestern University's School of Education provides a structure near this model: the University enters into a written contract with a school or school system to provide school-based experiences (clinical experiences, internship experiences) for teacher trainees. Each school involved in the contracting has its own agreement with Northwestern, insuring more local self-determination of the training and individual types of training among LEA's.

A second alternative is the school-bound structure, where after the required IHE courses on-campus, the student transfers completely to a school or school system for education course work and clinical experiences. Communication continues between the IHE and the school system because both classroom teachers and university faculty share assignments for in-school education of the trainees; however, the training process is fully off-campus and the school is the teaching center, since it affords an opportunity to maximize the availability of children, classrooms as sites of direct experience, teachers as methodologists and theory instructors, and community resources—all at the same time. A secondary school example of a school-bound program is the previously mentioned Portland Urban Teacher Education Project (PUTEP) based at John Adams High School in Portland and associated with Oregon State (which continues to be the certifying institution). Intern teachers spend twelve months in practicum work and seminars twice weekly at Adams; they also teach during this year at schools in Portland. Neither they nor the supervisors and teacher trainers are required to be in residence at Oregon State: the practicum experiences and seminars are community- and school-based.

A third alternative structure is the consortium, a union or partnership between IHE's and LEA's for teacher education, such a union being in the form of a non-profit corporation of interested parties, or perhaps one based on a fiduciary arrangement. The consortium may be jointly staffed, i.e., groups of education faculty members from IHE's align themselves together cooperatively to blur the lines between their education programs and to provide an inter-IHE team approach to teacher education. Or, each constituent institution in the consortium (IHE's and LEA's) may provide at least one school-based alternative program different from those of the other participating members, and students from the participating institutions have the opportunity for choices from among the programs, for a variety of experiences geared towards a specific area in education. This format would work for a system of state colleges or universities which allow students to transfer easily between institutions; it could also exist within an urban-suburban setting with LEA and IHE cooperation. A third kind of consortium would have institutions responsible for one or more specialties or interest areas in technical education. Students would receive the degree from the chosen parent institution but have the opportunity to take necessary course work for licensing for their specialty from a cooperating IHE or other training unit. Five colleges in Massachusetts (University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Hampshire, Mt. Holyoke and Smith) form a consortium similar to this; students may register at one school and for no extra charge take classes at another.

Teacher centers are a fourth structural alternative, i.e., independent non-profit corporations whose governing boards are selected individually from among groups interested in teacher education. Teacher centers presently existing are mostly geared toward in-service, and only occasionally a college instructor or cooperating teacher introduces trainees to what centers can give in the way of technical expertise, planning-and-materials resources, and as a place for workshops, seminars, and just rapping among themselves. LEA's could utilize centers for training and certification of education personnel; centers should not be totally sponsored by IHE's, however, but rather by all the
groups involved in training—the LEA, teachers, community, plus the IHE. The Advisory and Learning Exchange in the District of Columbia is an independent center that works cooperatively with IHE’s and LEA’s in the District. It provides a variety of resources, workshops, and courses for credit without having to be tied to an institution. It has been described as a broker in the exchange of information on education. The relationship with the D.C. Public Schools is an informal/formal one, since some of the staff are on leave from the system; the system accepts work done at the Advisory for in-service credit; and it pays salaries of on-leave teachers. Most of the funding comes from foundations, public schools, and industries. As an independent body, the Advisory can get materials needed for teachers quicker, since it “does not have the bureaucratic red tape of a school system,” and it can offer longer hours of accessibility than a school building-based unit.

The Teacher Center in Minneapolis, another “broker for exchange of information,” is available for both pre-service and in-service teachers and is jointly funded by the Minneapolis Public Schools and the University of Minnesota.

All of these structure alternatives, again, stress maximum cooperation among parties concerned in teacher education, while they also pay attention to what each group can immediately offer to the structure. Thus; at least to begin with, the IHE’s will continue to provide the assessment, the LEA’s the sites for the education of teachers, and the teaching profession and the communities cooperation and expertise. All of the alternatives have in mind a commitment on the part of all concerned parties to decentralization, to personalization of teacher education, and to smaller units of students educated in a certain program at a certain time. (Some commentators have suggested that undergraduate teacher education programs be decentralized and reduced in size so that each alternative in a large institution would have from 125 to 250 students.)

XV. How would the recruitment of new teachers be done in a school-community-based teacher education scheme?

The Carnegie Commission statistics on undergraduate teacher trainees suggest that we are not getting the best students as teacher candidates, whether “the best” implies “the most intellectual,” “the most satisfied with their training and their profession,” “the most flexible in attitudes toward minority cultures and their problems,” “the most attuned to cultural pluralism,” or “the least authoritarian and most attuned to the life of the clients of their profession.” We cannot be sure yet whether matters of public policy, such as integration or separation of schools and the use of busing, should be central to recruiting, training, and certifying of teachers; for one thing public policy is shifting, and we cannot afford to take a dogmatic stand. But members of the Study Commission’s School Administrators Committee (who say that “great city” schools are coming to the place where they will not automatically hire IHE graduates if those graduates are inadequate) contend that if they, as community-school-oriented administrators, could “just get good people,” they could do the teacher training, or at least in some way encourage the “good” candidates to be “good” teachers. This expresses both dissatisfaction with the way things are—the kinds of people the teaching profession gets and the state of their education and attitudes when the IHE’s (the traditional teacher-training institutions) turn them out—and a realistic, constructive, personalized approach to the problem: “Let us, the community, recruit people in our areas to serve our areas (or areas like ours), or let us recruit people already in training to shift the emphases of their training so that they learn to respond to our communities and their stimuli.”

Who would do recruitment? and of whom? Probably practicing teachers are the most important teacher recruiters at this time, consciously or unconsciously influencing students—whether to teach their juniors informally or to go into career teaching to emulate their teachers or to act in
opposition to their methods or attitudes. In school-community-based teacher education, not only would the in-school teachers function in a recruiting capacity, but also the IHE faculty working in the schools, as adjunct faculty, theoretical advisors, researchers, onlookers, or whatever; and the recruiting would be a little more overt than before. Children and parents and community people who possess certain skills and can teach them, in a school which flows into and is involved with the community (like a “without walls” school), can be recruited to teach by the faculty and can themselves recruit from among each other’s groups and from among the “official teaching groups” for specialized matters or skills desirable to the community. (See also the “process” question, XVII following, on the flexibility of selection of “teachers” in school-community-based education.) The governance board may again be important in the area of recruitment; it may be a screening filter through which pass recommendations of in-service school and IHE faculty, students, community people, parents, “outsiders,” for filling various teaching tasks seen as relevant to the community. This kind of multi-group- (including community-) influenced selection process should inevitably and ideally result in fewer complaints from both administrators and communities that teachers hired and teaching are inappropriate to and bad for a particular community.

What we have just been emphasizing is recruitment of trained personnel or skilled community people for jobs the community deems necessary to undertake, jobs perhaps outside of or in addition to more “traditional” education. Persons recruited for these jobs would probably need some sort of short exposure to the teacher center or other community-based teacher education structure before entering the classroom. The “other” kind of recruitment involves getting untrained or partly-trained people (whether young or older people from the community, people from outside the community or culture area, or partly-trained teacher education candidates from other teacher education programs—like IHE’s) into a full-fledged certification-granting IHE-and-local-based teacher education program. In its recruitment process, the teacher education program would have to provide a clear description of what it could do, its program alternatives and methods, its philosophical stance and size, and the kinds of opportunities offered to a candidate. The governance board would codify such descriptions with input from the training staff and the community, and from similarly classified institutions across district or state lines (cf. question XII on districting taxonomy). This kind of recruitment might be done more at the level of the IHE associated with the school-community-based teacher education program because of its facilities for communication over a wider area and with students in teacher education programs there and elsewhere, whereas the recruitment of skilled persons for some community-based jobs would take place logically in the community.

One model of a recruitment process connected to Title VII would be the following: given a good job description, followed by a continuing process whereby—as the student advanced in his undergraduate work—the fulfillment of the criteria was judged by professionals and by parents as part of the counseling-in or -out process. Finally, at the first hiring and preliminary licensing stage, professionals and parents, both looking at the person on paper and also conducting an interview session, would collaborate. St. Paul, Minnesota, has provided the following example of movement in the direction of the process described:

We are hiring a bilingual school psychologist for the Chicano kids of the Chicano section of the city. And we had all of these people interviewed—those who have the credentials—by a committee from that neighborhood. Incidentally, they interviewed for all the parents. We informed the prospective candidates at the time that their interview was going to be in Spanish with the idea that some of the candidates might not feel qualified to do an interview in Spanish. No one failed to appear for the interview. The community has reported back to me saying, “We like these three—and like this one the best.” My reaction to that is to contact [the] Personnel [Department]. I tell them that, unless
they have a compelling reason for not hiring the one the community wanted, or named number one, that they must hire number one. We should be very careful about changes in the recruiting, counseling, licensing and hiring business. On the other hand, I am telling my staff, "Unless you have a compelling reason why we shouldn't hire this guy, you must hire him."  

XVI. How would the recruitment and the education of administrators be done?

All questions and recommendations stated in this report about teacher training also apply to administrative training. At present the national school administrators pool mostly consists of persons who get an advanced education degree with an eye toward "moving up" to administration in their school or persons who specifically take advanced degrees in school administration. The Carnegie Survey statistics as analyzed by the Study Commission suggest again that this college group is perhaps not the best that could be amassed for administrators of the schools and combined IHE-LEA-community systems that educate our children and will, increasingly, educate their teachers. The pre-administrator group of graduate students surveyed (1970 candidates for advanced school administration degrees) seem somewhat more authoritarian, more against change as change, and more prone to disregard problems of non-mainstream cultures than some other student groups. For example, of this group only 39 per cent believed that blacks rather than whites should control black de facto segregated schools and 66 per cent believed that integration should not be achieved by busing in default of other means. In other words the group tended not to believe in either current federal policy or in community-control even of segregated schools. (Leadership in American Education suggests that school administrators have less faith in people and more faith in the force of institutions than all other administrative types.)

The Carnegie statistics suggest the need for recruitment, of those administrators who go through a student stage, according to stated public policy (although a problem is that this is not static) or else a need for court statements that this kind of policy is not relevant to recruiting.

The way recruiting is working now, we are getting administrators who tend to be neither involved enough in the problems, aims, and goals of real communities nor flexible enough to deal with all the diverse groups and relationships involved in school-community-based teacher education. For school-community-based teacher education to work however, we argue that administrators need to be recruited for jobs and into training programs who have or can develop an interest in making their style, attitudes, and knowledge flexible, if they are to become flexible staff development people. They need also to be persons interested in change in education procedures and structures, since nearly every study of educational change suggests that it requires the collaboration of administrators. The most visible and powerful administrators, the principals, need to get back into classrooms, and they need to be people who can do this—they need to become again "principal teachers," working alongside teachers in classes, helping them on the spot with problems and helping develop curricula while in close touch with kids as teachers, not as disciplinarians—the present view kids have of principals. Principals have to lead but be flexible in leading, and they need to

21 Comment made by George Young, St. Paul superintendent. Many other school districts, often because of the guidelines of a federal program, have involved parents and communities in the hiring of teachers and administrators, and as a result, have worked out elaborate procedures for hiring.

abandon the cuing they now give teachers—in the role of behind-the-desk disciplinarians. Teachers seem to learn this kind of disciplinary role from principals.

Recruitment in school-community-based teacher education systems should also be arranged to give us administrators who wish not to alienate schools and communities but who wish to bring the school into the community and the community into the school—to make the school an integral, vital, liked part of the community—and administrators are people who have to be involved in such efforts if they are to succeed.

The same groups that are represented on the governance board of an IHE-LEA (or community school)-community-based teacher education system should have a say in recruiting administrators who are appropriate to the goals and aims of the school, the community, and the particular teacher education system developed by the community. Administrators now seem to be recruited in two ways: one, they go back to school and take school administration courses to receive a degree that will “fit” them as administrators; two, they are recruited inside the school system or across local school system boundaries to fill specific vacancies on a temporary or emergency basis with temporary certification as administrators—the assumption usually being that they will later work toward a permanent level of certification. The general public seems to have no input in recruiting persons for the positions of highest trust in the education of their children and the continuing education and guidance of teachers. IHE’s at present seem to have little input either, except through the bulletins of their education colleges, which may influence would-be administrators to enroll in programs. Recruiting within schools seems at present to be the function of the superintendent, who identifies a person who “can fill a vacancy,” who is then “ratified” by the board of education and central office of the system as an administrator. This sort of recruitment to administration is much too narrowly-based for anything like a school-community-based teacher education plan. Moreover, if and when this kind of recruitment includes formal testing procedures, they may be increasingly ruled invalid under the Mercado decision and the Griggs decision.

Research suggests that advanced IHE educational administration course work—amassing more credit hours—does not contribute to leadership in principals. This argues for a broader-based approach to training administrators. The traditional hour-accumulating may not be as necessary as more field-based training—such as administration candidates in business receive. The research suggests that sites of administrator training might better be out in the communities where the principals work and that trainers might again include community people knowledgeable in the goals of the community, in the myth and folk history of the community, and in what makes it bleed and heal.

Recruitment and retraining of administrators really go hand in hand, since most administrators are already certified as practicing teachers. In school-community-based teacher education, the recruitment of administrator... might well include a commitment to a community internship as a training device, or to practice in problem-solving in the community and school one wishes to work in. Such clinical work could be offered at a teacher center or other education structure and could be overseen by the community governance board.

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23 This procedure probably contributes to statistical findings, reported in Leadership in Public Education Study, that administrators tend not to be geographically mobile and to get the experience that accompanies mobility—that many of them go to college and pursue their careers in the same state where they grew up.
XVII. How would teachers be educated and reeducated in community-school teacher education centers?

The area of "process" in teacher education has to do with getting teacher trainees and in-service teachers through a program and into their field-school component. This movement includes the difficulties of the "rites of passage," the correlation of technical and critical learning and the integration of theoretical learning and clinical learning experiences.

There is evidence from the Carnegie survey that prospective teachers value field and clinical work of every kind, and the School Administrators Committee has agreed that it wants diversified "immersive" field experience for teacher trainees, not as a "hobby" alongside classes but having equal importance in the student's program with class hours. The stress of the movement from IHE to school experiences should not be minimized, however; nor should the stress of the movement from home environment to that of the IHE, where the home environment is not a "mainstream culture" one. Teacher training has to make the trainee a part of not just the IHE community and not just the community of his LEA experiences, but of an integrated cooperative combination of these; this means that the IHE needs to be tuned in to the communities and cultures of the students who come for teacher training. It means, for instance, that a Chicano or Navajo trainee needs to be able to do some of his IHE work in Spanish or Navajo to avoid during training some of the problems of alienation from the home culture (to which the student may wish to return for school-based experiences and teaching). On the other hand, it means that suburban Anglo students wishing to work in low-income black communities need help with stressful situations resulting from their not knowing this type of community as well. The people of communities must be able to give cultural input into programs of teacher education to minimize stress for student trainees whom the communities can expect to be working with them in clinical and teaching situations. The students and in-service teachers must be able to share something of the life-chances of the community to be able to understand what goes on within a community and thence to be able to serve the community. The person who wishes to enter teacher training to go into a community "to be a missionary there" (that is, to reshape the community's aspirations and sense of direction according to his/her own views without attending to the community's own aspirations and sense of direction) should probably be counseled out of the field experience.

Study of "theory" needs to be structured so as to build on direct experiences—using theory to illuminate, synthesize and perhaps correct practice. Prior to having full responsibility in a classroom, the trainee will have not only theory which helps him to comprehend and understand what is happening in the school and community, but also opportunities to observe and participate in school-based reality. Thus he/she may be able to bridge the gap between theory and practice and to broaden technical and critical understanding. Theory courses in the Arts and Sciences would have to be oriented to classroom situations in order to remain part of the licensing sequence. The direct involvement of the Arts and Sciences instructor in the school setting would demonstrate the application of a specific theory to the community-school experience.

Process "models" will differ for communities and the structures they select for their teacher

24 An exciting example of bridging the gap between theory and practice was given in the Study Commission's book, The University Can't Train Teachers (Lincoln, Nebraska, 1972, pp. 66-68): a doctor at Boston City Hospital has an informal learning research program for young people interested in medical research. The doctor, Gary Huber, and his assistants help young volunteers to combine reading research literature and understanding terminology ... with ... responsible, often original, laboratory research. In some cases they arrange for outside schooling.
Some programs could begin with abstract or theoretical course work and move into clinical experiences. Other programs would start with clinical experiences before introducing abstract theory—which will then be supplemented by more clinical work. A third possibility would bring together abstract and experiential learning. Each approach arranges the experiences and course work so that there is an acquisition of the technical and critical skills. For all of these models mentioned, some concepts are basic: more time in clinical experiences and an earlier entry into school-community situations; a better relationship between abstract and clinical learning experiences; and continued support mechanisms to create an ongoing “process” of education through the teacher’s career.

The college-clinic-internship model gets the trainee out into the schools for clinical experience in at least his/her third year (of a four-year program); the student observes and works for a year or a year and a half and then chooses where to take a year or half-year internship. The Northwestern University School of Education Tutorial-Clinical Program substantially follows this plan; Center for Inner City Studies in Chicago is similar but also emphasizes internship work with community centers and agencies and not just schools. The intern in CICS prepares an evaluative report after his semester with a community agency, and then goes into full-time work in school and community. Indiana University’s Rural Education Center Project at Loogootee, Indiana, sounds like a very promising example of this or a similar process. Trainees spend a semester in the Loogootee schools student teaching and working with community agencies as interns. They are observed by an on-site coordinator from the IHE who also conducts seminars to help them learn the community’s wants, goals, and problems.

The internship-clinic-college model gives clinical experience prior to theoretical or abstract learning about a profession, beginning with a summer session of opportunities to work in educational situations with adults and children. Along with these experiences goes a sequence on learning and society, using general examples and individual cases germane to the neighborhood. This model is especially useful for older individuals who want to become certified but have had to work full time as aides or paraprofessionals to make a living. In this case, the summer session could be followed by a year’s internship, with the student assuming increased responsibility for a classroom. The PUTEP situation, for instance, benefits older and minority persons with a large number of credit hours who need the school and student teaching experiences to obtain a license; interns spend a full year at the school without going to the college campus. This model can also be spread out over a longer period of time, with clinical experiences early and late. The Antioch Law School has a similar program; students are exposed from the beginning to the involvement and commitment of being a lawyer in a community among real people and problems, not only Appellate Court decisions. (After some clinical experiences, future lawyers study Appellate cases as examples and compare them to actual pending cases, but the idea of “textbook” law is avoided, if possible.) Whereas teacher education in the past has given theoretical course work for two to three years prior to any exposure and work in the classroom, this process model reverses the sequence, basing the learning on the clinical experiences which help identify for the learner the needs of a teacher. Many students of teacher education have argued that theory in teacher education has too often meant little because the student has no teaching experiences with which to frame it. The older argument of course is that people need theory before they go into the practical situation. The crucial question is, “Does the theory permit that teacher-to-be to reshape school-community reality to any appreciable degree?”

The internship-college-interaction model uses the notion that abstract and clinical experiences can be offered side by side. This is not so different from the preceding models, except that it requires a finer meshing of theory and praxis. In this model, every education course taken by a student will have coordinated school-community experiences, beginning with observations and moving toward participation in the classroom . . . the amount and timing of the participation being determined by cooperating teachers, supervisors, parents, and students in consultation. This group
will also decide when it is appropriate for student teaching to begin and how long it needs to last, to "perfect" technical and critical skills.

Rural models: The models discussed have been primarily developed in urban areas. Rural areas, where accessibility is a problem, require centers where both pre-service and in-service participants can come, possibly one day a week to obtain course work required for certification and to gain better technical and critical skills. The training staff during the other days might go out to the schools. Summers during the program and a half year at the end of the program might be spent collecting theoretical and synthesizing skills. This should be the time one would fulfill the institution’s residency requirements for a degree. This type of program would appeal to persons already living in a rural area who wish to become teachers. However, it could also be used to train city people who wish to teach in a rural area and have already fulfilled most IHE-type requirements for a degree. Because of the environmental differences in rural areas and on Indian reservations, it probably makes sense that a teacher-to-be from an urban area spend a full year prior to student teaching in the field so as to make sure he/she is willing to live under these conditions. If not, he/she should have the opportunity to change his/her mind and take a different student teaching assignment or training area.

This type of program is being used to train native Navajo teachers. The Universities of New Mexico and Arizona with the Navajo Division of Education have developed cooperative field sites to train persons who have full-time educational jobs in BIA schools but do not hold teaching licenses. The UNM project has two bases of operation from which a staff member travels to BIA school field sites to observe and help the participants and where classes are offered to help in the content areas such as math, science, and English; there is also an active bilingual component to this program. To be a participant one has to have a certain number of credit hours already in order to be able to complete the degree in the program’s two years (a summer’s IHE residence and a year student teaching).

Several things must be done to make any one of the previous "process" models work well. The governance group will be important here again.

First, the sequencing and coordination of students’ course work and classroom experiences have to be planned by both institutional staff and the classroom teachers to harmonize with the needs of classroom and community.

Second, the cooperating teacher or staff has to be carefully selected and rewarded. Some states require that districts be paid for the teachers' involvement in the program, but that teachers can receive nothing. In some of the Teacher Corps projects and in Northwestern's Tutorial-Clinical Program, the benefit for participating teachers has been free credit hours at the university, but few teachers use these hours and when they do it is more to build hours for degrees or better contracts than for "better teaching." For the most part, the cooperating teachers have seen themselves as petty bosses being used by the system, and their students or interns as extra hands, not as extra teachers. There must be training for prospective cooperating teachers, too, prior to their taking students; many cooperating teachers in the Teacher Corps projects visited said that they did not understand their purpose in the program and they were already into the second year of the program. A problem in many of the Teacher Corps projects was a lack of stability in schools and teachers; each year or so the school site and the staff changed, necessitating new training. This part of the process needs to be carefully refined to the benefit of all parties.

Third, the "process" must control student placement in the school and community settings; in the past, IHE’s and teacher associations have had little control of student placement for pre-service training. Only for short-term experiences in some courses has the instructor controlled the
placement; usually, it is the principal who has control. Even in the Teacher Corps projects visited, there was little "quality control" of intern placement. In some of the COP programs, a few participants field "side positions"—not relevant to their education; some aides were hall monitors and spent no time in the classroom. The problem of "control" is also important in the relation of the pre-service teacher's philosophical bent, or that of the course work being taken, to that of the school: a student taking a Piagetian theory session may need open-classroom work; a teacher taking "methods in community or fieldwork" has to have in-community experience, and so on.

**Fourth,** and relatedly, the placement of the student must be student-centered and community-responsive. During the trying period of adjustment, new teachers need support from both building teachers and the higher education staff members. One anti-shock device might be to place individuals in settings with which their developing style, philosophies, and interest-in-change dovetail. However, given today's market in many places, that is not too feasible. A taxonomy of like schools, districts, and jobs would be necessary in order to extend this principle. Another alternative is to encourage paid internships in prospective school districts or culture districts to help new teachers adapt before becoming full-fledged teachers.

The Urban Education Center in Louisville provides support to new teachers in the public school system in the form of training in "need areas" identified by previous new teachers. The program utilizes field resource teachers, university professors and other district personnel, and the course work is applicable to an M.Ed. degree from the University of Louisville.

**Fifth,** the process must include support mechanisms for in-service teachers, for there is a definite need for follow-up work with not only the new but also the long-time teacher. A natural support mechanism exists in school-community-based teacher education with the presence of training personnel in schools, clusters, or centers. The teacher centers seen during the site visits provided an excellent central location with ample resources to begin the support process for both pre- and in-service teachers.

Another important part of the support mechanisms process is planning time: classroom teachers, aides, and prospective teachers all need time to plan the activities for the room or team group. The support to do this must either be in terms of time off for teachers during school hours or less time in school for the students. The open space component of Webb Elementary School in Washington, D.C. convenes school four and one-half days per week and allows Thursday afternoon as a time for group planning by teachers of the next week's work. Such planning provides time to organize the experiences and responsibilities of the prospective teachers in relation to their course work, and participants believe the gains for children offset classroom time "lost."

**Sixth,** the community must be a primary training site. School-community-based teacher education should be based on an understanding of the surrounding community's resources and their importance to the continual development of teachers' technical and critical skills. Members of the community have to be actively utilized to acquaint the teacher with the community, and with its views on education. Moreover, the process of school-community-based education offers community people the opportunity to take part in courses and workshops, to understand better what is taking place in their children's classrooms, and to be able to help teach. (Research suggests that, after all, teachers with traditional training and skilled laymen with no "education courses" can produce about equal results in teaching children.) It is imperative that the community be involved in all processes of the education of teachers, and that they know that innovation and change in education can be positive assets.
Seventh, the process must lead to a process for validating and revalidating the teacher's right to teach in a particular district or culture, with particular children at a specific age level and imparting specific information (as described earlier). Under law, anything required for licensing will have to contribute predictively to competence to hold a job.

XVIII. How would community-school teacher education centers be staffed?

All through this document we have been, to some extent, discussing staffing—emphasizing that IHE faculty need to play more active roles in community-based facilities for educating teachers, that in-service teachers' roles in pre-service and in-service teacher education need to be revitalized, and that community people need to play a much stronger part in training prospective teachers. We can now pull these notions together into some “staffing models.”

All of the three mentioned groups concerned with teacher education have expressed dissatisfaction with their traditional roles. Classroom teachers feel overlooked and underestimated as trainers, when it is their classrooms where trainees receive their experience—sometimes their only pre-certification experience. Classroom teachers feel that IHE training faculty lack current understanding of school realities and that this lack causes inconsistencies and gaps in theory, content, method, and psychology courses offered to students prior to clinical experiences. College education teachers believe that the role of student teachers is misunderstood in the practice classrooms—that the interns are given busywork to do instead of classroom responsibilities; IHE faculty members also express concern about the cooperating or “master teachers” in training programs: the “model” offered to the student too often seem incompetent or they contradict the perspective presented by the theoretician.

Community people increasingly want recognition as persons having something to contribute to the education process. They want the opportunity to validate their competence to teach children in schools the skills they need in community life, and to have authority to instruct prospective teachers in these same skills and about the life chances of the community, as part, of the trainees' required program of study in school-community-based teacher education centers. The “alien” teacher, the teacher teaching in a new culture, needs to learn the culture of the area and to work within its system of behaviors, values, linguistic usages, etc.

There are a variety of staffing relationships which can expand experiences available to prospective and classroom teachers. The cooperating teacher may be the primary expert clinical trainer, after or coincident with the trainee’s IHE theory sequence. Responsibility for the coordination of curriculum and experiences would be shared by teachers at one school or by a teaching team from a cluster of schools. Someone designated by the teaching group would teach theory, perhaps in the form of a seminar or coordinated module developed by teachers. This type of staffing most easily fits into the subcontract structure, since a teachers' union, a group of schools, or a district could organize to train a group of teachers, using their own staffs or hiring other necessary personnel. This alignment would also fit the school-bound structure, once a majority of the professional courses were completed at the IHE or teacher center.

To some extent, the University Without Walls at Berkeley employs this type of staffing, since the cooperative teachers involved in the program develop the “courses,” along with Herb Kohl and Cynthia Brown. All of the participants are actively working in the schools; some of them are teaching full-time but lack certificates.
Staffing of a flexible nature could also be accomplished through a subcontracting structure, with the group hiring skilled individuals whom they felt reliable and necessary in the training of teachers. These could be community people, practicing teachers, university professors, administrators, lawyers, writers, and others. A teacher center might utilize this approach in hiring workshop leaders, guest speakers, or community teacher trainers, and this kind of arrangement would get the community into the training process.

A closer relationship between the IHE and the school is another alternative. Here the IHE would offer the theory courses, which could include school-community-based experiences and utilize teachers and community people as guest instructors. Near the end of the block of professional courses, the primary role for training would shift to the practicing teacher, who has the responsibility for supervision and teaching. In the schools, the IHE and school faculty (with IHE rank) would be participants in consultant services, decision making, professional seminars and workshops, design, coordination, and implementation of programs. Such a model would easily fit the teacher center and consortium structures. Northwestern University’s School of Education “Tutorial-Clinical Program of Teacher Education” stipulates this type of staffing in many of their memoranda of agreement with schools or districts; IHE and LEA staffs work together with prospective and classroom teachers.

Another staffing model gives larger in-school training responsibility to the IHE faculty—the IHE places a coordinator in the school and IHE faculty teach theory courses and examine clinical work. They teach technical skills to prospective teachers and refresher courses to in-service teachers. The classroom teacher becomes more a resource person and has the subtle role of conditioning and acculturating the prospective teacher to the classroom; he/she also helps coordinate the clinical experiences with the ongoing course material and requirements. This model exists in the District of Columbia Teachers College (DCTC) and Howard University programs, which have a large portion of new-teacher training based in schools—often open space schools, based on a structure which has been beneficial in the D.C. public school system. DCTC and Howard have school-based coordinators who provide technical expertise in areas of need identified by teachers. College students have classes in the school building, offered by college faculty, but they get a great deal of the practical training from the classroom teacher or team. The Indiana University cooperative project with the Loogootee, Ind., Community School Corporation has an IHE on-site coordinator one day a week who observes trainees’ progress; confers with parents, administrators, citizens, teachers, students (a kind of informal school-community-based governance arrangement), and helps the trainees learn and relate to the community.

To ensure that the values of the communities to be served and their children are respected, a community component needs to be a part of any training staff and community representatives need to serve as ongoing liaison personnel to help in curriculum development, resources acquisition, in-service aid, and teaching—where their competencies represent the real authority of the community and culture. Teacher training ought to rely much more on people who embody a culture; the question is how to identify these people. Selection of Navajo people to teach Navajo to children in New Mexico had to rely on a certain consensus of opinion; it may be that sometimes teacher staffing groups must rely on “faith” in trainer selection. Whether trainers are Ph.D.’s or holy people on reservations or someone in a position of power in a community (and these people are not to be left out automatically in favor of the powerless—knowing a community means knowing the power structure, too) their selection requires validation under the EEOC guidelines of skills possessed and skills to be transmitted. Federal projects such as Teacher Corps and COP have community components and coordinators who are supposed to develop and establish a community involvement program, but rarely does there seem to be any real relationship drawn between community
experiences, coursework, and the classroom to help the prospective and in-service teachers synthesize the material into a useful package. Community staff faculty members could help construct such a synthesis. Part of the community staff development component ought to consist of community aides and paraprofessionals working in classrooms, while part would provide the children with real life skills valued in the community. Indiana University's project might again be mentioned; the seminars on the community include such persons as the Youth Center director and probation officer, and police personnel, who can give the trainees real information on the workings and the problems of the community.

The teacher center provides another staffing model for training pre- and in-service teachers. Staff for centers may be teachers on leave from a local district (two-year terms) or former teachers who have been outstanding in a special area of teaching or supervision. The training and funding institutions and client groups select the staff, who must have specific specialized skills in core areas as well as knowledge of other areas, such as music, art, shop; otherwise the center must have access to experts, consultants, and advisors to meet the expressed needs of teachers and community people. This may mean the utilization of university personnel, corporate, business, professional people, crafts people, bears of the primary expressive culture and the general community. The Advisory and Learning Center and MITEC have utilized former classroom teachers and teachers on leave for their core staff. The Advisory offers workshops by persons brought in specifically for their expertise, since they offer a wide variety of workshops for teachers.

Present accrediting and program approval practices virtually require that those charged with the education of teachers possess graduate degrees. However, such requirements are suspect; they have not been validated for effect on prospective teachers or students. (Nor have the programs proposed in this document.) The legal requirements described herein as being applicable to teachers in the schools are equally applicable to those charged with training teachers; they strongly suggest that present reliance on advanced degrees as bona fide occupational qualifications is unwarranted. Instead: (1) validation of requirements for teacher trainers should begin with exposition of the needs for teachers and teachers in a specific community or region; (2) then, the kinds of skills, knowledge, and competence that appear to be necessary to prepare teachers for that culture district, community, or region must be detailed; (3) development of specific and detailed job descriptions for teacher trainers and preparation of initial criteria for selection of such personnel are necessary; (4) the validation of the skills, knowledge, and competence that appeared necessary for each role that emerged from (2) and (3) is entailed here, and further, a detailed assessment is required of whether the staff benignly influences the achievement and well-being of the persons participating in the teacher education program; (5) finally, procedures must be developed for assessing prospective and in-service teacher trainers against the criteria developed as a consequence of (1) through (4) above. A teacher-teacher trainer having validated skills of the sort described above would command a higher salary than a conventional classroom teacher not having the skills.
CATALOGUE OF EXAMPLES
(drawn from site visits)

The following discussion is provided to give administrators interested in school-community-based teacher education opportunities to look at facets of what is proposed. The models listed may not, when this booklet is published, still include the features described. On the other hand, some may have expanded their programs to serve a larger population or to improve their training processes and services.

Governance

In the area of governance boards that include more parties concerned with teacher education, Fordham University developed a parity board to govern its TTT project, which included eighteen voting members—six each from the community (from corporations), school system (two from the local superintendent's office, two principals, two teachers), and the university (two administrators, two faculty, two students representing liberal arts and education). The MIT/C board in West Virginia coordinates pre-service teacher education programs with representatives from participating IHE's, students, and public school systems of the counties participating. In a small program in a small geographical area, governance can work smoothly. Herb Kohl and Cynthia Brown contracted to do the teacher training for the UWW-Berkeley, and the governance arrangement is between a private group, an IHE, and a public school within an LEA. The small size of the program allows decision making to be personal and informal and to involve a maximum number of the participants in the program.

Financing

In the question on financing, we mentioned the dual budget system. Another example of this is provided by the Workshop Center for Open Education at City College (New York), which offers technical assistance and workshops to practicing and prospective teachers. City College provides some monies; other primary funding is by foundation and government grants; and in the future the Center may get LEA dollars, since teachers can now receive in-service credit for workshops. As for the single budget model, where a general fund is managed by a cooperative governance structure, Cooperative Urban Teacher Education (CUTE) in Kansas City has used a similar funding concept for a clinical experience program for prospective teachers. IHE's contract with the CUTE program to provide clinical school experiences, paying a fee to CUTE for each student placed. CUTE pays the salaries, develops student teaching sites, organizes the course work, and provides the field support for the student.

Illinois is an example of a state studying proposals for school-community-based teacher education. A proposed Quality Schools Network in Illinois aims to stimulate education renewal, including teacher education, at the local district level. The proposed system of funding provides that: (1) operational costs will be met by local school districts which will remain at the same level as presently in most instances; (2) start-up costs will be assumed by the state; (3) initial planning grants (about $10,000) will be awarded by the state on a competitive basis; (4) staffing planning and development efforts will be supported by the state—this is estimated to cost about $165,000 per affiliate; (5) continued technical assistance is funded on a continuing basis by the state. The proposed state funding would underwrite a maximum of 20 percent of the costs in all areas, including teacher education and reeducation, with a decreasing maximum of 10 percent and 5 percent over the subsequent two years.

Structure

Further examples may also be given for the structure models of question XIV. For the contract model: the University Without Walls at Berkeley contracted with a private corporation, the Center for Open Learning and Teaching, to develop and then implement a teacher credentialing program for UWW. The training is done on a small scale (fifteen students), and the certification process can be completed in one year because the participants are all community people already working full-time in Berkeley schools. The Center for Inner City Studies of
Northeastern Illinois State University also fits the subcontract type structure: students who wish to major in Inner City Studies spend much of their time in the south side of Chicago doing required work on a community agency project. Thus an agency, community center, or satellite plant based in the community and having an orientation to that community has assumed responsibility through a subcontract with an IHE to train teachers by using field experiences. Two Washington, D.C. universities, District of Columbia Teacher College (DCTC) and Howard University, provide an on-site teacher training program which is very close to the school-bound structure. Each site school provides the university with space to conduct formal education classes, which are in turn coordinated with practical work of the prospective teachers. The training process is fully off-campus-based and utilizes the school as the teaching center, since it affords an opportunity to maximize the availability of children, classrooms as sites of direct experience, teachers as methodologists and instructors in theory, and community resources. In theory, Teacher Corps and COP projects are all “school-bound,” since the participants are based in the schools as aides and interns. However, COP programs rarely have course work in a school since the aides are spread out over a wide area; Teacher Corps may or may not give course work within a school, depending on the type of institution and the financial strength of the program. There are also several examples of the potential of the consortium model. The Atlanta University complex and several nearby institutions are already involved in a viable consortium for Teacher Corps and COP, sharing faculty resources and promoting flexibility of students taking courses from different institutions. The District of Columbia (including University of Maryland) has the potential to offer similar types of programs and the IHE’s have begun a shared curriculum consortium; a similar situation could unite the CUNY system with the individual school districts throughout New York City. MITEC in Charleston, West Virginia, acts to coordinate student teacher placement in a four-county area for seven institutions; this arrangement provides a possible beginning structure for several model consortia, due to statewide university participation in MITEC. The structure of MITEC also provides potential for subcontracting structure for the education of teachers within a consortium.

Finally, the teacher center could have a significant role in all training of teachers, either as a part of prior structures or as a structure and staff with the active responsibility of training the prospective teacher. The Bay Area Learning Center (BALC) is a cooperative, community-governed, resource-sharing effort on the part of the three large unified school districts of Berkeley, Oakland, and San Francisco. It provides and coordinates inservice and staff development teacher education. Presently BALC has two independent teacher centers—one is in Oakland and the other is the Teacher Learning Center in San Francisco, which offers its own workshops primarily for San Francisco teachers. BALC works with universities to sponsor inservice courses for college credit in the community away from the campuses; there is very little involvement on the part of pre-service students in the centers unless they come on their own initiative. Another Bay Area group, Bay Area Radical Teachers Cooperative (BARTOC), offers still different services. It provides interested teachers with materials of a political nature, not normally available in the public schools, and also offers workshops; BARTOC members also speak at universities about their philosophy of education and the role of education in society.

In Boulder, Colorado, the Mountain View Center is a learning resource center attached to a university (Colorado) which, however, has no formal association with the university’s teacher training program nor the inservice training of the local school system. It tries to work with teachers in classrooms as well as offer concepts and skills workshops in eight- to ten-week afternoon and evening sessions. There is more than enough demand for the technical services of the center’s small staff. Another example of a university-associated school-based center is the Workshop Center for Open Education founded by Lillian Weber at CCNY. It is funded through foundation grants and Title III money, but finally has grown to gain university acceptance and utilization of its resources, so that it not only offers in-service credit to NYC teachers but is now having prospective teachers assigned to it for their training and placement. The center offers a wide variety of workshops but also trains teachers in the concept of open classroom schools. Ann Cook and Herb Mack’s Community Resources Institute provides a similar type of teacher center for secondary teachers from several of the independent school districts of New York for which they are contracted to do staff development. Some teachers are given leaves of absence for a year with pay to study at this center and

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25 The Northwestern Tutorial-Clinical Program also offers an excellent example of a school-based model, since there is a shared responsibility in training and a large portion of the student’s time is spent in schools.
The University of Maryland also has developed a kind of teacher center structure: there is a main resource teacher's lab on the campus for individual prospective and cooperating teachers to use. The University has several clusters of schools which have satellite centers to be used to train prospective teachers as well as to offer in-service support. This system attempts to offer resources in the school when and where they are needed, plus a coordination between the school and the IHE in the teacher training process.

Process

In the area of "process" (question XVII), another example of the college-clinic-internship model is the District of Columbia Teacher Center program, which approximates this model in scheduling of experiences and coursework. The internship-clinic-college model is also exemplified by UWW-Berkeley, which has developed, with the cooperation of the Center for Open Learning and Teaching, a one-year program to certify persons who are already working as teachers but lack certification. The participants take workshops and courses, and student teach in unfamiliar classrooms. The internship-college-interaction model may be exemplified by Teacher Corps projects: because of their time restriction of two years, there was a "coinciding" of clinical experiences with coursework.

Staffing

In the area of staffing (question XVIII), the teacher as primary trainer model is also a part of the Teacher Corps Project at Southern Colorado State, Pueblo, Colorado. This project utilizes the classroom teacher and supplemental staff to supervise and direct the theory-and-practice modules of the interns—although the teachers have very little input in the development of the required modules and competencies, as we would propose that they have. Something like the cooperative IHE-school joint staff model was attempted by the University of Hartford, which offered all cooperative teachers "adjunct faculty" status—but did little beyond that to develop a cooperative staffing model. MITEC (Charleston, West Virginia) had some of its school coordinators on leave working with the faculty of Marshall University (one of the cooperating IHE's), a switch which included "faculty work" and an opportunity to guest lecture. However, this affected few persons and increased IHE-LEA faculty cooperation very little. Teachers Corps project team leaders or supervisors (possibly the cooperating teachers) are ideally in close contact with course instructors to coordinate the interns' experiences with their coursework. However, there is often very little pre-planning or training available to help the participant staff to understand their role in the program in relationship to the goals set in training the Teacher Corps intern. We can also mention several other examples of the teacher center staffing model, where staffs have been built on the basis of experiences, purpose, and need: the Teacher Learning Center, START, Workshop Center for Open Education, Community Resources Institute, and the Teacher Active Learning Center. Many of the workshops at these places are offered by persons brought in specifically for their expertise, since a wide variety of workshops for teachers are offered.
APPENDIX

The following list of persons and projects is the sample of programs used in writing this document. They have been categorized as to type of program. Following it is a list of other individuals who were contacted through the mail or by phone for special information. Many other projects sent us requested material, which is on file at the Study Commission offices.

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