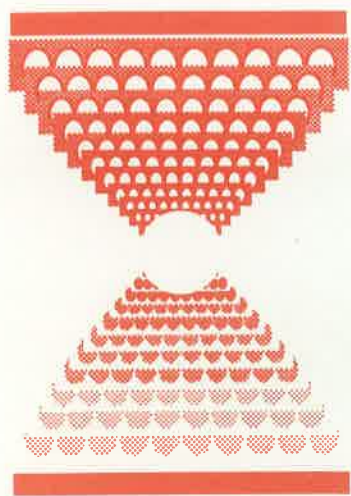




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Rethinking Teacher Education for the Nineties

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RETHINKING TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE NINETIES

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Teacher Preparation: Challenges for the 90s

by Charles E. Stegman

A colleague recently commented that the "Heartbeat of America" is not a Chevrolet, but rather "is education." Certainly the president and the governors, who prepared the National Goals for Education (1990), should agree. In the introduction they state that

American's educational performance must be second to none in the 21st century. Education is central to our quality of life. It is at the heart of our economic strength and security, our creativity in the arts and letters, our invention in the sciences, and the perpetuation of our cultural values.

The idea of centrality permeates current writing about the role of education in America and the continued calls for educational reform.

The current reform movement has been likened to the ocean with new waves descending upon us one after another (Hermanowicz, 1986; Jacobson and Conway, 1990). However, it is not a gentle ocean slowly rearranging the sand on the beach. The reports that make up each wave do not call for the fine tuning of basically good programs, but rather an overhaul of what exists. Some stress that it is not only the K-12 schools that must change, but also the colleges and universities that prepare professional educators.

One of the unique aspects of the present reform movement is that most of the major players are involved. This time around we have the president, governors, state legislatures, the courts, faculty and administrators from leading universities, teachers and leaders from the AFT and NEA, parents, as well as business and corporate leaders

all supporting some aspects of education change. Students are the one set of stakeholders excluded from the discussion thus far and they will need to become involved as schools are changed.

A strength of having this many stakeholders simultaneously involved is that the call for reform is not going to go away quietly. American society cannot afford to give up on our schools and children this time. However, a major problem is that the different stakeholders don't all agree on the aspects of change that are most needed. National goals may be a start, but there is a long way from national rhetoric to the individual educational experiences of each child.

Education faculty often find themselves caught between the limitations imposed by university requirements, state regulations, and societal demands to prepare teachers to assume jobs that require skills far beyond what was needed 10-15 years ago (Chubb and Moe, 1990; Schlechty, 1990). The challenges faculty face are related to positioning their programs today for the changes that will unfold over the next decade. There is great strength in the diversity of programs that exist in state colleges and universities. However, no single institution has the ability to meet all the needs that may be identified by the current reform stakeholders. Therefore, education programs are challenged to reexamine their mission, assess their strengths and weaknesses, and exploit their comparative advantages.

In the remainder of this paper, three key issues that teacher preparation faculty must address will be presented. These issues are important because they deal with how teacher preparation is defined within the university and how

the programs link with the profession. They are also basic components in evaluating programs and exploiting strengths. The first issue deals with the role of teacher preparation within the university.

For most of its history, teacher preparation in the university has been viewed as residing only in colleges/schools of education. Unfortunately, colleges of education enjoyed little esteem or recognition, and education faculty developed programs in isolation from the faculty in arts and science and the other professional colleges.

One of the unique aspects of the present reform movement is that most of the major players are involved.

In this milieu, colleges of education's budgets were easily cut and faculty not replaced when enrollments temporarily dropped and more "prestigious" campus units wanted additional support. Left to their own resources, many colleges of education took five percent cuts year after year and weakened their programs by attrition. Others were faced with major cuts that required reducing large numbers of faculty immediately. In these cases, teacher education was weakened by design because whole areas were eliminated.

In some institutions, this began to change in the mid-1980s with increased

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enrollments, the work of The Holmes Group (1986), and the Spring Hill letter from 37 college and university presidents that called a new role for universities in reforming the nations schools (Edgerton, 1987). A basic premise that underlies these discussions is that "the education of teachers" is a responsibility of the entire university and not just the teacher education faculty. Even with this welcome milieu, there remains questions of leadership and authority. It is the teacher education faculty that must provide the leadership and have the primary responsibility for recommending candidates for certification.

In establishing its leadership role, education must stress its foundation as a profession. By its very nature, a professional college emphasizes the linkage between theoretical and clinical knowledge, the synergy between research and practice, and supervised experiences in partnerships with professionals in the field. In these arenas, education faculty should excel when working in collaboration with other faculties to integrate subject matter, content, and pedagogy.

In order to prepare professional teachers, colleges must design programs that provide graduates with specialized knowledge bases, while also preparing them to apply their knowledge when working with the diverse student populations in our schools (Walberg, 1990). The call for a careful articulation and scrutiny of the knowledge bases that underlie our teacher preparation programs is a recent phenomena and one that many faculty are finding difficult. Similarly, designing clinical experiences based on professional needs rather than convenience is foreign to many programs. It is through these last two elements that the university is linked to professional practice. Here is where faculty can have a major impact on educational reform.

The second area that must be addressed deals with the specification of the knowledge bases underlying teacher preparation. To have any hope of reaching the educational goals that have been set for us, we must prepare teachers and

other educational professionals for tomorrow's schools not the archaic systems that currently exist. That is, it is the people (teachers, administrators, students, etc.) who are the schools, not the bricks and mortar of the buildings. When we can change the education work force, we will change the schools. Clearly, teacher preparation reform must be linked with other reform efforts in pay, school structure, administration, state certification, parental choice, and other policy issues. However, as Goodlad (1990) argues, preparing new cohorts of committed and competent teachers is an essential first step for changing American education.

The call for a careful articulation and scrutiny of the knowledge bases that underlie our teacher preparation programs is a recent phenomena and one that many faculty are finding difficult.

The general components of what professional teachers need to know are well known (Wise, 1989), but how these components are implemented in the teacher preparation curriculum is not well articulated. Defensible programs cannot be built that rely on tradition, folklore, and common sense for their knowledge bases. The synergy between research and practice is key to building programs that have credibility with the stakeholders in education. Knowledge bases that incorporate the results of other relevant sciences and disciplines are essential. New empirically based knowledge about cognition,

pedagogy, instructional technologies, etc., have major implications for program design.

Teacher preparation faculty cannot work in isolation in hopes of developing generic programs that will prepare teachers to face the challenges that they will encounter in the schools. Isolation means more than isolation from colleagues in other disciplines at the university. It also means isolation from professionals in the field. Practicing professionals from the schools need to be involved in defining and teaching the knowledge bases at each level of preparation, i.e., pre-service, induction, and continuing professional development. Their involvement provides for linking theoretical and clinical knowledge in professional education.

This brings us to the third issue which deals with supervised experiences. How should we prepare students to apply their knowledge when working as teachers with the student populations in tomorrow's schools? As noted above, too often clinical experiences are designed for convenience and not for professional development.

The Holmes Group (1990) is a leading force in the reconceptualization of the clinical components of teacher preparation. Their call for Professional Development Schools (PDS) is clearly based upon the premise that excellence in teacher preparation must involve practicing professionals in the supervised clinical experiences. In PDS teachers, administrators, and faculty work collaboratively in designing and delivering clinical experiences. They also share in the synergy between practice and research by working as research teams to create and test the knowledge bases of teacher education. In this milieu, knowledge is produced that is guided by the realities of practice, and practice is influenced by the latest knowledge about education.

While PDS are not the only model for developing clinical experiences, The Holmes Group has identified many of the problems that we face. The challenge is to design a coherent set of experiences that systematically prepare students to become professional teach-

ers. Unconnected vignettes and interactions with children in a variety of situations may produce a teacher who can respond as a technocrat with canned techniques for each problem, but such preparation will not prepare people who think and act as professionals.

There are many problems and challenges that face teacher preparation faculty as they confront university, public school, and societal demands. Faculty willing to address the three issues raised here are well on their way to meeting the competing claims on their professional lives. This is done by

asserting their leadership role on campus for the importance of teacher preparation, designing programs with clearly articulated knowledge bases tied to the synergy between research and practice, and building strong linkages with practicing professionals.

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Democratizing Teacher Education: An Imperative for the 1990s*

by *Byron F. Radebaugh*

Introduction

Arthur G. Wirth (1989) in his article "Towards a Post-Industrial Intelligence: Gadamer and Dewey as Guides" has argued that "the technocratic control model" which has characterized the way that schools and industries have been organized and managed in the past "is doing us in." He suggests that the ideas of the German philosopher Hans-Georg Gadamer and John Dewey can provide us with powerful insights that reveal its fatal flaws and project ideas for alternatives.

According to Bluestone and Brown (1983), Wirth has demonstrated that harmonizing essential democratic values and the demand for productive efficiency is not a utopian vision. He (Wirth) has elaborated also on the practical and philosophical justifications for work place democracy and on its implication for education. They go on to say:

Although our professional backgrounds are different -- industry and education -- each of us, in arguing for the sorts of reforms Wirth writes about, has had to contend with the view that democracy in the work place is ineffective and inefficient. This view is based on what we regard to be unsupported and unsupportable presuppositions about human nature, the basic differences

between persons, and the essential character of complex human organizations. These presuppositions include the ideas that (1) only a relatively few are capable of making judicious management decisions; (2) workers/faculty will not exert the effort necessary for the process of managing; (3) workers/faculty are driven by self-interest and have little or no concern for the larger good; (4) productivity depends on a division of labor which in turn rationalizes an authoritarian system and a hierarchical organizational structure.

To the contrary, ample empirical evidence is available to support what each of us has personally found to be the case: When workers/faculty are given the opportunity to deliberate on important institutional matters, when they are sufficiently informed, when they are convinced that the conclusions they draw will be taken seriously and when they can voice their views without fear -- in a word when they are full participants in the decision-making process -- they will devote an extraordinary amount of time to the task and come up with fair and responsible proposals.

Although I am aware that schools and colleges of teacher education are not factories, history suggests schools have been influenced by management and organizational strategies adopted in

the private sector. I agree with Irving Bluestone (1989) who suggests that education can learn some things from industry and there have been some innovative initiatives taken in the private sector in the direction of greater democratization of their basic management and organizational structures.

In this article I shall assume that an adequate justification for rejecting what Wirth calls the "technocratic control model" and accepting the "democratic socio-technical" model is available. My purpose is to explore whether or not the ideas of W. Edwards Deming, "the man who taught the Japanese how to produce goods of high quality at low cost" (Tribus, 1987), can offer further insights that may help in "re-casting of work in schools along the principles of the democratic socio-technical model" (Wirth, 1989).

According to Tribus (1987), Deming developed 14 points for management that he believed would help produce goods of high quality at low cost in industry. Howard S. Gitlow and Shirley J. Gitlow (1987) in their book *The Deming Guide to Quality and Competitive Position* have elaborated on these 14 points and I have utilized some of their ideas in my own analysis and speculation as to how they might be applied to schools and some of the implications they may have for teacher education in the 1990s.

* A version of this article was presented at the American Educational Studies Association 1990 Annual Convention, Orlando, Florida, November 1, 1990.

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Deming's 14 Points

Deming's 14 points for management are as follows (Tribus, 1987):

1. Create consistency and continuity of purpose.
2. Refuse to allow commonly accepted levels of delay for mistakes, defective material, defective workmanship.
3. Eliminate the need for and dependence upon mass inspection.
4. Reduce the number of suppliers. Buy on statistical evidence, not price.
5. Search continually for problems in the system and seek ways to improve it.
6. Institute modern methods of training using statistics.
7. Focus supervision on helping people to do a better job. Provide the tools and techniques for people to have pride in workmanship.
8. Eliminate fear. Encourage two way communication.
9. Break down barriers between departments. Encourage problem solving through teamwork.
10. Eliminate the use of numerical goals, slogans, posters for the workforce.
11. Use statistical methods for continuing improvement of quality and productivity and eliminate all standards prescribing numerical quotas.
12. Remove barriers to pride of workmanship.
13. Institute a vigorous program of education and training to keep people abreast of new developments in materials, methods and technologies.
14. Clearly define management's permanent commitment to quality and productivity.

Deming's 14 Points Applied to Schools and Implications for Teacher Education

1. **Create consistency and continuity of purpose.** The leadership in schools and teacher education should initiate activities designed to involve faculty, board of education members, parents, members of the community, and students in the development of a defensible statement of philosophy of education for that school district, school, or college of education. Activities should also be initiated that are designed to put the statement of philosophy of education into operation. A written curriculum guide or mission statement should be developed showing how the philosophy of education gets put into practice in the classroom and elsewhere. The philosophy of education, the curriculum guide, and/or mission statement, must be constantly updated. It must become a "living" document and inspire commitment. The school or college leadership should develop long-term goals, take a long-term "family" view of the school or college, and realize the school or college is the faculty and students.

2. **Refuse to allow commonly accepted levels of delay for mistakes, defective material, defective workmanship.** Defective workmanship in the school or college setting would include poor leadership, poor teaching, poor learning, and poor research, and poor service. The school or college leadership itself must become aware that the "technocratic control model" of the past has not worked well and that a new philosophy or model is required. They should be willing to adopt the "new philosophy" and make a commitment to "quality." "Quality" is defined by Deming as 'surpassing customer needs and expectations throughout the life of the product.' In a school or college setting the customer would be the student and society and the life of the product would be the life of the human being and the continued existence and improvement of the society.

The school or college leadership should be aware that teaching is very complex. It is, in part, an art. They should work to improve the system in ways designed to improve and reward excellent teaching. They should be advocates of increased pay for teachers/professors so that good people will be attracted; willing to screen new teachers based on research findings (e.g., verbal fluency); work to help teachers/professors develop instructional practices and special teaching skills using videotapes on an on-going basis and with an emphasis on the individual teacher and broadened eventually to include the other professional roles that teachers/professors perform. In the school or college setting defective material would include teaching materials--textbooks; films; videos; supplies; books, etc. I would also include the students-- serious learning problems that could be prevented, e.g., nutrition, health problems, attitude problems, inadequate preparation by a previous school. Mistakes in the school /college setting should be resolved using action research to determine if method (a) is the best way to achieve the goal and whether or not the goal is appropriate.

3. **Eliminate the need for and dependence upon mass inspection.** The school or college leadership should strive for a never ending improvement of the incoming "product" in terms of both those who are to be educated and those who are to do the educating. They should work to improve the quality of the professional preparation of teachers and professors so that "self" improvement becomes an accepted professional obligation of all, thus reducing the need for "supervisors" or "mass inspection."

4. **Reduce the number of suppliers. Buy on statistical evidence, not price.** In the school or college setting we probably do **not** want to restrict the number and variety of students enrolling. We probably do **not** want to reduce the number of corporations supplying textbooks and other teaching materials. Buying on statistical evidence of quality--not price--is probably valid in the school or college setting.

5. **Search continually for problems in the system and seek ways to improve it.** The leadership of the school or college should realize they have the responsibility for improving the "system." They must also sense that improving the "system" is a long-range task and requires long-range planning. They must become aware of the shortcomings of the technocratic control model and the potential of the democratic socio-technical model. They must recognize the importance of the school or college "atmosphere" and the problems in using statistics as a control. They must work to enhance teacher "empowerment" and be sensitive to factors related to de-centralization, school finance, dropouts, personnel policies, parental-community-business support, and federal leadership and support.

6. **Institute modern methods of training using statistics.** The school and college leadership must sense that people are the most valuable resource the school or college has. They must assume responsibility for socializing everyone in the school's or college's mission and goals--its philosophy of education. In-service education should be tied to its mission and goals and permit and encourage pride of workmanship. Everyone should be considered important in the school or college and all should have a sense of security, and a sense of the "overall picture." Teachers, professors, and students must not be considered "dehumanized robots" but human beings. In-service education should not be used as punishment. The school/college leadership must sense that "the new technology" as applied to education has great potential for good or evil. They must ask, "How can we secure its "good" use?" Part of the answer is to insure that teachers and professors have a broad general education in the humanities and strong preparation in the philosophical, historical, sociological, and psychological foundations of professional education.

7. **Focus supervision on helping people to do a better job. Provide the tools and techniques for people to have pride of workmanship.** The

school and college leadership should sense the importance of creating a positive supporting school and college atmosphere for both students and teachers. They should assume responsibility for promoting the growth and development of each teacher or professor in the school or college. Individualized staff development plans should be created and separated from salary, tenure, and promotion considerations. There should be recognition that the democratic socio-technical model requires a new approach to teacher performance appraisal. Teamwork and achieving the school's mission and goals would be important considerations here. Conditions should be created promoting outstanding teaching and, on the university level, considered as important as research or publishing--which is not the case in many colleges and universities now. They must also refuse to hire improperly trained teachers or professors.

8. **Eliminate fear. Encourage two way communication.** The school and college leadership should eliminate the traditional forms of teacher performance evaluation. Rewards should be based on quality, teamwork, seniority, and advancement of the school's or college's goals. Every effort should be made to provide a safe working environment for all. A "collegial" or "family" atmosphere should be developed. Each person in the school or college should be treated with dignity. The probationary period for teachers and professors to achieve tenure should be significantly reduced. Communication should be facilitated in as many ways as possible. An alternative to the "publish" or "perish" emphasis on the college or university level should be devised.

9. **Break down barriers between departments. Encourage problem solving through teamwork.** The leadership of the school and college must take the responsibility for identifying common problems, emphasizing "co-operative" approaches to problem solving, and improving communication. They must move decision making to the lowest level where it is to be imple-

mented and reduce the levels of management. Teamwork across department lines should be encouraged. Faculty should be encouraged to identify with the school or college--not the external professional group. "Internal" motivation should replace "external" motivation. On the college or university level, the traditional faculty service report or "brag" sheet with its emphasis on individual achievements should be eliminated. The school or college leadership must be sensitive to "turf" disputes and work to reduce or eliminate them.

10. **Eliminate the use of numerical goals, slogans, posters for the workforce.** The school and college leadership should work to establish meaningful goals. They should eliminate Management by Objectives. On the college or university level the student credit hour basis of budgeting should be eliminated as well as the evaluation of teaching expressed as a number.

11. **Use statistical methods for continuing improvement of quality and productivity and eliminate all standards prescribing numerical quotas.** The school and college leadership should provide teachers and professors with adequate secretarial and other help. They should encourage better use of technology in the classroom (the video disk) and better use of computers in both office and classroom. They should encourage faculty to come up with new ideas for improving productivity and be willing to act on them. Experimentation and new approaches should be encouraged. The use of statistical methods seems appropriate in schools and colleges but so should the use of qualitative methods.

12. **Remove barriers to pride of workmanship.** The school and college leadership should make sure they do not blame the teachers/professors for faults in the system (e.g., large classes, inadequate equipment, etc.). They must realize that teachers/professors are the most valuable part of the school/college and should work to maximize the potential of each teacher/professor. They must eliminate the quantitative aspects of the personnel process (e.g., the num-

ber of articles or books published, the number of presentations made at national conventions, consultantships, dissertations directed, etc.). They should promote cooperation for achieving common goals and developing a shared identity. They should devise additional ways of recognizing quality teaching and good scholarship. Better "feedback" from students, colleagues and others should be promoted. "Internal" motivation, "professional," "empowerment" should be the watchwords. The school and college leadership must make sure they are not isolated from the faculty, students, and community.

13. **Institute a vigorous program of education and training to keep people abreast of new developments in materials, methods and technologies.** The school and college leadership have a responsibility to look to the future. They must provide an individualized staff development program for everyone in the school or college and it should not be tied to the personnel process. Faculty should be involved in planning the staff development programs. Many programs should focus on developing materials, methods, and technologies for improving the quality of teaching/research/service.

14. **Clearly define management's permanent commitment to quality and productivity.** The school and college leadership must come to accept the Deming philosophy and the democratic socio-technical model. They must strive to change the school's/college's "culture." This will require a long term perspective and effort. The school and college leadership must resolve not to hire unqualified persons to teach. They must not squander resources unnecessarily for administrative purposes. They must provide adequate support staff for teachers/professors along with the necessary financial resources for excellent teaching/research/service including sabbatical and other professional leaves. The school and college leadership must get out of their offices and talk to teachers, students, and others. They must be prepared to assume the role of "facilitator" in relation to achieving the school's or college's purposes and goals. They must recognize that mobility of school/college leadership is a handicap to the never ending task of the improvement of quality.

Conclusion

Now what does all this have to do with re-thinking teacher education for the 1990s? Brown and Bluestone (1983) have observed that the purpose of educational institutions is far more complex and the "bottom line" is far less clear than is the case with business institutions, and the directive power of profit does not apply. Nevertheless, I sense considerable consistency with Deming's 14 Points as I have elaborated them and the philosophy of John Dewey and institutional democracy. For example, I think Dewey would agree on the importance of creating consistency and continuity of purpose as long as the purpose is characterized by basic democratic values. I am convinced Dewey would also agree with the importance of making all of our institutions more democratic and that improving the "system" is very important. Both Dewey and Deming seem committed to "the dignity of man" and the importance of the individual. Communication, cooperation, teamwork and the elimination of fear seem to be other points of agreement. I think the basic challenge to teacher education in the 1990s is to rethink the "system" and try to make it more democratic.

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Ethical Problems for Teacher Educators Today: Some Personal Reflections

by Arthur Brown

My involvement with the recently established Center for Academic Ethics at Wayne State University has made me especially sensitive to ethical dilemmas in higher education. So sensitive, in fact, that I seem to be discovering an ethical problem lurking behind just about every professional practice and institutional policy. But it is comforting to know that such sensitivity is to a greater or lesser degree an affliction common to all those engaged in professional work. Physicians tend to be hypochondriacal; lawyers, legalistic; and politicians, guarded.

Fortunately for those engaged in academic ethics, hypersensitivity is not only forgiven, it is even welcomed. Ethics is "in." In fact, it is a growth area. Applied ethics has become fashionable among philosophers and is finding a place among course requirements. Professional ethics centers and institutes are proliferating. Concerns about professional ethics is expanding far beyond medical or business ethics and is inspiring some interesting kinds of programs. For example, last June, perhaps inspired by the Keating Five case, voters in Los Angeles passed Proposition H which established the post of Ethics Officer whose function it will be to administer a law which provides for a ban on outside income, speakers' fees, and most gifts, and also encourages spending limits on campaigns in return for matching public campaign funds (*Venice-Marina News*, 1991). And the Internal Revenue Service has hired the Josephson Institute of Ethics to design a program in ethics for its 14,000 managers. In addition, the Institute will

"conduct an agency-wide ethics audit of the IRS to uncover present and potential problems" (*Los Angeles Times*, 1991). (Ironically, it could well be that entrepreneurialism in ethics may produce its own ethical problems.)

In a recent conversation, Dan McGee, a professor of religion at Baylor University, made the observation that the ethical problems of only two major social institutions have thus far escaped close attention: the church and higher education. I cannot speak about the church, but this state of affairs no longer exists with respect to higher education. One only has to glance at any issue of *The Chronicle of Higher Education* to be confronted by a half dozen major ethical issues. And virtually everybody I have spoken with about the Center for Academic Ethics has reacted with enthusiasm about its prospects. The topics featured at the conference on "Ethics and the University," sponsored by the Center and which took place last October illustrate the immensity of the problem: Social and Ethical Responsibilities of Universities; The University and the Formation of Character; The Responsibilities of Professors; Monitoring Scientific Misconduct: Whose Responsibility?; The Effect of Research on the Values of Universities; and The Relationship between the University and Business and Industry.

Centers other than Wayne State's are turning their attention to academic ethics. For instance, at Dartmouth, the Institute for the Study of Applied and Professional Ethics has recently received a large grant to study the ethical problems associated with philanthropic giving to higher education. At the University of Illinois, the Program for the

Study of Cultural Values and Ethics is co-sponsoring a conference April 6-7, 1991, on "Changing Cultural Values and The Role of the University." The Society for Values in Higher Education is expanding its activities to include ethics in academe. And at the last annual conference (January 11-13) of the Society for Christian Ethics, an interest group was formed to share information about the nature of programs and activities in academic ethics carried on at various institutions.

Moreover, the literature on the subject is growing rapidly. Recent books include Charles Sykes, *ProfScam: Professors and the Demise of Higher Education*; Steven Cahn's 1986 book, *Saints and Scamps: Ethics in Academia*, and his newly published work, *Morality, Responsibility, and the University: Studies in Academic Ethics*; Page Smith, *Killing the Spirit: Higher Education in America*; Bruce Wilshire, *The Moral Collapse of the University: Professionalism, Purity, and Alienation*; William W. May, *Ethics and Higher Education*; Steven L. Payne and Bruce N. Charnov, *Ethical Dilemmas for Academic Professionals*; and, of course, Alan Bloom, *The Closing of the American Mind: How Higher Education has Impoverished the Souls of Today's Students*.

The interest in academic ethics derives not simply from a generalized concern about ethics. It derives also from the multiple social and political roles and functions higher education has of late been called upon to perform. For one thing, no longer an ivory tower, higher education has become a social gatekeeper; it is virtually impossible to "make it" in the world of work

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without college and university credentials. Such power cannot long be maintained without close public scrutiny with respect to access. That means, among other considerations, an examination of tuition costs, admissions policies, and graduation requirements -- all of which raise not only academic but also ethical questions.

Students are not alone in prizing higher education for its instrumental value. States have discovered that institutions of higher education are vital to their economies, and business and government see them as weapons in international and intranational competition. Higher education, as a result, is regarded by many as too important to leave to academicians.

In responding to external pressures and in an attempt to strengthen their own competitive positions, many colleges and universities, particularly the large research universities and increasingly regional universities, are allocating more monies to the sciences and less to the humanities; they are developing more intimate relationships with government and with business and industry; and they are redefining faculty "productivity." As a consequence, significant changes are occurring in attitudes toward university governance, in standards for tenure and promotion, in the character of the curriculum, in the nature of collegiality, and in professional conduct. These changes, among others, raise serious ethical questions, some of which were addressed at the conference on "Ethics and the University:"

How can universities ensure that the emphasis on research will not be made at the cost of quality in teaching? How can scientific integrity be maintained without the kind of monitoring which would constrain creativity and academic freedom? How can we mediate between the demand for access to and the need for quality in university education? Are the developing relationships between business and industry necessarily com-

promising the essential function of a university -- free and open inquiry? To what extent has the changing character of the University affected the values of students and faculty?

Insofar as departments, schools, and colleges of education are integral parts of larger institutions and insofar as professors of education are expected to perform substantially the same functions (and others) as do their colleagues in those institutions, such questions are applicable to the education profession. And faculty, administrators, and students would do well to inquire into them on an ongoing basis. Otherwise, they will operate in a moral vacuum with respect to important professional problems.

. . . it is an opportune time for interested faculty and administrators to argue for a required course in ethics and education.

I underline the word professional because most if not all of the problems in teaching which we ordinarily think of as pedagogical and as technical in nature are at root ethical problems. And to the extent that they are ethical problems, they are professional problems. I may appear to be making a distinction where there is no difference. But I believe that recognizing the distinction between the teacher as expert pedagogue and the teacher as a professional has profound implications for teacher education. To elaborate, we speak of professional ethics, but not of expert ethics. We say that a person acts like a professional; but we do not say that a person acts like an expert (although, of

course, he/she may be an expert). In ordinary discourse, then, the word, professional, connotes certain kinds of behavioral expectations not looked for in the expert. Thus, we think of a professional as a person who can "throw away the book," who is capable of dealing with contingencies, who is imaginative and willing to take risks. Further, professionalism implies an understanding of the complexity of human relationships and the acceptance of certain moral obligations and civic responsibilities. This is not the case, at least entirely the case, for the expert as expert -- the expert signmaker, the expert watch repairman, the expert astronomer, etc. The professional, then, is necessarily an expert; but an expert is not necessarily a professional.

In brief, a professional is someone capable of exercising independent judgment in the performance of a particular kind of social service and is motivated less by considerations of personal gain than by a desire to perform a social good. A profession, then, is a calling. A teacher, therefore, is not a professional merely by virtue of the possession of information or analytic power or technical expertise (though all are necessary) and cannot act as a professional when simply carrying out mandates issued by others. Tom Green says somewhat the same thing in his 1984 John Dewey Lecture, "The Formation of Conscience in an Age of Technology:"

If there are strong norms with moral authority by which to govern within the collegial order of a profession, they arise not from the existence of a knowledge base but from a consciousness of the moral enterprise that is already integral to the profession. Thus, if we seek to induct persons into a profession by giving them command of the relevant expertise, and if at the same time we neglect to teach them the point of the practice, then surely it will become necessary to offer instruction in professional ethics. But that need

will arise from our failure to teach the point of the profession itself and not from a failure to teach ethics (Green, 1985).

Where Green's statement falls short is in the implication that understanding the "point" of a profession is sufficiently directive, if by "point" he means its overarching purpose -- say healing the patient or winning the case or nurturing the student. This is not to say that an overarching purpose has no value. It does provide a context for making judgments about action to be taken. But professionals -- certainly teachers -- are frequently faced with complex and intertwined practical problems where several worthy values may be at issue and in competition, and, therefore, they need more than an understanding of the point of the profession. They need to know how to assess a problematic situation and how to make a reasoned judgment about what to do and be willing to act on that judgment. This calls for a teacher education program and for an institutional culture quite different from the conventional one described by John Goodlad in the recently published, The Moral Dimensions of Teaching:

The dismaying part of our learning during our visits to college and university campuses was the general failure of the institutions to capture and build on the concept of teaching as a calling. Except in a few noteworthy instances, there was little or nothing in recruitment literature and program descriptions to suggest the moral responsibility of the institution taking on teacher education, the need to recruit people committed to dedicating their lives to teaching, an ongoing counseling effort to weed out the diffident, and a process during which those chosen were to be carefully socialized into their responsibilities as stewards of schools and mentors of the young. It proved difficult to engage stu-

dents, particularly the college-age, undergraduate group, in issues surrounding the role of schools in a democratic society and the implications of this for teachers. It was not always easy to engage faculty members in the implied dialogue. Many said that these young future teachers were too young and immature to get seriously into such issues. No wonder that Bloom's Closing of the American Mind touched such a sensitive nerve (Goodlad, et al., 1990).

. . . faculty in education should take it upon themselves to discuss with students the ethical problems which arise in and surround their specialties.

In addition to the many and diverse functions now expected of universities and their faculty, even more is expected of schools of education and their faculty. For example, schools of education are being called upon to work closely with districts to improve the schools. I do not wish to make apologies for the existing culture in schools of education (or for that matter in universities). For many years I have fought against the erosion of the foundations of education in my own institution and shared the dismay felt by Goodlad and his associates. But in all fairness, I must point out that if schools of education, the education professorate, and education students seem not to be tied to moral moorings, it is understandable in the light of the circumstances I alluded

to earlier in this article. Higher education in general and schools of education in particular are suffering from an identity problem. Education faculty are expected to be scholars, researchers, exemplary teachers, clinicians and student teacher supervisors, and, at the same time, maintain professional relations with the schools. Further, they are charged with training teachers who will be able to teach the "basics," be nurturers, keep discipline, possess an adequate knowledge base, deal with 30 or more students (many psychologically disturbed) in six classes a day, and sustain good working relations with colleagues, parents, and often frightened administrators, frequently under intolerable working conditions. All at a time when schools of education, the education professorate, and school teachers and administrators are being denigrated by U.S. presidents, state governors and legislators, the business community, the media, parents, and, of course, their liberal arts colleagues.

Under such conditions it is no mean task to teach students the point of education, as Green suggests, or engage in discourse about the role of the school in a democratic society, as Goodlad suggests. But somehow it must be done; otherwise it is empty rhetoric to speak about teaching as a profession. It would be easier, of course, if the public, including university presidents among others, were more understanding of the essential nature of the educational enterprise in a democratic society. But that's a distant prospect which will require fundamental changes in the social structure and in national priorities. I offer a few modest suggestions with a much better chance of realization.

First, it is an opportune time for interested faculty and administrators to argue for a required course in ethics and education. Ethics is "in," as I noted earlier. Schools of business and medicine and other professional schools frequently require ethics courses, and some non-academic organizations are doing something in this regard. Yet, I would guess, only a handful of schools of education require such a course de-

spite the fact that, with the possible exception of the church, the school is more of a moral enterprise than any other institution.

Second, faculty in education should take it upon themselves to discuss with students the ethical problems which arise in and surround their specialties. No specialty is without ethical dilemmas, be it education for the gifted, instructional technology, multicultural education, or reading methods. Understandably some faculty may not feel qualified to do that, but it's possible with certain incentives to overcome that obstacle. In fact, one of the purposes of the Center for Academic Ethics is to develop educational programs for faculty at Wayne State University which

would enable them to feel more comfortable in examining the ethical problems associated with their discipline or profession.

Finally, in line with Goodlad's comment about the difficulty of engaging faculty and students in a dialogue about "issues surrounding the role of the schools in a democratic society and the implications of this for teachers," I would propose a regularly scheduled forum for all faculty and students in teacher education. Some years ago my own College of Education instituted a weekly senior seminar in the undergraduate teacher education program for the purpose Goodlad describes. (Unfortunately it has since been discontinued.) It was not unlike what is done in many

graduate programs. Articles in the journal, Phi Delta Kappan, copies of which were made available to all faculty and students in the program, served as a basis for discussion along with other readings and the talks of guest speakers. The seminar worked quite well, I thought, in providing faculty and students from disparate disciplines in education with a common ground for discourse. Carried out in a sustained and systematic way and incorporating some moral and ethical dimensions, such a program could conceivably help in professionalizing teacher education and transforming the culture of schools of education.

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Los Angeles Times. (1991, January 9).

I confirmed this arrangement in a conversation with Christopher Tyner, a member of the Institute staff.

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Preparing Educators to Function Interdependently in Educational Organizations

by Muriel Mackett and
Connie L. Fulmer

The educational reform movement has produced many important challenges for educators and others who are in some way responsible for improving the quality of American public education (Elmore, 1990; Schlechty, 1990). Effective preparation of teachers, who are charged with the daily, direct responsibility of educating the nation's children, is one of the most important of those challenges. Yet many questions surround teacher preparation and there clearly is not, and will surely not emerge, "one best way" to proceed (Irvin, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1989; Wise and Darling-Hammond, 1987).

The central contention put forward in this article is that, to achieve meaningful school reform, teacher preparation and performance in schools must be treated as interdependent with the preparation and performance of other professional educators. Teacher preparation should be more integrated with the preparation of other educators rather than treated as largely a separate process, as is typically now the case. Thus our concern here is with preparation of teachers and others as educators rather than with preparation of teachers alone. After briefly examining educator preparation in the context of school reform, we offer our perspectives on what we see as productive approaches to more integrated educator preparation and comment on salient implications for the field.

School Reform and Educator Preparation

The reform context in which issues concerning educator preparation need to be addressed is in many respects very unsettled. Public concern over the quality of K-12 public education in the United States has a long and compelling history (Peterson, 1983). At various times over the last several decades, virtually all aspects of public schooling have come under scrutiny and been found wanting, leading to public demands for school reform. The current school reform movement which began in the early 1980's has seen intense public challenges of the assumptions underlying schools themselves and expectations for schooling outcomes (Bennett, 1986; Boyer, 1983; Goodlad, 1984). Nationwide calls for reform, often stridently expressed, have focused on the need for change in school governance structures and funding mechanisms, school management (including administrator, teacher, parent, and community involvement), administrator and teacher practices and preparation, instruction and the content and delivery of school curricula, and student behavior and student learning (Jacobson and Conway, 1990; Raywid, 1990).

Over the past ten years, extraordinary amounts of human energy have been devoted to achieving school reform. All quarters of the educational enterprise have been involved in some way in reform efforts: federal, state, and local governance bodies, including executive and legislative bodies, the

courts, and state and local boards of education; administrators, teachers, students, parents, and community members; the business community and special interest groups; accrediting agencies, professional associations, and unions; and a vast network of groups and individuals from the higher education, research, and policy communities who study and try to impact education and educational effects from diverse, often contended perspectives (Darling-Hammond, 1984; Rehaeg, 1990).

. . . more and more schools may well find it profitable to move toward becoming more collaborative, problem solving, or learning organizations engaged in deliberative and systematic school-based inquiry.

At the core of reform activity, two primary approaches to school reform - "top-down" as opposed to "bottom-up" approaches - continue to be played out across the nation (Murphy, 1990; Re-

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hage, 1987b). From the outset of the current reform movement, school reform has been approached through legislatively initiated, "top-down" reform mandates. The assumption underlying such mandates has been that "new" forms of external control of education are necessary to overcome what many people from outside the schools (and some people within them) see as deeply entrenched, dysfunctional educational practices ordinarily under the control or influence of "self-interested" professional educators. Top-down reform efforts have tended to focus on teachers and administrators as "part of the problem" rather than as key actors in the resolution of school problems. Further, the prevailing view has been that educators by themselves either will not attempt to change dysfunctional educational practices - or cannot succeed in doing so - without new external mandates, enabling mechanisms, and means to assure educator accountability for achieving reform. The playing out of top-down approaches to reform is evident in current debates about national goals for education (Cuban, 1990) and in legislation enacted in numerous states mandating, for example, statewide school curriculum standards, pre-licensure testing of pre-service teachers, administrators, and other education professionals, and requirements for in-service evaluation and professional development of educators (Jacobson and Conway, 1990; Murphy, 1990; Rehage, 1987a).

At this point, it is premature to judge the potential power of national educational goals for achieving school reform. At the state level, many mandates for top-down school reform such as those noted above are still in effect, and indeed new state mandates continue to be enacted. Yet their success in achieving demonstrable reform has been widely questioned by their initiators in state legislatures across the country, by the community at large, and by the community of educators and other involved professionals - school practitioners, higher education researchers, policy analysts, and the like - who have been closely associated in

some way with carrying out or assessing the effects of reform mandates. A widely held view appears to be that, although more time is needed to fully assess their effects on student outcomes, top-down reforms have not worked as well as hoped for in addressing real school problems and, by themselves, are unlikely ever to do so (Goodlad and Keating, 1990).

In our view, public investment in educator preparation should be made around an interdisciplinary core of shared knowledge which is focused on developing those capabilities and attitudes which will foster and support more interdependent functioning across all professional educator roles.

"Bottom-up" reform, the second approach to reform being played out across the country, has emerged in the last few years in large part as a response to recognition of the limitations of top-down reform. In contrast to top-down efforts, bottom-up reform efforts have tended to regard both teachers and administrators as key actors in the resolution of school problems rather than as central to the problem. At the core of bottom-up reform, however, is the assumption that "teacher empowerment" and, most recently, "parent and community empowerment" are central to

achieving school reform. The whole notion of "empowerment" in the reform context has had critical impact on expectations for the roles and responsibilities of school administrators as well. While mechanisms enabling bottom-up reform have often been externally mandated, bottom-up reform efforts are by definition intended to be more locally-generated and countless such efforts are evident in the nation's schools. The playing out of bottom-up approaches to reform can be seen in the increasing incidence of formalized collaborative relationships now evident in schools, for example, site-based management, vertical instructional leadership teams, and school councils charged with shared school governance (Barth, 1990; Reyes, 1990). Other current efforts which are consistent with bottom-up approaches to reform are the development of schools as learning organizations (Senge, 1990), the practice of school-based inquiry (Glickman, 1990), and the preparation of educators as reflective practitioners (Schon, 1987).

While not without problems, bottom-up reform efforts clearly have captured the public imagination. For at least the short term, bottom-up reform seems productive as a strategy for the involvement of educators and lay people in new forms of educational experimentation that may produce school improvement. However, it is clearly too early to judge the possible documentable, long-term effects of bottom-up reform on student outcomes. Many have argued, in fact, that neither top-down nor bottom-up reform efforts as so far conceived have addressed the complex and difficult challenge of educating students with widely varying educational needs at all - or in such a way as to meet predetermined standards of excellence. Nonetheless, there is great concern expressed in both the literature and the field that, should bottom-up reform not be embraced by the educational community or not succeed in achieving school improvement, a third approach will soon be played out - a new era of top-down reforms, mandated more heavily and prescriptively

than previously (Glickman, 1990; Natriello, 1990; Wisniewski, 1989).

In this unsettled context of school reform, then, educator preparation is problematic. If school reform strategies, and thus schooling, are still evolving, how can we achieve greater understanding of the contexts in which educators must be prepared to function? What will schools be like and what should we be preparing educators to know and be able to do in "schools," whatever their form? How should the preparation of educators proceed and under whose governance? What investment should we make in the preparation of the teachers, administrators, and other educational professionals who must not only keep schools running in some acceptable fashion on a daily basis but also be leaders and participants in educational reform?

We . . . believe that interdependency preparation models merit attention and investment of both the community of educators and the publics which they serve.

Perspectives on Educator Preparation

Again, our contention is that, to achieve meaningful school reform, teacher preparation and performance in schools must be treated as interdependent with the preparation and performance of other professional educators. Teacher preparation should be more integrated with the preparation of other educators rather than treated as largely a separate process, as is typically now

the case. We base this contention on two key observations:

1. **Current bottom-up reform strategies, supported in part by enabling top-down strategies, and the kinds of next generation of reform efforts that could emerge from them are sufficiently promising to merit further development and public investment.** Based on what we are learning from site-based management and other collaborative, shared governance reform efforts, for example, more and more schools may well find it profitable to move toward becoming more collaborative, problem solving, or learning organizations engaged in deliberative and systematic school-based inquiry. The prospects of such a development are genuinely exciting for achieving school reform and have important implications for educator preparation. School-based management, school-based inquiry, and other such reform strategies carry with them certain assumptions:

- That schools need to develop new structures and processes for professional staff members to talk and work together more collaboratively across traditional roles and lines;
- That this process will ultimately lead to new formal and informal professional roles in schools and some new lines of organizational authority;
- That teacher and administrator responsibilities and performance will become increasingly interdependent; and
- That interdependence between schools, parents, and the community will also increase as an essential part of the educational process.

Changes in school structures, roles, and processes and educator preparation will clearly need to proceed together, as a coordinated, integrated effort.

2. **Neither in-service nor pre-service educators typically have the training or experience necessary to**

carry out their professional roles in the collaborative, interdependent modes demanded by reform and the emerging conditions of schooling. New approaches to educator preparation are called for. In our view, public investment in educator preparation should be made around an interdisciplinary core of shared knowledge which is focused on developing those capabilities and attitudes which will foster and support more interdependent functioning across all professional educator roles. To this end, we believe that all educators need to be prepared to work more collaboratively within the school organization as members of professional teams charged with delivery of educational programs and services. Consequently, we also believe that all educators need to be prepared to have greater understanding of the school organization as a whole, how it functions, its social and community context, and the roles and responsibilities of other professional educators.

Clearly, these expectations are not now met in educator preparation programs at any level. The content of an interdisciplinary core of professional knowledge for teachers, administrators, and other educators that would satisfy these expectations is problematic and would unquestionably be contested by various interest groups bringing their own conceptualizations and concerns to the task. We do not presume to have the answers, nor do we intend to be overly prescriptive about content. However, for our purposes here, we can suggest preliminarily that the core of shared knowledge implied above would minimally need to include theoretical, research, policy, and practice elements of the following:

- *Schools as cultural systems*, focusing on self-knowledge, on knowledge of others in the context of alternative belief, value, and behavior systems, and on processes of culture building toward defined goals.
- *Communication*, focusing on personal, interpersonal, organizational,

and interorganizational communication around the educational process and interdependent professional functioning.

- *Educational policy, governance, and law*, focusing on the contexts, structures, and parameters within which educational processes occur and their impact on professional functioning across roles.
- *Organizational theory and inquiry*, focusing on sensemaking concerning human behavior in and around educational organizations, qualitative and quantitative data gathering and interpretation concerning organizational functioning and the educational process, and application of knowledge to reflective educational practice.
- *Information technology*, focusing on applications of technology for organizational sensemaking, organizational operations, and student learning.
- *Teaching and learning*, focusing on contexts and processes for facilitating student learning and responsibilities across professional roles.
- *Adult learning and development*, focusing on contexts and processes for facilitating development of human potential among professional staff and others who are involved in the educational process.

While these are in our view necessary elements of a shared knowledge base across professional educator roles, they are unquestionably insufficient in both scope and specificity. However, we believe that the idea of a shared knowledge base to promote and support

interdependent functioning among professional educators and with the community is fully defensible and should underlie any consideration of teacher, administrator, and other professional preparation. Many important issues concerning the idea of a shared knowledge base for educator preparation need to be articulated and addressed. It is in our view critical: (1) that more complete definition of a shared knowledge base be undertaken by appropriate bodies, and with all due speed; and (2) that this be done taking into consideration the broad implications of developing and instituting models of educator preparation focused on supporting more interdependent role performance in schools.

Preparing Educators for Interdependent Performance

Rethinking "teacher preparation" as "educator preparation" as we have attempted to do here is a clear departure from traditional assumptions about professional preparation. A number of important questions raised by the prospect of moving toward preparation of educators for more interdependent role performance - what we call interdependency preparation models - need to be addressed: What deliberative processes about the merits of interdependency preparation models need to be engaged in and who should participate? How can adequate levels of resources be made available to support interdependency models? Who should participate in development of a shared knowledge base and who should determine content? How can the knowledge base be integrated into curricula for educator preparation? Who should control the

content and delivery of the curriculum? What should be the role of universities, schools, and other agencies? How can we achieve both rich diversity and reasonable consistency in preparation across institutions? How can preparatory institutions better model the collaborative processes emerging in schools? What should be the goals and expectations for pre-service and in-service educators' learning? How should we distinguish between shared core knowledge and discrete specialized knowledge needed for different professional roles? How can we articulate learning across undergraduate and graduate programs? What implications might interdependency preparation models have for who should have access to preparation programs and how should access be governed? How can what is learned by professional educators from the shared knowledge base be integrated into the ongoing delivery of educational services in schools? How can we assess the impact of a shared knowledge base and greater interdependent functioning of educators on school reform?

The contribution that the integrated, interdependent approach to educator preparation suggested here may ultimately have on schooling will depend in large part on our collective responses to such questions. Current educational reform efforts continue to demand greater collaboration concerning schooling, and the nation's educators are not now being prepared to engage effectively in interdependent role performance. We therefore believe that interdependency preparation models merit attention and investment of both the community of educators and the publics which they serve.

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The Tale of the Penguins, or Teacher Education as Empowerment

by *Lucy Forsyth Townsend*

A Parable

Long, long ago, before the birds learned the fine art of camouflage, penguins were covered with bright plumes. Some were as purple as the dawn and others as pink as a flaming sunset. All day long they fished and swam in the blue-black waters of the Arctic Sea. When at last the sun sank below the waves, they gathered to listen to the never-ending Tale of the Penguins. Each night a purple penguin would rise and tell the story. Sometimes he told how the penguins had found the rocky islands in the North. Another night he might recall how the penguins battled the white bears, or how they found food when the sea was choked with ice. Some stories were of great triumph, and others were of humiliation and defeat. No matter what kind of story it was, however, the penguins swelled with pride to hear it. And when the story was over, they settled down contentedly and soon fell asleep.

One night just before a purple penguin rose to tell the tale, a tiny pink penguin stood and asked, "Why is it that only purple penguins tell the Tale of the Penguins?"

A look of shock and dismay passed among the penguins. A pink penguin to tell the tale? Some snickered, and others laughed outright. Finally an old purple penguin thundered, "Because only purple penguins know how to tell the tale."

The next night the tiniest pink penguin rose again and asked, "Why is the Tale of the Penguins only about

purple penguins? Why aren't there any pink penguins in the tale?"

"Preposterous!" roared a penguin. "You pink penguins have done nothing worth remembering."

Then a fat purple penguin stood to tell the story and everyone seemed to forget the questions that the tiny penguin had asked. But not the pink penguins. First one and then another would remember something that a pink penguin had done, and she would whisper it to her neighbor. "Oh, yes," another would say, "I remember that, and have you heard about the time . . .?" And soon all the pink penguins were whispering stories.

Then one moonlit night, a pink penguin rose up and said in a timid voice, "Tonight, my friends, I will tell the Tale of the Penguins." The purple penguins shouted for her to sit down and be quiet, but her pink sisters wailed and beat their wings. Encouraged by her sisters' cries, she began to tell how the pink penguins had learned to build nests in the rocky cliff. Then in a louder, more confident voice, she told how the pink penguins guarded their young from the claws of the white bears.

By the time she had finished her tale, the purple penguins were snoring, but the pink penguins sat with glowing eyes and twitching wings. "Our story," they said, "at last the Tale of the Penguins is our story, too. Why have we been silent for so long?" And it seemed that almost by accident, the pink penguins had grown braver and stronger than ever before. Then they smiled at each other and settled down to sleep.

The Parable Explained

The Tale of the Penguins is a parable of teacher education in the United States. The pink penguins are the countless women teachers who have filled the ranks of the teaching force since the mid-nineteenth century. The purple penguins are males who have told the story of education in America throughout much of that period. Today, the male voice is perhaps best represented by John Goodlad, whose massive five-year Study of the Education of Educators is featured in the November 1990 issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan*. The story that John Goodlad tells is not one of achievement. Rather, he informs us that teacher preparation programs throughout America are in trouble. These programs lack status, they have unclear missions and incoherent programs, their faculty struggle with the conflicting demands of teaching and research, and many of their students wander purblind through a maze of classes toward certification. Given these weaknesses, Goodlad's conclusion is not surprising: future teachers are ill prepared to become the powerful change agents that American schools so desperately need.

Why, Goodlad wonders, are teachers and teacher education programs so impotent? Goodlad looks back across American history and speculates that perhaps the answer lies in the gender of teachers. According to this popular myth, the women who fill the ranks of the profession are by definition too passive and subservient to do anything more than maintain the status quo. Goodlad would not go so far as to assert the corollary, but it is neverthe-

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less implicit in his argument: what this country needs are red-blooded men who will turn the ailing public schools around. Perhaps Goodlad believes that he is the teachers' male savior. His solution to the problem of impotent teacher education programs is a list of nineteen postulates which he says should serve as a dependable guide in the restructuring and evaluation of teacher education programs.

The problem with Goodlad's solution is that he merely perpetuates the system which he deplors. All nineteen of his postulates might be placed under the rubric, a systems approach to teacher education. Three postulates recommend university support for teacher education programs, two define the appropriate faculty for the program, twelve define the selection of students as well as the important learning experiences they should have in the program, and the last two call for the limitation of state control of teacher certification. Goodlad implies that if teacher educators would only follow these guidelines their students would learn to be powerful change agents.

Women Tell the Story

What Goodlad completely misses is the educational experience of the pink penguins, an increasing number of whom are standing up to tell their Story of American Education. In the last twenty years, feminist scholars have argued that what males often represent as "universal" truth is really the experiences and reflections of a small number of white males. They have questioned the validity of research findings based primarily on the study of males and then extended to women. They have examined gender not as a natural fact but as a changing, artificial construct which is used to organize society, divide labor, and form individual identities. They have even challenged the efficacy of the male-dominated ideal of the formal education as the cultivation of rationality. Yet, despite a growing body of scholarship on women, the new scholarship has not yet been fully inte-

grated into teacher education and its analysis. Goodlad is a good case in point. Where women are considered at all they bear the vaguely stated onus for educational failure. "Women's experiences are considered incidental," Joan Burstyn (1986) writes, "the inessential as opposed to the essential [male experiences]."

. . . it means that we will strive for a balanced Story of American Education which reflects the experiences and realities of persons from both sexes from all classes and ethnic groups.

The Essential and the Powerful

It is ludicrous for teacher educators to treat women students as if the experiences of women were inessential and then hope that they would become powerful change agents in American schools. If we want these future teachers to be powerful, we must treat their experiences and reflections as central to the enterprise. We can do this in two ways. First, we must add to the growing body of historical and sociological research on women and integrate the new scholarship fully into the curriculum. This means that instead of gender blind teaching with perhaps a paragraph about women added to the end of a lecture, we must use the new scholarship to reconceptualize theories which have long dominated our discipline. Instead of merely adding a unit about women to our syllabus, we must re-

structure courses to fully integrate women's work and interpretations into the curriculum. This does not mean that we will denigrate men or slight their contributions to education. Rather, it means that we will strive for a balanced Story of American Education which reflects the experiences and realities of persons from both sexes from all classes and ethnic groups.

Second, we must challenge our students to assist us in the task of telling the never-ending Story of American Education. They must be supported in telling their own stories as part of their advanced education. In this way, they will actually experience what it means to claim themselves as change agents rather than as maintainers of the status quo. Paulo Freire wrote about the liberating effect of this approach before he became aware of his sexist language:

A deepened consciousness of their situations leads men to apprehend that situation as an historical reality susceptible to transformation. Resignation gives way to the drive for transformation and inquiry, over which men feel themselves to be in control.

Freire's rhetoric may suggest to some a grandiose agenda. But a respect for the educational stories of women and minorities requires, most of all, a respect for the local and the person. If teacher educators want their students to transform American education, then they must begin by encouraging all these students to transform their own educations through dialogue. Following are some classroom activities that suggest how this might be accomplished in a history of education class.

- Provide students with two historical articles about a period in educational history, one dominated by male experiences and another dominated by female experiences. Have students use the scholarship to present their own view of the period.
- Initiate the periodization of educational history by having students di-

vide their lives into periods. Then analyze these timelines by asking students what values determine their choices. Discuss the values of historians who have divided American history into periods based on the outbreaks of major wars. How might southern Black women divide the periods of American history? Urban poor Irish immigrant women?

- Few women hold administrative positions in public schools. Explore the life of a local woman administrator to find out how she was educated, where and what she taught, and why she was able to find and hold an administrative post.
- Explore the careers of women or ethnic minority professors in your institution's teacher education program during a given decade. How many professors were there? What courses did they teach? What rank did they achieve? What articles and

books did they write? Draw conclusions from this analysis.

- Educational historians tell us that little is known about the actual classroom activities and experiences of teachers in one-room country schools. Interview several retired teachers and ask them about the day-to-day activities in these schools. Interview their students as well.
- Do a content analysis of McGuffey Readers to determine how boys and girls are depicted. Count the times that girls and boys are central characters in the stories. What character traits do they have? What generalizations can you draw about these depictions? How do these compare with your own views about boys and girls?

Conclusion

Much is being written about improving teacher education programs of

the 1990s so that the teachers will "challenge the status quo and renew our schools," as Goodlad says. However, any plans that treat teachers-in-training as if they were all essentially interchangeable is doomed to failure. Gender has and will continue to condition experience, values, and practice. Women's stories will continue to be submerged as long as educational research ignores or pushes them to the periphery of the "essential" curriculum. To foster the empowerment of these future educators, teacher educators must continue to generate new scholarship on women as students and professionals and integrate it fully into the curriculum. It is imperative that they also ask their students to assist them in this task. Challenging this dimension of the status quo is not the only answer to improving teacher education programs, but it is a necessary component for the reconstruction of our conception of educational problems, called for by Goodlad.

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Turning Down the Cold-War Schooling Heat and Warming to the People in the Educational Process

by *Glorianne M. Leck*

In the past four decades of cold-war diplomacy the United States has been a nation that blamed its schools and used its schooling both as a source for its explanations for failure and for its hopes for improvement. In the 1980s the United States became a flagging world power, a debtor nation, and a society highlighted by much violence and social ill. During that time political circumstances have allowed the heat to be turned on high under an already over-worked schooling reform agenda.

In all of the furor, it seems to me, the education of the teacher and the education of the child have been lost to the political machinations related to school, and especially, curriculum reform. The reforms have been so intensely focused on the curriculum that children (and teachers) are supposed to learn that a widely held position has evolved which claims that standardized testing is a worthy and legitimate imposition on democratic community-based schooling. The intensity of public expectations, built upon the promises of accountability, has actually homogenized and flattened perceptions about people, their lives and their educational needs. The uniqueness and diversity of individuals and communities have been eclipsed by bureaucratic concerns for generic efficiency and "nationalistic" claims of need for schooling reform.

It is my claim that if the U.S. is to survive as a nation-state with democratic due processes, safe cooperative neighborhoods and with first amendment rights, then we must reclaim schools and colleges of education as sites for the education of people as

opposed to sites for the political display of national power. Top down, from the state to the neighborhood, school policy and reform exacerbates the competition and social pressure that is already felt by neighborhoods that are mixed by class, race, ethnicity, and life-style. At best, national or state guidelines communicate the level of achievement and curriculum preferences that groups in power wish to put on the national agenda. There is no way that such state or federal policy impositions can assist the individual teacher in understanding and working with the educational development of individual children in particular neighborhoods and in particular moments of our very complex life systems.

Government policy which legitimizes and prescribes objective, generic and scientist behaviors serves much like a military dictatorship when it holds teachers, neighborhoods and children hostage to accountability through ritualistic standardized testing performance scores. A major counter agenda for those of us in teacher education, must be to revitalize a democratic commitment to the uniqueness of individuals. Only a robust social diversity will enliven the political, intellectual, and social life of this failing nation state. We will do well to de-construct the four decades long "over generalization" that "what is good for General Motors is good for the country." This core assumption has led to educational devastation.

Education takes place in contexts. Contexts have many layers of meaning and can be interpreted in multiple ways by the actors within those situations. The education of teachers must be redirected toward their development as

unique learners and as citizens in a democratic and pluralistic community.

In recent studies on teacher education John I. Goodlad (1990) and his colleagues report:

... we arrived at the conclusion that teaching, a profession of teaching, and teacher education must derive their mission and their substance from the richly layered context within which teaching decisions are made. Not only are there layers of context, but each layer is complex and not predictable or understandable from the perspective of scientific principles alone. Even if a well-developed science of teaching were available, its mastery by teachers would not provide sufficient guidance for the burden of judgment they carry, its full definition would not adequately frame a profession of teaching, and teacher education programs based on only this science would be seriously deficient.

Working to re-establish the value of unique ways of seeing, being and knowing is the matter to which we must now warm ourselves and each other. For those of us who still have opportunity to work within teacher education we must address the unique characteristics, perspectives and skills of those who come to the university seeking certification as public school teachers. We must begin by reorienting ourselves to the processes of education. In the nineties we will have to begin again.

As a process, education brings together a mutual understanding

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through which two or more persons exchange values, concepts, perspectives and information. In the cultural contexts that most, who would read this article, might share, it is more likely that respect for each other and reverence for diversity would improve prospects for education. By establishing mutual respect and self-esteem, educational contexts can be explored without the constant disruptive concerns for judgement of the contributing value of the participants.

Comparative generalization about good and bad, right and wrong, appropriate and inappropriate, standard and non-standard learning behaviors are a limitation that we need to re-examine as no longer just innocent "tradition." Tradition represents a source, a dominant ideology and in our situation a patriarchal European dualistic framework. Tradition in the United States has been laden with hierarchical and oppressive schooling controls. We must make every effort to take advantage of the diversity of resources and to become familiar with the contexts of our unique personal and human resources. To that end, I offer the following as a show and tell.

I happen to be in the fortunate position of being one who works in an educating context with some individuals who have announced that they would like to be certified to be teachers. My experience is defined institutionally as "teaching a course in Education and Society."

We begin with deconstruction of the generalized or what we call the dominantly imposed values. Each of us does a life history which is an effort to describe the values we have learned and processes through which we have learned those values. (We look at meaning and learned definitions of gender, age, race, religion, health, housing, neighborhood, appearance, childhood, and family.) Our common project is to try to detect when, and if, we were taught by contrasting, and thus by devaluing, another life style, race, ethnic group, religious group, gender group, person, learning style or culture. When we locate such teaching we discuss the

consequences that such polarized learning could have for us when we try to work in a public school setting with particular individuals who may represent that position as 'the other'.

We very often discover that we have evolved with prejudices, ignorances, and fears of those holding counter or alternative values to our own. Our project becomes one where we go into the community and learn to work to understand the contexts and evolution of values with which we are unfamiliar, uncomfortable, or about which we are appalled. Our effort is not to unlearn our values, but rather to learn to understand how we were taught to value and to understand 'ways' which are different from our own. In some instances this does generate an opportunity for serious re-consideration of unexamined bias. In other circumstances it re-affirms or dislodges information and previously held attitudes.

In the particular work that I am doing now, those who are wanting to be teachers disclose their comfort level and explore the range of challenge with which they are committed to work. I reflect from those presentations my sense of what is available, credible, and fair within our community and resource area.

A typical example may be Susan. She was raised as a caucasian in a nuclear family and dwelt in a suburban neighborhood where her schooling was considered very respectable by standardized testing criteria. Susan disclosed that she was raised in an environment where one of the messages she was receiving was that everyone would be better off if they could get those folks up there in the city off the welfare roles and make them go to work. Susan reported that she would expect that children whose parents were on welfare were likely to be unmotivated learners in her classroom. Her sense was that welfare is a repetitive problem and that she probably would not be able to make any difference in most of those children's lives. Added to this disclosure was Susan's sense that most people who were on welfare were black unmarried women and their children.

And so the effort began. We got at the statistics and we studied the information that had misinformed Susan and her family unit. We learned that most people on welfare are not black, but we also learned that large numbers of welfare recipients are female heads of household. We got to books and articles that told about sexism and racism and the feminization of poverty. We analyzed the language descriptors such as black, african-american, women single-heads of household, working-mothers, etc.

Working to re-establish the value of unique ways of seeing, being and knowing is the matter to which we must now warm ourselves and each other.

We tried to figure out, usually along with others in our classroom, what all this might mean. Then Susan went to the Human Services office and she sat in line and waited to get a copy of the form that people must fill out in order to apply for welfare assistance. While in line she observed and made mental notes about how the institution is designed, attitudes toward the office and attitudes toward the applicants. When she got to the bullet proof window and the clerk never made eye contact with her while she handed her a 37 page--lots of big words and fine print--application form, Susan said she began to recognize different emotions and began to generate a different analysis of this public assistance situation.

Meanwhile, John, who characterized himself as a son of an unemployed steel worker, described how he

had learned a kind of hostility toward unmarried women who work for low wages and take good jobs away from men who need them to support their families. John is very sure that women who have children ought to stay home and take care of them.

We discussed the difficulty John felt he might have dealing with women parents who might come in and complain about their children's grades and the amount of homework he would give them. So, John and I got to the books, the data, and the articles on employment, income levels, cost of living, sexism and poverty. Meanwhile some of the women students in the class tried to "reason" with John about "his attitude." Then we had to do some work with each other about gender identities and the history of patriarchal values, competition and resistance to same.

I worked with John and we developed a field study in which he worked through a neighborhood social worker with a woman who was an "un-wed" mother and who was recently divorced after having had three children. We addressed her problem. She is a 28 year old who is trying to survive on a minimum wage job. We further spotlighted the particulars of her situation by working with her in her plight to recover from a fire which had destroyed all of her (uninsured) belongings in a rented apartment. John investigated the cost of fire insurance, health insurance, and replacement costs for furnishings, children's clothes and other personal items. He looked into community services that might assist her during the time of upheaval. John took the responsibility to do the leg work necessary to help her try to find an apartment within the same school district so her children could continue attending the same school and she could continue to use public transportation or walk to work. After engaging with her in the struggles of her life John said he began to feel emotional changes and different attitudes evolving in his perceptions about women, work, divorce, class circumstances and single parenting.

Susan and John and each of the other participants shared their learnings

and each, working from their particularity, addressed the particularities of children and parents and neighborhoods. I recall vividly one day when Brenda announced that she had just realized that in her dream, which was to cure educational ills by requiring much more homework of her future students, some children would have no place at home to study.

We will now have to work to re-establish the community-based goals which would emphasize the value of individuals, the value of education and the role of the schools in meeting the educational needs of those individual children within the contexts of those communities.

She found out some children weren't allowed back into the house until 7 P.M. and others had no encyclopedias at home with which to work. Brenda said, "I can't believe how naive I was to assume that all kids had homes like the one in which I was raised and I'm damn mad to think that school boards and state departments of education assume all children can and/or should be learning the same things at the same time, in the same way. Someone should make them do what we are doing so they learn about diversity and the significance of each judgement that a classroom teacher must make." Then she asked, "How am I going to be able

to work individually with the students' needs and still meet the requirements of the job as they are defined by compulsory curriculum and standardized testing?"

The group usually takes up the task of examining the stated as well as concomitant purposes of U.S. schooling. The limitations, conflict in purposes, and the failure of schools created by the divergent demands, are considered and weighed. Students who begin with trying to understand their own education and social construction draw conclusions similar to those that were discovered by John I. Goodlad's in his recent studies on teacher education.

As Goodlad and his researchers and as the students in 'the school and society' course have learned: education occurs in layers of context and meaning which are constructed when people bring together their unique combinations of knowing and unique curiosities about what is to be known. Sometimes one interested party seeks, sometimes the one who claims to know something tries to entice the other to become interested, sometimes the two parties simply discover each other as they interact within the context, within which the meaning and value of learning and teaching are constructed by them. Bureaucratic imposition of definitions as brazen as that assumed under the rubric of basic does violence to a pluralistic and democratic society. Instead, persons must become the center of teaching and learning and the curriculum; school facilities, and management must take their proper place as the background and medium for exchange. Teachers must work with each student within the context of their particular developmental and social circumstances. Neighborhoods must be generators of democratic processes, not the recipients of nation-state demands. This will require courageous work from teacher educators to challenge the basic assumption of their work with students.

Teachers need to be educated as persons who see themselves and their students both as unique and as constructed. That social constructions can be seen as overlays in people's lives and

that as such they can be de-constructed or scientized should continue to be recognized, but it would be distorting to stress such an objectified or generic view without also demonstrating an equal commitment to fostering reverence for how persons construct their perceptions of their own interactions with those overlays.

Universities that educate teachers must provide curricula that reflect liberal arts (that have been de-constructed and re-evaluated), disciplinary or content areas and studies of pedagogical methods, but the work of teacher education, especially multi-cultural and historical/philosophical/sociological, must be the center piece that will re-

claim the interactive notion of schooling as a site for education of persons with unique differences, needs and basic rights in a democratic, community-based society.

Those who would be teachers must educate themselves within community and a community needs to be the basis for teacher's self-education. Teaching teachers to instruct, to comprehend a discipline, and manage a classroom are necessary but rarely sufficient conditions for preparing them for the self-understanding that would allow them to understand contexts and diversity.

Our challenge is to regain our societal balance after 40 years of living

with the claim that the state needs the schools as a cold war power chip. We will now have to work to re-establish the community-based goals which would emphasize the value of individuals, the value of education and the role of the schools in meeting the educational needs of those individual children within the contexts of those communities. With that shift in emphasis in our educational values we may again present ourselves with the prospect of a full range of possibilities for being educated, for establishing mutual respect and for global cooperative community.

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Teacher Education and Technology: What Content, Whose Job, and Toward What End?

by *Connie L. Fulmer*

Much is being said today about teacher education and technology. Currently, both are hot topics. The potential of the technological issue to assist in the reform of teacher education is just as vast as is the potential of the reform of teacher education to capitalize on the potential benefits of technology. However, the impact of technology on education in the past has been unfulfilled. Three questions need to be addressed when colleges of education focus on the issue of teacher education and technology. What is the technological knowledge base for teacher educators? Who is responsible for the delivery of that knowledge base? Toward what end will the delivery structure of the knowledge base be constructed?

DeLoughry (1988) would define the teacher education and technology problem as one of empowering students with the technological skills required to critically evaluate the mass of information available today in our data rich world. While the development of the microcomputer and application software has provided the potential for the masses to obtain personal computing power, many students and faculty members in both the lower schools and in institutions of higher education still lack basic computer competency skills that Collis (1987) predicted would become assumed competencies.

According to Bugliarello (1990), the problem is that our technical capabilities surpass the "social and organizational structures that would enable us to take advantage of" the technology. He further argues that our capabilities as a species depends on restructuring

both the curriculum and our educational organizations. The new skills required are those which enable teachers and students to transcend classroom, organizational, and national boundaries, as well as those which can reshape the organization of the teaching enterprise. The curriculum must become interdisciplinary and the organization must develop "hyperlanguage." Communication between humans is bio-social. "Hyperlanguage" or communication between humans and machines and between humans via machines is bio-machine-social.

Zuboff's (1988) research illustrates the potential of technology to either replace human capacity for judgement or to engender more intricate, collaborative responsibilities between managers and workers (or between teachers and students). In other words, technology can function to "automate" the work of learning organizations or play a critical "informating" role. The problem then becomes understanding the impact of these dual roles of technology and their potential impact on the learning of students, teachers, professors, and communication patterns within organizations.

Issues of curriculum and organizational structure are central to the problems associated with the topic of teacher education and technology. Progress in our development of organizational "hyperlanguage" or in our understanding of the "automating" and "informating" roles of technology will be determined by how faculties within colleges of education collaboratively address these three key questions: What competencies constitute an appropriate technological knowledge base?

Who has the responsibility of imparting technological knowledge and skills to our future teachers? Toward what structural end should this technological knowledge base and these competencies be directed? The answers to these questions must be developed through interdisciplinary collaboration (Fulmer, 1990a) between professors of different areas of specialization within colleges of education.

Curricular Complications

Currently there are three methods of acquiring computer skills. Turner (1989) describes them as (1) learning on your own, (2) learning in a course, and (3) acquiring competencies through appropriate curriculum integrated computer activities. His hope is that eventually "there will be no computer courses ... everything will be integrated?" Lockard, Abrams, and Many (1987) fear that merely adding computers as a new subject into the curriculum (option number two above) will minimize the potential impact of computers. Instead, the authors recommend that we rethink our curricular goals and how we achieve them, thereby not limiting the potential of the technology by forcing it into an existing but possibly inappropriate structure. Similarly, Schank and Farrell (1988) propose that meaningful integration will only occur "when we stop thinking of how to insert the computers into the curriculum and start thinking about how to change the curriculum altogether". In yet another article, Hannafin, Dalton, and Hooper (1987) argue for a "comprehensive cur-

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riculum with computer-based activities and methods". It is relatively easy in the beginning to outline competencies required by students to utilize technology. Research on computer-integrated-courses reveals that a certain level of survival or startup computer skills are necessary for student success (Fulmer, 1990b). These initial competencies are perhaps common to all discipline areas (an overview of the function, potential capabilities and limitations, and the basic sequence of commands required to interact productively with the software and hardware).

Within each discipline, however, specific course content may require unique applications beyond those general skills common to all content areas. These applications must be initiated by individual faculty members and become an integral part of their course assignments. Therefore, professors need to determine what student competencies are required by students to complete activities derived from the content of the course. These competencies need to be shared with others responsible for developing the structures (introductory courses, workshops, competency tests) through which students could acquire the requisite computer skills that would support advanced applications.

While the preceding authors speak mainly to the delivery of the technological knowledge base, Liebowitz (1988) asserts that the proper university role should be that of providing an education and not merely specific software training. Some argue even today that a simple weekend course would bring students and professors up to speed. If that were so colleges and universities would be much further ahead than they are at present. Perhaps in the future students will have microcomputer and technological competencies when they enter college. But unfortunately today is not the future. The job is larger than merely learning software applications. The challenge for colleges of education is to make technological competencies as invisible and supportive of curricular content as possible, rather than add to the already-bursting-at-the-seams curriculum.

The challenge for colleges of education is to make technological competencies as invisible and supportive of curricular content as possible, rather than add to the already-bursting-at-the-seams curriculum.

Organizational Opportunities

Gooler (1989) identified four issues (conceptual, resource, structure, faculty) that universities need to address in answering the challenge to prepare future teachers for technological integrated schools of the future. Not only must a college of education have a conceptual framework of technologically integrated curricula and the resources to carry out that vision, but it must also be prepared to deal with the issues of faculty development as well as the invention of structures for delivering both faculty and student development. Professors and students alike exhibit a wide range of skills regarding technology. Collis (1987) noted that for professors, perhaps more important than acquiring personal computer competency is "the ability to use computers as inquiry tools with students, thereby increasing the emphasis on higher-order analyzing and synthesizing" skills in the classroom.

While many lessons can be taken from the research of Zuboff (1988), one of particular importance organizationally is the potential negative impact of technology in isolating people within learning environments if the singular purpose of technology is to "automate"

educational delivery systems. However, when technology is used in an "informing" mode, the technology becomes part of a system of people, social interaction, and machines. Such an interdependent system would provide continuous learning and additional skill development for not only students, teachers, and professors, but also for the organization. Care must be taken to design a delivery system structure that will build on the technological strengths of the faculty members and increase the skills and knowledge of both faculty members and students.

Curricular and Organizational Implications

The answer to the technological knowledge base question can be determined most appropriately by a collectivity of professors within colleges of education. Initially, students and professors need to acquire knowledge and comprehension of the potential usefulness of technologies (computers, computer-controlled hardware, and related software applications). Organizations need to provide some structure through which professors and students can acquire these initial "SURVIVAL" skills. Once these skills are learned, students and professors are able to apply technology to teaching and learning situations. However, these skills need to be nurtured through technological integrated curricula which require students and professors to use technology in the process of learning. Such processes necessitate faculty members working together to develop integrated curricula as well as to acquire new skills. The answer to the second question regarding the responsibility for the delivery of the technological knowledge base then becomes a burden shared, a kind of technology-across-the-curriculum.

But, toward what end will the knowledge base and the structure of the delivery system be aimed? In other words, what will learning environments in educational organizations of the future be like? What structural and curricular changes will be required in

order for technology to become part of an interdependent human-social interaction-machine system? If education is to realize the potential of the power of

technology, the ability of faculty members to construct answers to questions like these are crucial. The answers to the third question (toward what end)

should drive the resolution of the other two questions of curriculum (what is the knowledge base) and delivery system (who's responsible).

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The Education Warrant: Into the 1990s

by Kay L. Hegler,
George A. Antonelli and
Richard E. Dudley

During the decade of the 1980's, several colleges and universities designed and implemented education warrants in reaction to public calls for improvement within professional education at every level. The essence of these warrants is to provide the hiring school district an assurance of the program graduate's competence in the early childhood to grade twelve classroom.

While each college/university designed the specifics of its warrant, most followed the outline of the warrant established by Doane College, the first college to announce a teacher warrant. Implemented when the beginning teacher's administrator describes inadequate performance or the beginning teacher requests assistance for a specific problem, the warrant involves bringing the college/university teacher education faculty directly to the hiring district to provide assistance to the beginning teacher. This assistance takes on such forms as team teaching with the beginning teacher, providing individual in-service directly related to the problem area, hiring a substitute to release the beginning teacher so he/she can observe how master teachers deal with the problem, or hiring a substitute for a master teacher so he/she can observe the beginning teacher and provide input on the problem.

Other features of a warrant include regular calls to beginning teachers to monitor progress, providing tui-

tion-free courses or workshops to beginning teachers, and first-year teacher assistance teams consisting of the first year teacher, a teacher education department faculty member, a local school administrator, and a mentor teacher.

Implemented when the beginning teacher's administrator describes inadequate performance or the beginning teacher requests assistance for a specific problem, the warrant involves bringing the college/university teacher education faculty directly to the hiring district to provide assistance to the beginning teacher.

In the implementation of any of these features, the warrant serves to improve the teaching of the first year

teacher and to strengthen the linkage between the "real world" of P - 12 teaching and the more theoretical world of preparation programs.

Were the warranting teacher education units seeking publicity from the latest "gimmick," or were they deliberately implementing a strategy to strengthen teacher education? In order to answer the primary question and gather information about the education warrant in the 1990's, a telephone survey of institutions known to provide educational warrants was conducted during September, 1990. The following questions provided the framework of each interview: Is the education warrant still in place, has your education unit provided inservice education to a beginning teacher under the conditions of the warrant, what services have been provided, did those teachers receiving services stay in the profession, and what has been the major benefit of the warrant to your teacher education unit? These telephone interviews identified facts and attitudes about educational warrants useful when assessing their effectiveness and their future place in our profession. The name of the education unit administrator or faculty member at each institution contacted for the interview is listed in Table 1.

Warrant Services

Nineteen teacher preparation programs, contacted through the telephone survey to confirm the existence of educational warrants, are identified in the accompanying table. Individual education units implement warrants in a va-

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TABLE I

Universities Offering Warranties on Teacher Education Graduates, 1988 and 1990

	Type	1988	1990	Use	Faculty Contact
Adelphi University Garden City, NY	Private	Yes	No	NA	J. Kane
Concordia Seward, NE	Private	Yes	Inactive		G. Oetting
Doane Crete, NE	Private	Yes	Yes	3 (7 yrs)	R. Dudley
Eastern Washington U Cheney, WA	Public	Yes	Yes	4 (4 yrs)	W. Shreeve & Dickerson
Elizabeth City State U Elizabeth City, NC	Public	Yes	Yes	1 (3 yrs)	B. Williams
Emporia State U Emporia, KS	Public	Yes	Yes	4 (5 yrs)	M. Moorhead
Fayetteville State U Fayetteville, NC	Public	Yes	Yes	0 (3 yrs)	B. Miller
Grambling State U Grambling, LA	Public	Yes	Yes	0 (4 yrs)	J. Dauzat
Grand Canyon College Phoenix, AZ	Private	Yes	Yes	4 (6 yrs)	P. Horn
Montana State U Bozeman, MT	Public	Yes	Inactive		D. Melling
North Texas State U Denton, TX	Public	Yes	Yes	0 (4 yrs)	G. Ponder & W. Nicklaus
Oregon State U Corvallis, OR	Public	Yes	Yes	6 (6 yrs)	R. Barr
Purdue University West LaFayette, IN	Public	Yes	Yes	5 (4 yrs)	R. Kane
University of Arkansas Pine Bluff, AR	Public	Yes	Yes	0 (5 yrs)	W. Littlejohn
University of Hawaii Manoa, HI	Public	No	Yes	NA	P. Whitesell
University of Nebraska Lincoln, NE	Public	Yes	No		J. O'Hanlon
University of Nevada Reno, NV	Public	Yes	Yes	0 (5 yrs)	F. Meyer
U of Northern Colorado Greeley, CO	Public	Yes	No		G. Hall
University of Virginia Charlottesville, VA	Public	Yes	Yes	1*(6 yrs)	L. Bunker

* This beginning teacher had been assigned a classroom outside of her licensure content area.

riety of ways. Some units provide tuition waivers so graduates can return to the home campus and complete additional courses. Many provide an 800 telephone number so calls from the beginning teacher or concerned administrator for assistance or assurance can be made without charge. More than one of the institutions uses the warrant as a part of a first-year induction for all beginning teachers, including regular visitations to classrooms, special seminars, and regularly planned evaluations of teaching effectiveness. Some education units pay substitute teacher salaries while the beginning teacher returns to the campus for intensive instruction in an area of identified weakness. All of these activities are provided without charge to the district or the beginning teacher because the warranting institution assumes responsibility for the professional competence of its program graduates.

Advantages of the Warrant

The advantages identified in the telephone interviews were categorized as follows, without specific credit to a single institution or education unit:

- 1) Warrants definitely have a strong and positive image making potential with the general public and early childhood to grade twelve educators. From the first public announcement of the warrant, to use on recruiting brochures, and descriptions of program strengths, the warrant spreads confidence.
- 2) Warrants have increased the sense of accountability of individual faculty members and of total education units. For faculty, this has meant more conservative (tougher) judgments about admission of students into teacher education programs and clearer, more focused on-campus instruction. For the unit, it has increased accountability for the scope and sequence of content among all faculty members.

3) Warrants emphasize the direct line between on-campus instruction and actual teaching performance by relating the knowledge base of the education unit to the knowledge base of the practicing teacher.

4) Warrants improve and increase the contacts between university and local school educators. The linkage among campus instruction provided by the faculty, the performance of the beginning teacher, and the assessment of performance by the local school administrator is direct under the services of a warrant. Improved public relations are documented by voluntary statements from local school administrators supporting education units with warrants.

5) Warrants increase confidence on the part of hiring local district administrators actually looking for and seeking out graduates from warranted programs. Increased placement attracts more capable students to programs with warrants, leading to a highly talented pool of beginning teachers.

Looking into the 1990's, at least two current advantages of the warrant are visible. First, the education warrant places the warranting education units in a proactive position of strength and responsibility for the accomplishment of the National Education Goals (NEG) adopted by the National Governor's Association in February, 1990. For example, NEG 6 focuses on the creation of a safe educational environment, conducive to learning. Most critics of teacher education note the university/college faculty's inability to prepare teacher candidates for today's diverse classrooms, pointing to the failure of many beginning teachers in urban classrooms.

Warranted beginning teachers are prepared to provide safe learning environments in all hiring districts. When there are problems, the warrant provides back-up support to individuals with uniquely challenging situations in the beginning year, through specific on-site instruction to guide application of previously acquired content in the

beginning teacher's unique classroom. The overall low number of warranted beginning teachers receiving services for poor classroom management attests to the high level of preparation during the college/university years at those fifteen warranting institutions. The high competence level of graduates from the fifteen warranting institutions is testimony to the current (real world of practice) content included in preservice courses on those campuses.

. . . the education warrant places the warranting education units in a proactive position of strength and responsibility for the accomplishment of the National Education Goals (NEG) adopted by the National Governor's Association in February, 1990.

NEG 3 - Student Achievement and Citizenship - requires teachers to be competent in subject areas, and in the communication of the subject area knowledge to students. Some warrants like the one at Elizabeth City State University (NC) specify both the beginning teacher's academic preparation and teaching performance, while other warrants like the one at Doane College (NE) imply competence in both areas. These and other similar warrants, strongly support the purpose of NEG 3.

Second, many teacher education units are seeking accreditation from The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

The features of the education warrant speak to Category II - Relationship to the World of Practice, and are compelling and effective documentation of compliance for Standard II. B: Relationships with Graduates, criteria 34 and 35. These criteria speak to follow-up of program graduates, and assistance to beginning teachers. A warrant program offers outstanding opportunities to demonstrate effective achievement of this standard.

The Future of the Warrant

Although warranting institutions describe benefits of the warrant to local schools and education preparation units, and although the warrant offers support to the achievement of the National Education Goals and its compliance with NCATE standards, its retention must be considered. Will it last at the known institutions? Can it adapt to changes in our profession? Will additional institutions develop and implement warrants?

Of the eighteen institutions with known warrants in 1988, thirteen have maintained them as active, vital components in the teacher education unit. The benefits of the warrant to these institutions have been described. They will maintain the warrant.

At three of the institutions, the warrants will be revised. Grambling State University will incorporate a warrant into a state-requirement for teaching internship prior to licensure. North Texas State University is retaining its assurance program in spite of state-mandated limitations on the number of allowable hours in education. Oregon State University plans to incorporate a Beginning Teacher Warranty into the new MAT program while phasing out its bachelor's level licensure program.

Concordia (NE) and Montana State University have inactive warrant programs. Each education unit announced a warrant in the past and it still exists "on the books." The warrant is not advertised or described by the institution or education unit, nor has any beginning teacher returned to the unit for first-year assistance. In spite of the inactive status, each of these institutions continues to identify itself as a warranting education unit.

Of the eighteen institutions with known warrants in 1988, thirteen have maintained them as active, vital components in the teacher education unit.

Since 1988, two institutions have discontinued the warrant. The University of Nebraska-Lincoln participated for three years in an "experimental track," offering a warrant to students in an alternative education program. The warrant track, no longer an option, was dropped for economic reasons, although J. O'Hanlon, Dean of UN-L's Teacher College said, "Conceptually, the (warrant track) program was the best plan for the beginning teacher." The warrant at Adelphi University of Garden City, NY was discontinued because of external pressure from sources outside of the institution.

Recent legislation in some states has incorporated features of the educational warrant. For example, in Missouri all teacher education programs are required to cooperatively provide beginning teacher assistance. Effectively, this is a state-wide guarantee of the teacher preparation programs' collective responsibility to the hiring school districts in the state. While this guarantee to provide assistance to beginning teachers stops short of the assurance of the warrant guaranteeing the program graduate's competence, there is evidence the warrant was instrumental in the design of this legislation. Some institutions like Western Illinois University (Macomb, IL), Sam Houston State University (Huntsville, TX), Kansas State University (Manhattan, KS), and California State University (Northridge, CA) have taken elements of the warrant and implemented their own programs to provide beginning teacher assistance.

Conclusion

The warrant will prosper as a feature of teacher education units as indicated by continuity at fifteen institutions, its expansion to thirty-four additional education units, and its compelling advantages. Educational warrants, assurances of the beginning teacher's quality performance, are an appropriate response to the growing call for accountability from all levels of education by the public. The impact of these guarantees will improve classroom instruction, with potential to improve achievement, public perceptions of our profession, and relations between teacher educators and P - 12 teachers.

Closing Note: If you know of an institution with a warrant not mentioned in this article, the authors request you to contact them at Doane College, Crete, NE 68333.



Where Does Rethinking Teacher Education Lead Us?

by Wilma Miranda

It was less than a year ago that I first proposed a teacher education issue to the **Thresholds** Board of Directors. The new peace dividend then in the offing seemed to promise plenty. Whereas the educational reform pundits of the 80's had assumed ineradicable scarcity in resources, it seemed now that we might be released for imaginative initiatives. The walls were coming down. Spirits were high. This might be just the time to consider a broadened educational agenda and its implications for teacher education. Fairly little published work had been done on the problems and commitments of teacher educators. There was an abundance of research and policy analysis focused on the concerns of our major clients, the nation's schools. Their agenda must in part become our agenda. I wondered though, what we would learn from shifting the focus to the teacher education arena itself.

What did the teachers of teachers think about the current state of their art? What did they want to see happen in colleges, departments, and schools of education during the 90's? We sought reflections grounded in the daily experience of administrators, professors, program developers and directors working in teacher education. Since "the guns of August," spirits are not so high.

Yet our authors have offered clear proposals for the general direction of teacher education in the 90's. The discussions herein confront the often con-

tradictory duties imposed by the location of teacher education as a servant of many publics.

What must be restructured in teacher education? The proposed targets include our use of language, patterns of communication, classroom relationships, partnerships with the schools, and our internal norms for workplace citizenship.

Our authors identify tensions of stubborn chronicity--between university norms and responsibilities to public constituencies, between commitments to cultural diversity and the constraints of unexamined Eurocentric assumptions, between the pressure of technological advances and limited resources for student access, between changing knowledge bases and outmoded curricula, between a sense of vocation and the bureaucratic specializations that seem

to undermine ethical debate, and finally, between a stated devotion to democratic institutions and a tacit "practicality" that precludes the possibility.

These difficulties demand specific attention and thoughtful recommendations. The authors represented in this volume write from distinct perspectives. What they share in common is the insight that serious rethinking leads us to an inevitable and formidable task--what they call restructuring. Every author uses the term. What must be restructured in teacher education? The proposed targets include received histories, patterns of communication, classroom relationships, partnerships with the schools, and our internal norms for workplace citizenship. Serious rethinking, these authors claim, will force us to reconstruct our most basic ways of doing business.

The peace dividend has not and may never come. In the meantime, political, economic, and technological change, the very conditions which gave rise to the hope, continue to reshape the world--and education. Rethinking teacher education's agenda for the 90's cannot be avoided. Teacher educators are in a strategically important position to influence the ways in which American education in general will respond to new times. An effective response will require leadership from teacher educators themselves. The first step is to identify ways to put our own house in order. These contributions make an original beginning.



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