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SMITH, ROBERT GRANT
A STUDY OF SOCIETAL FACTORS INFLUENCING
TEACHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT TEACHING
EVALUATION IN MICHIGAN: 1956-1977.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY, PH.D., 1978

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A STUDY OF SOCIETAL FACTORS INFLUENCING TEACHER
EDUCATION AND STUDENT TEACHING EVALUATION
IN MICHIGAN: 1956-1977

By

Robert Grant Smith

A DISSERTATION

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF SOCIETAL FACTORS INFLUENCING TEACHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT TEACHING EVALUATION IN MICHIGAN: 1956-1977

By

Robert Grant Smith

This study investigated possible impacts of societal change on teacher education, particularly on student teaching evaluation, in Michigan from 1956 through 1977. It was felt identification of such relationships might be useful in designing future teacher training programs. The purpose of the study was mainly to generate hypotheses, not to reach conclusions.

Tape recorded interviews were conducted with twenty-seven experienced student teaching coordinators at twenty-three of Michigan's thirty teacher training institutions. Questions were designed to identify categories for organizing data to examine possible impacts of societal change on teacher education. Evaluation forms from twenty-seven Michigan colleges and universities were examined to observe student teaching evaluation changes over a minimum of seven years.

The following data were extracted from the interviews and evaluation forms.

1. There is now more input in teacher training program development from school faculties and teacher unions, state and federal programs, parents of school children, business, and industry.

2. There is more field experience for student teachers, accompanied by more and higher quality observations by a greater number of evaluators. Evaluation is now less confidential.

3. Educational focus is constantly changing.

4. Emphasis on multiculturalism is increasing.

5. Emphasis is decreasing on the importance of student teachers' attire, speech, and personal habits, probably because acceptable behavior is now harder to define.

6. Student teachers are more self-directed and accept their role more comfortably.

7. Teacher education enrollments are declining sharply.

8. In some areas teacher unions are resisting student teacher placements and discouraging prospective teachers from entering the profession.

9. Teacher training institutions are responding to the crowded job market in education with new practices in evaluating and grading.

10. Effort is being made to achieve greater specificity and standardization of teaching competencies.

11. Increased stress is being placed on the importance of human relations.

12. Student teaching evaluation forms now employ more narrative reporting.

13. Grading practices are moving from literal or numerical grading scales toward pass/fail or credit/no credit.

14. There are some discrepancies between what student teaching coordinators feel are important evaluative criteria and the criteria employed on evaluation forms.

Examination of data revealed that societal factors apparently influenced teacher education in the following areas.

1. Changes in program development sources of input resulted from the Vietnam War, unrest of the 60s, demand for educational accountability, civil rights movements, Sputnik, visible critics of education, increased world interdependence, rapidly changing societal institutions and interpersonal roles, the mass media, technology, changing national birth rate, population shifts, and increasing recognition of the importance of uniqueness in the individual.

2. State and federally funded educational programs have flourished.

3. Supervising teachers are better now, probably because of a more stable teaching population.

4. Societal pressures on education are often the result of backlash stemming from educational programs condemned by society.

Based on the above data and identified societal impacts, recommendations for developing new teacher training programs were listed.

1. Input for teacher training program development would be sought from university and school faculties, business, labor, social services, communities involved, educational demographers, and feedback from courses in supervising student teachers.

2. Such a body of decision-makers would be responsible for continuing to identify and standardize teaching competencies, refining evaluation techniques, resolving discrepancies between evaluative criteria felt important by student teaching coordinators and criteria used on evaluation forms, and developing flexible teacher preparation programs responsive to changing societal needs.

3. Program development would emphasize many areas including expanded field experiences for student teachers (both in and out of the classroom), more observations, individualized programs for education students, educational psychology (stressing role interaction), humanism in education, multiculturalism, and learning to adapt to ever-changing educational focus.

DEDICATION

This work is directed at studying the impacts of society on teacher education. My own education is primarily the result of the impacts of those small segments of society with which I have had the closest and most meaningful contacts. Many are responsible, yet appropriate notice needs to be made of my profound appreciation for the patience of my children, David, Bruce, and Susan, and of my wife, Doris. I also wish to express my deepest gratitude to those members of my family who have helped me recognize the value of diverse kinds of education: my mother, Gladys Smith, and my father, Bob Smith; and Sally, Margaret, Edith, Donelda, Jim, George, and Mary. It is to all of these people that I dedicate this dissertation.

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I wish to express deep appreciation to a number of people who have been helpful in assisting me in the preparation of this study. The members of my doctoral committee, Dr. James Anderson, Dr. Robert Hatfield, Dr. Iwao Ishino, and Dr. William Sweetland, all provided assistance of immeasurable value over a long period of time. The Graduate Committee of the Department of Student Teaching and Professional Development is to be thanked for the generous grant awarded to me in support of this study. I also owe thanks to my typists, Patti Bruske and Marty North.

There is one person without whose help this work could have never come into being. His contributions to my learning how to manage a project of this magnitude stand far above what one could reasonably expect in such an undertaking. For his ideas, time, hard work, understanding, and patience I offer deepest thanks to my committee chairman, Dr. Arden Moon.

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CHAPTER I

IDENTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

It is obvious that society has undergone many changes since the end of World War II. It is equally evident that teacher education has also changed greatly. There is currently growing concern registered by the public that education is failing to keep up with societal change. Taxpayers are no longer willing to accept the burden of financing education unless they are sure that educational programs are suited to the needs of children in our changing society.

With the current demand by the public for educational accountability it is time that we examine the manner in which society changes and the manner in which teacher education changes. We then must determine whether or not it is possible to narrow the gap between societal change and educational change in terms of time and in terms of more accurately reflecting social reality.

The purpose of this study is to examine changes which have occurred in society and changes which have occurred in teacher education, particularly in student

teaching evaluation, and to identify possible impacts which a changing society has had on teacher education. If successful, identification of these relationships may be useful in the planning of future teacher education programs so that students may be helped to better keep pace with an ever-changing society. Support for this idea is provided by Cosper (1965) in the following statement.

Generally recognized as the most urgent need of society in the modern world is sound and effective education. Educational institutions serve as one agency to impart the necessary knowledge, skills, understandings, and values that man is capable of receiving. The teacher is recognized as one of the key persons qualified to develop the basic skills for clear and objective thinking.

The education of the teachers of the future deserves explicit consideration by those charged with the programs of student teaching. Since many institutions in which prospective teachers are prepared have not kept up with educational trends, programs of student teaching should be re-examined and goals broadened to help provide the superior teachers who are in constant demand. (p. 11)

During the 1950s, at the height of the Cold War, American education was subjected to severe criticism by a number of figures in public life, among them Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, with his book, Education and Freedom (1959). The launching of Sputnik by the Soviet Union in 1957 brought the schools under heavy fire from the general public. The Civil Rights movements of the fifties and sixties also introduced factors into American life which would influence education. Other historical events and societal changes which would alter the nature of

education in America included the population explosion, an expanding post-war technology, population shifts, increasing use and influence of the media, the Korean and Viet Nam Wars, increasing power of labor unions, assassination of prominent national figures, the world energy crisis and concomitant economic interdependence, Watergate, zero population growth, and public demand for accountability in education.

American education found it necessary to adjust to the changes in society which resulted from these events.

Institutions of higher education, as well as the public school, are under pressure to examine their programs, the outcomes of the programs, and the costs. The press for this self-examination arises from the current state and funding methods for public education, as well as the pressure for social changes which has held up for examination of these institutions' purposes and stated goals. Teacher education programs within universities and colleges are no exception to these pressures. (Tittle, 1974, p. 2)

Teacher training institutions were compelled to examine and re-evaluate their programs to determine exactly what skills would be necessary for a teacher to possess and use in order to be effective with his students. It became necessary not only to respond with new programs for the preparation of teachers, but to discard, redesign, or create many of the components which make up or lead to the development of the criteria by which student teachers are evaluated.

Purpose of This Research

The specific purpose of this study is to examine changes in society and changes in teacher education, particularly in student teaching evaluation in Michigan, from 1956 through 1977. These changes will be examined to determine possible impacts of societal change on teacher education. Evidence of these changes is substantiated by three prominent educators.

The rapid and everchanging demands of our culture place a premium upon a teacher who can maintain a position of leadership in adjusting to the changes in daily life. . . . The constantly shifting curricular content concepts and vocational requirements necessitate optimum efforts on the part of the teacher to keep abreast of changing technological and societal developments. . . .

Seldom do teachers deliberately anticipate major changes in the education needs of society. Nevertheless, the advent of the space age in the post-1957 years encouraged teachers to consider the fields of secondary science and mathematics as promising areas of concentration and interest. Many teachers with classroom experience received private and public funds to prepare to teach in these fields. At present, government appropriations in specialized academic and vocational areas tend to influence teachers to reassess personal abilities. Moving to another area or field of teaching specialty should reflect personal desire as well as the need of society. . . .

Teachers and the profession reflect technological and societal change. The rapid change which has come to characterize our modern society is reflected by the teacher and his profession. The transforming influence of modern inventions like television, the automobile, and the airplane has been widely discussed and documented by people of our generation. Such influences affect the new teacher's plans for continued professional development. . . . Modern developments in communication offer opportunities whereby each of us can enrich his life. They bring other people and places nearer, and they emphasize our interdependence. The beginning teacher is

faced with the challenge of improving his teaching methods and his human insights to the extent that those he teaches will be able to utilize cultural change for human advancement. (Myers, 1964, pp. 117, 122, 131-32)

Sergiovanni (1975) says:

The 70's mark a new era of concern with regard to job satisfaction of teachers. . . .

We are now in a period of entrenchment, of teacher surplus, of declining student enrollments, and of economic slowdown. Student enrollments are down drastically in elementary schools and are decreasing in secondary schools. Birthrates continue to be down and therefore this trend will continue for some time. Good teaching jobs are already difficult to find and teachers will be increasingly less likely to turn over once they find employment.

Though some may consider low teacher turnover a blessing, it actually poses a number of problems which if not resolved can have grave consequences for the school. Teachers who are dissatisfied with their jobs are now less likely to leave. The reasons for staying are too important. Teachers who would like to turn over but can't are staying on the job for the wrong reasons. Large numbers of teachers who are on the job for the wrong reasons can have serious adverse effects on the school and its students. (pp. 4-5)

Smith (1967) also states:

Education is taking on a new character as a field of study. One aspect of this new character is a persistent demand for empirically tested knowledge, knowledge on which predictions can be based. It is claimed that most of what is now done in teacher education programs is the result of traditions, beliefs, values, and armchair reasoning; that competitive jumping on the band wagon of what is in mode accounts for much of what is called "improvement" in programs. Admittedly there is some truth to this claim. An either-or position is most unwise, however, for values, beliefs, and reflective thinking will always have a place in planning programs. Nevertheless, the present demand for validated and verified knowledge arises in large part from a lack of confidence in decisions that rest on untested hunches, on uncritical transfer of propositions from one field to another, and on keeping up with the Joneses. (p. 278)

Definition of Terms

The following definitions will be used to permit consistent interpretation of the meanings of terms employed in this study.

Student teaching.--a period of consecutive weeks of unpaid classroom teaching by a college student working under the guidance of a certified teacher who bears the primary responsibility for the learning of the students. During this period the student teacher works at acquiring and improving specified teaching skills while assuming increasing responsibility for the learning of the students.

Student teacher.--a college student who is engaged in a student teaching experience (Johnson & Floyd, 1969, p. 15).

Supervising teacher or cooperating teacher.--a teacher of school pupils who also directs the work of a student teacher with these same pupils and who has the primary responsibility for the education of the student teacher.

Coordinator of student teaching or college or university supervisor.--a regular college or university staff member who has as a part or all of his assigned work load the supervision of the activities of student teachers and the relationships and conditions under which these students carry on their work (Johnson & Floyd, p. 15).

Cooperating school and cooperating school district.--a school or school district which provides facilities for student teaching experiences for college students but which is neither controlled nor supported by the college. Ideally, the school district has a written working agreement with the college, setting forth the conditions under which these activities are to be conducted, together with the benefits and privileges extended in both directions (Johnson & Floyd, 1969, p. 18).

Clinical consultant.--a teacher employed by the cooperating school district who spends about half of the school day teaching regular classes and the remainder of the school day helping in the direction of the activities of a cluster, or group of four to ten student teachers in a cooperating school. He also meets with supervising teachers and the university coordinator to plan jointly the activities of student teachers. He has a working agreement with the university or college and is paid jointly by this institution and the cooperating school district.

Competency-based teacher education.--a recently developed means of preparing college students to become teachers through the systematic mastering of recognized teaching skills.

Student teacher evaluation.--qualitative assessment of the student teacher's experience in student teaching, as judged by predetermined criteria which have been established by the teacher training institution and/or the school where the student teaching is being done. This assessment may come from the coordinator, the clinical consultant, the supervising teacher, or the student himself.

Culture.--"The system of norms shared by the members of society, the prescriptions and proscriptions indicating how things should be done or should be appraised" (Yinger, 1965, p. 74).

Subculture.--"a differentiating system of norms of a group which does not have sufficient size or complexity to fulfill all the prerequisites of social life" (Yinger, 1965, p. 76).

Value.--the satisfaction or desire for satisfaction of psycho-physical propensities or interests (Henry, 1955, p. 22).

Limitations

The scope of this work will be confined to teacher education in Michigan from 1956 through 1977. Selection of 1956 as a starting point is based on the fact that by that time state colleges had stabilized as

the principal delivery agency for teacher education. Although certification will be mentioned from time to time, it is not the intent of this study to focus on changes in certification standards. The work is basically historical and is directed toward generating hypotheses, not toward reaching conclusions. It is hoped that this study will open new avenues of thought regarding relationships between society and education.

An effort will be made to retrieve data from all thirty teacher training institutions in Michigan. A good response should ensure a representative population of large and small institutions; urban, suburban, and small community locations; state and private means of financial support; and ethnic composition of the student body. Sources of data will be student teacher evaluation forms and tape recorded interviews with experienced practitioners of student teacher evaluation. The evaluation forms will be those used by the various teacher training institutions in Michigan from 1956 through 1977. The recorded interviews will each be approximately thirty minutes long and will be conducted by the researcher interviewing one practitioner at a time from each college or university. Where there is opportunity for additional data, more than one practitioner per institution will be interviewed.

Data will be requested by sending a letter to the head of each student teaching department, requesting an

appointment for the interview, explaining what kinds of questions will be asked, and requesting that the evaluation forms be available at the time of the interview. If, after about three weeks, there is no response to this letter, a follow-up telephone call will be made to the student teaching department heads. If there is still no positive response from a particular school, that institution will not be included in the study.

Overview of Remainder of Study

The remainder of this work will be conducted as follows. Chapter II will be devoted to examining the literature in terms of changes in society and in teacher education, particularly in student teaching evaluation, over the period from 1956 through 1977. The literature has been divided into two basic categories. First is material which deals mainly with changes in society. The second category includes literature devoted to teacher education. These two groups are comprised of professionally recognized education, sociology, and anthropology journals and books.

The search of the literature was conducted with the assistance of the computerized information retrieval system, ERIC. The following list of descriptors was supplied to the computer:

teacher education	educational history
student teachers	historical reviews
student teaching	change
pre-service education	unions
evaluation	civil rights
evaluation criteria	school integration
teacher evaluation	racial integration
teaching effectiveness	cultural differences
teacher qualifications	social differences
teacher characteristics	ethnocentrism
educational accountability	culture conflict
educational innovation	cross cultural studies

From the list of literature retrieved from the computer, articles were excluded which had no bearing on the study. The remaining articles were examined closely and several more were eliminated, their value to the study being minimal. Some of the references provided bibliographies and lists of other materials which proved helpful in terms of the study. Other material was selected on the basis of recommendations by qualified individuals who were familiar with this work. All of the material used is current within the historical scope of the study and was selected primarily on the basis of its usefulness in providing information relating to change in teacher education and to the study of sociological theory as it may relate to such change.

It was felt that exploration of these possible relationships might best be conducted in this manner.

Chapter III will delineate the design of the study. In addition to the literature, data will be gathered from two principal sources: (a) tape recorded interviews with experienced, professionally recognized student teaching coordinators, and (b) student teaching evaluating forms. Two pilot interviews with local coordinators will be conducted before the remainder of the study is undertaken, for the purpose of refining questioning techniques.

Initially, letters will be sent to heads of student teaching departments in all thirty teacher training institutions in Michigan (see sample letter in appendix) briefly explaining the purpose of the study and requesting a half-hour tape recorded interview with a faculty member who has had at least five years of experience in the evaluation of student teachers. The interview will consist mainly of a number of open-ended questions directed at change in student teacher evaluation, teacher education as a whole, and change in society. A sample of these questions will be enclosed with the letter (see sample questions in appendix). The letter will also request a copy of each different student teaching evaluation form which has been used by that department since 1956, or from the time student teacher evaluation began

at that institution if it was later than 1956. A period of about three weeks will be allowed for responses to the letters to be returned, and follow-up telephone calls will be made to any schools which do not respond to the letter. Appointments for interviews will then be arranged and the interviews will be conducted.

The student teaching evaluation forms will be obtained from the various student teaching departments at the time of the interviews. These forms will be examined for change over a period of time, employing the following criteria for judging change: language and degree of specificity, means of reporting grades, number of people providing evaluative input, and degree of confidentiality. The data so obtained will be reported in Chapter IV.

The tape recorded interviews will be audited and the data recorded in writing. Answers to closed questions will be tabulated (see appendix). Responses to the open-ended questions will be written out, examined at length, and placed into categories which, hopefully, will emerge during this process. Finally, methods will be devised for retaining and coding of the data for ease of retrieval and comparison. These data will be reported in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV will consist of a comprehensive presentation of the data obtained from the tape recorded interviews and the evaluation forms and an exploration of

possible correlations between change in teacher education (as it affects student teacher evaluation) and societal change. The data will be presented in separate categories, each category to be examined individually in terms of possible related societal change and future implications.

Chapter V will include a restatement of the purpose of the study and a summary of its findings. Possible impacts of society on teacher education will be listed, along with a list of recommendations for development of future teacher education programs from which hypotheses may be generated.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Overview

This chapter presents a brief review of the literature on changes in society and teacher education, with a focus on student teacher evaluation. A number of factors relate both to societal change and change in teacher education. It is the purpose of this chapter to examine studies which underscore the importance of these correlated factors as a topic for further study. At the end of the chapter a brief summary is presented.

Societal Changes

Piaget (1970) says that a principal new development,

. . . that characterizes the new situations of education or teaching and that determines all sorts of choices in an ever accelerating and also a coercive way . . . is the totality of the new needs, above all, the economic, technical, and scientific needs of the societies for whose benefit public education is organized. (p. 65)

He goes on to say that there are identifiable societal problems in education for which solutions are sought: cultural unity, or a common educational

foundation; and educational mobility, or adapting the changing individual to the changing society. Piaget also says, "To educate means to adapt the individual to the surrounding social environment" (p. 151).

In a speech given at the Michigan State University College of Education Faculty Orientation Session, September 13, 1978, John Porter, Michigan State Superintendent of Public Instruction, told how legislation and court decisions in recent years had changed the nature of education. Among instances Porter cited were the 1954 Supreme Court ruling in the Brown vs. the Topeka Board of Education case, the 1966 decision regarding collective bargaining for teachers, the ruling by the United States Office of Education that federal aid would be withheld from any public school district practicing segregation after 1967, and the decision in 1970 to provide mandatory educational programs for handicapped and for bilingual students.

Porter went on to discuss the impact of a changing society upon education, stating that in the year 1950 there were few, if any, commercial television sets, commercial jets, computers, credit cards, frozen food, freeways, Holiday Inns, transistor radios (or even transistors, for that matter), or McDonald's hamburgers. Once these items had appeared, said Porter, was "when we made the 'good life' psychologically available for all Americans."

Isaac Asimov (1978), in a recent article, emphasizes the significance of events since 1953 which have shaped life in America. Among technological changes he lists television, transistors, the hydrogen bomb, commercial jet planes, microcomputers, and the space program. Important innovations in medicine and biochemistry include antibiotics, tranquilizers, oral contraceptives, organ transplants, deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), and genetic engineering. Significant changes in human rights and politics (national and international), include various civil rights movements: black Americans, Hispanic Americans, Native Americans, women; a growing feeling of regionalism and nationalism in rapidly changing areas throughout the world; the oil embargo; the Vietnam War; China's entry to the United Nations; detente; and Watergate. Asimov underscores the fact that these societal changes are interrelated and touch virtually every facet of our lives today, such as communication, the economy, transportation, and education (Asimov, 1978).

Pat Lambert, in an article appearing at the same time, cites a number of changes in American society since 1953 which affect the nature of education today. Couples today are married later in life, have 40 percent fewer children, have children later in life, and have twice as many divorces as did couples in 1953. Additional figures supplied by Lambert indicate a population surge to urban

centers and a 40 percent increase in the number of working women over sixteen years of age (Lambert, 1978).

Ramsey (1966) says, "The American family is becoming more and more travel-minded; television is contributing basic information to young people at an early age; and reading materials for all age levels are expanding the horizons of youngsters" (p. 6).

Siegel (1967) says,

. . . educational technology has been developing rapidly. Instructional television and programmed instruction, for example, are no longer novelties; and computers are increasing the efficiency of educational administration, classroom management, and access to library resources. . . . society's demands upon the educational enterprise are changing. These changes entail not only the provision of increased opportunities for formal education to all segments of society, but altered conceptions about the purposes of education in response to changing patterns of work. There is no point to vocational training for jobs that are becoming increasingly automated. Finally, as the behavioral sciences matured, it was inevitable that scholars in these fields would direct more of their attention to classroom teaching and learning. They have been materially aided in this endeavor during recent years by the availability of substantial funds from philanthropic foundations and from the federal government for studying and implementing educational change.

Out of all this has come an interest in educational innovation directed toward two ends not mutually exclusive: quantitative and qualitative improvement. (pp. vii-viii)

Myers (1964) says, "It is frequently asserted that knowledge is continuing to expand at an ever increasing rate. Even if this is only partly true, it has important implications for the secondary school in the years ahead" (p. 122).

Segiovanni (1975) accentuates the increasing importance of accountability,

The demand for a radical reform of schools has increased considerably in the recent past. The slings and arrows of outraged parents, alienated pupils, and overburdened taxpayers are aimed--justly or unjustly--at the educational system's present soft spots: the repressiveness of school control, our failure to meet the diverse expectations of different subcultures, the imprecision of instruction, the soaring costs, and the lack of connection with the world outside. (p. 33)

Finally, Robb (1965) offers these comments on how our changing society has a profound effect upon education and, ultimately, on teacher education.

Let us ask ourselves: "What will happen in education, and in teacher education, as a result of certain general developments and trends at work in our communities and the nation?"

(1) The decline of rural communities. What happens to the "children we left behind" when the vitality of rural America has been sapped?

(2) The population shift to urban, industrial America. What new institutions and new programs are needed?

(3) An integrated society. With ethnic groups, religious groups, and national groups blending as never before, the ghetto will gradually become non-existent--or it will be populated by a diverse people.

(4) The population explosion (including the lengthening of average life span). We still do not believe that there can be such a thing as a water shortage, for instance, sufficient to stalemate a big city despite the imminence of this danger. What are the implications of our disinterest, ignorance, disbelief?

(5) The advance of science with its impact: (1) outer space (2) biophysics and biochemistry--the new elite of science--(3) the changing character of disciplines (4) the third industrial revolution.

(6) The advent of total saturation coverage by mass media. Will the penetration of television and radio into every nook and cranny of our society drive us down into a lumpish, low common denominator of culture, taste, and conduct dictated by the pseudosophisticates of Madison Avenue advertising agencies?

(7) Greater leisure produced by automation and efforts to maintain an adequate employment level.

(8) Rapid transportation, even at supersonic speeds.

(9) The seeming shift in basic values which has encouraged astonishing increments in crime, vandalism, terrorism, and delinquency--jobless, rootless, rebel youth. Are we living in an age of what Fred Hechinger calls "teenage tyranny?" If so, our new battle cry may need to be "Teenager, go home!"

(10) International tensions and involvements of the United States in developments especially among under-developed and just-born nations.

(11) Changing character of our American political, social, and economic philosophy and practice. . . .

How is teacher education reacting to society's changes and new needs? . . . David Reisman, in his book Constraint and Variety in Education, says, "If this dialectic between the parish and the world is endemic in American education--what has definitely changed is the degree of investment in education as a messianic movement." (pp. 2-5)

Changes in Teacher Education

Program Development

Siegel (1967) says,

During the past two decades education has become the subject of research and thinking by behavioral scientists in a new and exciting way. The reasons for the resurgence of professional attention to educational problems by representatives of these allied disciplines are diverse. They include such factors as international competition for technological superiority; enrollment pressures generated both by population increases and social demands; financial assistance for research on education from funds, foundations, and the federal government; improvements in behavioral methodologies appropriate to educational investigations; and the inclinations of behavioral scientists to help shape the future development of formal education as a social institution. (p. 1)

Myers (1964) mentions accountability: "Society's concern for upgrading its educational programs for its children and youth has been mounting for a number of

years. The pressures and responsibilities for teachers to measure up to these expectations are heavy" (p. 102).

Woodruff (1961) says, regarding the forces at work behind the shaping of educational programs,

Education in America is by common agreement a system for helping every person and all people together obtain as much satisfaction as possible in their lives. This attitude toward education is based on certain convictions. One of them is political, one is psychological, and one is philosophical. . . . The political conviction holds that every person is entitled to the right to determine his own life. . . . This conviction leads directly to the need for education in matters of morals and ethics and governmental means for protecting and enhancing personal liberty. Therefore it makes certain requirements of the educational system. The psychological conviction holds that each person naturally strives for the best possible set of circumstances for the satisfaction of his desires and feelings. . . . Aspiration is the key factor in human wants, and feelings have a potential which seems to vary with the capacity to aspire to greater things and with the use of that capacity. Thus education is regarded as an implement for facilitating aspiration, and promoting happiness in place of misery. . . . The philosophical convictions play their role in determining how the schools will carry out the goals of patrons. Thus the philosophical convictions which have the greatest influence on education are those of the educators themselves. The crucial issue in this area is our interpretation of the kind of world we live in. (pp. 13-14)

This, says Woodruff, has an important bearing on the nature of the educational program.

Tittle (1974) says,

There is a clear expression of the need and interest in change from those associated with the student teacher program. Public criticism and lack of confidence in the schools also lend an urgency to the participation of the school, as well as the university, in the examination and change of practical experiences in teacher education. The context for

change, however, is the complete teacher education program, pre- and in-service, since the practical experiences need to be carefully linked with the continuing development of the teacher. (p. 53)

Sergiovanni (1975) states, ". . . training can become outdated in a very short time. Indeed, the moment teachers leave the training institution they embark upon a rapid journey to obsolescence" (p. 34). He goes on to say that student teaching, as it exists, is inadequate: too brief, too artificial, and to get good ratings from the supervising teacher, the student teacher must sometimes evidence or copy bad teaching behavior as well as good (p. 34). "If we could rearrange teacher training programs so that teachers in training spent more time with live children and less with print inked on textbook pages, schooling would improve markedly" (p. 39).

Myers (1964) says, "Recent developments in teacher preparation have encouraged the expansion of the role of professional laboratory experiences" (p. vii); and adds, ". . . the authors are cognizant of the rapid changes and developments in the improvement of the internship process as well as pre-service teacher programs" (p. viii). Myers also says, "Only in comparatively recent years has the teaching profession recognized that any segment of the formal education process, regardless of level, is education itself" (p. 1).

Tittle (1974) agrees, "The need to incorporate more practice in teacher education programs is often

expressed by students in the programs, as well as by teachers and administrators in the school" (p. ix).

Cosper (1965) also concurs and offers a suggestion at the same time: "Much of the confusion which now exists in student-teaching programs is a direct result of the failure of the teacher-education institutions to define clearly the objectives of their student-teaching programs" (p. 82). Later he says, "Supervisory programs are being improved each year, if the general rise in the educational level of preparation of teachers and college supervisors can be used as criteria for improvement" (p. 95). Continuing, Cosper states, "A far-reaching, adequately planned student-teaching program is one which allows the prospective elementary, secondary, and special teachers to work in the school program all hours of the school day over a number of consecutive weeks" (p. 96); and finally he says, ". . . evaluation will become more effective when the student-teaching program is made a stop in a long chain of correlated educational experiences throughout which there have been pre-student-teaching experiences . . ." (p. 98).

Smith (1967) mentions an additional way in which teacher education programs are responding to societal change, stating that the importance of research and development in teacher education is now stressed heavily (pp. 281-85).

Means of Recognizing and Improving
Teaching Effectiveness

Medley (1975) says,

We are all concerned by the fact that we are spending so many millions of dollars and so much effort in the development and implementation of programs, with so little knowledge of what kinds of teacher behaviors really are associated with increased growth of pupils. The possibility that all this effort may be wasted is a real one. . . . We must agree that we do not know very much and that some portion of what we "know" may not be true. (pp. 20-21)

"The cost in time and money involved in the conduct of validation research will be reduced materially if this is done in the context of an ongoing program rather than separately from such a program" (Medley & others, p. 32).

Dussault (1970) states,

Student teaching has a long history. In the course of time, considerable information about its nature has been accumulated; volumes of professional opinion have been advanced; yet, a very limited amount of verified knowledge is presently available. Without denying the importance of wisdom and of intelligently abstracted ideas from experience and observation, it is time to focus on the verification, modification, or rejection of notions now held and on the discovery of new knowledge about practice in this field. (pp. viii-ix)

He goes on, "It has been consistently reported that the use of a system of analysis has resulted in measurable changes in the teaching behavior of the supervisee" (p. 241). Dussault also says that the better psychologically adjusted a teacher or student teacher is, the better teaching behavior he will evidence. He adds that numerous psychological changes occur during a

student's college career. The implication is that means of educating prospective teachers must be identified and implemented which will optimize psychological growth, thereby improving potential teaching behaviors (pp. 243-44).

Tittle (1974) says,

The study of teaching tasks and skills, as in micro-teaching, may help to focus on the analysis of what leads to behavior change in pupils and, with follow-up studies on the permanence of changes, may contribute to understanding teaching effects where the more global analysis and nonexperimental one has not. However, this should be modified by the possibility that the development of observation techniques, and their implementation over a number of situations and teachers, may result in statements about teaching and pupil changes which are generalizable. . . . Of the methods used in measuring effectiveness, supervisory ratings seem the least promising. . . . The studies with observation instruments seem promising. Videotape records will permit the use of a number of instruments, their comparison and integration, and linking to pupil behavior changes. As standardized tests have been useful in a variety of assessment situations, or perhaps will standardized observation instruments be useful in teacher assessment. (p. 86)

Tintera (1961) states that results of experiments indicate that the use of tape recordings and videotaping in teacher training helps teachers rate higher (more favorably), on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Survey, the Student Attitude Scale of Teaching Problems, and the (Teacher) Self-Describer (pp. 8, 34). He also says that further experiments indicated that self-evaluation by student teachers is both helpful to them and desired by them (p. 36). He adds, "The possible use of the newer media for student teacher training may well be to expand

and enrich the development of future teachers rather than to replace existing instructional procedures" (p. 38).

Smith (1967) also feels there is value in using tape recordings, videotapes, and 8mm film in conjunction with analytical conferences between coordinators and student teachers (p. 247).

Myers (1964) agrees: "Research studies, pointed to examining the cause of teaching success, have consistently shown a correlation between teaching success and a wide use of materials and resources by the teacher and the pupils" (p. 68). He continues:

The rapid increase in knowledge is reflected in the growth of the secondary school curriculum. The average high school today offers more than one hundred courses. . . . Such wide course offerings provide a challenge to new and experienced teachers to gain sufficient information so that they may advise pupils effectively. (p. 129)

Myers also stresses recent recognition of the importance to teaching effectiveness of continued learning contacts through the teacher's professional career (p. 132).

Barr (1961) provides a number of insights regarding teaching effectiveness:

Over the past several decades, many studies have been carried out on teachers and related aspects of the teaching complex. Personal characteristics of teachers have been assessed with objective psychometric instruments as well as with ratings by superintendents, principals, peer-teachers, and students. The environment of the classroom has been examined with view for assessing the teacher while working on the job. Also, teachers have been assessed in terms of changes in the behavior of their students. . . . In view of these many studies, it seems

reasonable that the time has been reached when we should stop and take inventory of some of the data and findings which have been acquired over these decades. (p. 58)

Barr found that good teachers, as compared with poor teachers, were "more vigorous, more enthusiastic, and happier, less attractive, more emotionally stable, more pleasant, sympathetic, and democratic, possessed a better speaking voice, and displayed a keener sense of humor" (p. 91). "Good teachers asked fewer fact questions and more thought questions than poor teachers" (Barr & others, 1961, p. 94).

It is implied, in studies by D. A. Worcestor, that if a teacher is effective in one phase of a subject he teaches, he will probably be effective (a) in all phases of the subject, (b) under other conditions, (c) in other subjects, (d) with children of varying mental ability, (e) with children of either sex, and (f) in nonacademic areas (Barr & others, 1961, pp. 120-22).

Means of Coping with Individual Differences

Cosper (1965) says,

The program of student teaching must attempt to develop a sense of responsibility toward the pupil. In this respect a major goal should be to provide experiences in recognizing individual differences among pupils and to stimulate a desire to find means of coping with these differences in teaching and learning. (p. 82)

Cosper adds that the development of an adequate student-teaching program is the most crucial problem facing

teacher education institutions today; and an important element to include in teacher education programs is that of self-evaluation (p. 83).

Myers (1964) states that some schools are now handling individual differences by implementing,

. . . a variety of grouping plans for different instructional purposes, to meet individual differences in learning and motivation. More variety is also being provided in general education courses through such innovations as team teaching, television and videotape, ungraded plans, specialized projects, seminars, and independent study. . . . (p. 63)

Smith (1967) says,

If the student is to be valued for what he is and can become, his individual, personal style will need to be nurtured deliberately by those who work closely with him over sustained periods of time. As Combs and others have suggested, there are definable ways of nurturing the person in the student, of protecting and encouraging his individuality. Fundamentally, however, only the teacher who himself feels respected for what he is, who experiences the freedom to exercise his own personal style in his work, and who cherishes such freedom for others is likely to be successful in nurturing the individual, personal development of a student. By extension, it can be seen that those responsible for creating the conditions in which teacher educators work contribute in a major way to the encouragement of individuality and personalization by their selection of personnel and by the freedom with which they surround persons. (pp. 291-92)

Woodruff (1961) states,

Our experiences with the world register within us in the forms of concepts, values, and feelings for things, language, skills, and habits. They then become the controlling elements in determining what we try to do and how we do it. (p. 63)

While concepts are forming through experience, the individual is also learning what value each of the objects and forces has for him through his impressions

of how each of them affects him. This sense of value becomes a part of each concept and determines how he feels about it. This tends to influence his behavior toward that thing. (p. 75)

Woodruff continues,

The way a teacher shows a referent, clears up its concept through discussion, and gets students to try it out in behavior, will vary with the kind of referent being studied, and with the previous learning of the students. . . . Symbolic materials are being memorized to some degree in every lesson, but they will be learned effectively only when appropriate drill is used for symbols that have meaning to the student. (pp. 115-16)

He goes on, "Unhealthy behavior patterns are learned as easily and by the same steps as healthy ones when they are more successful in relieving tension" (p. 193). "A student's feelings about school are a product of his successes and failures in school" (p. 197). "Response to a lesson, course, or curriculum will vary with the extent to which the student sees that it goes where he wants to go" (p. 214). "The formation of values and ideals depends on having concepts in which the proposed way of living is seen as producing very desirable results" (p. 217).

Woodruff sums up the idea of moving from group, content-oriented instruction to individualized education with this statement: "The major objective of education is to enable students to make wise choices, and to cause them to strive to manifest in their lives the best qualities of our culture" (p. 46).

Role Perception

Sergiovanni (1975) says,

The efforts to humanize and open up the schools that began in the late 60's have resulted in the appearance of a large number of professionals who do not view themselves as supervisors in the usual sense, but who are committed to aiding teachers to develop more effective educational programs for their children. (p. 51)

Myers (1964) states,

As adults, teachers enjoy the privilege of drawing present attitudes and practices from a varied background of previous experiences. Formal education directs or encourages elements of planning, competition, personal analysis, and cursory evaluation. Most teachers working with other adults readily recognize the value of introspection and its role in an individual's present and future development. In contrast, high school adolescents consistently gear their life to the judgment, advice, and direction of others. (pp. 81-82)

Myers also feels that it is becoming increasingly necessary to educate people to use their increased leisure time more satisfactorily. He says further that the new teacher of today views his teaching role far differently than did the new teacher of a generation or two ago; and that both teacher and students can "progress toward maturity when growth is considered in its physical, mental, emotional, social, and ethical dimensions" (p. 132).

Smith (1967) states that teachers,

. . . tend to take on the ideas, the attitudes, the values, and the behaviors they perceive in their professional subculture, as displayed by members in it with whom they are in close contact. So, too, it can reasonably be assumed that teachers in

their "becoming" take on the subculture of their profession as they perceive its values, attitudes, ideas, and behavior displayed by those around them. (p. 291)

In addition to the earlier statement by Sergio-vanni, he says,

We found, in our experimental in-service programs, two basic sources of perpetual error: first, teachers frequently lack familiarity with the life styles of different subcultures; and second, children and teachers often enter the classroom with conflicting beliefs about what is important and unimportant in life. (p. 46)

Whiting (1963) states, "As a means of education, the school is evaluated differently by different status groups within the community" (p. 926).

Recognition of Reasons for Urban
Minority Children Doing
Poorly in School

Ogbu (1974) says, ". . . a problem that has bedeviled educators, sociologists, psychologists, political leaders, parents, and children: Why is it that some children, and especially minority children living in cities, do so badly in school?"

Ogbu feels that educators identify with middle class whites and they assume that children must first learn middle class values to succeed. The children see little hope that school requirements will lead anywhere, teachers learn to expect little from the students and pass them on minimum performance, the students think this is good enough, and the parents become bitter to discover

that their children haven't been equipped to succeed in the adult world (pp. xi-xii).

He states,

American public schools are an institution established by the society to serve the specific needs of the entire society, the needs of its segments, and the needs of individual Americans. Society maintains the schools as long as they serve those vital functions for which they were established or which in the course of time they have developed. The participation of each segment of the society also largely depends on the functions that the public schools serve for that segment. . . . In the same way, individual Americans participate in the school system to the extent that their needs are served by this institution.

Ogbu argues,

. . . that a) the public-school institution in America has not adequately served the needs of subordinate minorities; b) the high proportion of school failure among subordinate minorities constitutes an adaptation to their lack of full opportunity to benefit from their education in contrast to the dominant group; c) the present situation cannot be changed by merely changing the home and neighborhood environments, by changing or abolishing the traditional school organization, by applying eugenics, or even by all of these. Above all, an increase in the opportunity of the subordinate minorities to benefit socially and economically, on an equal basis with whites, from their educational achievements is required.

Ogbu says that success or failure in any enterprise in American society is attributed to individual responsibility, this belief originating in Puritanism.

It is also believed that every American has equal opportunity and that any individual with ability can succeed not only in school but also in society. To seek to "upgrade" oneself is held to be morally good and the proof of this "upward orientation" lies in success. Conversely, it is morally bad not to seek to "upgrade" oneself and failure is the proof that one has not. (pp. 3-4)

Later Ogbu lists a number of people who have, since 1961, attributed school failures of children from poor and subordinate minorities to the schools themselves: Brookover, Gottlieb, Baratz, Guthrie, Kleindorfer, Levin, Stout, Hentoff, Rosenthal, Jacobson, Katz, Leacock, Moore, Rist, Reimer, Sexton, Silberman, and Stein.

Ogbu says that because education is now available to so many people, the American economy is incapable of absorbing increasing numbers of people with good credentials (pp. 7-8).

He goes on to explain how when a segment of society is deprived of the means of attaining valued goals that anomie develops and deviant behavior ensues. He continues:

There are three ways by which American society has traditionally prevented subordinate minorities from receiving full benefits from their education. First, subordinate minorities have generally received inferior education. . . . Second, they are forced to terminate their education sooner than members of the dominant group, partly because of earlier inferior education and partly because of social and economic hardships. . . . Finally, members of subordinate minorities who attain equal education (quantitatively and qualitatively) with members of the dominant group are forced to accept occupation status and wages below those given to whites. . . .

The education dilemma of subordinate minorities is that their children are expected to work as hard as whites in school for fewer ultimate rewards from society. . . . Faced with this educational dilemma, subordinate minorities apparently chose to stop working hard in school since they could neither expect more for their hard work nor force society to change its discriminatory practice. They have thus reduced their anxiety about having to work hard for little by adjusting their efforts downward to a level commensurate with what they think they will actually get for their education.

Ogbu continues, stating that teachers participate in the belief system of the white, dominant society, labeling subordinate minority children as failures before the school actually teaches them anything (pp. 11-14).

Multicultural Education

Teaching technology underwent changes as a consequence of the sudden contact of diverse cultural elements during the fifties and sixties. Evidence of this is cited by educators Brotzman (pp. 16-20, 28); Krosky (throughout work); Sagness (throughout work); and Walberg and Jensen (pp. 175-222).

Support for possible correlation between school desegregation and the advent of multicultural education (with concomitant changes in teacher education and, specifically, in student teacher evaluation) appears plausible through various sociological perspectives. Boulding (1956) says that technological change is a reaction to stimuli from nonconformist subcultures (pp. 94-95); and that hypothetical decisions are communicated to other roles, the feedback from which leads to decisions (pp. 99-100), in this case the decision to implement multicultural education.

Churchman (1968) speaks of comparing the wishes (values) of one subculture with those of another (p. 193). Yinger (1965) states that reduction of a field-supported anxiety (here, a conflict of cultural values) by

restructuring the situation rather than the individual, has been accomplished repeatedly (p. 310). He is suggesting that multicultural education not only will be but has actually already been a societal means of dealing with the collision of value systems generated by school desegregation.

Boulding (1956) (pp. 134-35, 146, 168, 171-72) and Yinger (1965) (pp. 91-92, 117, 127, 158, 189, 196-97) indicate that multicultural education may create situations in which the individual is presented with a great many unfamiliar roles, which in turn could substantially increase the possibility of role confusion and personality disorders.

Over a long period of time, however, there appears to be some hope for a gradual lessening in the alienation of new ideas and an increase in syncretic tendencies (Boulding, 1956, pp. 123, 125-26, 146; Churchman, 1968, p. 210; Yinger, 1965, pp. 201, 261, 297, 301, 310, 318). A problem which we likely must face is that this change (syncretism) will probably not come quickly or easily. Churchman (1968) says, "The bigger the system, the more difficult the problem of legitimate values of the system" (pp. 76-77). Teaching technology which employs knowledge of cultural differences and cultural change should become more effective in dealing with such problems.

Summary

A number of societal forces have been at work in the United States which appear to have affected teacher education today.

A number of major changes have occurred in teacher education in America since 1957, apparently many of them being traceable to societal origins. Among documented educational innovations and modifications are included the following:

1. Program development
2. Means of recognizing and improving teaching effectiveness
3. Means of coping with individual differences
4. Role perception
5. Recognition of reasons for urban minority children doing poorly in school
6. Multicultural education

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF STUDY

The researcher's purpose will be to attempt to identify some relationships between societal changes and changes in teacher education (particularly in student teaching evaluation) which have taken place in the state of Michigan during the period from 1956 through 1977. If successful, identification of these relationships may be useful in the planning of future teacher education programs so that students might be helped to better keep pace with an ever-changing society. The work is not directed toward reaching conclusions but rather toward generating hypotheses.

Sources of Data

In addition to literature, data were gathered from two principal sources: (a) tape recorded interviews with experienced, professionally recognized student teaching coordinators employed by teacher training institutions in Michigan, and (b) student teaching evaluation forms used by these colleges and universities.

The interviews consisted of a number of questions which were asked of the student teaching coordinators, along with their responses to these questions. The first several questions established the identity and professional background of each educator involved and the location, size, means of financial support, ethnic composition of student body, philosophical orientation of each college and university represented, and the length of time that institution had been evaluating student teaching performance. The remaining questions were open-ended and dealt with changes in teacher education as they might have been influenced by changes in society (see Sample Questions in the appendix). The data obtained from the questions were used for the purpose of identifying categories. The presentation of data was organized within these categories, rather than by individual questions. It was planned that each interview would last approximately one-half hour. Two pilot interviews with local student teaching coordinators were conducted prior to the study for the purpose of refining questioning techniques.

Means of Retrieving and Reporting Data

Letters were then sent to heads of student teaching departments in all thirty teacher training institutions in Michigan (see Sample Letter in the appendix), explaining

briefly the purpose and nature of the study and requesting a half-hour tape recorded interview with a faculty member who had at least five years of experience in the evaluation of student teaching performance. A sample of the questions was enclosed with the letter. The letter also requested a copy of each student teaching evaluation form which had been used by that school since 1956, or from the time student teacher evaluation was begun at that institution if it was later than 1956.

A period of about three weeks was allowed for responses to the letters to be returned, and follow-up telephone calls were made to any of the schools which did not respond to the letters. Appointments for interviews were then arranged and the interviews were conducted. The student teaching evaluation forms were obtained at the time of the interviews or, in several instances, were received in the mail.

Tape recorded interviews were held with twenty-seven representatives from twenty-three of Michigan's thirty teacher training institutions, and student teaching evaluation forms were received from twenty-seven schools. It was felt that this response was sufficient to provide an adequate view of changes in society and in teacher education in Michigan from 1956 through 1977.

The tape recorded interviews, which totaled approximately eleven and one-half hours, were audited and the

data were transcribed. Answers to the closed questions (numbers one through six) were tabulated (see Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10 in the appendix). Responses to the open-ended questions (numbers seven through eleven) were separated from the rest of the data and were examined at length so as to determine what patterns, or categories, might be established for the purpose of presenting the data in an organized manner which would be meaningful in terms of the study. From this process the following seven categories emerged:

1. Teacher preparation program development:
sources of input
2. Increasing emphasis on field experience and
feedback
3. Evolving educational focus
4. Emerging emphasis on multicultural education
5. Changing perceptions of teaching/learning-
related roles
6. Student teaching and the job market
7. Assessing student teaching performance

The following means were selected for denoting references to data retrieved from the interviews, which are recorded on both sides of eight cassette tapes. All references consist of a number from one through sixteen,

followed by a hyphen, followed by a number from zero through seventy. The first number represents the side of the tape being used as a reference. Thus, the first side of the first tape is designated "1"; the second side of the first tape is "2"; the first side of the second tape is "3"; and so on, through the second side of the eighth, or final, tape which is designated "16." In the center of each side of every cassette is a scale which indicates the position of the tape within the cassette. This can be any number from zero through seventy, depending on how much of the tape has been wound. Thus, a reference designated 7-33 would mean side 7 (or the first side of the fourth tape), position 33. (In some instances, these numerical references are accompanied by the author's name, e.g., Suchara: 13-57. This means that Dr. Helen Suchara provides the information cited at that point in the study, which can be located on tape side 13, at position 57.) Table 7 in the appendix provides a list of the educators interviewed and indicates where each interview can be located in the tapes.

Having thus established the means of classifying and coding the data, they are presented in Chapter IV in the following manner. Each category of information is dealt with separately. After an expository paragraph the supporting data are presented, followed by an exploration of possibly related societal influences

and an enumeration of future implications. Each of the seven sections concludes with a brief summary.

The final portion of Chapter IV is devoted to a presentation of the data obtained from the student teaching evaluation forms. A total of fifty-eight forms was received, representing twenty-seven teacher training institutions and the two major metropolitan Detroit teacher unions. Table 1 in Chapter IV lists the sources of the evaluation forms and the year each was introduced. Inasmuch as the purpose of this study is to examine changes in teacher education over a period of time, it was decided to use only those forms from any given school which spanned a period of at least seven years. This reduced the number of schools whose forms were being used to thirteen (see Table 2 in Chapter IV). In the case of each of these thirteen schools, only two forms were employed for comparison: the earliest form provided and the most recent.

The student teaching evaluation forms were then examined for language and degree of specificity, means of reporting grades, number of people providing evaluative input, and degree of confidentiality. The data retrieved are presented in Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6, respectively, in Chapter IV. These tables are followed by a brief summary of these data, possible related societal factors, and future implications.

The remainder of the study, Chapter V, is devoted to a summary of all data retrieved, a discussion of the possible impact of societal change on teacher education, and a presentation of recommendations for future teacher education programs from which hypotheses may be generated.

CHAPTER IV

EXPLORATION OF POSSIBLE IMPACT OF SOCIETAL CHANGE ON TEACHER EDUCATION (AS AFFECTING STUDENT TEACHING EVALUATION)

Introduction

In this chapter the data from the tape recorded interviews and the student teaching evaluation forms are presented. Data from the responses to the following closed questions are tabulated and presented in the appendix:

What is your name?

How long have you been coordinating student teaching programs?

At which teacher training institutions?

At which college or university are you currently working with student teachers?

What kind of school is this: size, means of support, ethnic composition of student body, philosophical orientation?

How long has this school been involved in the evaluation of student teachers?

Data from the open-ended questions (listed below) are examined at length in this chapter:

Can you recall specific times when the emphasis in any area of student teacher evaluation was changed?

(This includes the introduction of new criteria or components which lead to the development of new criteria for evaluation.)

What was the nature of the changes?

When did it/they occur?

What factors, from within, and particularly from outside the academic community, do you feel were most instrumental in bringing about these changes?

Do you see social forces at work today which you feel will affect student teaching experiences and their evaluation? If so, what direction might these changes take?

Upon examining the data retrieved from the responses to the above questions, seven categories emerged which would be useful in identifying change in teacher education (and particularly in student teacher evaluation) as potentially related to societal change. These categories follow:

1. Teacher preparation program development and input
2. More field experience and feedback
3. Evolving educational focus
4. Emerging emphasis on multicultural education
5. Changing perceptions of teaching/learning-related roles
6. Effects of the job market
7. Assessing student teaching performance

Each of the seven categories is presented below in four main parts: (a) an examination of the changes in teacher education (specifically in student teacher

evaluation) as supported by data from the tape recorded interviews; (b) an exploration of possibly related societal change; (c) a listing of future implications; and (d) a brief summary. Data retrieved from the student teaching evaluation forms will be presented immediately following the data presented in these seven categories.

It should be noted that for the sake of clarity, some quotations from the tape recordings are augmented by explanatory words or phrases, added by the author of this study. Such additions will appear in brackets.

Teacher Preparation Program Development:
Sources of Input

Twenty years ago, "there was not as much involvement of school people in . . . recommendation and decision-making, regarding student teaching programs" (Suchara: 13-8). Not only the schools, but also the local community, the federal government (as an arm of the national community), the teacher unions, and the college and university students themselves are supplying significant input in teacher preparation program development--an area which at one time was considered almost entirely within the province of the individual institution of higher learning. In this section these various sources of input will be examined, possible societal influences will be explored, and further considerations stemming from these changes will be listed.

Supporting Data

In considering input from the schools, we discover that teacher unions, administrators, and counselors are all involved in the shaping of teacher education programs. In Michigan in recent years there has been a concerted effort on the part of the Michigan Education Association to have a voice in determining how teachers will be prepared for the profession. Hendricks says that teacher organizations are exerting more pressure today to stress more field experience than before; now, as a consequence, teacher preparation is more relevant than ever before, because it is more field oriented than classroom oriented (5-43 to 5-49). Hendricks adds that field-based programs lend themselves to the adoption of competency-based teacher education. Doneth (3-67) says that the Michigan Education Association has caused change in teacher education and that he feels that union control can be "scary," although may be right for the Michigan Education Association. Kennedy mentions "the interests of the National Education Association and the Michigan Education Association in controlling teacher education" and the concomitant place of the classroom teacher. He feels:

The teachers are already involved in it [the control of teacher education] probably more than they ought to be, because the most important experience in the whole teacher education program is student teaching, and that is more frequently limited by the classroom teacher than by any factor I could name. . . .
(12-34)

Hamlin (7-20) feels that because of the increasing power of teacher unions, and unionism in general, that teacher education in Michigan is tainted by a pervading philosophy of "What's in it for me?" He feels that it is possible to avoid this problem; that the state of Washington, for example, deals more with the needs of the child. Hamlin also says (7-43) that because of the highly competitive nature of today's job market that the teaching profession will gradually control more program input. Rod-erick feels that for a long time universities ignored teachers, but the teacher union movement shook up the colleges, to the good of everyone concerned. He says that teacher unions have a voice which needs to be heard (15-55 to 15-58). An example of a successful teacher preparation program which was abandoned as an undesired consequence of union action was Central Michigan University's intern program, winner in the 60s of the A.T.E. award as the outstanding teacher preparation program. This program was discontinued because local education associations no longer wished to employ noncertified teachers when certified teachers were in need of jobs (Blue: 2-31).

Besides teacher unions, other school personnel, including individual supervising teachers, have contributed to deciding how to prepare teachers. Cornish mentions the fact that the supervising teachers wanted their student teachers in the classroom a full day so the University of

Detroit changed from two semesters of half-day contact to one semester of full-day contact (6-68). Slabodan describes a change at Madonna College:

Due to pressure from within the school refusing to take students [student teachers] on short-term contact, the length of time for the student teaching contact increased. So did the length of time of each of the [teaching] laboratories. (14-66)

Central Michigan University's classes in supervision of student teaching have provided people currently in teaching an excellent opportunity to supply feedback to the University, describing what they feel is currently important to make student teachers better equipped for their professional careers. Blue elaborates on this point:

I have a feeling that our graduate classes in supervision of student teaching had quite an impact on changing our evaluation forms. We would have in all of our centers . . . at least one semester each year a class in supervision of student teaching; and here we had supervising teachers and administrators both taking these classes. (2-46)

Blue says that feedback from the field occurred through these classes and the student teaching evaluation form was brought in line with this input (2-47). Getting input into programs from the same source (active school personnel) but in a different direction has been achieved in Spring Arbor College's teaching methods class. Using a seminar format, this class is moved into the schools for about two-thirds of its duration, drawing on the entire school staff as resource personnel. Discussions range from discipline to school finance to motivation of students. This change took place in the early 70s when

it was realized that with the college staff being a number of years removed from classroom teaching experience, the teacher preparation program was in need of updated, practical input (Sickmiller: 8-40). At Olivet College, supervising teachers made it known that they wanted more feedback from the College in order to produce a more valuable prospective teacher; so a ten-week seminar was conducted involving college and school personnel. This group drew up guidelines for student teaching and generated a manual for Olivet College's student teachers (Goudreault: 11-11).

At Adrian College, Moeckel brings out the fact that there is implicit administrative input in program development: "We also have the principal sign the form and the principal can make a statement if he wants to" (10-7). Sullivan says that personnel directors rate the final evaluation form as first in importance in getting a job: what the supervising teacher had to say. Second in importance is the interview with the candidate (10-58). As in the preceding reference, this suggests implicitly that there is indirect input into teacher preparation by the principal and by the personnel director, through their indications of what they feel is important to be a successful teacher.

State and federal programs in education also have an effect on teacher preparation programs. Wherever special funds are directed, new programs are developed,

new personnel are employed to staff these programs, and the prospective teacher finds himself involved in a situation which already has the endorsement of the government and the school district in which it is being implemented. Rice says that as society changes, so do requirements for student teachers, for example, increased world trade led to metric education. Programs depend on taxes and the willingness of the public to pay for them (10-31, 10-33). Snider states, "Science programs are much more sophisticated since the 1960's . . . because the federal government pumped money into the preparation of teachers through the science departments." This, Snider says, was in response to Sputnik (16-14). Another important area which has been targeted for much recent government funding is that of special education. Suchara says (13-16) that because of court decisions, legislation, and funding, there have been more special education programs and, consequently, more jobs available in this field of work. TenEyck says, "The mandatory special education law has probably caused the biggest change in our training of teachers"; and adds that pressure from the State Department and public demands for educational accountability are important factors in program development (5-25). Slabodian states that Madonna College has received state and federal funding to develop teacher training programs in competency-based teacher education, special education, and reading. She explains that parents are more demanding

now in terms of special education and are seeing to it that services are provided which will enable these children to stay in school. The public is applying pressure through legislation and funding (14-67, 15-9).

Sometimes pressure for changes in teacher preparation comes directly from the local community. Hope College has a new bilingual/bicultural program, in response to needs perceived by the surrounding 10 percent Latino community (Miller: 4-60). A similar situation arose at Grand Valley State College where an entire teacher education program was initiated as a result of community pressure in this direction (TenEyck: 5-18). TenEyck also says that some of this pressure came from the students themselves who asked Grand Valley officials, "Why should we go to East Lansing, Kalamazoo, Ann Arbor, or Mt. Pleasant to train to be teachers? Why can't we get [teacher training] here?" Potts adds support to community-based pressure affecting teacher education:

I think there is a lot of pressure on people in education to perform. The pressures come from business, industry, and parents. . . . I think it's something that people in education departments are much more aware of in preparation of current education programs. (6-56)

There are times when the impetus for developing new programs is supplied by more than one source, as in Grand Valley State College's case, above. In Grand Rapids, which is served by Grand Valley, community action resulted in the formation of a Latin American Council

whose purpose it was to increase bilingual and bicultural involvement in the schools and in the community. This council, working with the Grand Rapids Public Schools, said to officials at Grand Valley State College, "People are going out unprepared to work with bilingual children; can you provide the kinds of teachers we feel we need for our bilingual programs?" (TenEyck: 5-25). He continues:

A lot of times the ideas come up in the community and if it has any involvement with the schools in the community, the schools will quite often turn to us and say, "We need something different here. What can you provide?"

TenEyck says that requests such as these result in responses from the college in terms of program development. At the University of Michigan, Roderick says that the Ann Arbor Public Schools and the University have jointly, with government funding, planned and implemented, with much success, a comprehensive multicultural program which serves the interests of the children in the schools and of the university students who are training to become teachers (15-55). In 1969, a total reorganization of Wayne State University's teacher preparation program began. A conference was held for the purpose of determining how teachers should be prepared. Invited to this conference were classroom teachers, administrators, parents, and university personnel. From this work evolved Wayne State's Interdisciplinary Teacher Education program. Teams were organized to work on this project which were made up of university faculty, community representatives, school faculty, parents, and

university students. At this same time the Michigan Education Association made it known that they felt teachers were being inadequately prepared and selected a task force to deal with this problem. From the task force's blue ribbon report was generated a list of requirements and guidelines for working with student teachers, which was sent to the various local education associations. Among the findings of the task force, which was comprised of representatives from colleges and communities, as well as from the schools, emerged the fact that a strong feeling existed that student teachers were not being adequately prepared to meet the cultural needs of the students and, therefore, of the teachers also. After the report was published the colleges and universities had ample opportunity to respond. In the Detroit area various councils came into being whose purpose it was to contribute vigorously to teacher preparation programs. These councils include the Macomb, Oakland, and Wayne County Teacher Education Councils, and M-STEP, the latter of which is affiliated with the Detroit Federation of Teachers. Among the changes in preparing teachers which have resulted from the work carried out by these councils is Wayne State University's requirement that a student graduating in education will have had a minimum of three field experiences, hopefully in three different cultural settings, so as to better equip him to work with children from diverse

backgrounds (parts of these field experiences are designed at the local school level). It is worth mentioning, also, that between 1974 and 1977 the above councils have had a role in developing the student teacher evaluation forms used by all colleges and universities placing student teachers in the Detroit metropolitan area (Suchara: 13-61 to 14-17). In another kind of attempt at identifying and standardizing those qualities which appear to contribute to successful teaching, Goudreault mentions the Michigan Deans and Directors of teacher education, who have generated forms seeking standardization; but they have found the task a difficult one because of the large number of teacher training institutions involved (11-16).

Possible Societal Influences

It has already been brought out how teacher preparation program development and input are functions of pressures exerted by the teacher unions, supervising teachers and other school personnel, state and federal funds, the local community, and the world community. A number of Michigan educators cite specific instances in which they perceive relationships between changes in the nature of input to teacher preparation programs and social change.

Cornish links student input in the college curriculum to the student unrest of the 1960s which, in turn, was probably due to the effect of the Viet Nam War

on student attitudes (6-63 to 6-68). Hall feels that programs have changed, both as a consequence of urbanization and of the responsibility for learning having shifted from the youngster to the school (3-24 to 3-29). Rice associates the current demand for accountability in program content to political and economic causal forces (10-33). Myers concurs (12-61) and adds that along with competition by colleges and universities for federal funds for program development has come competition for institutional growth, which has ultimately saturated the current job market. McCarley says that Admiral Rickover and other critics of education have brought about changes in program development (1-45). Roderick states that recent trends in multicultural education are the result of concern for minority groups, for other cultures, and for people's own cultural heritage; and this led to the federal government's push in funding multicultural programs in education (15-55). Snider agrees and says that desegregation has had a profound effect on teachers and on teacher preparation (16-9). Comeau says, regarding the direction education and, therefore, teacher education, has been taking:

In the sixties the "Romantic Critics": . . . Cozall, Herndon, Holt, and so on, made us take a look at the schools . . . what they were responding to was the kind of formal structure and emphasis on the cognitive domain that came out of the late fifties, when we were trying to keep up with Russia with the Sputnik and Jerome Brunner and the process of education. . . . As a result, people like Carl Rogers had an influence [on what went into the development of education and, concomitantly, teacher training programs]. (4-23)

Future Implications

The students of the sixties were very demanding regarding input in college programs, student teaching being no exception (Cornish: 6-62). There was an important outcome of this occurrence: intense public feedback to the rebelling students. The public suddenly began to demand to know why the students weren't getting out of school what the public felt they should, so the public applied pressure on their legislators, where funding for public schools and state colleges and universities was controlled (Slabodan: 15-9). Public demand for educational accountability has already resulted in extensive changes in programs for prospective teachers. It is reasonable to assume that this heightened public awareness of the need for quality education will continue as long as the public is required to pay the bill for public education, and that colleges and universities will need to keep responding to public demands with programs in teacher education which will ensure good teaching in the public schools.

With recent emphases on career education, it appears that business, labor, and industry might soon be voicing more strenuous demands to have a hand in the shaping of teacher education. This is already a fact with the teacher unions. Hamlin feels the teaching profession will gradually control more program input (7-43)

and Snider says that the Michigan Education Association will be increasing its influence on teacher education program design (16-7). Sutton states that teacher training programs might soon be directed toward the adoption of a sort of internship program whereby first-year teachers would be placed under the supervision of supervising teachers within a given school system. The benefits of such a program would be great, especially in the area of input and feedback directly from the field.

Another source of input into the student teaching experience and its evaluation is the rapidly expanding field of educational psychology. Snider says there is a

. . . social movement influencing the schools: why can't individuals read, why can't individuals be passed? . . . In the psychological field the reaction is: how do kids learn? . . . different children learn different ways . . . math is taught differently than social studies. These are things that teachers need to understand. (16-14 to 16-18)

From educational psychology we are learning these necessary things about teaching, about the learner, about the nature of learning, and about the nature of today's changing society (Myers: 12-65).

Ultimately, we might hope that we can expect incoming student teachers to be sufficiently knowledgeable to supply their own input, to design their own field experience in terms of eliminating weaknesses and increasing strengths; and yet, we find that this is already beginning to happen in some areas. Cornish mentions

student teachers, along with their professors, designing their programs and criteria (6-62); and Hendricks describes a field-based program in which the students design their own evaluation instruments (6-3, 6-20).

Summary

Major Findings

Whereas teacher training institutions used to be almost exclusively responsible for teacher preparation program development, now a number of other sources are supplying major input. Among these are teacher unions, supervising teachers, administrators and other school-related personnel, state and federally funded programs, parents, business, and industry.

Possible Societal Influences

Some Michigan educators attribute this change in input source, in part, to the following societally related factors:

1. The Viet Nam War and accompanying student unrest of the sixties
2. Urbanization
3. The responsibility for learning having shifted, in the eyes of the public, from the pupil to the school
4. Public demand for accountability

5. Civil rights movements
6. Highly visible critics of education, such as Rickover and Holt

Future Implications

1. The teaching profession, trade unions, business, industry, and the local community in general will gradually be supplying increasing input into the development of teacher training programs.
2. A new teacher internship program may be developed, supplying immediate dialogue between the prospective teacher and current educational practice.
3. The influence of educational psychology, as more is being learned in this area, is increasing in teacher training.
4. Teacher preparation may become completely individualized in terms of the strengths, weaknesses, and needs of each prospective teacher.

Increasing Emphasis on Field Experience and Feedback

There are a number of issues which have developed around the provision of practical experiences within teacher education programs. . . . The school, with its more practical emphasis on doing or teaching in the classroom, can be opposed to the university and its emphasis on the development of theory and a research base for teacher education programs. With the movement of teacher education programs to a university setting, the values of research and an increased emphasis on professionalization for teachers can be discerned. The changing emphasis

in the university setting is reflected in a continuing dialogue about the role of practical experiences, the setting in which practical experiences can be provided, the costs of providing these training experiences, and the problem of defining the practical experiences themselves. (Tittle, p. ix)

In this section the increasing emphasis on field experience in teacher education will be examined, possible relationships with societal factors will be explored, and future implications will be listed.

Supporting Data

There is now a greater amount of time devoted to pre-teaching field experience, both through the length of the student teaching experience and the number of experiences. This fact is supported by a number of Michigan educators. Suchara says that in 1956, Wayne State University used only one pre-service field experience, in the laboratory school, but soon added an assignment in the Detroit City Schools (13-34). Now Wayne State requires three pre-student teaching experiences (five half-days per week for three terms) working directly with the classroom students, under a supervising teacher's guidance, in which the staff of each school involved helps plan the student's experiences, with the aid of the college coordinator (14-17). Suchara also brings out the point that since 1967, Wayne State's student teachers have been placed in culturally different settings for each of their pre-service field experiences (13-57). Miller says of

Hope College's teacher preparation program that there is now more emphasis on the importance of student teaching than there was fifteen years ago. There is more specificity and the quality of the observers is now better. Observations have increased in number from one per semester to a minimum of four (4-46 to 4-50). Hall says that Alma College's teacher education program has been changed "to include much more field experience for students" (3-14); and Hendricks says there is now much more field experience than before (5-43). Hamlin states that student teachers at Oakland University now have sixteen weeks in the field; whereas as recently as 1974 they had just twelve weeks, preceded by a four-week "educational tactics" course (7-33). Slabodian says that Madonna College added more field experience to their requirements in 1970, some involving contact with the pupils in the schools as early as the freshman year; and because supervising teachers have shown an increasing tendency toward not tolerating the student teachers moving in and out so quickly, the length of teaching labs and of the student teaching term have increased (14-66). Sickmiller says that at Spring Arbor College in 1976, the student teaching experience was lengthened from ten weeks to a full semester, adding three to four weeks to the time student teachers spent in their classrooms. This was the result of a need perceived by the college faculty:

. . . to upgrade the program, to give the students a stronger kind of experience. We did this on the assumption that more time out there between the tenth and the thirteenth or fourteenth week would be a crucial time when students would be able to put that extra polish on, that they would not otherwise have. . . . Hopefully, this will give especially the borderline students a chance to put a little extra edge on their performance, so their evaluation will be better. (8-45)

Sullivan says that student teachers at Nazareth College, most of whom are training in the area of learning disabilities, have, in the past, spent eight weeks in the regular classroom and eight in a resource room; but starting in the fall, 1977 term, an additional eight weeks in the same resource room are required (10-62). TenEyck describes the field experiences at Grand Valley State College, stating that the emphasis is on "early and sustained exposure to what school is all about before they [the students] do their actual student teaching." He says that the students are given a ten-week experience of teacher aiding, or pre-student teaching; and that additional work has been added recently, getting the prospective teachers into the schools in their freshman and sophomore years. He adds that each student is required as part of his field experience, to spend the first three weeks of a school year in a classroom (5-10). Moeckel, in describing Adrian College's program, says that prospective teachers at that institution are required to have at least one hundred hours of pre-student teaching experience directed by the College. This can be work with pupils as tutors or

teaching assistants, or work with youth groups in the summer or evenings. In the near future this requirement will be raised to three hundred hours (9-56). Moeckel adds that the student teaching term itself has been increased from eight to twelve weeks (9-64). Goudreault brings out some unique features of Olivet College's teacher preparation program. During the first six weeks of the senior year education students are on campus for history and philosophy of education and general education methods courses. During this time the student goes twice a week to his assigned school district to spend time talking with the school employees (e.g., the principal, teachers, cooks, custodians) and to do some clerical work in the classroom. Then, for the remaining twelve weeks in the term, he does his student teaching in that classroom (11-55).

In a few instances, although the scheduling of the field experience has been shifted, the total amount of classroom contact has not been significantly changed. The University of Detroit, Eastern Michigan University, and Albion College have all gone from half days of student teaching over a long term to full days in a shorter period of time (Cornish: 6-68; Tibbles: 8-9; and Elkin: 11-69).

Because of today's greater emphasis on field experience, there is now more dialogue between student

teacher and supervising teacher, between student teacher and university coordinator, and between supervising teacher and university coordinator. Because of this increased exchange of ideas, more assistance is available now to all of these individuals in making the student teaching experience more useful. A variety of benefits derived from this increased dialogue is described by a number of Michigan educators.

Potts says the student teacher at Aquinas College and the coordinator jointly determine the duration of the student teaching experience, which may be any length from eight to sixteen weeks, depending on the student teacher's individual needs (6-54). Hendricks says that at Calvin College the pre-student teacher shares in the development of his evaluative instrument which encourages him to solicit evaluative feedback from the pupils he has in pre-student teaching (6-3). Hamlin outlines the manner in which increased field experience is helping (7-12). Evaluation was, in the past:

. . . pretty much sitting in the back of the room and writing down little notes about certain types of behavior, and then giving these little notes to the student teacher and bouncing off to the next room to watch another performance.

Later, in going to a competency-based teacher education program, Hamlin says:

The emphasis went from the professor sitting back, watching the student perform, so to speak, to one where the professor set up goals of performance and certain behavioral objectives for the student to perform, and then sat back and looked for specifics.

Myers also mentions a trend toward greater specificity of goals and more self-evaluation on the part of the student teacher in connection with a greater frequency of visits by the coordinator and a more intense field experience (12-56). Goudreault says that visitations at Olivet College, prior to 1966, were inadequate and that there was not enough communication between supervising teachers and the College. At that time the College teacher education personnel and the supervising teachers convened and put together a handbook of guidelines which outlined the goals and description of the student teaching experience. This work, along with a drive for NCATE accreditation, which was obtained about 1971, resulted in more visits by the coordinators and by professors who were supervising student teachers within their discipline. This helped strengthen the student teacher's skills earlier in his student teaching experience, and also helped him decide earlier whether or not the teaching profession was for him. Extra staff was hired, more people became involved in the evaluation process, and faculty from the public schools became involved in teaching classes at the college to education students. This served to give an increased practical knowledge of "What is going on now in the public schools?" to prospective teachers. One particularly useful result of this new kind of contact was the familiarizing of the student teachers with the intermediate

school district facilities (11-11, 11-32, 11-42). Rod-
erick also mentions the fact that more people are now
involved in evaluation than before and adds that there is
more field experience in the form of pre-student teaching,
allowing the student teacher a head start and actually
changing his role (15-36). Moeckel says of the Adrian
College program:

We try to visit our people every week . . . so that
we know quite a lot about what they're doing and
can compare [notes and evaluations] with the super-
vising teacher. . . . We give them [supervising
teachers] quite a lot of help. We have conferences;
I give them written materials that will give them
ideas on how to write this [evaluation] up. (10-13)

Moeckel also mentions the fact that the student teacher,
with guidance from the coordinator, completes a comprehen-
sive self-evaluation at mid-term, and then concentrates
on specified needs for the remainder of the term (9-66).
The field experience at Wayne State University is extended
to the parents of the student teachers, in that the Uni-
versity staff makes an effort to acquaint the parents with
the diverse cultural settings in which their sons and
daughters will be doing their student teaching. The
feedback from this has been useful in program develop-
ment (Suchara: 13-58). Suchara also explains how stu-
dent teachers are taught to work with various forms of
interaction analysis so they might better understand how
to cope successfully with their own feelings and those
of others. Student teachers must demonstrate some

proficiency in responding to the feedback they obtain in these analyses (14-58). Sullivan also mentions the use of interaction analysis, but in a context of inservicing supervising teachers for use with their student teachers, making more feedback available when evaluating their classroom performance (10-57). Sullivan also relates how student teachers at Nazareth College invite school-related personnel to assist with the weekly seminars for student teachers. Such resource people as school social workers, principals, psychologists, school nurses, counselors, and media specialists are brought in to share their expertise with the prospective teachers (10-64). Slabodian, too, mentions the use of additional resource personnel by conducting discussions involving Madonna College's student teachers at a variety of schools and giving the prospective teachers a broader experience through contact with these people who are currently in the field of professional education (15-2).

Slabodian also underscores the importance of a new role which the coordinator can assume: that of classroom teacher, in which the coordinator models the teaching of a lesson for the benefit of the student teacher, exhibiting specified teaching skills and strategies with the same pupils the student teacher has (15-13 to 15-16). McCarley stresses another role performed by the resident coordinator, or clinical consultant. Being

assigned to a given building or small group of buildings, the clinical consultant can provide much more feedback because he can get into the classroom more easily and more frequently. The clinical consultant enjoys the additional advantage of being able to accommodate fluctuating enrollments (1-30). Kennedy also mentions the value of the clinical consultant, working with a cluster of student teachers. He states that greater feedback and inservice of supervising teachers is possible through this arrangement (12-25, 12-41).

Possible Societal Influences

It is difficult to identify social factors which are linked with the increasing emphasis on field experience. It is of questionable value to simply say, "the more, the better," and assume that the matter is explained. Several educators provide clues which are useful. Suchara states that in the late fifties and early sixties, with burgeoning school enrollments, schools employed many unprepared teachers. Individual departments within colleges responded by preparing worksheets for student teachers, requiring them to keep a daily log, and discussing skill development in conferences. This was a loose form of competency-based teacher education (13-44). Moeckel says that Adrian College has conducted a follow-up study at the end of the first year of teaching by Adrian graduates since 1963. The feedback obtained in

this study has resulted in a dramatic increase in the amount of field experience required, as indicated on page .

Not all instances of increased field experience were successful in terms of continuation of the program. Central Michigan University's Intern Program is an example of this. The program, which started in 1959 in response to a need for better prepared teachers, eventually had to be abandoned as an increasing number of certified personnel began competing with the interns for a decreasing amount of available employment; and teacher unions, in an effort to protect their constituents, withdrew support from the Intern Program (Blue: 2-17 and 2-31).

Rice sees the increase in field experience and in feedback from the coordinator, at least five visits of longer duration per term now, as a possible function of the students being regarded as consumers and an effort being made to see that they get their money's worth out of their school expenses, an example of the general move toward educational accountability (10-25). Roderick feels that now that the teaching population has become comparatively stable, more supervising teachers have gained experience in handling student teachers and have developed better techniques for evaluating them. Roderick also sees "student teachers who are much more involved in the classroom situation" now (15-49). This would be a

function of today's highly competitive job market discouraging many less motivated people from entering teacher training programs, and of the fact that more and earlier field experience gives the student teacher more time to focus on the pupils and their needs. Myers concurs, stating that along with current trends toward more self-evaluation by the student teacher, and greater specificity and frequency of evaluation, the people working in teacher education are far more knowledgeable now than before in theories of learning and skills of assessment (12-56, 12-63).

Future Implications

As indicated in the previous paragraph, it appears that when more field experience is provided the student teacher has greater opportunity to divert the focus of his thinking and energy away from himself and his own insecurity and toward the classroom pupils. It would seem that future teacher training programs might do well to examine the student teaching experiences they provide in terms of improving program effectiveness. Moeckel states that there will be more stress on field experience, along with more explicit competencies (9-69); and Sutton says:

If the contemporary surplus of applicants for available positions continues, I presume that greater demands can be made upon prospective teachers. For years, there's been talk, nationally, about going to some sort of an internship program . . . whereby first year teachers would be placed under the supervision of supervisory teachers within a [given] school system. (9-42 to 9-53)

Summary

The content of this section can be summarized quite well with the following two quotations. Tittle says in Student Teaching:

The issue of theory versus practice in teacher education programs is a continuing concern of the major groups involved in teacher preparation: students, college faculty, teachers, and school administrators. The issue is reflected in discussions about the time spent in theory versus practice and how to integrate theory into practice. Because of the pressures for change, both in the schools and teacher education programs, this issue is again confronting those concerned with teacher education. The need to incorporate more practice in teacher education programs is often expressed by students in the programs, as well as by teachers and administrators in the school. (p. ix)

And, finally, Myers summarizes the importance of the increased feedback which has resulted from increased emphasis on field experience since 1956:

There continues to be a recognition that in order to become a skilled teacher, there's a regular need for feedback and that one aspect of evaluation is the one of feedback to the student. . . . There has been right along a stress on self-evaluation, based on careful goal-setting: criterion referenced, if you will. . . . Evaluation needs to be based on an understanding of the learner and the nature of learning and the nature of today's society. (12-64)

Major Findings

1. More time is now devoted to pre-teaching field experience: in length, number, and variety of experiences.
2. There are now more observations made by the supervising teacher and university coordinator;

the quality of these observations is better than it once was; there is now more dialogue among the student teacher, supervising teacher, and coordinator; and there is now greater specificity, both in goal-setting and in feedback.

Possible Societal Influences

1. There has been a need perceived by both the public and professional educators that teachers have been inadequately prepared to cope with the needs of a changing society. Subsequent studies have indicated that more field experience is helpful in preparing teachers.
2. Recent public interest in consumerism has resulted, in at least one case, in the prospective teacher being seen as the consumer, with a concomitant effort being made on the part of the college or university to see that the teaching trainee gets his money's worth in field experience.
3. Increasing stability of the teaching population has resulted in supervising teachers being more experienced and having developed better experiences for their student teachers.
4. The highly competitive job market in education has resulted in teacher training institutions

providing more field experience so as to make their graduates "more marketable."

Future Implications

1. Future teacher training programs should be examined in terms of optimizing effects of field experiences. If present trends continue, the number, length, and variety of field experiences will be increased, as will the feedback provided.
2. As long as there is a surplus of applicants for available teaching positions, greater demands in respect to an increased amount of field experience can be placed on prospective teachers as a function of this highly competitive job market.
3. As indicated in the previous section, "Teacher Preparation Program Development: Sources of Input," a new teacher internship program may be developed, supplying immediate dialogue between the prospective teacher and current educational practice.

Evolving Educational Focus

American technology, in the years following World War II, expanded and became increasingly sophisticated at an unprecedented rate. The growth of technology in general was reflected by great changes in educational focus. In this section these changes, as they pertain to

student teaching and its evaluation, will be identified and examined, possible impacts of societal change will be explored, and future implications will be suggested.

Supporting Data

A number of Michigan educators state that one of the greatest changes in teacher education over the past generation is the greater specificity of teaching goals through competency-based teacher education and through behavioral objectives. Moeckel says, "Recently we've seen heavier stress on the behavioral objectives competency in instructional technology." He continues, explaining that this is a consequence of a follow-up study of Adrian College education graduates, from 1963 to 1977, after their first year of teaching, the study being directed at identifying needs of Adrian's education students and graduates (9-61). Myers says that some technological changes in teacher preparation which occurred as early as 1960 were identified in the 1960 AST Yearbook as competency-based teacher education, along with a voiced "need for examination and evaluation of specific behaviors and competencies of student teachers" (12-56). Snider says the emphasis now is on specificity, on identifying competencies (16-3); Miller states that today there is greater awareness of the needs of the individual: hence, a greater specificity of goals than there was fifteen years ago (4-46); and Hall says

that behavioral objectives have been important in recent developments in student teaching (3-31).

It is becoming increasingly important for student teachers to evidence ability to individualize instruction to the needs of each student. Both DeBoer and Hendricks say that there is greater emphasis now on individualizing instruction and being able to cope with a greater variety of children than there was ten years ago, and that the recognition of the value of being sensitive to the needs of the individual child has led to individualization of the teacher preparation program itself (6-35 and 6-4). Miller mentions today's greater awareness of the needs of the individual (4-46); and says that Hope College emphasizes individualization and a concomitant necessary familiarity on the part of the student teacher with a wide variety of materials and instructional techniques and alternatives such as learning centers (4-59). Hamlin also states that there is a greater recognition in education today of individuality (7-58). Along with this recognition has grown an awareness of the importance of instilling and reinforcing a positive self-concept on the part of the child. Potts says that Aquinas College is encouraging student teachers to promote positive self-concepts (6-45); and Miller states that there is now more emphasis than there was in 1956 on being sensitive to the child's self-concept (4-54).

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the greater awareness of the importance of the needs of the individual child led to an increasing consciousness of the needs of the student teacher as an individual. Myers says that educators came to recognize that it is important to enable the student teacher "to develop his own unique competencies and abilities and to grow in self-understanding, self-acceptance, and self-control," so he might better pursue his own goals (12-57). Kennedy concurs, stating that Michigan State University tries to provide for the student teachers' individual needs, to provide a variety of experiences for them and to assess performance on the basis of predetermined competencies (12-40). Potts says that individuals come to college with different educational and social stimuli: different needs to do the varied kinds of teaching they will do. She adds that as a consequence of recognizing this fact, teacher training does a better job with individual needs than it did in 1956 (6-50).

Comeau, in referring to teacher education now dealing more to the needs of both the individual child and student teacher, emphasizes that each individual functions best in certain ways. Teacher training institutions are presently shifting emphasis away from the traditional imposing on student teachers a uniform framework of standards and are moving more and more

toward recognizing that personal characteristics and goals are instrumental in shaping teaching styles and learning styles (4-16 to 4-19).

Snider says that now we, educators, are noticing that different children learn different ways; and he cites examples: children with learning disabilities can't cope with open classrooms, different children use different cognitive processes and capacities to learn social studies and mathematics; and a child who has always been told what to do won't be able to cope with a boundaryless educational environment (16-16). DeBoer, in describing part of Calvin College's teacher preparation program, states that an effort is made by the College to bring together all the course work and pre-student teaching into a meaningful gestalt for student teaching, when the student teacher must perform specified tasks leading to specified goals. The student teacher may recognize, specify, and pursue goals of his choice, with guidance; and he may select his own means of arriving at these goals, in terms of his own abilities and experiences (6-4 and 6-20). Tibbles mentions that it is recognized that there are many diverse learning styles (8-13); and Roderick says that there is more self-awareness and knowledge by student teachers of their own strengths and weaknesses, and more self-awareness regarding learning styles and teaching styles (15-43).

Having examined individual differences in learning and in teaching it will be useful at this point to take a look at what is going on in teacher education in the area of interpersonal relationships. Miller states that more emphasis is now being placed on interpersonal relationships than there was in 1956 (4-54); and Potts says that although the old standards were ambiguous and inadequate, now Aquinas College is encouraging its students to promote human relations because this area is recognized more now as being important (6-45). Suchara states that Wayne State University student teachers are evaluated on their sensitivity for the feelings and perceptions of others at all age levels (14-58); and Tibbles says that Eastern Michigan University's recent emphasis on interpersonal relations is a function of recognizing that there are many diverse learning styles (8-13). Snider explains that human relations is very important, that it can now be subjected to analysis, and its components can be identified in teacher behavior. He also feels it is possible to design educational experiences fitting diverse cultural parameters by working closely with local school district representatives (16-3, 16-26). Enough Michigan educators discussed interpersonal relations in a cultural context sufficiently to warrant the inclusion of a special section on multiculturalism in this chapter.

Several educators mentioned the growing incidence of humanism in education. McCarley stresses the importance of the affective domain (1-53); and Hamlin discusses the recent trend toward humanism and affective education (7-59). Potts says that in conjunction with human relations and positive self-concept building, Aquinas College has recently been encouraging their student teachers to work in the area of values awareness (6-45); and Hall mentions more emphasis being placed on humanism in student teaching now than before (3-32).

Teacher preparation programs are now focusing on the importance of prospective teachers familiarizing themselves with new audio-visual equipment and its uses. Moeckel says that there is a growing use of audio-visual equipment by student teachers, particularly in the area of self-evaluation (9-68). Goudreault says that more, and newer, kinds of audio-visual equipment are available now to student teachers and that they are required to do intensive work in this area to keep abreast of newly developed material which the schools are putting into operation. He also mentions the fact that intermediate school district services have, in recent years, been made more available to the schools; and Olivet College has been employing part-time resource personnel from the local intermediate school district to work with student teachers, showing them what equipment is available and

how to operate it (11-42 and 11-48). This, he says, has resulted in increasing the level of confidence of the student teachers in the classroom. Miller states that Hope College, in emphasizing individualization, stresses familiarity by the student teachers with a wide variety of materials (4-59).

One particularly interesting "new" educational trend is the recent "Back to Basics" thrust which is taking place in education today.

The hue and cry for the return to basics, "The Three R's," has caused us and, I'm sure, other institutions . . . to increase the number of courses that student teachers need to have to teach reading, for example; and that will be reflected in their evaluation, most certainly; and for the first time we are now requiring secondary candidates to take a group of courses in the teaching of reading. (TenEyck: 5-32)

Hamlin mentions the demand for the return to "The Three R's" as making a significant difference in schools and, ultimately, in teacher preparation programs. The student teacher, as a result, has a different kind of experience (7-49). Moeckel says that Adrian College is now returning to a stress on reading methods and calligraphy (9-61); and Roderick states that student teachers now are more involved with the development of traditional skills (15-46).

Possible Societal Influences

There appears to be a number of factors which link social change to the evolving educational focus. Comeau says:

In the 60's the "Romantic Critics" . . . Cozall, Herndon, Holt, and so on, made us take a look at schools . . . what they were responding to was the kind of formal structure and emphasis on the cognitive domain that came out of the late 50's, when we were trying to keep up with Russia with the Sputnik, and Jerome Bruner and the process of education. . . . As a result, people like Carl Rogers had an influence. (4-23)

Comeau mentions the shift toward an emphasis on humanism, and then goes on to say:

I see education going in about ten to twelve year trends, sort of a traditional, structural, cognitive Bruner thing to the examination of the late 60's; and now there may be another kind of trend in reaction to the emphasis on child-centered/person-centered education . . . there's a whole retrenchment thing going on where schools are closing up and faculty are being let go. People are asking, "What is it our students are really learning?" and so there's the whole behavioral objective/competency based thing going on. And . . . we had the hardware to evaluate all these statistics . . . and the other thing is Skinner and his work had just been waiting in the wings to be able to come out and show us the technology that will make these things possible. So I think the retrenchment thing is one reason; the other thing is we have the technology for it. And the other thing is we're maybe reacting to what was going on in the late 60's and early 70's as far as child-centered schools. (4-29)

Rice says the emphasis between how to teach and what to teach has fluctuated as a function of public reaction. Sputnik set off content-oriented curricula which stressed mathematics, science, and language. The late 60s and 70s reacted with affective education: the free school movement of the late 60s and 70s was a backlash to Sputnik. Rice adds that she feels that education is a visible scapegoat to society (10-36). Hall states that the present increase in emphasis on humanism is

possibly a reaction against behavioralistic assembly line education (3-32); and Hamlin sees much of what is going on today in education to be a function of an extremely ego-centric, materialistic society (7-59).

The fact that economics determines to a great degree how our education is designed and delivered cannot be denied. Myers says that institutions of higher learning are competing vigorously for funds, responding to accountability demands made during the 70s (12-60). Snider states that federal money has been pumped into teacher preparation through science departments, which are becoming increasingly sophisticated. Responding to Sputnik, the N.S.D.A. funded a number of educational programs, most notably those teacher education programs in the areas of science, mathematics, and foreign language. Now, Snider continues, the current social movement which is strongly affecting schools is the public demand for accountability; the public is asking, "Why can't individuals read or be passed?" (16-13).

Hamlin, also, feels that so-called "modern math" is a direct reaction to Sputnik and the "solve all problems with money" government funding programs; and adds that the Michigan Education Assessment Program, a product of the accountability demand, is having an effect on teacher preparation in that the press is having a heyday with "a public display of scores" (7-40 and 7-49). McCarley,

too, says that Sputnik brought about federal legislation which resulted in more people enrolling in science-related and language-related master's and educational specialist's degree programs (1-45).

There are other social factors which appear to have affected teacher education. Rice says:

Metric education clearly goes back to things like the Common Market, the idea of increased world trade. . . . We're going closer and closer to making that [metric education] a requirement in the elementary education program, which is a prerequisite for student teaching. (10-31)

TenEyck, referring to Grand Valley State College's recently expanded requirements in reading courses, says:

That, definitely, is community pressure, public schools saying, "we need teachers at all levels who know how to teach reading"; but I think that's a reflection of parents' demands that we get back to 'basics,' whatever they are." (5-32)

Sutton says, "Physical education had remained pretty constant for a number of years; but now, of course, it's undergoing change with the coeducational physical education aspect of it" (9-40). (This would be an outgrowth of recent women's rights, social action, and legislation.) Myers states that the recent changes in educational technology "were due to . . . changes in psychological outlook and greater understanding of the nature of learning and the needs of children in a changing society" (12-59). Myers goes on to say that people who work in teacher education now are far more knowledgeable in terms of theories of learning and skills of assessment:

"As new practitioners came into the trade of teacher education, they were knowledgeable of changes in research in psychology . . . [and] curriculum" (12-63). And, finally, Snider brings out the point that in the public movement for accountability, the question is asked: How do children learn? This has resulted in greater research into the field of developmental psychology (16-13).

Future Implications

Looking into the future, it is easy to predict that educational focus will continue to be directed toward new areas and be instrumental in student teacher learning, classroom performance, and evaluation. What directions these changes may take is a much more difficult problem to undertake. Judging by changes which have taken place in the past generation, it seems to be safe to predict that the nature of society, rather than science will dictate the educational direction of the future. Suchara's statement referring to the state of youth and education today can be used to extrapolate a possible future condition:

The young people today are of the young people today, and they are better able to cope with the youth of today than any of us who preceded them because we can study it but we can never become a part of the youth of today. We can never quite internalize what they can. . . . They've never known it to be different, this has been their life style. (14-39)

Suchara concludes by saying that they've grown up with people like today's youth around them. It is the people

whom Suchara describes who will constitute the society which will shape tomorrow's technology, employing values which are being shaped today.

Summary

Major Findings

During the period from 1956 through 1977, educational focus was directed toward a number of areas.

Included are:

1. Greater specificity of educational goals through competency-based teacher education and behavioral objectives
2. Individualization and teaching alternatives
3. Healthy development of the child's self-concept
4. Individual needs of the student teacher
5. Teaching styles and learning styles
6. Interpersonal relationships--human relations
7. Humanism: affective education, values awareness
8. The uses of new audio-visual equipment and community resources
9. A return to the development of traditional skills

Possible Societal Influences

1. An emphasis on humanism ensued when educational critics of the sixties responded to the formal

structure and cognitive emphasis which followed Sputnik. Education is a visible scapegoat in the eyes of the public and a cycle of public reaction to educational programs which appear to be reactions to social phenomena is perpetuated.

2. Those educational programs which have been backed by government funding have flourished.
3. Increased world interdependence seems to be in part responsible for the recent stress on metric education.
4. Public demands for educational accountability have resulted in a "back to basics" trend in education.

Future Implications

1. There appears to be a cyclic pattern of education responding to societal change, followed by society reacting to changes in educational programs.
2. Educational programs should improve in effectiveness as it becomes easier to identify and deal with the needs, abilities, and limitations of the individual teacher and learner.

Emerging Emphasis on Multicultural Education

In the decade of the 1960's American Social scientists, more than ever before, began massive efforts directed toward increasing the educational success of the children of the poor and ethnic

minorities in American public schools. These social scientists were partly responding to the "social conscience" of the period about the social and economic conditions of the poor and of the ethnic minorities. Like their fellow citizens, many of them had come to believe that poverty and inequality should not exist in the midst of affluence and that social science could contribute to the elimination of these problems by showing how the poor and ethnic minorities could achieve better success in public schools. Thus their increasing theoretical and research activities in the field of education have been generated by practical rather than intellectual considerations. (Ogbu, p. 252)

The problems that minority children face in schools now have been heavily researched and documented. Statistics continue to tell a tale of low achievement scores, high drop-out rates and an ever-widening education and income gap between minority poor and middle-class White populations. This gap continues despite a major shift in government attention to the problems of the minority poor, the Great Society programs of the 1960's, and a deluge of scholarly and popular publications calling attention to the problems of the minority poor and the failure of the schools to meet their needs. It is in open recognition of this depressing situation that demands for multicultural education . . . are increasingly made. (Pacheco: "Cultural Pluralism," p. 16)

The foregoing quotations illustrate the increasing recognition of the need for multicultural education in America. The ability of a student teacher to evidence skill and knowledge in the area of multicultural education has, since 1956, become an important component of student teacher evaluation, as indicated by Brottman, Espinoza, Jones, Krosky, Lewis, Ramirez, Sagness, and Walberg. This is also apparent in statements by a number of Michigan educators who have been directly involved with student teacher evaluation. In this section the emerging

emphasis on multicultural education will be examined, possible societal influences will be explored, and future implications will be suggested.

Supporting Data

Tibbles (8-10) says, "There's been more emphasis recently on the ability of students to work with a wide range of students, rather than the . . . white students [who] were pretty much confined to this area." As the teacher education program expanded from the laboratory schools to the public schools, the student teachers came "into contact with a wide variety of students, gaining much better insights and ability to deal with many different kinds of students." Later Tibbles adds, "It is becoming important to work with many different kinds of people . . . part of the evaluation of student teachers is their ability to deal with this kind of situation" (8-27). Miller (4-60) states that until recently bilingual and bicultural programs were not available, and that now there is a greater concern for the rights of minorities and a general recognition of cultural values other than one's own. Hamlin (7-61) agrees: "We're far more accepting of another man's background and values today than we were a few years ago." Goudreault (11-20) says that Olivet College is currently working on formulating a bilingual/bicultural teacher education program in Spanish, employing competency-based teacher education. Twenty-five

years ago there was very little emphasis on multicultural education, but the federal government recognized ethnic needs, earlier than the colleges did, and applied pressure to the colleges. Guidelines were established at the state level for the design and implementation of bilingual and bicultural programs, and state and federal aid made it possible to put these programs for ethnic minorities into action, both at the public school and college levels. Suchara (13-25) mentions the fact that Wayne State University's teacher education program is overtly committed to responding to social change:

Historically, every time there has been a need identified for even a very small cluster of a minority group, we almost immediately become involved in a project to deal with that . . . the majority of [these projects] are absorbed into the mainstream [of education].

There have been other factors which have influenced the growing emphasis on multicultural education. Improving educational psychology, a better understanding of the nature of learning and its relationship to the learning environment were of great importance. Myers says:

Evaluation needs to be based on an understanding of the learner and the nature of learning and the nature of today's society. . . . It's in some of these areas where the arguments began as to what is the best way to prepare teachers. I presume these arguments will continue to go on as long as people are around. . . . I think they [these arguments] were affected by the growing pluralism that we see. . . . We have a many-faceted society and you and I, for example, may be arguing; but we're not looking at the same facets, so differences occur. (12-66).

At this point it will be useful to describe, briefly, several of the multicultural programs currently in operation in Michigan. Wayne State University, in the late sixties, began requiring their education students to have at least two pre-service experiences: one in Detroit and the other out in the suburbs, assuring the prospective teacher of two distinctly different cultural settings in which he had opportunities to participate in school programs (Suchara: 13-55). Currently, during Wayne State's field experiences, which span two years, the students:

. . . go through a progression of experiences through the entire two years dealing with their own feelings, and learning to work with the feelings of other people, and to develop . . . a sensitivity to and an awareness of the self-perception of people and their attitudes toward what is going on in a given situation. . . . They start out early in the two years in the development of some awareness, but they must demonstrate, give evidence of having some ability to cope with it. . . . If they can demonstrate that they recognize and they are beginning to try to deal with some of the problems of interacting with other human beings and how they influence them, that's what we're looking for because we think that a good deal of inservice education can provide further guidance for them. (Suchara: 14-58)

Suchara (13-58) also tells how Wayne State's teacher education program includes a component directed toward acquainting parents of prospective teachers with the setting in which they will be doing their student teaching, with the goal in mind of generating reassurance through increased cross-cultural understanding.

The Ann Arbor Public Schools, since the early 1970s, have jointly, with the University of Michigan, been requiring all student teachers to have taken a minimum of three noneducation courses which are directed toward the study of cultures other than their own. Equivalencies for these courses can be arranged if the student has had experiences outside his own culture which are considered acceptable by the Ann Arbor Schools and the University of Michigan. This program was the result of the Ann Arbor Schools receiving a federal grant for multicultural education and working with the University of Michigan in its development and implementation. An interesting result which occurred during the first several years of the program was the fact that the student teachers were more adept at dealing with multicultural education than were their supervising teachers. This uncomfortable situation was remedied through some multicultural inservice for the supervising teachers (Roderick: 15-51 to 15-56).

Other Michigan Teacher Training Institutions have recognized the necessity of developing programs or program components directed to multicultural education. Michigan State University's Mott Program required student teachers to work in an inner city setting (Kennedy: 12-25). TenEyck (5-18) says that with help from a recently formed Latin American Council in Grand Rapids, Grand Valley State College is now putting more of its education

students into bilingual programs. Sutton, of Hillsdale College, says, "As of the present time, deliberate efforts are being made to prepare people for teaching in inner city schools or teaching in areas where bilingual education is needed" (9-26). Adrian College's Moeckel says, "We are placing more of our students farther distances away. We offer inner city associate [student] teaching in Toledo, . . . East Detroit, and Sylvania, Ohio" (9-67). Sullivan says that Nazareth College's "Concepts in Education" course contains components directed at multiculturalism and sexism (10-61). Slabodan (15-2) mentions the fact that Madonna College arranges visitations and discussions for its education students at a variety of private schools, including Roman Catholic, Lutheran, Jewish, and Baptist institutions, thereby addressing a somewhat different facet of multicultural education. Also, Madonna encourages at least one student teaching contact with a population which is culturally different from that of the student teacher. These experiences were not available twenty years ago. Potts (6-45 to 6-50) says that the teacher education department at Aquinas College recognizes and concentrates on the importance of human relations: "We want our student teachers to be more familiar with . . . teaching in an inner city situation." Aquinas College lets the student decide whether or not he will select an inner city setting in which to do his student teaching. Potts goes on to say that student

teachers enter training "with some educational or social stimuli and some needs and some purpose for doing the kind of teaching that they do and you can't always ferret that out and say that this has been a reason." This was in response to the question, "Would, perhaps, civil rights or desegregation have had any effect on student teaching evaluation?"

Possible Societal Influences

Although some value may have been recognized in multicultural education thirty years ago and earlier, very little was done in this direction because no unified social impetus was evident. In 1954, however, the Supreme Court order to desegregate the schools brought about upheavals in school populations and threw together students from different cultural environments. The effects of the Supreme Court order grew when in 1957 President Eisenhower enforced the order by sending federal troops into Little Rock; in 1962, when a federal judge ordered an end to segregation in New Orleans; and in 1965, when the United States Office of Education announced that it would withhold federal aid from school districts which continue to practice segregation, and later from those which refuse to adopt cross-district busing.

Evidence indicating a relationship between school desegregation and change in teacher education is supplied by a number of Michigan educators. Snider says that

desegregation has had a considerable effect on teachers and on teacher preparation (16-9). Goudreault (11-25) says that various civil rights movements have brought educational needs into the public eye. McCarley says that desegregation was a major cause of change in student teacher evaluation and had considerable impact on the schools (1-45). Later (1-47) he mentions the 1967 Hobson-Hanson Decision, declaring tracking unconstitutional. Until that time, says McCarley,

In Washington, D.C., they were tracking the black kids into the skill trades and the better white kids into academic subjects, and once you'd get on the track you wouldn't be changed. . . . That would affect a student teacher's experience because if he was assigned to a supervising teacher that was in the lower track, then he or she would have quite a different experience than what he would have if he were in the advanced classes.

Further evidence supporting a relationship between school desegregation and the emerging emphasis on multicultural education indicates that different kinds of forces have been at work in different types of demographic environments. Large metropolitan areas, where the highest concentrations of ethnic minorities are located, have responded to shifting population masses directly, initiating many programs which have state and/or federal financial backing in an attempt to achieve racial balance and to ease the difficulties precipitated by these shifts. Here, traditions involving overt and defacto segregation are crumbling in the face of a society which has become

mobile, both through technology and newly evolved social patterns, such as desegregation.

Smaller communities have also felt the effects of this change, but in some cases have responded through different channels. An example is Central Michigan University's Intern Program which was in operation during the 1960s (Blue: 2-41 to 2-47). Under this program, Central Michigan attempted to place student teachers in diverse cultural settings, but it was not particularly successful in securing urban settings. Blue says:

At that time, especially, cities were not innovative . . . [or] as receptive to change . . . there were a lot of suburban school districts just growing, and many of them were innovative. They had no tradition, and so the idea of doing things differently, and with a smaller . . . [body of] decision makers [than in a large district] they could more readily just say "Say, this sounds like a good idea," when they talked with someone from campus . . . also, "We are going to be recognized by the University, which gives us some degree of importance and recognition by the citizens of the community; and . . . we don't have a tradition to follow, our citizenry will accept the idea, we're innovative."

Future Implications

Teachers, and student teachers, who can work effectively with students from widely different backgrounds will be more valuable to their students than those who cannot. The validity of this statement, plus the fact that it is definitely possible to train teachers to work successfully with students from diverse ethnic backgrounds is supported by Snider (16-3) who says that human relations in teaching are more easily subjected to analysis now than before.

It's my philosophy that teachers can be taught to become teachers; if we know those identifying qualities that a good teacher has, then we ought to be able to apply them with any other human being and develop that individual further, instead of just by chance or trial or error that they become a teacher, or they fall by the wayside and fail. I think we've got to do a better job than we have been in the past.

Snider says later (16-18 to 16-28) that it is useful in teacher preparation programs to offer courses which are culturally oriented to acquaint prospective teachers with customs and actual ways of thinking, in so much as it may be possible, to better help them understand the students with whom they'll come in contact: what to expect in terms of culture, customs and activities. It would be good for students to do their student teaching in culturally diverse areas: inner city, suburbia, and rural areas. Snider feels it would be both desirable and possible to design educational experiences which would fit into the cultural milieu of diverse ethnic groups by working:

. . . more closely with the central office: supervisors, curriculum coordinators. . . . They know pretty well of the needs of the boys and girls; they know what teachers need. But when they get a teacher in Chicago from the Midwest, Indiana, or any nonurban setting, that has no background, they're going to have to spend a couple of years just getting that teacher accustomed to the school system. Teachers just are not prepared to work in their [culturally different] systems; I think we can prepare them. . . . I think the job can be done.

Other aspects of various implications of multicultural education are brought out by a number of Michigan educators. Goudreault (11-19 to 11-31) speaks of the

necessity, with society changing, of achieving and maintaining a cultural "balance" in teacher education programs, with students representing a number of ethnic groups going into teacher education; and with this idea, he also perceives a need to recognize the ethnic background of the student teacher and consider his language, interpersonal relationships, and value systems:

The coordinating teacher [supervising teacher] would take into consideration that a [minority] student has had a different background and that, perhaps, an evaluation should reflect this background. . . . I would take our usual [evaluation] form and add a few things to it, so the coordinating teacher should be evaluated . . . like any other teacher, but keeping in mind that her background was different and perhaps there was a different slant to the English language, the speech patterns, or these kinds of things that we like to look at in a teacher.

Goudreault adds later (11-30) that he feels colleges should draw on minority students as ethnic educational resources. McCarley stresses the fact that there are different success models for different ethnic backgrounds (1-51); and Suchara mentions the difficulty of preparing student teachers from different generations (14-44). This is in the direction of a form of "future shock" as defined by Alvin Toffler, in his book, Future Shock, and addresses an entirely new aspect of multicultural education. Miller (4-54) says that she feels that it is very important for the student teacher to have respect for his students and that he needs to concentrate on developing and reinforcing positive self-concepts in

his students. Although this seems to be an axiomatic rule of teaching in general, the multicultural implications are apparent.

Summary

Major Findings

1. There is increasing recognition of the value of a teacher who can work in a multicultural situation.
2. New multicultural programs have been created and existing programs have been modified in some teacher training institutions for the purpose of preparing teachers to be effective in a multicultural society.

Possible Societal Influences

1. Court decisions to desegregate schools have ultimately influenced the initiation of multicultural programs in teacher training institutions.
2. Civil rights movements accentuated the need for special programs in multicultural education.
3. Large metropolitan areas, where there are heavy concentrations of ethnic minorities, have responded to population shifts with heavily funded programs directed at easing the difficulties brought about by these shifts.

4. Small communities have been able to initiate multicultural programs through a general atmosphere of innovation, not having to content with long-established traditions.

Future Implications

1. Multicultural education may initially generate some role confusion, although this will probably be dissipated through syncretism over a long period of time.
2. The ability to evidence good human relations skills and the ability to work in culturally diverse areas will be of increasing importance for determining success in student teaching.
3. It appears possible to design educational experiences appropriate for dealing with the culturally generated values of diverse ethnic groups which are in contact with one another.
4. It seems advisable to strive for and maintain a cultural balance of teacher education students.

Changing Perceptions of Teaching/ Learning-Related Roles

The time from 1956 to 1977 has seen many changes in the ways that teachers, student teachers, and students perceive their roles in, and sometimes outside of, the classroom. This section will be devoted to studying

evidence supporting and elaborating on this statement and will also examine possible societal influences and implications for future teacher education programs.

Supporting Data

A number of Michigan educators mention the fact that there is now less emphasis on a student teacher's wearing apparel, use of language, and/or social behavior outside of the classroom. Sutton (9-42) says, "Appearance is less significant a factor today than it was a decade or two ago; there are more different types of wearing apparel available today." Tibbles says, "Teachers are tending to look less at the person," his attire, etc., and more at child orientation and interpersonal relationships (8-15). Comeau (4-16) states:

There was a change from a rather formal emphasis on things like classroom discipline, voice, dress . . . to a concern for how the individual [student] teacher was functioning according to his or her own particular teaching style and personality, and assessment of the interaction between the way the [student] teacher felt most comfortable with the students themselves.

Hall says, "Student teachers are not [any longer] evaluated in terms of dress . . ." (3-15). Hall adds that student teachers are also no longer evaluated in terms of language usage and social behavior because we are not sure just what constitutes acceptable social behavior by the teacher, student teacher, and student; and that different norms are applicable in rural and urban school systems. TenEyck

(5-32) says that he suspects that there is presently less emphasis on things like the personal and social kinds of activities, regarding student teachers and their evaluation. Hamlin feels that student teachers' speaking habits are no longer a focal point of evaluation as long as the students don't write improperly or their speaking habits aren't negatively affected (7-47).

Another perspective regarding the decreasing importance of student teacher attire, voice, and personal habits is supplied by Suchara, who says that even though the evaluation forms still list the above criteria, it is generally now recognized by those who evaluate that these qualities go with responsibility (14-50). This idea is supported by Roderick, who states that student teachers now, as compared with those during and immediately following the Viet Nam War, are:

. . . much more self-directed, much more concerned about details. . . . I find them doing more on their own. . . . I find many of them now openly not so concerned about open education and formal education, but much more [the] various skills [which are] traditionally oriented. (15-46)

Myers says that emphasis in the late 50s and early 60s, as borne out by the literature of that time, changed from personality, creativity, and dependability to classroom behavior and related items; and self-evaluation became gradually more important (12-56). Miller says that although good classroom management and control were important a generation ago, and still

are, the nature of classroom control is different now than it was then (4-63). Further comments by Dr. Miller regarding this point appear later in this chapter. Rice adds:

There seems at this point to be a really honest admission on the part of the student teachers that they are student teachers, that they are learning, there is no pretending to be something they're not; and, consequently, there seems to be much less difficulty with discipline, as far as student teachers in the classroom go. (10-37)

Possible Societal Influences

A number of changes have occurred in American society which may have precipitated changes in role perception of students, teachers, and student teachers since 1956. Hall says:

I think that the whole change in societal attitudes . . . is reflected in the schools and that has a great deal to do with the way teachers, student teachers, children behave. . . . The whole business about students' rights has had considerable effect upon the way schools are being operated. . . . The shift away from the responsibility placed upon the youngster to the responsibility placed upon the school now has had a significant change in education. (3-19)

Hall adds that with the greater concern now for students as human beings, it is harder to student teach because of this freedom that children have in schools. He says that he feels the urbanization of our culture has bred anonymity, that anonymity has blurred authority roles, and that this has made discipline and classroom management, always "major gauges to the success of the student [teacher] in the classroom," more of a problem

to today's student teachers (3-29). Suchara says that students' rights are becoming an important factor (14-32); and Henricks, also, feels that recognition of students' rights has played a part in changing educational role perceptions (6-32). In addition, he mentions recognition of teachers' rights as being influential in this area. Miller says that now there is more "emphasis upon the individual and respect for who a child is as much as who an adult is" (4-69).

Miller cites other possible relationships between social change and changing perceptions in teaching/learning-related roles:

There's much less respect for the teacher. . . . I don't think that kids have any fear of teachers nowadays. . . . Children are allowed into the adult world at a much earlier age, and their homes are much more equipped for their parent's pal than they are for their child. They grow up sooner. (4-64)

When asked about the visibility of rites of passage in American society, Miller replied, ". . . they've never been as visible as they've been in a lot of other cultures. . . . We never really had them, so I don't think there was ever a time when our kids moved from being children to being adults." She does mention the driving age of sixteen and the drinking age as being possible rites of passage in American society. She feels that children in societies which have visible rites of passage have fewer problems growing up:

I just don't think that our kids have a chance to be kids. . . . I don't think a teacher has much opportunity to really create a respectful, warm, caring kind of relationship which I could do ten years ago in a sixth grade classroom. . . . I know there's a cause . . . possibly the permissiveness of the 50s. . . . I think parents are just reacting to their own upbringing which may have been very traditional, very staid, very much "Keep the child in his place, children are seen, not heard." We really try, I think, to include our children more in our lives than we used to.

Miller adds that she feels "the 'Barbie Doll Syndrome' and the mass media have made a great difference in making our children much more aware at an earlier age, so that teaching has to be different" (4-70).

Suchara says, "the whole development of the youth culture and the problems they have faced in growing up," has had its effect in the teacher/student/student teacher relationships and she mentions the student's ability to cope with drugs and alcohol as touching on student teacher preparation (14-35). She says later:

The young people today are of the young people today, and they are better able to cope with the youth of today than any of us who preceded them, because we can study if but we can never become a part of the youth of today. We can never quite internalize what they can. . . . They've never known it to be any different, this has been their life style, they've grown up with people like [today's youth] around them. (14-39)

Suchara goes on to say that it is definitely necessary for student teachers to cope more with change now than it was a generation ago. She also brings out the point that, as in the troubled 60s, but not earlier, students are still questioning authority, curriculum,

techniques of implementation, rules and regulations; but that today they are actually seeking solutions to their questions, rather than simply rebelling. She feels that parents who were brought up during the World War years and Depression era have shielded their children from reality, the real challenge of life; and in doing so, the children were hurt badly. Now these grown children are doing the same thing to their offspring and hurting them. The tendency has been to assume children would automatically aspire to their parents' goals without having to go through the harshness of reality (14-40). Suchara continues, stating that the mother role in the American family got badly mixed up after World War II, at which time the mother began competing unknowingly with her daughter, trying to act and look like her. The parent was complimented on her good looks as a consequence of the mass media's glorification of youth in our consumer-based society, while a generation of awkward teenagers suffered from poor self-concept (14-46). Again, this indicated a blurring of rites of passage with concomitant role confusion.

Rice says that the role of the student teacher in the cognitive and affective dimensions of education is determined by the social/political/educational thrust of the time (10-36). She feels that Sputnik made us much more content oriented. She says that education seems to be the scapegoat of society, and societal pressures on

education are often backlash stemming from educational programs condemned by society. Later (10-43 to 10-49) Rice expresses her views on changing perceptions of authority and how education is affected, regarding the Roman Catholic Church and the family:

Clearly there is a different view of authority today than there was twenty years ago . . . within the family and therefore within the schools, within the Church . . . the liberalization of the Catholic Church's policies, and this has had an effect on the student teaching, at least to the extent that we spent time [in the past] trying, for example, to teach the kids "magic methods of discipline." We don't pretend to do that to them any more. We simply say, "Discipline takes three to five years to acquire. Here are sixteen different things you can try, think about them." . . . and that may have made a difference. . . . The student teachers clearly consider themselves to be student teachers; they're not so hung up on the authority thing, and I'm sure that that can be traced back to just the conceptions of authority in society in general. (10-43 to 10-49)

She goes on to say that she feels these changes in concept of authority roles were brought about by:

. . . a lot of things. I think technology did some of it because we got to the point where we built machines that could do more than we could do, and I think that does something to people, psychologically. I think the mobility of society did something of it. If you don't have the stability of having the same people be authorities in your life, then you start to not have quite so absolute a notion of authority; and I think that communications may have done something with it. We seem to have gotten to the point where we're so much more aware of the faults of others, people in authority, like the whole thing with the revisionists' history on John Kennedy . . . fifteen years ago. With that has come a real questioning. . . . That has got to make a difference in how we as a whole conceive ourselves. We're able to separate the person and the position; and that's probably fairly critical for kids who want to be teachers. If they get themselves

so tied up with the position that they have no room left to be themselves, to be a person, they're going to shatter, that's just not going to work. (10-46)

Snider says, regarding why students (pupils) today aren't producing, that they:

. . . are playing a beautiful game, probably completely unaware of what they're doing, on who's in charge, who has the authority. . . . I think these children are simply playing a nonverbal game with the school system, and they've been winning as far as not producing or not performing; and here the school has just tolerated their presence in class and moved them from one grade to another, hoping that some day they will grow up. Well, of course, they're not going to grow up until they're in a situation that forces them to, and that's when they get on the outside of school influence. (16-25)

Other factors contributing toward changing role perceptions in the classroom include greater specificity of objectives, greater frequency of observation, greater uniformity of evaluation (Myers: 12-56); programs designed to address explicit role-oriented goals, such as Wayne State's recognition of the importance of ethnic integrity in language usage (Suchara: 14-17); and Aquinas' stressing the importance of self-concept and values in human relations (Potts: 6-46).

Future Implications

Several of the educators interviewed made predictions based on changes in role perception which are currently taking place. Suchara says, "I believe that some of the more timid individuals, less experienced in terms of street life, will choose not to go into teaching today, who probably would be fine teachers" (14-36). She

also says that she is pleasantly surprised at the large number of men who are becoming elementary and special education teachers. She feels that this will have a strong effect on role perception by children. This is supported by Sutton (9-18) who states that with more men going into elementary education, there is greater opportunity for children to learn male roles, and how to relate with male roles, from the modeling behavior which they can observe.

Roderick says that the University of Michigan encourages student teachers to better know their own strengths and weaknesses for two reasons: it will be important in the classroom and in seeking employment (15-40). He also indicates that the student teachers are much more self-aware. The present concern by the student teachers in the highly competitive job market and by the faculty with dwindling teacher preparation enrollments has resulted in more time being available and spent on concentration on self-evaluation. Wayne State University is stressing interaction with others, role perception and feeling perception are emphasized in an effort to develop an awareness of and a sensitivity to self-perception of other people. A tool being used toward this end is the Flanders Interaction Analysis (Suchara: 14-58). Potts, in discussing Aquinas' stress on self-concept, says, "Our student teaching program and, hopefully, others are becoming much more humane" (6-48).

By increasing our knowledge of learning and of the importance of the learning environment, we may, through matching of cognitive modalities of teacher and student, indeed be able to create, implement, and maintain more humane education programs.

Summary

Major Findings

1. There is now less emphasis on wearing apparel, voice, and social behavior of the student teacher.
2. We are no longer sure just what constitutes acceptable behavior.
3. Student teachers now are more self-directed than they were a generation ago.
4. Student teachers are now more inclined to admit they are, indeed, student teachers; there is less pretense of authority.

Possible Societal Influences

1. Because of recent emphases on students' rights, the students now have more freedom.
2. There is now much less respect for the teacher.
3. Children are now admitted into the adult world at an earlier age while, at the same time, being shielded from the real challenge of life.

4. Rites of passage are not as visible in the United States as they are in other societies, where children seem to grow up more easily.
5. Societal pressures on education are often backlash stemming from educational programs which have been condemned by society.
6. The mass media have helped generate and perpetuate a youth culture, which has resulted in the blurring of previously distinct traditional societal roles.
7. Technology, urbanization, mobility of society, and anonymity of authority roles have all affected teacher education.

Future Implications

1. Future teachers must have strong self-concepts and be both realistic and humane in order to effectively manage a learning environment with increasing pressures impinging on it.
2. More men are entering elementary and special education. This will have a strong influence on future role perceptions of today's school children.
3. More self-evaluation seems imminent.
4. There appears to be a move toward matching teaching styles with learning styles.

5. The blurring of traditional societal roles could alter much of the existing social structure, necessitating a complete revision of education.

Student Teaching and the Job Market

It is becoming increasingly more difficult for teachers to find employment. This fact was borne out by all twenty-seven educators interviewed, twenty-one of whom will be quoted, either directly or indirectly, in this section. Because of the surplus of teachers and the public demand for educational accountability, a close look is being taken at the quality of prospective teachers about to enter the profession. Employers (school administrators) are, because of the current over-supply of teachers, in a position to set high employment standards; and colleges and universities have responded by raising the level of their evaluative criteria. There is no need to expand on the fact that the job market for teachers is badly overcrowded; it is obvious.

In this section teacher education and the education employment situation will be examined, possible related societal influences will be explored, and future implications will be discussed.

Supporting Data

In recent years there has been a sharp decline in enrollments in teacher education (4-51, 15-41, 5-57, 2-31, 1-31, 11-34, 13-10, 7-56). A number of reasons can

be cited for this fact, among which is greater public awareness of the teacher surplus through increased use of the mass media. Prospective teachers now find it necessary to compete vigorously for jobs (8-58, 12-60, 3-67, 10-63). Because of this, some would-be education students eliminate themselves (4-51, 9-29, 1-31, 7-56), either not enrolling in teacher education or becoming discouraged and leaving college prior to graduation.

Snider says, "Superintendents and principals require better prepared teachers than they have in the past," and adds that pressure is now on the colleges to develop activities and modules that will identify competencies for the prospective teacher and provide him with experiences which will enhance his teaching skills (15-70). Colleges and universities are now responding to these pressures in a number of ways. Wayne State University reorganized its entire teacher preparation program, ultimately developing the Interdisciplinary Teacher Education concept. The entire community was involved in developing the new program: parents, teachers, administrators, college personnel, teachers' unions. Another Michigan teacher training institution which reorganized its program was Madonna College, introducing competency-based teacher education and increasing the number of required field experiences. This was in response to the "knowledge that if we were going to have teachers competing in a market, that these teachers would have to be 'better

than' the majority of the other teachers out there; and feeling that you could only acquire that betterness by actually practicing the skill" (14-66). Another school which is now requiring additional field experience is Adrian College. Moeckel says that Adrian helps its prospective teachers compete more effectively for employment by giving them more pre-student teaching and longer student teaching experiences (9-64). He adds that Adrian tries to arrange dual field experiences for student teachers by obtaining placements in two different grades, but not at the same time. Moeckel feels this will help the prospective teacher be more marketable and agrees that it will give him a better longitudinal understanding of children (9-70). This multiple grade concept is also employed by Calvin College (Hendricks: 5-57). Aquinas College has responded to pressure to change with a multicultural emphasis (Potts: 6-49) as have Wayne State University, the University of Michigan, Grand Valley State College, and a number of other Michigan schools. Snider feels it is important not only to deal with multiculturalism in an ethnic sense but also in a rural-urban-suburban dimension:

. . . when they [school administrators] get a teacher in Chicago from the Midwest, Indiana, that has no background, they're going to have to spend a couple of years just getting that teacher accustomed to the school system. Teachers just are not prepared to work in their systems. I think we can prepare them. (16-27)

Other responses to the need for change have come from Michigan State University: Kennedy says, "We developed the Cluster Program which was designed to give students broader experience in the schools." He also cites the Mott Program, which was developed to help with inner city experience, and the infusion of competency-based teacher education in the overall program to develop necessary teaching skills (12-25). Another important example of an institution's response to the need for better teacher preparation is stated by Roderick, who says that the University of Michigan wants its students to know their own strengths and weaknesses, to be realistic in terms of self-expectations. This, he feels, will be helpful, both in securing a job and in teaching (15-41).

The nature of student teacher evaluation forms has changed in response to today's crowded job market. Miller says that students at Hope College requested to be letter-graded, as opposed to pass/fail, in deference to supply and demand (4-49). Cornish says that students at the University of Detroit wish to go to a letter grading system, feeling an "A" would be more beneficial to them than would a "pass," in terms of today's job market (6-64). Hendricks feels that the narrative portion of the student teaching evaluation form is increasing in importance as a means of discriminating between job candidates, accenting the uniqueness of a given candidate: for

example, mention might be made that one candidate can play the piano or that another is capable of working with a photography club. In the past, states Hendricks, society:

. . . assumed that anyone that would go into the teaching profession at that low pay scale was a dedicated person; and what they really were worried about was whether or not that person was competent. Today that has shifted around a little bit because society does a little better job of rewarding teachers for their efforts. And now, in connection with that, you find that they are assuming the competence because of certification requirements; and now they're looking over here in the fine-lined comments to see whether the person is dedicated.
(6-15)

This idea is further substantiated by Snider, who says:

A lot of colleges of education have now suggested and implemented a credential portfolio, and this gives a better picture of the student's evaluation because it's more of a self-evaluation. Students put in there what they think is important. . . . We have a requirement that the students prepare a credential portfolio. Hopefully, then they will use it when they are interviewing; and we've had some feedback of excellent results. . . . It focuses the employer's attention upon the teacher, making it simpler for the administrator and the teaching prospect to deal with specifics, with recent experiences. (16-30)

Central Michigan University has responded to the need for change in recent years with changes in its evaluation form. McCarley mentions the criterion, "teaching potential," being added to the form (1-9); and also describes a grading continuum of one to six which was used on the forms. The thing about this, says McCarley:

. . . that we objected to, and the thing that I really did not like, was that the job market, as far as teachers were concerned, was beginning to

get rather tight, about 1972. And administrators would call the Placement Service and say, "I want to interview ten prospective teachers, say in social studies; send me all your 4's and 5's." So by eliminating the numbering system in 1975, the hiring officials were then forced to read what was said about the student. (1-16)

Blue mentions the same situation at Central Michigan, agrees with McCarley, and adds that the number, on the evaluation continuum, was often a function of the evaluator as much as or more than of the student teacher; and that the elimination of the numbering system reduced this subjectiveness (2-61). One more point regarding the evaluation form in terms of the job market needs to be brought out. Sullivan says that, as stated by school administrators who do the hiring, the student teaching evaluation form is first in importance in getting a job, and the interview of the prospective teacher is second (10-58).

The difficult employment situation in education has resulted in a general raising of standards by employers, supervising teachers, and by the colleges and universities. As mentioned above, Snider says, "Superintendents and principals require better prepared teachers than they have in the past" (15-70). Sutton says that the surplus of student teachers has caused the supervising teachers to be less generous now in appraising student teaching performance (9-5). Goudreault says of Olivet College's teacher education program, "We have

established criteria for admission into the teacher training program which make it a little more difficult now than before to enter the teacher training program as a career" (11-34). Elkin, of Albion College, concurs, "With the demand for teachers falling off drastically, there's probably a higher standard required of students now" (12-4); and Miller says that Hope College screens their prospective teachers, both before and after student teaching, because of the competitive job market (4-49).

An additional problem has come into existence as a direct consequence of employment in education being so difficult to obtain. Teacher unions have, in some instances, made it hard to place prospective teachers in field settings; and in other cases, have tended to discourage young people from entering the teaching profession. Sutton says that local education associations have influenced classroom teachers in not accepting student teachers; that education associations take a stance that "there is no need to push someone through who is not competent" (9-5). Sickmiller says that local education associations have imposed a limitation of acceptance of student teachers from Spring Arbor College since about 1974.

This has changed our approach a bit in terms of how we seek placements. . . . I think it is related to the tight job market. . . . There's also the question of teacher power or, more specifically, union power. . . . If there are all kinds of certified teachers out there looking for jobs, it certainly does not put the union in as strong a position as they would

be if there were not prospective teachers available. . . . It certainly has had a direct bearing on the number of students who seek admittance to the teacher education program and who, in turn, seek student teaching placements; and it's had a direct bearing on how we go about our work of placement; it has had a bearing on who supervises, who is willing to; and a whole variety of things like that. (8-48)

Sickmiller adds that very few people are now training for teaching as an alternate profession because of the job market. Blue says that a large factor in the demise of Central Michigan University's award-winning Intern Program was that with the over-supply of teachers, the local education associations didn't want noncertified teachers employed when certified ones were available (2-31). Suchara states that at Wayne State University, a major reason teacher education enrollments are down since 1974 is a rather forceful effort by teachers, led by teacher unions, to discourage university and college students from becoming teachers (13-10). It is important to stress that this force was not peculiar to teacher unions. Goudreault says that by about 1972, "many institutions of higher education with teacher training programs were discouraging teachers from going into teaching because of the over-supply" (11-34).

Possible Societal Influences

There is no simple explanation as to why the job market in education has been so crowded during the past few years. The problem is highly complex. In the years

following World War II the United States went through a period of high birth rate. As soon as the children born during this period reached school age there was a teacher shortage, which lasted for approximately thirteen years. During this time the G.I. Bill, the accelerating economy, and the heightened public awareness of the value of education made it possible for many Americans to get a college education. Many of these people decided to enter the teaching profession.

Population shifts began to take place: from south to north, from east to west and midwest, from rural to urban areas. Small school districts consolidated and became large districts, often employing more staff members than the combined original districts. New districts sprang up where none had previously existed. The population continued to grow and more teachers were needed. Colleges and universities expanded facilities and programs to accommodate burgeoning enrollments in teacher education, and gradually the gap closed. In the middle and late sixties a balance of teachers and students was achieved.

At about this time the birth rate began to level off. Increased knowledge of, and technological advances in contraceptive methods, as well as personal choices to have fewer children for economic, social, or other reasons are cited as factors contributing to the declining birth rate (Doneth: 3-67, and Hendricks: 5-57). At approximately the same time the American taxpayer had evidently

reached the saturation point as far as school millage and bond issues were concerned. With all of the new school building programs which had come into being in recent years, a limit was finally reached. The taxpayer rebelled and stopped voting more of his paycheck to be spent on the schools. In addition to this, the student unrest of the sixties had made the taxpayer wary of how the money he had already voted for school use was being spent. Suddenly there was an overwhelming public demand for educational accountability.

Meanwhile, the colleges and universities had geared up for greatly expanded programs in teacher education and were beginning to graduate teachers at a faster rate than school needs could accommodate. A serious teacher surplus had resulted.

Future Implications

It is difficult to speculate on what future effect today's job market will have on education. One prediction which seems safe is that there will be jobs available in whatever programs are funded, and a growing emphasis in special education appears imminent (Suchara: 13-16). So much of the future education job market depends on future demographic trends. From what can be learned in the preceding pages of this section, it appears that colleges and universities do respond to changing employment needs. If demographic trends and

educational needs can be accurately predicted, then teacher training programs could be predicted on these predictions. Sutton says:

If the contemporary surplus of applicants for available positions continues, I presume that greater demands can be made upon prospective teachers. For years there's been talk, nationally, about going to some sort of an internship program . . . whereby first year teachers would be placed under the supervision of supervising teachers within [a given] school system. (13-42)

Such a program would be beneficial not only as far as teacher training would be concerned, but also because of the increased input and feedback with current educational practice.

As today's current job market in education stands, one optimistic point emerges. McCarley says that teachers who go through teacher preparation programs now are highly motivated to become teachers (1-31). Roderick says that with dwindling enrollments, colleges now have more time to concentrate on turning out better quality students (15-41). Sutton says that those who do go into teaching now usually really want to teach and work at their assignments more diligently (9-29). Hamlin feels that the tightness of the market has produced better quality teachers (7-56). Finally, Sickmiller says of the impact of the job market:

As a result, you tend to get the students preparing to teach who really want to teach, so it has sort of a self-selection effect. . . . Sometimes a commitment level is indicative of the quality of job, other things being equal. (8-53)

Summary

Major Findings

1. There has recently been a sharp decline in enrollments in teacher education as a result of a saturated job market in education.
2. Because it is now necessary for teachers to be better prepared to meet the demands of today's highly competitive job market, teacher training institutions are responding with new teacher preparation programs.
3. Grading procedures in student teaching have become a function of the job market, and some colleges and universities are requiring their education students to prepare a credential folio so as to better present their unique strengths to prospective employers.
4. Teacher unions, in an effort to protect their constituents, have, in some cases, made it difficult to place student teachers; and in other instances they have tended to discourage prospective teachers from entering the profession.

Possible Societal Influences

The teacher surplus is apparently a result of a number of social phenomena:

1. Changing birth rate in the United States
2. Population shifts
3. Teacher training institutions expanding their facilities
4. Negative public reaction to increasing school taxes
5. Public demand for educational accountability

Future Implications

1. It appears that jobs will be available in whatever programs are funded; special education is one such program.
2. If demographic trends and educational needs can be more accurately predicted, direction of teacher preparation programs could be predicated on these projections. Also, criteria for these programs could be set so as to attract only the most highly motivated students.

Assessing Student Teaching Performance

Much of this study is devoted to an examination of changes in a number of components which make up and/or lead to the development of the criteria by which student teachers are evaluated. In this section, the means of assessment and formats of evaluation will be discussed,

possible impacts of societal change will be examined, and future implications will be enumerated.

Supporting Data

In the past few years a number of Michigan teacher training institutions have gone from the use of a letter grade or numerical continuum for evaluating their student teachers to a narrative form of evaluation, accompanied by either a credit/no credit or a pass/fail rating. Included in a list of these schools are Ferris State College (Doneth: 3-62), the University of Detroit (Cornish: 6-62), Olivet College (Goudreault: 11-51), Central Michigan University (Blue: 2-12, and Wotring: 3-44), Calvin College (Hendricks: 6-10), Spring Arbor College (Sickmiller: 8-33), Michigan State University (Kennedy: 12-23), and Wayne State University (Suchara: 13-50). A number of reasons was cited for these changes. It was felt that B's would be damaging to the prospective teacher in terms of today's highly competitive job market (Doneth: 3-67; Suchara: 13-50). Grades were not felt adequate in accurately reflecting the student teacher's strengths and weaknesses, nor did they provide significant descriptions to hiring administrators (Wotring: 3-44; Hendricks: 6-10; Sickmiller: 8-33). A narrative form provides better communication (Goudreault: 11-51). The students themselves, desiring more program input,

requested the change from letter grades (Cornish: 6-62). The old forms were too bulky (Sickmiller: 8-33).

Interestingly, during the past five or six years there has been a move in the opposite direction on the part of several teacher training institutions in Michigan: Nazareth College, to refine the evaluation instrument for NCATE accreditation (Sullivan: 10-53); and at the University of Detroit, the students feel an A is better, in terms of the job market, than a "pass" (Cornish: 6-65). Finally, Moeckel says that Adrian College has used letter grades all along, now supported by a narrative evaluation. The rationale for this is that use of letter grades motivates the student and "is a more explicit way of stating the level of achievement that's pretty hard to get across with just paragraphs . . ." (9-60 and 10-8).

Since 1956, educators have become increasingly aware of a need for greater specificity of goal identification in teaching. This has resulted in the initiation of competency-based teacher education in schools of education throughout the United States. As early as 1960, the AST yearbook made numerous references to competency-based teacher education (Myers: 12-55). That its impact on student teaching evaluation in Michigan has been profound cannot be disputed; at least seventeen of the educators interviewed mentioned some facet of this means of preparing teachers. It is not within the scope

of, or the intent of, this study to examine competency-based teacher education in detail, but it will be useful to provide examples of some of the ideas expressed on this subject by various Michigan educators.

Doneth says that Ferris State College is employing competency-based teacher education to some extent in response to a perceived need for more objectivity (3-66). Comeau states that competency-based teacher education and the entire accountability movement are a function of a growing technology (4-33). Miller says that greater specificity now exists in evaluation (4-45); and Hamlin mentions the advantage of goals now being stated in advance for student teachers (7-44), that skill identification is a must, and that there is still too much "gut level" student teacher evaluation going on (7-12). Sickmiller feels that the public demand for accountability has caused teacher training institutions to respond with competency-based teacher education:

If we're going to hold people [teachers and student teachers] accountable, we must specify clearly what it is they're to do, or what it is they're to know, or what skills they're to have, or to what level they are to perform. . . . People are searching diligently for methods of evaluating student teachers on a competency base. (8-58)

Suchara states that teaching skills must be identified and competency-based teacher education is doing this (14-55). Slabodian says that in 1970 a competency-based teacher education evaluation format was introduced at Madonna

College, when the state of Michigan supplied the College with funds to develop and implement a competency-based teacher education reading program (14-66 and 15-8). Roderick states that educators are now making more specific statements of desired outcomes (15-38); and Snider says that Saginaw Valley State College is turning to the identification of skills within a given competency and that even more specificity is needed (15-70 to 16-3). McCarley feels that the use of competency-based teacher education now is perhaps an outgrowth of an earlier time, such as the 50s, when new teachers just coming out of college were often not competent and skills needed defining (1-33); and Hall says that there is currently a shift in emphasis from knowledge to teaching skills (3-11). Wotring says of Central Michigan University's evaluation form, "Our change in evaluation form is concurrent with the movement in competency-based teacher education," and he adds that competency-based teacher education often clarifies expectations for teachers (3-46). Moeckel states, "Recently we've seen heavier stress on the behavioral objective competency" (9-61). Suchara says that a number of years ago Wayne State University developed departmental lists of competencies, an early form of competency-based teacher education (13-44); and Kennedy mentions, "the competency-based program, which

was designed to teach them [the student teachers] more of the skills and abilities they'll need to be successful in teaching" (12-25).

There has been some effort among Michigan educators to work toward standardizing student teacher evaluation in this state. Goudreault mentions the fact that the deans and directors of teacher education in Michigan have attempted to devise an evaluation form beneficial to all colleges and universities; and he also says, "We do copy from each other: for example, we'll get an evaluation form from 'Institution X,' and from that form I may find something that applies to our own . . . philosophy and practice here in the department" (11-16). He adds later, "I do think the State Department of Education needs to play a larger role in establishing new, more modern guidelines for teacher education institutions. . . . The whole manual of [teacher] certification should be revised." This manual was most recently revised in 1939 (11-62). Goudreault also feels that NCATE accreditation provides a small impetus toward standardization of minimum criteria (11-42). Suchara explains how the teacher training institutions in Wayne, Oakland, and Macomb Counties have, since 1974, all used the same evaluation forms, which were developed at that time as the result of work done by the councils of these counties (14-18 and 14-56). Suchara feels that another factor contributing

to standardizing evaluation is the Michigan Education Association task force report, completed about 1971, which specifies recommendations for teachers (14-6). Myers states that there has been a recent thrust in teacher education toward making all teachers similar (12-57); and Slabodian says there seems to be more standardization of student teaching now (15-13).

During the 70s, there has been a movement toward student teacher evaluation becoming more open. Tibble says, regarding student teachers, "The student himself is much more aware of the way he's being evaluated. . . . If there are weaknesses, they should know what they are so they can work and improve on those things and further strengthen the strengths they have." Tibbles adds that this concern for open evaluation wasn't as prevalent in the 50s when evaluation wasn't as important because of the shortage of qualified teachers (8-17). Doneth says:

Prior to 1971, here at Ferris, many of the evaluation instruments were not seen by the students. The form was filled out by the supervising teacher, was sent to us, we sent it over to Placement. The young individual went out to interview for a job, never knew what it [his evaluation] said, and went on numerous interviews before finally someone clued him in that maybe the evaluation was negative. Since 1972 we have not had that problem because the students know what's there.

Doneth adds that there is more communication now among the supervising teacher, the college, and the student teacher (4-0). Moeckel states that evaluation is more open now; both the supervising teacher and the college

coordinator openly discuss the evaluation with the student teacher. The principal of the school where the student teaching is done also signs the forms and may add a statement on the form if he wishes, adding another dimension to the openness of the evaluation (10-4).

Roderick says that because there is now more conferencing and working together among the student teacher, supervising teacher, college coordinator, and, perhaps, a school administrator, University of Michigan student teachers are better able to recognize their own strengths and weaknesses (15-34, 15-41). Finally, Goudreault feels that grading was more secret until 1976, but from that point on, communication in student teacher evaluation has become quite open (11-51).

Possible Societal Influences

Societal factors which may be related to the above changes in assessing student teaching performance are easy to identify. Many of the changes in grading were the result of a fluctuating job market (Miller: 4-49; Cornish: 6-64; Henricks: 6-15; McCarley: 1-16; Blue: 2-61; see pp. 115-17 of Student Teaching and the Job Market; also see Doneth: 3-67; Suchara: 13-50; Wotring: 3-44; Hendricks: 6-10; Sickmiller: 8-33; Goudreault: 11-51; see p. 125 of this section). Competency-based teacher education came into being as a consequence of the public demand for accountability in education

(Myers: 12-55; Doneth: 3-66; Sickmiller: 8-58; Rice: 10-32; Slabodian: 14-66; McCarley: 1-33; see pp. 126-28 of this section). The increased openness in student teacher evaluation seems to stem largely from the civil rights movements and the Rights and Privacy Act (Doneth: 3-63; Moeckel: 10-4).

Future Implications

It would seem that in the future, as competency-based teacher education becomes more sophisticated and more competencies are identified and efficiently organized (educators at a Florida university have identified over 22,000), student teaching evaluation will become a more accurate gauge of what skills the prospective teacher demonstrates in the classroom. These skills, hopefully, will be refined and become more successfully oriented to the psychology of learning, making possible identification of causal relationships in the teaching/learning process.

Summary

Major Findings

1. There have been many recent changes in grading procedures in student teaching evaluation. Usually these changes have been in the direction of providing better means of identifying differences between individual students.

2. A need for greater specificity of education goals has resulted in competency-based teacher education.
3. Some efforts have been made in Michigan toward standardization of evaluation criteria, particularly in the Detroit area.
4. Evaluation of student teachers is now much more open; there is much less confidentiality.

Possible Societal Influences

1. Many changes in grading procedures have been a function of the highly competitive job market in education.
2. Competency-based teacher education is a result of public demands for educational accountability.
3. Today's more open evaluation stems from the various civil rights movements and the Rights and Privacy Act.

Future Implications

1. It appears that teaching skills will be more accurately identified; this should result in more effective teaching.
2. Student teaching evaluation criteria and procedures will, apparently, become increasingly refined, and a degree of standardization will be

necessary so that competencies recognized in one geographical area will be recognized in others. This, however, does not eliminate or reduce the importance of teaching skills which would be of greater importance to any given school district, such as the ability to work with pupils from diverse ethnic backgrounds in a large metropolitan district.

Student Teaching Evaluation Forms

In this section, developmental changes in student teaching evaluation forms will be examined. First, it will be determined when each form was initially used (see Table 1). Inasmuch as this study is concerned with changes which have occurred in teacher education during the period from 1956 through 1977, it was decided to use only data retrieved from schools whose student teaching evaluation forms spanned at least seven years (see Table 2). The early forms from each of these schools will be compared with more recent forms from each of the same schools to determine how evaluation forms have changed over the years in respect to language and degree of specificity, means of reporting grades, number of evaluators, and degree of confidentiality (see Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6, respectively). A brief summary will conclude this section.

TABLE 1.--Year Each Student Teaching Evaluation Form Was Initiated

Source of Evaluation Forms	Year Each Form Initiated							
	1956	59	62	65	68	71	74	77
Adrian College		X				X	X	
Albion College							"current"	
Alma College		X?			X	X		
Andrews University	X		X X X			X X		
Aquinas College							X	
Calvin College			X					
Central Michigan University				X		X		
Eastern Michigan University				X			X	
Ferris State College				X	X			
Grand Valley State College					X			
Hillsdale College	X				X			
Hope College		X					X	
Kalamazoo College		"former"					"current"	
Lake Superior State College		(no response)						
Madonna College							current?	
Marygrove College							"current"	
Mercy College		(no response)						
Michigan State University	X		X X		X	X?		
Michigan Technological University			(no response)					
Nazareth College	X		X		X		X	
Northern Michigan University						X?		
Oakland University			X					X
Olivet College					X			
Saginaw Valley State College							"current"	
Siena Heights College						X	X	
Spring Arbor College		"former"					X	
University of Detroit			X?				X	
University of Michigan		"former"						X
Wayne State University	X			X		X		
Western Michigan University							X	
Wayne County M-STEP					X			
Wayne County Teacher Education Council					X			

TABLE 2.--Schools Whose Student Teaching Evaluation Forms
Span Seven or More Years

Adrian College	14
Alma College	12
Andrews University	15
Central Michigan University	7
Eastern Michigan University	10
Hillsdale College	10
Hope College	13
Michigan State University	14
Nazareth College	19
Oakland University	14
University of Detroit	10
University of Michigan	7
Wayne State University	16
Median	13
Mean	12.4

TABLE 3.--Language and Degree of Specificity

Teacher Training Institution	Language and Degree of Specificity
Adrian College	Early form: Preparation - 6, * Teaching Technique--11, Management--6, Personal & Social Fitness--9, Other Qualities. Recent form: Teaching Effectiveness--19, Working with People--14, Personal and Professional Qualities--12.
Alma College	Early form: 17 individual items. Recent form: Teaching Procedures--13, Use of Materials--4, Classroom Management--4, Personal--6.
Andrews University	Early form: Personal Characteristics--10, Professional Abilities--6, Teaching Skills--9. Recent form: Working with People, Establishing Classroom Climate and Managing Instruction, Planning for Instruction, Command of Subject, Personal and Professional Qualities.
Central Michigan University	Early form: Human Relationships--2, Personal Traits--10, Instructional Traits--8, Classroom Management--4. Recent form: Personal Qualities, Classroom Effectiveness, Human Relations, Communication Skills, Academic Preparation, Professionalism.
Eastern Michigan University	Early form: Learning Environment--7, Human Relations--6, Teaching Effectiveness--5, Organization/Management/Control--6, Subject Matter--4, Teacher as a Person--8. Recent form: identical categories with narrative space for each.
Hillsdale College	Early form: Personal Qualifications--7, Professional Qualifications--7, Teaching Techniques--7, Classroom Management--6. Recent form: Personal Appearance--1, Attendance/Punctuality--4, Planning--8, Teaching Skills--19, Class Atmosphere--4, Professional Relations--4.

TABLE 3.--Continued

Teacher Training Institution	Language and Degree of Specificity
Hope College	Early form: Teaching Abilities--15, Professional Growth--4, Personal Characteristics--10, Teacher-Pupil Relations--5. Recent form: The Teacher: As a Person--11, As a Director of Learning--11, and His students--8, His Professional Responsibilities and Relationships--5.
Michigan State University	Early form: Student Teaching Performance, Personality, Cooperation, Initiative, Dependability, Attitude, Creativity, Community Participation, Capacity for Future Development. Recent form: Type of Student Teaching Situation, Working with People, Establishing Classroom Climate and Managing Instruction, Planning for Instruction, Command of Subject, Personal and Professional Qualities.
Nazareth College	Early form: 12 individual items. Recent form: Instructional Competency--5, Subject Matter Mastery--3, Learning Environment--2, Interpersonal Relationships--4, Professional Behavior--8.
Oakland University	Early form: Working with People--9, Establishing Classroom Climate--12, Planning for Instruction--14, Managing Instruction--14, Command of Subject and Teaching Materials--5, Personal Qualities--19, Professional Qualities--6. Recent form: identical categories--narratives.
University of Detroit	Early form: Personal Qualities--12, Academic/Professional Background--8, Classroom Planning/Management/Teaching/Assessment--19, General Evaluation. Recent form: **Learning Environment--13, Human Relations--7, Organization/Management/Control--4, Personal and Professional Qualities--16.

TABLE 3.--Continued

Teacher Training Institution	Language and Degree of Specificity
University of Michigan	Early form: 24 individual items. Recent form: Instruction--28, School and Classroom Management and Environment--10, Student Guidance/Services--4, Personal and Professional Characteristics--33.
Wayne State University	Early form: Classroom Teaching, Pupil Relationships, Staff Relationships, Parent/Community Relationships, Personal Qualities, Professional Qualities, Comments/General Recommendations; Relationships with Children--7, Effectiveness in Developing Learning Experience--13, Community Relationships--4, Professional/Personal Relationships--8. Recent form: **

* Numbers refer to number of separate evaluation items within each category.

** M-STEP and WCTEC evaluation forms.

TABLE 4.--Means of Reporting Grades

Teacher Training Institution	Means of Reporting Grades
Adrian College	Early form: A, B, C, D, F on 32-item checklist, final grade. Recent form: Excellent to Poor (5 gradations) on 45-item checklist, plus narrative space.
Alma College	Early form: 1-6 numerical grading on 17-item checklist, plus narrative space, plus A, B, C, D, final grade, plus certification recommendation. Recent form: 1-4 numerical grading on 27-item checklist, plus narrative space, plus Pass/Fail.
Andrews University	Early form: 3-word grading scale on 25-item checklist; very small narrative space; space for grade (scale unspecified). Recent form: A, B, C on 5 category list, narrative space for each category, certification recommendation.
Central Michigan University	Early form: Outstanding to Poor (3 gradations) on 24-item checklist; narrative space. Recent form: narrative space for each of seven categories.
Eastern Michigan University	Early form: 3-word grading scale on 36-item checklist; narrative space; recommendation for certification. Recent form: narrative space for each of six categories; Credit/No Credit; certification recommendation.
Hillsdale College	Early form: 1-5 numerical grading on 27-item checklist with weighted items and numerical total. Recent form: 1-5 numerical grading on 41-item checklist with weighted items and numerical total; narrative space.
Hope College	Early form: 3-word grading scale on 34-item checklist; final grade (scale unspecified). Recent form: 1-5 numerical grading on 35-item checklist; narrative space.

TABLE 4.--Continued

Teacher Training Institution	Means of Reporting Grades
Michigan State University	Early form: 3-word grading scale on 9-category checklist; narrative space; A, B, C, D, E, final grades. Recent form: narrative space for each of 6 categories.
Nazareth College	Early form: 3-word grading scale on 16-item checklist; narrative space. Recent form: 1-5 numerical grading scale on 22-item checklist; narrative space; Pass/Fail.
Oakland University	Early form: 1-10 numerical grading on 20-item checklist. Recent form: narrative space for each of 7 categories; additional narrative space; certification recommendation.
University of Detroit	Early form: 5-word grading scale on 39-item checklist and final grade; narrative space; narrative self-evaluation. Recent form: 1-3 numerical grading scale on 21-item checklist; narrative space.*
University of Michigan	Early form: 1-5 numerical scale on 24-item checklist; narrative space. Recent form: 1-5 numerical scale on 75-item checklist; narrative space.
Wayne State University	Early form: narrative space for each of 8 categories; 3-word grading scale on 32-item checklist; final grade (scale unspecified); additional narrative space. Recent form:*

* M-STEP and Wayne County Teacher Education Council evaluation forms: 1-5 numerical grading scale on 40-item checklist; narrative space for each of 4 categories; additional narrative space; final grade (scale unspecified).

TABLE 5.--Number of Evaluators

Teacher Training Institution	Number of Evaluators
Adrian College	Early form: supervising teacher, coordinator. Recent form: same, plus signature of building principal.
Alma College	Early form: supervising teacher. Recent form: same, plus coordinator.
Andrews University	Early form: supervising teacher. Recent form: same, plus coordinator.
Central Michigan University	Early form: supervising teacher. Recent form: same, plus coordinator, plus optional comments by department chairman.
Eastern Michigan University	Early form: supervising teacher. Recent form: same, plus coordinator, plus signature of building principal.
Hillsdale College	Early form: supervising teacher, college instructor. Recent form: supervising teacher.
Hope College	Early form: supervising teacher, coordinator, plus signature of director of student teaching. Recent form: same, minus signature of director of student teaching.
Michigan State University	Early form: supervising teacher, coordinator. Recent form: same.
Nazareth College	Early form: supervising teacher. Recent form: same, plus coordinator.
Oakland University	Early form: supervising teacher, coordinator. Recent form: same.
University of Detroit	Early form: supervising teacher, coordinator, self-evaluation by student teacher. Recent forms (departmental, M-STEP, and Wayne County Teacher Education Council): same, minus student teacher self-evaluation.

TABLE 5.--Continued

Teacher Training Institution	Number of Evaluators
University of Michigan	Early form: supervising teacher. Recent form: same, plus coordinator.
Wayne State University	Early form: supervising teacher, coordinator. Recent forms (M-STEP and Wayne County Teacher Education Council): same.

TABLE 6.--Degree of Confidentiality

Teacher Training Institution	Degree of Confidentiality
Adrian College	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: same.
Alma College	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: same.
Andrews University	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature and 3 approval options.
Central Michigan University	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature.
Eastern Michigan University	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature.
Hillsdale College	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: same.
Hope College	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: same.
Michigan State University	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature with 3 approval options.
Nazareth College	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature.
Oakland University	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature.
University of Detroit	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature.*

TABLE 6.--Continued

Teacher Training Institution	Degree of Confidentiality
University of Michigan	Early form: no space for student teacher's signature. Recent form: student teacher's signature.
Wayne State University	Early form: space for optional student teacher's signature on portion of form. Recent form: *

* M-STEP and Wayne County Teacher Education Council evaluation forms: student teacher's signature.

Summary

Major Findings

1. There seems to be an increase in importance placed on human relations, or interpersonal relationships.
2. There is a definite increase in specificity in the evaluation forms, although language and categories employed remain much the same.
3. There is also an increase in the use of narrative reporting.
4. There is a limited shift from literal or numerical grading toward credit/no credit or pass/fail.
5. There is an increase in the number of individuals involved in evaluating student teaching performance.
6. There is a marked increase in the openness of evaluation.
7. Sometimes a discrepancy appears between what is said in the tape recorded interviews and what appears in the student teaching evaluation forms. An example of this is the fact that seven of the twenty-seven educators interviewed mentioned a decline in the emphasis on dress, language, and social behavior; yet all of the institutions' forms indicate that student teachers are still being evaluated as rigorously as before in this

category. These criteria may, indeed, be given less emphasis in de facto evaluation; but the category is still employed in the evaluation forms, and is used by those doing the evaluating and, presumably, by school administrators who examine the forms when hiring new teachers.

Possible Societal Influences

1. Increased importance on human relations, interpersonal relationships, narrative reporting, and openness of evaluation appear to be functions of civil rights awareness, increasing recognition of the uniqueness of the individual, and the Rights and Privacy Act.
2. Increased specificity in evaluation and goal-setting, and an increase in the number of individuals evaluating student teaching performance seem related to (a) evolving educational focus (in this case, competency-based teacher education); (b) public demand for educational accountability; (c) recognition of the consumer rights of the student teacher; and (d) realization that increased feedback provides more useful, constructive evaluation.

Future Implications

As educational psychology and competency-based teacher education become more sophisticated, it appears that evaluation of student teaching performance will gradually move toward more accurately reflecting social reality, concentrating on teaching/learning relationships which will, hopefully, enable pupils to cope effectively with an ever-changing environment.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study has been to examine changes in society and in teacher education, particularly in student teaching evaluation, which have taken place in the state of Michigan during the period from 1956 through 1977. These changes have been viewed through a historical perspective, and possible impacts of societal change on teacher education have been examined. The work has not been directed toward reaching conclusions but rather toward generating hypotheses. Identification of relationships between societal change and change in teacher education may be useful in the planning of future teacher preparation programs so that students might be helped to better keep pace with an ever-changing society.

In this chapter the major findings of this study will be reviewed, along with possible societal influences on teacher education and future implications. Finally, recommendations for further research and program development will be listed.

Major Findings of the Study

1. No longer are teacher training institutions exclusively responsible for teacher preparation program development. Significant program input is now provided also by teacher unions, supervising teachers, administrators and other school-related personnel, state and federally funded programs, parents, business, and industry.

2. More time is now devoted to pre-teaching field experiences: in length, number, and variety of experiences.

3. There are now more observations of student teachers made by the supervising teacher and university coordinator; the quality of these observations is better than it once was; there is now more dialogue among the student teacher, supervising teacher, and coordinator; and there is now greater specificity, both in goal-setting and in feedback.

4. During the period from 1956 through 1977, educational focus was directed toward a number of areas. These include:

- a. Greater specificity of educational goals through competency-based teacher education and behavioral objectives
- b. Individualization and teaching alternatives
- c. Development of healthy self-concept in children
- d. The individual needs of the student teacher

- e. Teaching styles and learning styles
- f. Interpersonal relationships and human relations
- g. Humanism: affective education, values awareness
- h. New uses of new audio-visual technology and of community resources
- i. A return to the development of traditional skills

5. There is increasing recognition of the value of a teacher who can work in a multicultural situation.

6. New multicultural programs have been created and existing programs have been modified in some teacher training institutions for the purpose of preparing teachers to be effective in a multicultural society.

7. There is now less emphasis on wearing apparel, voice, and social behavior of the student teacher.

8. We are no longer sure just what constitutes acceptable behavior.

9. Student teachers are now more self-directed than they were a generation ago.

10. Student teachers are now more inclined to admit that they are, indeed, student teachers; there is less pretense of authority.

11. There has recently been a sharp decline in enrollments in teacher education as a result of a saturated job market in education.

12. Teacher unions, in an effort to protect their constituents, have, in some cases, made it difficult to place student teachers; and in other instances they have tended to discourage prospective teachers from entering the profession.

13. Because it is now necessary for teachers to be better prepared to meet the demands of today's highly competitive job market, teacher training institutions are responding with new teacher preparation programs.

14. There have been many recent changes in grading procedures in student teaching evaluation. Usually these changes have been in the direction of providing better means of identifying differences between individual students.

15. Grading procedures in student teaching have become a function of the job market. Some colleges and universities are requiring their education students to prepare a credential folio so as to better present their unique strengths to prospective employers.

16. Some efforts have been made in Michigan toward standardization of evaluative criteria in student teaching; particularly in the Detroit area.

17. A need for greater specificity of educational goals has resulted in competency-based teacher education.

18. There seems to be an increase in importance placed on human relations, or interpersonal relationships.

19. There is a definite increase in specificity in the evaluation forms, although language and categories employed remain much the same.

20. There is an increase in the use of narrative reporting of student teaching proficiency and potential.

21. There is a limited shift from literal or numerical grading scales toward credit/no credit or pass/fail.

22. There is an increase in the number of individuals involved in evaluating student teaching performance. There is also an increase in self-evaluation by the student teacher.

23. There is a marked increase in the openness of student teaching evaluation; there is much less confidentiality now.

24. There seem to be, in some instances, discrepancies between what university coordinators feel is important student teaching behavior and categories of evaluation employed in student teaching evaluation forms.

Possible Societal Influences

1. A number of Michigan educators attribute the change in source of program development input to the following societally related factors:

- a. The Viet Nam War and accompanying student unrest in the sixties
- b. Urbanization
- c. The responsibility for learning having shifted (in the eyes of the public) from the pupil to the school
- d. Public demand for educational accountability
- e. Civil Rights movements
- f. Highly visible critics of education, such as Rickover and Holt

2. A problem which has been recognized both by educators and the general public is that teachers have been inadequately prepared to cope with the needs of a changing society. Subsequent studies have indicated that more field experience is helpful in preparing teachers.

3. Recent public interest in consumerism has resulted, in at least one teacher training institution, in the prospective teacher being seen as the consumer, with a concomitant effort being made on the part of the institution to see to it that the teaching trainee gets his money's worth in field experience.

4. Increasing stability of the teaching population has resulted in supervising teachers being more experienced and having developed better experiences for their student teachers.

5. The highly competitive job market in education has resulted in teacher training institutions providing more field experience so as to make their graduates "more marketable."

6. An emphasis on humanism ensued when educational critics of the sixties responded to the formal structure and cognitive emphases in education which followed Sputnik. Education is a visible scapegoat in the eyes of society, and a cycle of public reaction to educational programs which appear to be reactions to social phenomena is perpetuated.

7. Those educational programs which have been backed by government funding have flourished.

8. Increased world interdependence seems to be in part responsible for the recent stress on metric education.

9. Public demands for educational accountability have resulted in a "back to basics" trend in education.

10. Court decisions to desegregate schools have ultimately influenced the initiation of multicultural programs in teacher training institutions.

11. Civil rights movements accentuated the need for special programs in multicultural education.

12. Large metropolitan areas, where there are heavy concentrations of ethnic minorities, have responded to

population shifts with heavily funded programs directed at easing the difficulties brought about by these shifts.

13. Small communities have been able to initiate multicultural programs through a general atmosphere of innovation, not having to contend with long-established traditions.

14. Because of recent emphases on students' rights, the students now have more freedom.

15. There is now much less respect for the teacher.

16. Children are now admitted into the adult world at an earlier age while at the same time being shielded from the real challenge of life.

17. Rites of passage are not visible in the United States as they are in other countries, where children seem to grow up more easily.

18. Societal pressures on education are often backlash stemming from educational programs which have been condemned by society.

19. The mass media have helped generate and perpetuate a youth culture, which has resulted in the blurring of previous distinct traditional societal roles.

20. Technology, urbanization, mobility of society, and anonymity of authority roles have all affected teacher education.

21. The teacher surplus is apparently a result of a number of social phenomena:

- a. Changing birth rate in the United States
- b. Population shifts
- c. Teacher training institutions expanding their facilities
- d. Negative public reaction to increasing school taxes
- e. Public demand for educational accountability

22. Many changes in procedures for grading student teachers have been a function of the highly competitive job market in education.

23. Competency-based teacher education is a consequence of public demand for educational accountability.

24. Increased importance in education on human relations, interpersonal relationships, and the use of narrative reporting and openness of student teaching evaluation all appear to be functions of civil rights awareness, increasing recognition of the uniqueness of the individual, and the Rights and Privacy Act.

25. Increased specificity in educational goal-setting and student teaching evaluation, and an increase in the number of individuals evaluating student teaching performance seem related to evolving educational focus; public demand for educational accountability; recognition

of the rights of the student teacher as a consumer; and realization that increased feedback provides more useful, constructive evaluation.

Future Implications

1. Teacher preparation may become completely individualized in terms of the strengths, weaknesses, and perceived needs of each prospective teacher.

2. More self-evaluation seems imminent.

3. Future teachers must have strong self-concepts and be both realistic and humane in order to effectively manage a learning environment with increasing societal pressures impinging on it.

4. Educational programs should improve in effectiveness as it becomes easier to identify and deal with the needs, abilities, and limitations of the individual teacher and learner.

5. There appears to be a move toward matching teaching styles with learning styles.

6. It appears that teaching skills will be more accurately identified; this should result in more effective teaching.

7. Student teaching evaluation criteria and procedures will, apparently, become increasingly refined, and a degree of standardization will be necessary so that

competencies recognized in one geographical area will be recognized in others. This, however, does not eliminate or reduce the importance of teaching skills which would be useful in any given school district, such as the ability to work with pupils from diverse ethnic backgrounds in a large metropolitan district.

8. The influence of educational psychology, as more is being learned in this area, is increasing in teacher training.

9. As educational psychology and competency-based teacher education become more sophisticated, it appears that evaluation of student teaching performance will gradually move toward more accurately reflecting social reality, concentrating on teaching/learning relationships which will, hopefully, enable pupils to cope effectively with an ever-changing environment.

10. The ability to evidence good human relations skills and the ability to work in culturally diverse areas will be of increasing importance for determining success in student teaching.

11. It appears possible to design educational experiences appropriate for dealing with the culturally generated values of diverse ethnic groups which are in contact with one another.

12. Multicultural education may initially generate some role confusion, although this will probably be dissipated through syncretism over a long period of time.

13. It seems advisable to strive for and maintain a cultural balance of teacher education students.

14. If demographic trends and educational needs can be more accurately predicted, direction of teacher preparation programs could be predicated on these projections. Also, criteria for these programs could be set so as to attract only the most highly motivated students.

15. The teaching profession, trade unions, business, industry, and the local community in general will gradually be supplying increasing input into the development of teacher training programs.

16. A new teacher internship program may be developed, providing immediate dialogue between the prospective teacher and current educational practice.

17. As long as there is a surplus of applicants for available teaching positions, greater demands in respect to an increased amount of field experience can be placed on prospective teachers as a function of the highly competitive job market.

18. Future teacher training programs should be examined in terms of optimizing effects of field experience.

19. If present trends continue, the number, length, and variety of field experiences will be increased, as will the feedback provided.

20. It appears that teaching jobs will be available in whatever education programs are funded. Special education is one such program.

21. More men are entering elementary and special education. This will have a strong influence on future role perceptions of today's school children.

22. The blurring of traditional societal roles could alter much of the existing social structure, necessitating a complete revision of education.

23. There appears to be a cyclic pattern of education responding to societal change, followed by society reacting to changes in educational programs.

Recommendations

The revolution in transport and communications has brought men into closer contact with each other and bound them in new ways; the division of labor has made them more interdependent; tremors in one part of the society affect all others. Despite this greater interdependence, however, individuals have grown more estranged from one another. The old primary group ties of family and local community have been shattered; ancient parochial faiths are questioned; few unifying values have taken their place. Most important, the critical standards of an educated elite no longer shape opinion or taste. As a result, mores and morals are in constant flux, relations between individuals are tangential or compartmentalized rather than organic. At the same time greater mobility, spatial and social, intensifies concern over status. Instead of a

fixed or known status symbolized by dress or title, each person assumes a multiplicity of roles and constantly has to prove himself in a succession of new situations. Because of all this, the individual loses a coherent sense of self. His anxieties increase. There ensues a search for new faiths. The stage is set for the charismatic leader, the secular messiah, who, by bestowing upon each person the semblance of necessary grace and fullness of personality, supplies a substitute for the older unifying belief that the mass society has destroyed. (Bell, 1960, pp. 21-22)

The failure of the schools to respond to the changing demands of contemporary society can be traced to the inflexibility of the methods by which teachers are prepared. Initially, teacher training curricula was concerned with the teaching of content. . . . As teacher training became more formalized, however, changes in teachers college curricula were instituted which, while still emphasizing the subjects taught in schools, did give some attention to methods. . . . Then, during the late 1960's, attention finally began to be given to the total process through which an individual becomes a teacher. Even so, it is clear that if an individual is to become a teacher, able to respond to change, he himself must be taught in ways which respond to his needs so that he may model the ways he was taught with others.

There continues to be a lag between teacher preparation and social demands. . . . The present state of our society calls for a change in the relationship of teacher preparation to social needs, a change that will reduce the time that elapses between society's demands for change, the modification of teacher preparation programs and the changing behavior of teachers. (Brottman, 1974, pp. 1-2)

The above quotations serve both to refocus the reader's awareness of the nature of the problems in education today resulting from societal change; and to underscore the fact that so far education has failed to respond adequately to these problems, even though some progress has been made in recent years.

Examination of the data retrieved in this study, looking closely at what seems to be working and at what isn't working, may be useful in designing future teacher preparation programs or in modifying existing ones. It is felt that a number of recommendations involving teacher training programs can be made which are based on the information documented in this work. These recommendations are divided into three categories: (1) sources of input for program development, (2) responsibilities of decision-makers, and (3) development of teacher training programs.

Sources of Input for Program Development

1. Each college and university develop its teacher training program through the work of a committee or task force comprised of university faculty; public school personnel, both administrative and faculty; and representatives from business, industry, social services, and communities involved in the teacher training program. Such a committee would open lines of communication among the various social institutions represented, making possible the identification of more specific and realistic educational goals and providing a faster, more accurate means of reflecting societal change in terms of teacher training. (How many teacher training institutions currently require prospective teachers to be knowledgeable in metric education and in environmental education?)

2. It will be useful to conduct studies of demographic trends in terms of educational needs. Data retrieved from such studies, with assistance from an educational demographer, could be most useful in planning teacher preparation programs.

3. Make courses in supervision of student teachers available to all interested school personnel. Also solicit participation in these courses by members of the general public. Provide regular, planned means of feedback from people who enroll in these courses to facilitate useful dialogue among the schools, the public, and the teacher training institutions. Means should also be provided for experimentation and implementation of ideas so obtained which will improve teacher preparation.

Responsibilities of Decision-Makers

1. Continue to concentrate on identifying teacher competencies. At the same time, a degree of standardization of recognized competencies will be necessary. This could be developed through committees comprised of representatives of teacher training institutions throughout the state or nation. Care must be exercised that competencies which become accepted as "standardized" will not interfere with or displace competencies peculiar to

certain areas. Safeguards must be built in to assure cultural specific training within the context of standardized competencies.

2. In terms of today's highly competitive job market, evaluation should be refined so as to more accurately assess student teacher performance and potential. (This can probably be accomplished most efficiently if it is done in conjunction with the refinement of teaching competencies.) Also, each teacher education student should be required to prepare and maintain a credential folio so as to enable him to present his unique strengths to a prospective employer in an organized and attractive manner.

3. Resolve discrepancies between what university coordinators feel are important evaluative criteria and the criteria employed on current student teaching evaluation forms.

4. Develop a highly flexible teacher training program which is sensitive to societal change and committed to responding appropriately.

Development of Teacher Training Programs

1. Require that education students participate in "life style" seminars, in which resource people can be brought in from education, other disciplines, the professions, business, industry, social services, and

various ethnic groups. These resource people would afford prospective teachers an opportunity to discuss relationships between education and numerous societal institutions.

2. Require field experience outside the classroom in the nature of problem-centered experiences involving a variety of community agencies and groups. Time would be allocated during these field experiences for the prospective teacher to investigate and suggest possible solutions to current problems within the community which may have grown out of school-related situations.

3. Provide for more field experience in the schools, perhaps starting with a brief experience during the second term or semester of the freshman year, and expanding each year through graduation. The prospective teacher should be exposed to a variety of experiences in grade level, subject area, and cultural setting; and his assignments should be scheduled so as to ensure school contact at all times of the school day and the school year. The earlier, extended, and varied experience will not only provide the prospective teacher with more opportunity to learn his profession, but will also give him a greater chance to determine if he really wants to teach.

4. More observations should be arranged in order to provide greater evaluative feedback to the student teacher. These observations can be made by the supervising teacher(s), the university coordinator, and, perhaps,

a building administrator. The student teacher should also be involved in a planned program of self-evaluation. In addition, it can be useful to allow student teachers to observe each other on a one-to-one basis. This provides valuable feedback from the student teacher's perspective.

5. It is important that teacher training institutions view the prospective teacher as a consumer and design his program to give him his money's worth. An individualized program, based on knowledge of his unique strengths, weaknesses, and goals will be extremely valuable: to the teacher-to-be in terms of self-knowledge and marketability of skills, and to his future students in terms of expanded teaching potential.

6. The increasing impact of educational psychology accentuates the importance of teachers understanding new roles and role perceptions involving the teaching/learning process. Teacher preparation needs to be directed toward several areas of psychology as it involves teaching and learning.

- a. Education students should be required to acquire an understanding of changing roles in a changing society. The work should be directed explicitly to past role changes on the part of the teacher and the student, and to how these roles might be expected to evolve in the future. Such studies

would incorporate concepts from anthropology, sociology, psychology, history, political science, economics, education, and other disciplines. This work might be offered through the auspices of some department other than education, employing resource personnel from the schools, business, labor, social services, and the community, as well as faculty from the above academic disciplines.

- b. Colleges and universities which prepare teachers should examine the different (and similar) roles which men and women model as teachers at various grade levels and in various cultural settings, in terms of the psychological needs of the child. Teacher training programs must be developed to optimize learning in terms of these roles.
- c. It is necessary to investigate the importance of institutionalizing rites of passage in terms of developing psychological flexibility and strength in the individual.
- d. More work needs to be done in the area of matching teaching styles with learning styles. Also, prospective teachers must be made aware of the value of employing alternative teaching strategies as a means of coping with individual differences in children.

- e. It is important that education students learn to stress healthy self-concepts in their future students. This can be more effectively accomplished through teacher preparation programs which foster the development of strong self-concepts in these prospective teachers.

7. Attention must be given to the development of teacher training programs which will encourage the many aspects of humanistic education. Through a humanistic approach to their teaching, teachers-to-be will be able to avoid predominantly content-oriented education and, hopefully, help their students discover how to learn, rather than what to learn.

8. Recent experience has shown us the value of multicultural and bilingual education. Teacher training institutions must develop programs which will equip prospective teachers to work in any of a number of cultural settings. In implementing these programs it will be helpful to achieve and maintain a proportionately representative ethnic balance among teacher education students. This will provide an additional line of communication between the teacher preparation program and students from diverse cultural backgrounds.

9. It will be necessary to direct teacher training programs so that prospective teachers become sensitive to the fact that educational focus will constantly be

evolving. New audio-visual technology with new instructional uses will always be appearing. New community resources will be coming into existence. The person who makes teaching his life's work will need to learn to adjust as society around him changes. At the same time, he will need to possess a framework of traditional "basic subject" teaching skills so that his students might use these basic subjects as tools with which they can adjust to an ever-changing world.

Naturally, initiation and maintenance of new programs in teacher education will cost money. Obtaining funding from overburdened taxpayers who are demanding accountability in education is extremely difficult. As Yinger (1965) says,

. . . even in the wealthiest societies, there is little readiness to invest in the educational process past the minimum, despite evidence of the power of enriched education to "innoculate" children against the deviations so punishing to themselves and their communities. . . . Perhaps there will come a time when we are as concerned with the quality of our "character supply" as with the purity of our water supply. (p. 311)

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

LETTER TO STUDENT TEACHING DIRECTORS AND DEPARTMENT HEADS

Director of Student Teaching; or
Dean, College of Education; or . . .

Dear . . .

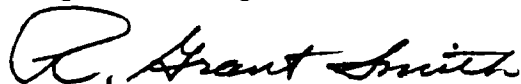
I am conducting a study of how student teaching evaluation in Michigan has changed over the period from 1956 to 1977. This study will also explore possible correlations between societal change and change in the evaluation of student teachers. I am hoping to use as major sources of information for the study recorded interviews with experienced student teaching coordinators and student teacher evaluation forms used by teacher training institutions in Michigan which have been active during that period.

I would like to arrange a half-hour recorded interview with someone in your department who has been directly involved with the evaluation of student teachers for five years or more if possible. I am planning on being at . . . University, on . . ., from . . . until . . . Please let me know if it will be convenient for me to conduct such an interview at that time. If not, please suggest an alternate time (and date, if necessary). Enclosed is a sample of the kinds of questions I will be asking.

I would also appreciate it if I could obtain a copy of each type of student teacher evaluation form your department has used since 1956, or from the time you started evaluating student teachers if it has been since 1956. It would be very helpful if the year(s) during which each type of form was used could be penciled in at the top of the form if that information doesn't appear elsewhere. In some cases it may be necessary to use copies of forms which contain parts of individual student records (although unused forms are preferable). Naturally, this information will remain completely confidential as it is not the intent of this study to be concerned with any individual's accomplishments.

If you would like a summary of the results of this study please let me know, and I will be happy to send you a copy upon completion of the study. Thank you for your help.

Very sincerely,



R. Grant Smith
2090 Linda Avenue
Saginaw, Michigan 48603

(517) 792-0407

QUESTIONS FOR STUDENT TEACHING DIRECTORS AND COORDINATORS

1. Name:
2. How long have you been coordinating student teaching programs?
3. At which teacher training institution(s)?
4. At which college or university are you currently working with student teachers?
5. What kind of school is this: size, means of support, ethnic composition of student body, philosophical orientation?
6. How long has this school been involved in the evaluation of student teachers?
7. Can you recall specific times when emphasis in any given area of student teaching evaluation (including the introduction of new components) was changed in your school or in any other college where you were familiar with student teacher evaluation practices?
8. What was the nature of the change(s)? When did it/they occur?
9. What factors, from within and particularly from outside the academic community, do you feel were most instrumental in bringing about these changes?
10. What aspects of student teaching evaluation do you feel have remained essentially the same since 1956?
11. Do you see social forces at work today which you feel will affect student teaching experiences and their evaluation? If so, what direction might these changes take?

TABLE 7.--Experience of Respondents and Location of Recorded Interviews

Person Interviewed, Institution	Years of Experience Evaluating Student Teachers	Location of Cassette Tape Interviews:		
		Side	Positions: Start	End
Dr. Walter McCarley Central Michigan University	9	1	0	63
Mr. Robert Blue Central Michigan University	8	2	0	63
Dr. Sedley Hall Alma College	10	3	0	40
Dr. Jarvis Wotring Central Michigan University	13	3	40	57
Dr. John Doneth Ferris State College	3	3 4	57 0	end; 8
Dr. Raymond Comeau Kalamazoo College	6	4	8	40
Dr. Nancy Miller Hope College	8	4	40	end
Dr. Allan TenEyck Grand Valley State College	5	5	0	34
Dr. Peter DeBoers and Professor William Hendricks Calvin College	2 3	5 6	34 0	end; 36
Sr. Suzanne Potts Aquinas College	6	6	36	57
Dr. Norman Cornish University of Detroit	3	6	57	end
Dr. William Hamlin Oakland University	8	7	0	end
Mr. Robert Tibbles Eastern Michigan University	12	8	0	28
Dr. Ralph Sickmiller Spring Arbor College	6	8	28	63

TABLE 7.--Continued

Person Interviewed, Institution	Years of Experience Evaluating Student Teachers	Location of Cassette Tape Interviews:		
		Side	Positions: Start	End
Dr. Trevor Sutton Hillsdale College	34	8 9	63 0	end; 55
Dr. Ralph Moeckel Adrian College	23	9 10	55 0	end; 15
Sr. Eileen Rice Siena Heights College	2	10	15	48
Dr. Barbara Sullivan Nazareth College	11	10	48	70
Mr. Ferdinand Goudreault Olivet College	9	11	0	66
Dr. Sol Elkin Albion College	22	11 12	66 0	end; 14
Dr. Henry Kennedy Michigan State University	22	12	14	48
Dr. George Myers Michigan State University	30	12	48	end
Dr. Helen Suchara Wayne State University	22	13 14	0 0	end; 59
Dr. June Slabodian Madonna College	8	14 15	59 0	end; 25
Dr. Stephen Roderick University of Michigan	6	15	25	67
Dr. Joseph Snider Saginaw Valley State College	5	15 16	67 0	end; 38

NOTE: Median = 8; Mean = 10.96 years of experience.

TABLE 8.--Student Enrollment and Reported Start of Student Teaching Evaluation

Institution	Enrollment: Spring 1977	Student Teaching Evaluation Started at Institution
Adrian College	969	before 1956
Albion College	1,668	before 1956
Alma College	1,150	the 1800s
Andrews University	2,061	before 1927
Aquinas College	1,800	1925
Calvin College	3,915	1923
Central Michigan University	16,004	the 1800s
Eastern Michigan University	18,931	1845
Ferris State College	9,934	"way back"
Grand Valley State College	7,540	1967
Hillsdale College	1,029	the 1800s
Hope College	2,290	before 1900
Kalamazoo College	1,501	before 1947
Madonna College	2,208	before 1956
Marygrove College	1,700	1937
Michigan State University	43,459	1918
Nazareth College	435	before 1955
Oakland University	10,457	before 1969
Olivet College	750	before 1956
Saginaw Valley State College	3,056	1970
Siena Heights College	1,054	before 1952
Spring Arbor College	890	1965
University of Detroit	7,633	1958
University of Michigan	44,372	before 1953
Wayne State University	34,818	before 1956

TABLE 9.--Reported Ethnic Minorities in Student Body

Institution	Black	Hispanic	Other
Adrian College	2-3%	1%	
Albion College	10%	small number	
Alma College	2%	very few	
Andrews University	some	some	some foreign
Aquinas College	10%	some	.5% foreign, a few Indians
Calvin College	some	very few	some Vietnamese Puerto Rican, Indian
Central Michigan University	2%	1%	some foreign
Eastern Michigan University	10-12%	a few	
Ferris State College	10%	a few	a few foreign, Indian
Grand Valley State College	10%	a few	some Micronesian
Hillsdale College	small %	small %	
Hope College	small %	small %	40% Dutch-American background
Kalamazoo College	10%		2%
Madonna College	some	some	50% Roman Catholic
Marygrove College	50%		
Michigan State University	10%	some	some foreign
Nazareth College	1 or 2 students		no other minority students
Oakland University	10-15%	5-10%	
Olivet College	30%	none	1% foreign
Saginaw Valley State College	15%	10%	
Siena Heights College	4%	5%	1% other
Spring Arbor College	small %		
University of Detroit	30%	some	some foreign
University of Michigan	10% to 15%	total minorities	
Wayne State University	20%	some	some Arabs, Chaldeans

TABLE 10.--Educational Institutions' Reported Means of Financial Support

Institution	Means of Financial Support
Adrian College	Gifts, indirect funds from Methodist Church
Albion College	Endowments
Alma College	Private funds, Presbyterian Church
Andrews University	Tuition, Seventh Day Adventist Church
Aquinas College	Foundation money, Dominican Order
Calvin College	20% from Christian Reformed Church
Central Michigan University	State of Michigan
Eastern Michigan University	State of Michigan
Ferris State College	State of Michigan
Grand Valley State College	State of Michigan
Hillsdale College	Private philanthropic contributions
Hope College	Reformed Church in America
Kalamazoo College	Alumni contributions, Baptist Church
Madonna College	Contributions of Felician Sisters (Catholic)
Marygrove College	Tuition, Roman Catholic Church
Michigan State University	State of Michigan
Nazareth College	Alumni grants, Roman Catholic Church
Oakland University	State of Michigan
Olivet College	Philanthropic organizations, endowments, United Church of Christ
Saginaw Valley State College	State of Michigan, foundation money
Siena Heights College	Roman Catholic Church, Title IV, U.S.O.E.
Spring Arbor College	Alumni contributions, Free Methodist Church
University of Detroit	Roman Catholic Church, Jesuit faculty support
University of Michigan	State of Michigan
Wayne State University	State of Michigan

TABLE 11.--Educational Institutions' Reported Philosophical Orientation

Institution	Philosophical Orientation
Adrian College	Related to Methodist Church
Albion College	Liberal arts college; nominal affiliation with Methodist Church
Alma College	Presbyterian
Andrews University	Seventh Day Adventist
Aquinas College	Roman Catholic (Dominican); all faiths welcomed
Calvin College	Calvinist: Christian Reformed Church
Central Michigan University	Liberal Arts. Conservative
Eastern Michigan University	Provide opportunities for all students
Ferris State College	Careers, vocationally directed teacher education. "Open Door" admission policy
Grand Valley State College	Individualized curriculum. Liberal Arts
Hillsdale College	Administration conservative: both politically and economically
Hope College	Christian Reformed Church in America
Kalamazoo College	Liberal Arts. Historically Baptist
Madonna College	Roman Catholic
Marygrove College	Catholic college with goals to promote competencies; foster compassion, commitment
Michigan State University	Land grant philosophy. Service orientation
Nazareth College	Roman Catholic. Service-oriented program
Oakland University	Open admission policy. Individualized
Olivet College	United Church of Christ. Liberal Arts
Saginaw Valley State College	Liberal Arts
Siena Heights College	Roman Catholic (Dominican)
Spring Arbor College	Free Methodist
University of Detroit	Roman Catholic (Jesuit). Goals to foster moral and spiritual values

TABLE 11.--Continued

Institution	Philosophical Orientation
University of Michigan	Seeks academically sound students with strong noneducation background
Wayne State University	Education programs have opened doors for diverse ethnicities in Detroit area

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