

Monograph Excerpt

CLINICAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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A monograph entitled Reality and Reform in Clinical Teacher Education, edited by James V. Hoffman and Sara A. Edwards (Random House, 1986), reports research and proposes policies related to the reform of preservice teacher education and the induction and professional development of inservice teachers. Because of its research and knowledge base, this monograph has special significance for the improvement of practice in teaching and deserves careful study by all engaged in the preservice, induction, and professional development phases of teacher education.

The excerpt reprinted here is the opening chapter of the monograph It describes the research conducted in the Research in Teacher Education (RITE) program at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at The University of Texas between 1980 and 1985, resulting in the major reports cited in footnotes 10, 11, and 12. It also sets forth the RITE Clinical Teacher Education Framework, based on these studies. The contributing author, Gary A. Griffin, outlines the defining property of the framework and its seven critical features, all in the context of a view of the ideal teacher

This proposed framework for developing curricular policies and programs for teacher education, while rooted in sound research on teacher education practices, was also submitted to three colloquia of practitioners (one concerned with the preservice phase, one with the induction phase, and another with the inservice phase of teacher education) whose expertise and responses were used to test the framework's viability in the real world and to revise the framework. Colloquia participants also identified implications of this framework for practice, much of the content of the remaining five chapters of the monograph is derived from their work and inquiry

The Griffin chapter on the RITE framework has its own inherent value for supervisors, instructional leaders, and professional development planners. However, what the framework points to in the rest of the monograph is equally significant. The monograph describes a research-based framework for curriculum policy and development in the education of teachers, which has itself been subjected to further practical inquiry. The resulting analyses are both

thorough and candid in terms of the framework's strengths and limitations. The plea to adopt the framework is made more credible and more compelling by virtue of these practitioners' appraisals as well as its grounding in fundamental studies of teacher education practice. Thus, the monograph is commended not only for its substance but for its exemplary status as a piece of practical research that can inform policies and programs designed to deal with the education of teachers.

Of special interest to supervisors of inservice teachers, besides the Griffin chapter, is the chapter by Hilda Borko (pp. 45-63) on the implications of the RITE framework for the induction years, the chapter by Beatrice A. Ward (pp. 65-86) on professional teacher development, and the chapter by Kenneth M. Zeichner (pp. 87-107) on social and ethical dimensions of reform in teacher education. In addition, the monograph includes a chapter by Willis D. Copeland on preservice applications of the RITE framework and a concluding chapter by Ward and Griffin on the policy and decision-making contexts of reform in clinical teacher education. The monograph is available from Random House in New York at \$16.

What is good teaching? Who is the effective teacher? These questions occupy the thoughts of professional educators, researchers, and, it is safe to say, a large segment of the general public. Professional educators, whether in a school system or a college or university, answer the questions explicitly and implicitly as they select candidates for teacher education programs, provide learning opportunities for preservice students, appoint teachers to schools and classrooms, provide professional development opportunities, evaluate teachers, and accept or reject teacher candidates for certification and licensure. All of these activities are, in some manner, guided by a conception of what is "good" in teaching and in teachers.

Some of the conceptions of "good" are rooted in recent research on teaching (e.g., a good teacher appropriately delivers direct instruction),¹ others in propositions about teaching derived from philosophical stances (e.g., a good teacher empowers students to attain the ideal of "the good life"),² still others in beliefs about the importance of interpersonal relationships (e.g., a good teacher has consistently positive rapport with students),³ and still others in a set of expectations about the impact of schooling on the larger society (e.g., a good teacher believes that schools can and should "dare to change the social order").⁴ Each of these conceptions of the ideal teacher rests upon assumptions about effectiveness, assumptions that guide professional educa-

¹Barak Rosenshine, "Teaching Functions in Instructional Programs," *The Elementary School Journal* 83 (March 1983): 335-352.

²Maxine Greene, *Landscapes of Learning* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1978).

³Elliot Eisner, *The Educational Imagination: On the Design and Evaluation of School Programs* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1985).

⁴George S. Counts, "Dare Schools Build a New Social Order?" *John Day Pamphlets* 26 (1932).

tion, evaluation, certification, tenure, and more recently, the award of "mastery" status.

Central to any consideration of the effective or good teacher is the set of decisions about how to foster effectiveness, decisions that guide teacher education programs at preservice, induction, and inservice levels of implementation. Teacher education is typically conceived of as collegiate preservice programs, but there is a growing consensus that this view is too limiting when we think of teachers as professionals who learn, grow, and change throughout their careers.⁵ Although the divisions are still somewhat arbitrary, both conceptually and practically, an appealing view of teacher education is that it formally begins in preservice programs in colleges and universities, continues during the first years of teaching in elementary and secondary schools, and extends through time until that point when the teacher elects to leave teaching.

Whether considered segmentally or as a comprehensive program of opportunities to learn and grow, in teacher education a number of influences are brought to bear upon the development of teaching effectiveness. Although there are those who believe that teaching is the consequence of certain innate human properties ("You either can teach or you can't"), most scholars and practitioners would agree that, at the very least, teachers must have command of a body of knowledge and skill in order to be consistently effective.⁶ That body of knowledge and skills is presented to teacher candidates and teacher professionals in a number of forms, singly and in interaction. (It has been claimed, on the other hand, that teachers teach as they were taught and that formal teacher education programs have little impact upon altering, modestly or radically, that powerful influence.⁷ This conclusion, if true, probably rests upon the inadequacy of particular teacher education programs of study.)

Teacher educators and educational researchers, however, are increasingly emphasizing the power of systematic programs of teacher education to cause teaching to occur in certain well-defined ways.⁸ This emphasis is largely the result of the growing number of studies of the consequences of teacher education programs. Although there is not clear-cut evidence that certain programs are more effective in causing "good" teaching than others, and there may never be such evidence due to the complexity of the enterprise, it is possible to claim that teachers are more effective as a result of some intentional

⁵This conceptualization is demonstrated in a special issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education* that presents papers prepared for a national conference on teacher education held at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at The University of Texas at Austin, Texas, in October, 1984. *Journal of Teacher Education* 36, No. 1 (January-February 1985).

⁶Judith E. Lanier, "Tensions in Teaching Teachers the Skills of Pedagogy," in Gary A. Griffin, ed., *Staff Development*, Eighty-second Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education (Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1983), 118-153.

⁷John I. Goodlad, *A Place Called School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1983).

⁸Gary A. Griffin and Hobar Hukill, *Alternate Perspectives for Research and Development in Teacher Education*, Report No. 9019 (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1982).

teacher education activity than when they enter teaching without such preparation.

Teacher education, of course, is a complicated amalgam of program components and personal/professional variables. Because most believe that teachers should be broadly knowledgeable about central cultural ideas and disciplines, general education is usually part of a teacher education program. Those who believe that teachers are powerful influences upon the development and refinement of students' systems of values draw attention to teacher education program features that help to clarify teachers' own positions about the individual in the society and the role of education in empowering students. And, importantly, based on the central tenet that teaching is professional activity that is influenced and guided by what can be called professional studies, most programs include opportunities to learn about, and how to do, the work of teaching.

One element of teacher education programs where many of the essential variables come together is what has come to be called *clinical teacher education*. Clinical teacher education is the set of learning opportunities that take place in ongoing "real world" classrooms and schools. There is strong evidence that it is from these experiences in these places that prospective teachers and career teachers increase knowledge of their craft, come to depend upon some professional practices rather than others, derive their satisfaction and encounter their disappointments, and either grow toward effectiveness or resign themselves to conducting business as usual. That is, where some teachers burn out while others grow in knowledge, skill, and enthusiasm.⁹

It is this component, clinical teacher education, that is the focus of this chapter and of this book. The proposals here have grown out of a program of research studies that began in 1980. It was then that the Research in Teacher Education (RITE) program was created at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at The University of Texas at Austin. In the years from 1980 to 1985, the RITE research team conducted a set of studies with the express intention of better understanding the nature and effects of clinical teacher education in the United States. The studies included three major efforts:

1. a comprehensive multi-method, multi-site descriptive study of student teaching (clinical teacher education as a function of cooperative relationships between universities and elementary and secondary schools);¹⁰

⁹Gary A. Griffin, Ann Lieberman, and Joann Jacullo-Noto, *Interactive Research and Development on Schooling: Final Report* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1982).

¹⁰Gary A. Griffin, Susan Barnes, Robert Hughes, Jr., Sharon O'Neal, Maria E. Defino, Sara A. Edwards, and Hobart Hukill, *Clinical Preservice Teacher Education. Final Report of a Descriptive Study*, Report No. 9025 (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1983).

2. an experimental study of inservice teacher education and leadership (clinical teacher education as a function of the relationship between instructional leaders and teachers);¹¹ and

3. an analytic study of formal state-mandated teacher induction programs (clinical teacher education connected by state law and regulation to the certification and licensure of beginning teachers).¹²

Although the three major studies differed in features, they were all concerned with contributing to understanding how clinical teacher education is carried forward, how participants and outsiders describe it, the influence of context on the educational opportunities, and the effects of the programs both on the participants and on the contexts where they were brought to life. The three studies, then, despite differences in intentions and participants, can be looked at in terms of common features of clinical teacher education that appear to be strongly related to positive outcomes.

During the period of the RITE studies, researchers in other parts of the United States were also engaged in studying teacher education programs. These studies often included the clinical components of teacher education programs and, therefore, can be used to supplement and complement the generalizations drawn from the RITE work. In some instances, these studies were not conceptualized as inquiries into teacher education, but their research questions, methodologies, and conceptualizations make them natural companions to the RITE efforts.¹³ (The effective schools studies, for instance, consistently attend to school variables that contribute to teacher growth and change.)

The discussion of clinical teacher education in these pages is not meant to suggest that learning about and how to do teaching occurs *only* in clinical settings. We believe strongly that clinical education is but one aspect of a broader conception of teacher education. For preservice teachers, this more comprehensive program would include a strong general education component and systematic exposure to and testing of modes of instruction, curric-

¹¹Gary A. Griffin, Susan Barnes, Sharon O'Neal, Sara A. Edwards, Maria E. Defino, and Hobart Hukill, *Changing Teacher Practice: Final Report of an Experimental Study* (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1984).

¹²Sara A. Edwards and Sharon O'Neal, "Implementing New Teacher Programs in Classrooms" (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1985).

¹³See, for example, William J. Tikunoff, Beatrice A. Ward, and Gary A. Griffin, *Interactive Research and Development on Teaching: Final Report* (San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1979); Judith Warren Little, *School Success and Staff Development: The Role of Staff Developer in Urban Desegregated Schools* (Boulder, CO: Center for Action Research, 1982); Paul Berman and Milbrey W. McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Education Change*, Vol. 4 (Santa Monica, CA: Rand, 1975); Stewart C. Purkey and Marshall S. Smith, "Effective Schools: A Review," *The Elementary School Journal* 83, No. 4 (1983): 427-452; M. Maxine Bentzen, *Changing Schools: The Magic Feather Principle* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1974); Griffin, Lieberman, and Jacullo-Noto, *Interactive Research and Development on Schooling*.

ulum planning models, and other professional concepts. For career teachers, clinical education should be embedded in a complex plan of professional growth that includes self-study, participation in advanced graduate degree programs, involvement with professional associations, and the like. (See Chapter 6 for an extended view of a comprehensive teacher education program.) The clinical aspect of a teacher's growth into professional status, then, is considered necessary but insufficient. It is just a part, albeit an important and central part, of a comprehensive program of study and practice.

The features of clinical teacher education programs presented in the remainder of this chapter have been found to be consistently related to positive outcomes, according both to the perceptions of participants in the programs and to expert judgments. It is believed that these features are critical in the planning and conducting of clinical teacher education, whether for preservice students, beginning teachers, or career professionals. Other chapters in the volume will suggest the usefulness of the conceptualization of clinical teacher education presented here for thinking about and improving clinical teacher education programs in the future.

THE IDEAL TEACHER

This chapter began with two questions: What is good teaching? Who is the effective teacher? In order to suggest appropriate and meaningful teacher education programs, we must come to grips with answering those complex questions.¹⁴

Many propositions about what good teaching is can be found in professional literature, newspaper articles, community talk, and individual perspectives. Because in this chapter we suggest certain critical features of teacher education programs, it is necessary to elaborate on the conception of a "good" teacher that guided the selection of those features. With this conception in mind, the reader can see the relationship between the characteristics of the ideal teacher and the features of the teacher education program.

There are probably as many views about teachers as there are people who have come in contact with them. Typical conceptions range from the strict but kindly teacher (remember Miss Dove?) through the bumbling but eventually effective academician (Mr. Chips?) to the slightly acerbic and mishap-prone post-teenager (Miss Brooks?). In all likelihood, reactions to these and other stereotypes will be shaped and modified by one's world view, notions about the role of the school in the society, ideas about the past and the future, convictions regarding the nature of learning groups, and so on. What follows is a set of teacher characteristics that we value and that have strong support from experts on teaching.

¹⁴Much of the conception of the good teacher presented here is derived from Gary A. Griffin, "Research in Preservice Teacher Education" (Paper presented at the NIE Research into Practice Conference, Detroit, 1982).

The good teacher is a classroom leader and an authority figure. In this role, the teacher is well-organized, alert to classroom effects, concerned about classroom groups as well as about individuals, and skillful in the management of a complex social system. This management takes the form of both exercise of "teacher authority" and delegation of decision-making to students. Furthermore, the management is rooted in a set of beliefs about designated leadership and emergent leadership. The class members' views are solicited and actively listened to. There are opportunities for students to work independently and in both small and large groups. The classroom environment can be characterized as orderly, friendly, attractive, and, with occasional planned exceptions, academically purposeful.

The teacher contributes to this environment through the ability to diagnose cognitive and social behaviors of students, act upon the diagnoses in meaningful and informed ways, and reflect upon the apparent effects of his or her actions. The teacher monitors the understandings of the students systematically and continually. This monitoring is obvious to students and observers alike. The teacher is able to monitor learning as well as more obvious behavior through advanced planning and continuous evaluation. Furthermore, the teacher uses information collected during monitoring to make instructional decisions as well as judgments about student progress.

The ideal teacher is in command of subject matter and is also aware of a set of options for delivering that subject matter so that effective, efficient, and long-term learning takes place. When it is necessary to move beyond what is already known, the teacher engages in self-study of both the content and the nature of his or her instruction. The self-study is a part of sense-making, a central aspect of being a teacher, and is transmitted by example as a valued enterprise to students.

The teacher interacts with others in the school, recognizing that the school's members have shared problems, and works with others on issues of particular concern to the school. Soliciting advice and seeking counsel from colleagues, teachers, and administrators, the teacher seeks out opportunities to "have a voice" in school matters, to be an authority with a forum.

The teacher understands the importance of the home-school relationship and acts upon that understanding by formulating, coordinating, and participating in opportunities to become a positive force in the lives of individual students and the school as a whole. The teacher cooperates with parents in the enormously important tasks associated with educating a citizenry, facing controversy not quixotically but rationally and with convictions based upon a well-developed set of values that can be articulated readily. And the teacher understands the difficulties related to providing educational opportunities to an increasingly heterogeneous population.

The ideal teacher is aware of the central but often maligned role of the teacher in the problem-laden social institution of the school. This awareness, instead of leading to a sense of defeatism or, perhaps worse, resigned indif-

ference, leads to a commitment to re-create that institution. In doing this, the teacher participates with others in problem-solving, developing and testing alternatives, sharing successes and failures with colleagues, and adopting and adapting solutions to persistent dilemmas. In this process, the individual is a central decision-maker, aware of the complex nature of schooling, capable of adjusting ideas and behavior when evidence suggests the need, and able to see situations from multiple perspectives even when those perspectives are contrary to the teacher's own.

In going about the work of teaching, this ideal teacher is guided by a set of carefully formulated values, beliefs, information, and skills. The teacher is a learner, a person whose professional education does not end upon receipt of an undergraduate or graduate degree and a certificate to teach. The teacher learns through experience and reflection, participating in professional organizations, electing to be a part of formal educative programs, and staying informed about advances in teaching and schooling through independent initiative. These activities lead the teacher toward what can be termed a "risk-taking" stance, a professional disposition toward trying out new ideas, implementing new practices, and thinking about teaching in different ways. The risks, however, are reasoned choices for professional engagement. They are not capricious or faddish.

In summary, the ideal teacher is a knowledgeable, well-organized, and consistent classroom leader who interacts with students, colleagues, and patrons purposefully and effectively. This individual sees teaching as more than meeting with students, and works with peers on identifying and acting on problems at classroom and school levels of the system. The teacher values this opportunity to be an integral school decision-maker, and others value the teacher's perceptions and knowledge of desirable practice.

Of course, it is highly unlikely that the clinical teacher education framework that is proposed here can, by itself, contribute to the development of this paragon of teaching excellence. The RITE research team and others concerned with teacher education, however, are convinced that programs that match the model are more likely to lead teachers to think and behave in these ways than programs that markedly differ from it.

Furthermore, we believe that the critical features of the framework must all be in place for the program to have the desired influence. Just as certain effects are more intense when chemicals are combined than when administered singly, the effectiveness of the RITE clinical teacher education framework will be greatest, we believe, when all the program features interact.

It must be kept in mind that the RITE framework is focused on only the clinical aspects of teacher education. For maximum power, this clinical component must be buttressed by soundly formulated and implemented programs of general education; engaged in by those who have personal propensities for providing quality instruction, preceded, accompanied, and followed by professional studies rooted in the most reliable knowledge available; and

delivered by teacher educators, staff developers, and principals whose professional interactions are at the highest level of practice.

THE RITE CLINICAL TEACHER EDUCATION FRAMEWORK

The research and theory we have identified suggest one defining property and seven critical features of an effective clinical teacher education program, whether that program is at preservice, induction, or inservice levels of implementation. The program must be *embedded in a school context* (defining property), and be (1) *context-sensitive*, (2) *purposeful and articulated*, (3) *participatory and collaborative*, (4) *knowledge-based*, (5) *ongoing*, (6) *developmental*, and (7) *analytic and reflective*. There is an obvious conceptual difference between the defining property and the critical features. The defining property sets the boundaries within which the RITE framework of clinical teacher education is to be envisioned, implemented, and monitored. The critical features are the program characteristics that must be present *within* the defining property. The defining property and each of the critical features are presented in turn, although the effectiveness of the RITE framework is dependent upon the interaction of *all* of the features over time.

Defining property. The program is defined by its relations with a school context. The hallmark of a clinical teacher education program is its relation to the context in which it is carried forward. In contrast to general education and professional studies—typical components of teacher education—clinical teacher education takes place in living classrooms and schools. These real-life contexts and the people in them give form and substance to clinical teacher education. It is commonly believed that learning *about* teaching and schooling in colleges and universities differs sharply from learning to *do* teaching and schooling in elementary and secondary schools.

Currently, two views of the relation of context to the preparation and continuing growth of teachers prevail. One view holds that nothing of real importance is learned until a person is faced with the daily problems and possibilities posed by students in classrooms. This idea is often expressed as the dichotomy between the "ivory tower" of the university and the "real life" of schools. (It is unfortunate that the real-life image also is often put forward in combative terms such as "the trenches" or "the battlefields.") According to those holding this view, the university deals with theory whereas the schools teach the more practical and more highly valued skills necessary to become effective as a teacher. Indeed, there are teacher education programs currently in operation that depend solely upon successful practice in schools for determination of teacher adequacy, even for the purpose of granting state certification.¹⁵

¹⁵James V. Hoffman and Maria E. Defino, "State and School District Intentions and the Implementation of New Teacher Programs" (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1985)

There is another, more comprehensive view of the role of context in the education of teachers.¹⁶ This view acknowledges that the person learns from the context but also gives attention to learning and acting beyond mere *accommodation* to the context.¹⁷ The teacher-context relationship is seen as a means by which the teacher learns about, from, in, and how to act upon the context. Rather than learning only how schools operate at a technological level, the teacher candidate or beginning teacher learns why the classrooms and schools look the way they do, what conditions constrain or promote teaching and learning activity, how schools come to develop their often very special characters, how to subject schools to disciplined inquiry and analysis, and, importantly, how to act upon school and classroom contexts for the purpose of improvement.

Clearly, in the first of these two views, teacher education is divorced from context and can have only limited import because it is "theory without practice." In the second, however, we see the potential for teacher education to provide essential theoretical foundations applied in such a way that practice will be better understood and subject to change *and* improvement.

Feature #1: The program is context-sensitive. Currently, teachers and other school personnel are expressing considerable concern about "conditions of work." This is another way of acknowledging the power of context to reward or discourage teachers. Many see unfavorable conditions of work as the primary reasons why some of the finest teachers leave teaching and some of the most promising young people choose not to enter the teaching force. Among the most detrimental conditions is the powerlessness felt by many teachers. They note that their professional authority is often questioned and thereby diminished, and they conclude that they are mere cogs in a wheel whose direction is beyond their control.¹⁸

A program of clinical teacher education, according to the RITE data and based on the conclusions of other studies, can be especially effective in providing a teacher with the knowledge and skills necessary to become a powerful influence for change in a school, not a person who just accepts contexts and learns to live within sometimes narrowly-conceived intellectual and practical boundaries, but a person who can analyze the realities of a classroom and a school with the goal of making powerful changes for the better.¹⁹ Thus, the teacher-context relationship suggested here is directed

¹⁶Elliot G. Mishler, "Meaning in Context. Is There Any Other Kind?" *Harvard Educational Review* 49, No. 1: 1-19.

¹⁷Beatrice A. Ward and William J. Tikunoff, "Why Consider Context?" (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, 1977).

¹⁸Gary A. Griffin, "Thinking about Teaching," in Karen K. Zumwalt, ed., *Yearbook of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development* (Alexandria, VA: The Association, 1986).

¹⁹Tikunoff, Ward, and Griffin, *Interactive Research and Development: Final Report*.

toward the teacher's understanding and acting upon situations in which teaching and learning occur.

What this position implies, of course, is that the classrooms and schools of the nation are rich in information directly related to doing teaching and schooling. Furthermore, that information can be used in vitally important ways to prepare people to become teachers and to help new and career teachers grow and develop. Therefore, the context feature of the RITE clinical teacher education framework raises to a central position the characteristics, regularities, relationships, behaviors, and effects of what happens in schools.

Sensitivity to context can be accomplished in a number of ways. Prospective teachers, for example, are typically required to spend time in classrooms. How that time is spent, however, will determine whether or not the context is central to the teacher candidate's movement toward professional status. A field experience that is unfocused, lacking in concurrent expert guidance, and unconnected to developing ways of seeing and understanding the classroom context would clearly not meet the standard set forth here.²⁰ Similarly, opportunities for new and career teachers to become expert in teaching that either ignore the contexts in which teaching is to take place or that only sporadically give attention to the situation-specific nature of teaching would also fall outside the RITE framework's specifications.

Clearly, there are dramatic qualitative differences between school contexts. Some are harsh and punishing whereas others are inviting and rewarding. A context that is to be a central stimulus for positive teacher growth must nurture rather than blunt that growth. A nurturing context would, for example, have as norms strong and positive leadership, a high degree of professional collegiality, clear and public expectations for adult and student behavior, and a well-developed sense of mission.

There is currently talk of teacher "warranties." These guarantees generally promise that a teacher graduate will be a successful teacher, if not, the teacher education institution will "fix" the teacher through campus or school-based reeducation. Although this notion has some appeal, it founders on a lack of understanding of how *where* a teacher teaches affects *how* a teacher teaches. Just as an automobile manufacturer's warranty does not apply to a driver who abuses his or her car, teaching effectiveness cannot be guaranteed in school contexts that abuse teachers and prospective teachers.

Contexts as discussed in this volume, then, are assumed to be positive environments for learning the important social and professional manifestations of teaching. It is in these exemplary settings that clinical teacher educa-

²⁰See Sara A. Edwards, *Clinical Preservice Activities: Education, Development, Training—Three Case Studies* (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1982); Susan Barnes and Sara A. Edwards, *Effective Student Teaching Experience: A Qualitative Study* (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1984).

tion should take place. However, contexts in the organizational forms of schools and classrooms become not just the places where one learns the conventions of these places as they are, but also sources of information for understanding teaching and schooling, and opportunities for analysis and attempts at improvement.

It will be clear to the reader that the other program features of clinical teacher education are ones that could be present in any component of a teacher education program, not just the clinical component. These features would contribute, for example, to the strength of a program in professional studies that is college-based, as well as to planned professional education opportunities provided for members of teacher organizations. For clinical teacher education, however, the six features are enhanced and strengthened in direct relation to the degree to which they are responsive to and influential upon teachers in school and classroom contexts.

Feature #2: The program is purposeful and articulated. It is conventional wisdom that schools are instruments of social intention. Yet scholars have noted that the goals of education as seen in schools often overlap and conflict, and that these goals are themselves often ambiguous in nature.²¹ That is, although schools are designed by the culture to do something having to do with the education of children and youth, that something is not as clearly defined and articulated as might be expected.

Likewise, the education of teachers at preservice, induction, and inservice levels of activity is often lacking in clear purposes, and the rationales for such programs are seldom well articulated.²² (Articulation here means the degree of clarity of presentation of ideas. Another meaning related to relationships between parts of a whole is suggested in the section describing the developmental feature of the RITE framework.)

Research conducted by the RITE team and other scholars strongly demonstrates the positive efforts of clear, public expressions of purpose in teacher education programs. Their importance seems close to axiomatic. Unfortunately, negative examples abound. Consider the confusion that occurs when student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors cannot recall, let alone agree upon, the purposes of their clinical experiences together. Most practicing teachers can tell anecdotes about so-called "inservice days" that appear to have been disconnected events leading to no widely understood purpose. And orientations for new teachers are often devoted to so-called administrative trivia and unconnected to a comprehensive plan to help teachers in the induction phase of development move successfully into teaching roles.

²¹Matthew B. Miles, ed., *Innovation in Education* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964).

²²Griffin et al., *Clinical Preservice Teacher Education: Final Report of a Descriptive Study*

More positively, research and less formal observation of practice illustrate that some teacher education programs are characterized by conscious and public attention to clarity of purposes.²³ Furthermore, the greater and more widespread the understanding of the purposes, the more likely that they will be realized. After all, if participants in programs are aware of what is expected to be accomplished, it is more probable that the purposes will be met. Clear, specific statements of purpose provide participants with a sense of direction, an expectation that something will be accomplished. Participants who are not informed of well-formulated purposes are placed in the position of trying to second guess (or outsmart) those responsible for teacher education programs.²⁴

It should be understood that the attention to purpose is not put forth as yet another means to coerce prospective or practicing teachers into a conforming stance. Although one purpose of a teacher education program might be as narrow as "to plan lessons according to the sequence of objective, development, motivation, practice, seatwork, and evaluation," another purpose might be as broad as "to identify a school problem, develop a means to act upon it, and teach others in the school ways to use the solution."²⁵ In either case, highly prescriptive or broadly conceptualized, such statements offer teacher education participants a sense of what is expected, what is valued, what will be supported.

It has been asserted that the purposes of a teacher education program, in addition to being clearly presented, should be "public." What is meant here is that all persons affected by the program should be aware of the purposes and be able to recognize their relationships to program activities. There is evidence that participants in all roles associated with complex teacher education efforts are often unaware of the anticipated outcomes of the programs.²⁶ It is not uncommon for researchers to receive blank stares or garbled mumblings when they ask, "What is this program expected to accomplish?" On the other hand, two dramatic examples of the power of clearly articulated purposes can be found in the RITE studies. In one, staff developers were given the opportunity to learn which of the teaching behaviors in teacher effectiveness studies were consistently related to positive student outcomes, and then were asked to develop a school-specific plan in which they could include

²³Griffin et al., *Changing Teacher Practice: Final Report of an Experimental Study*

²⁴Edwards and O'Neal, "Implementing New Teacher Programs."

²⁵In fact, just such a general statement guided the implementation of the Interactive Research and Development projects already cited. Although there were some restrictions placed upon *how* investigations might be carried forward, in terms of research requirements, *what* was to be investigated was open to team members.

²⁶This was true for a number of the cooperating teachers in the RITE study of student teaching. It is not claimed here that these teachers never knew the purposes, or even that they were not presented with information about expectations and role definitions. What is claimed is that the teachers, upon direct questioning, could not respond such that issues of purpose were clearly defined.

opportunities for teachers to learn about these research findings.²⁷ The purpose of this effort was for the staff developers to use, *when appropriate*, the research findings in their inservice meetings with teachers. Not only did the staff developers use the findings, but they did it in situationally appropriate ways. That is, they did not engulf their teacher colleagues with all they had learned; they "mixed and matched" according to their understanding of a school and the teachers in it. This illustration shows that a broad conception of purpose can lead toward desired ends; in this case the introduction of research-based propositions about effective teaching. (This is in sharp contrast to programs that require all teachers to use in the same ways an entire set of prescriptions for practice.)

The other example emerges from a study of new teacher programs. In one of the programs the purposes were stated clearly and explicitly in terms of what beginning teachers were expected to demonstrate in order to be granted state certification. Although one might question the wisdom of applying such expectations across the entire group of teachers located in very different schools and classrooms, it was evident that the explicit nature of the expectations and the clarity and public nature of their presentation to beginning teachers were related to the high degree of demonstration of the teaching behaviors among the group of new teachers.²⁸

In sum, then, the RITE clinical teacher education framework requires that teacher education programs have explicit purposes, whether they be specific or general, and that these purposes be clearly articulated and widely understood.

Feature #3: The program is participatory and collaborative. Clinical teacher education, as suggested in the discussion of context, is largely a set of interactions between classrooms and schools and the people in them. These interactions are believed to be most effective when characterized by participation and collaboration.²⁹

Participation, of course, can mean simple responsiveness, in much the same way that animals respond when they hear certain human vocalizations or commands. In the RITE framework, however, we believe participation is of particularly high value when it is well beyond the level of simple response. Participation here refers to active involvement, the give-and-take that characterizes the liveliest professional and intellectual discourse.³⁰ Participation means active questioning, diligence in the search for reasonable solutions to unrea-

²⁷Griffin et al., *Changing Teacher Practice. Final Report of an Experimental Study.*

²⁸Edwards and O'Neal, "Implementing New Teacher Programs."

²⁹Ann Lieberman, "Educational Policy and Leadership" (Paper presented at the Allerton Symposium on Institutional Collaboration, Monticello, IL, 1985).

³⁰Gary A. Griffin and Sara A. Edwards, *Student Teaching. Problems and Promising Practices*, Report No. 9015 (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1982).

sonable problems, persistence in discovering the most powerful resources for instruction, formulation of important problems for public attention, and so on.

Some researchers call this brand of participation *professional collegiality*.³¹ (This is in contrast, but not contradiction, to personal or social collegiality.) The assumption is that teachers, like other professionals, are more effective, and more knowledgeable about that effectiveness, when they have regular opportunities to be actively involved in the advancement of their important work.

Collaboration is an oft-used, ill-understood term, particularly in relation to matters of teaching and schooling. Too often, collaboration is a label applied to what can at best be called co-optation, the act of convincing teachers that they are true partners when, in fact, they are unwittingly doing another's bidding. There are few true examples of collaboration in educational settings, whether they be students in classroom groups or teachers and administrators working together in the same school.

Collaboration, however, is central to the RITE framework of clinical teacher education because of its power for strengthening a professional development effort, particularly for career teachers, as well as for increasing the *professional dignity* of the participants.³² Collaboration is related to ownership. The teacher who has had some hand in formulating and carrying forward the effort (as opposed to being only the recipient of a set of externally-imposed specifications) will very probably feel a strong investment in bringing it to successful operation. Also, and perhaps more importantly, teacher education programs for new and experienced teachers are aptly concerned with giving participants more authority in their teaching roles. Although the role of the "expert" is not to be downgraded, isn't it reasonable to assume that teachers, as they grow in knowledge and experience, will have greater insights into the issues that need to be dealt with than those who are not teachers? Many believe that it has been too long since teachers had a significant hand in the determination of their own professional destinies.³³

The increasing emphasis upon teachers as recipients of prescriptions for practice, "users" of routinized curricula, and objects of mandates made at state and local levels of policy has significantly eroded the teacher's professional dignity in the eye of the public and, in fact, in the teachers' views of themselves. There appears to be a deficit model of professional development at work, a set of blanket generalizations about teacher skill and competence that leads to increased emphasis upon correcting unforgivable deficiencies

³¹Judith Warren Little, *School Success and Staff Development*.

³²Grant Behnke, Janice Bennett, Cindy Chase, Jane Day, Charlotte Lazar, and David Mittleholtz, "Coping with Classroom Distractions," *Elementary School Journal* 81, No. 3 (1981): 135-155.

³³Gary A. Griffin, "Toward a Conceptual Framework for Staff Development," in Gary A. Griffin, ed., *Staff Development, Eighty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* (Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1983)

This mind-set has led, in many instances, to the paraprofessionalization of teaching, wherein teaching is considered a technical (rather than intellectual or substantive) activity, one that is easily taught, efficiently observed, and readily remedied.³⁴

The depiction of schools and teaching in this worst-case scenario detracts from efforts to attract strong teacher candidates, hold promising new teachers, and gain professional commitment from career teachers. The RITE framework of clinical teacher education includes the collaborative feature because of the demonstrated power of true collaboration to increase the possibility that teachers will view themselves as professionals, people with specialized knowledge and skill who serve important social ends. Collaboration, when it is authentic, ensures that teachers have individual and collective voices when important decisions are made and when those decisions are enacted in school and classroom practice. Collaboration places teachers in positions of status with administrators and policy-making colleagues such that their ideas and insights become part of the decision structure. Collaboration provides teachers with all-too-often-missing communication lines with others concerned about the quality of educational opportunity. These are the conditions that lead to a conception of professional dignity as a vital component of one's work and one's role in the larger culture.

Feature #4: The program is knowledge-based. As for several of the other features of the RITE framework of clinical teacher education, the specification of a knowledge base to guide practice seems either simplistic or superfluous. Unfortunately, neither conclusion is warranted. A number of teacher education programs appear to be informed more by opinions or impressions than by verified and reliable knowledge.³⁵ This may be related to the problem often observed by the research community: namely, that teachers in large numbers are relatively unable to speak coherently about why they do what they do in classrooms. Instead of referring to common knowledge about best practice, many teachers can talk only about what they have tried and what has happened as a consequence of those trials.³⁶ This, of course, is a form of knowledge, but it does not serve as a distinguishing mark of the teacher as professional. It is entirely possible that the lack of attention to the development and distribution of knowledge about teaching and schooling contributes significantly to teachers' observed unfamiliarity with known theory and practice.

We must assert here that knowledge can take many forms and can be derived from a variety of different perspectives. This assertion is particularly

³⁴Gary A. Griffin, "The Paraprofessionalization of Teaching" (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1985).

³⁵Griffin et al., *Clinical Preservice Teacher Education: Final Report of a Descriptive Study*.

³⁶Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller, *Staff Development: New Demands, New Realities, New Perspectives* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1978).

necessary when, as in this case, the model being proposed is the product of a research institution that has engaged almost solely in empirical research. The temptation for the reader is to suspect that the term "knowledge" as used here includes only that which can be verified by evidence (or, more particularly, evidence in the form of quantification). However, the term also refers to knowledge that is theoretical, propositional, and rooted in or substantiated by value and craft.³⁷

Knowledge here means more than a set of discrete facts, lists, prescriptions, "findings." Knowledge here means a coherent set of such facts and other information that together allow us to make judgments, come to informed decisions, suggest desirable practices, and ask important questions. This knowledge is codified, is connected in its particulars, and is the resting place of concepts and constructs that make sense.

Certainly, recent attention to a rational, empirical view of teaching and schooling has contributed enormously to our understanding of processes and outcomes and the relationships between and among them.³⁸ The effort of the past fifteen years devoted to understanding what teaching behaviors are associated with what student achievements is of inestimable value to teacher education programs. But total reliance upon this body of knowledge to make major programmatic decisions about teaching, schooling, and teacher education is probably insufficient for the development of the kind of ideal teacher presented earlier in this chapter. In fact, there is some evidence that single-minded dependence upon the process-product teacher effectiveness studies leads to a narrower vision of teaching and teachers than is desired by most professional educators.³⁹

In the RITE framework of clinical teacher education, *theoretical knowledge* is of major importance. We agree with the proposition that "theory without practice is futile and practice without theory is fatal," that theory is developed out of practical understanding, and in turn, theory informs practical situations. Theory is particularly powerful in helping prospective and career teachers understand and make sense of their professional worlds. Theoretical formulations suggest and define connections between disparate pieces of the complex teaching and schooling puzzle, and thus lead thoughtful teachers to make their own discoveries as a consequence of increased understandings. They can also provide a body of shared understanding across groups of teachers who are trying to come to decisions about how to proceed in teaching.

³⁷Maxine Greene, "How Do We Think About Our Craft?" *Teachers College Record* 86, No. 1 (1984).

³⁸Willis D. Hawley, Susan J. Rosenholtz, Henry Goodstein, and Ted Hasselbrign, *Good Schools: What Research Says About Improving Student Achievement* (Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University, 1984).

³⁹Gary A. Griffin, "New Teacher Programs and Certification. Conclusions, Questions, and Speculations" (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1985).

A difficulty with using "theory" as a term related to teacher education in general, and to the clinical component of teacher education in particular, is that the word and what it represents have been demeaned over the years by casual and misinformed use. Theory has come to mean for many teachers all of that "stuff" that colleges and universities teach and that teachers can see no meaning for in their practical worlds.⁴⁰ What has happened, then, is that the word has come to stand for a good deal of nonsense that passes under the guise of teacher education. Theory, in its very real sense, can be most practical, most useful, and of enormous value to teachers and others in schools. The RITE framework of clinical teacher education recognizes the diminution of the term, but at the same time promotes the recognition of true theoretical formulations as important knowledge for teacher education programs.

The issues that must be dealt with by teachers and others in schools are complex, highly interactive, often imbued with urgency, and increasingly related to societal pressures and influences. Typical responses to this complexity are founded in what can be termed *propositional knowledge*. Propositional knowledge here refers to those ideas for schooling activity that are put forth as proposals, suggestions for change that have yet to be given theoretical or empirical tests of effectiveness. Certainly, the 1960s and 1970s were periods when propositional knowledge in the forms of new curricula, new ways of organizing for instruction, and alternative conceptions of teaching activity were advanced by educational scholars, for the most part, and introduced into schools. It is important in this discussion to stress that propositional knowledge is appropriate for the RITE framework in direct relation to its *promise* for making desirable changes in educational settings. Relative promise rests on the credibility of the person or persons making the proposal, the logical "fit" with the most highly-regarded purposes and practices of schooling, and the degree of comprehensive endorsement from these experts on teaching and schooling. Propositional knowledge, when it meets these implicit criteria, can be an important knowledge base for planning and implementing clinical teacher education programs.

Another conception of knowledge is what has come to be called *craft knowledge*.⁴¹ This body of information, coherent and connected and conceptually whole, emerges out of disciplined practical situations and is cumulative over time. Teachers, individually and collectively, discover that certain practices, certain ways of meeting with students, and certain materials of instruction "work" again and again. This cumulative evidence is, of course, empirical in

⁴⁰In the RITE study of student teaching, for example, the general view held by many cooperating teachers was that the student teachers' so-called "theory" needed to be "unlearned" during student teaching. Not only was "theory" a misunderstood term, but it was considered largely negative in terms of promoting classroom effectiveness. Clearly, for these teachers, the power of theory as both explanation and prediction had not been demonstrated to be relevant to their conceptions of teaching.

⁴¹*Teachers College Record* 86, No. 1 (1984): entire issue.

nature, but it does not have the scientific solidity of the disciplined inquiries discussed earlier in this chapter. It is, in a large sense, a way of viewing the worlds of teaching and schooling from the vantage point of the practitioner who desires above all else that children and youth in schools learn. And when there is evidence that some stimuli for learning are more powerful than others for inducing that learning, another piece of craft wisdom is accumulated.

This craft knowledge is, in fact, the real source of the research findings that emerged from the process-product studies cited earlier. Researchers did not invent the teaching behaviors that were associated with pupil achievement; teachers did. Researchers only discovered that the teaching patterns—craft knowledge in use—were present in the repertoires of teachers whose students scored well on standardized tests. This is not to demean the contribution of the research community. The discoveries are important ones. But it is also important to remember that *teachers*, working out of their own conceptions of craft, were the true inventors, the fundamental improvers, the demonstrators of teaching effectiveness.

Suffice it to say that knowledge can take a variety of forms and can serve a number of functions in learning about teaching, learning how to do teaching, and coming to be a meritorious teacher over a career. The essential point to be made is that the RITE framework demands a reliance upon knowledge in the formulation and implementation of clinical teacher education programs. A program may provide suggestions for teachers to alter their pedagogy; a program may offer knowledge in a form useful for making decisions; a program might even cause teachers to think about what *isn't* known with any certainty and, thereby, promote inquiry. In any case, the attention to knowledge related to the expectations of a clinical program is in direct opposition to the oft-experienced "sink-or-swim" approach to attaining high achievement in teaching.

Feature #5: The program is ongoing. The position taken by the RITE team, and shared by a number of scholars and practitioners, is that teacher education is a continuum, a stream of activity that begins when a person decides to begin professional and academic study leading toward a teaching career, and ends only when the decision is made to end that career. For purposes of convenience as well as demonstrated usefulness, this continuum has been described as having at least three stages: preservice teacher education, induction, and inservice teacher education.⁴² (These stages are treated in more detail in Chapters 2, 3, and 4 of this book.)

This conception of teaching suggests that ten years' experience is equal to more than one year taught ten times. It argues against the sameness of

⁴²*Beginning Teacher Induction—Five Dilemmas. Proceedings from a Public Forum* (Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1982).

teaching activity. It promotes the notion that teachers grow and change, adapt and reconstruct their worlds, and accumulate and discard ideas and practices. When one views teaching activity over time, one is forced to consider that opportunities to learn more and to use that knowledge ever more effectively must somehow be related to one another. In short, teacher education and its clinical component must be ongoing, systematic, and adapted to the stages of the person's growth toward the status of career teacher.⁴³

Currently, there are few conceptions of teacher education that take this proposition seriously enough to warrant inclusion in this volume. There is, however, evidence to suggest that clinical teacher education *within stages* ought to be an ongoing activity, rather than the fits and starts that characterize so many efforts in the field. It is not uncommon for the elements of a preservice teacher education program, for example, to be ideologically and practically unconnected to one another except by the student's presence while moving through the program: an educational psychology offering (with required classroom observations) here, a tutoring experience as part of a reading methods course there, and student teaching somewhere else. Few examples of programs that systematically attend to the relationships between these elements can be found in practice or in the research literature.

In perhaps even more dramatic fashion, inservice clinical teacher education seems to be driven by the fad of the moment.⁴⁴ Seldom seen are commitments to long-term, comprehensively envisioned inservice programs undergirded by principles and properties that frame the programs over time. Instead, teachers are confronted with sets of workshops that bear little conceptual or practical relationship to each other. Unfortunately, when attempts are made to provide coherence, those attempts are often only umbrellas under which any number of concepts, prescriptions, recommendations, and "workshops" huddle together. The latest one is "excellence."⁴⁵ Although it is difficult to argue against excellence as an ideal toward which we might all earnestly strive, it is difficult to conceive of any opportunity, no matter how loosely connected to the next, that would not fit.

The RITE framework requires that there be a strand of intention and activity that, over time and with concerted effort, guides a set of cumulative experiences aimed toward an articulated purpose. To require such continuity is to demand that clinical teacher education programs be thought of as long-

⁴³Frances F. Fuller and Oliver Bown, "Becoming a Teacher," in Klein Ryan, ed., *Teacher Education*, Seventy-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975).

⁴⁴Bruce Joyce and Renee Clift, "The Phoenix Agenda. Essential Reform in Teacher Education," *Educational Researcher* 13, No. 4 (1984): 5-18.

⁴⁵Despite some initial skepticism, it is clear that the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education sparked widespread public interest in the issues related to providing quality education. The theme of "excellence" as a goal for schooling was picked up by the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education. It is too early to determine the influence of this latter report.

term investments in teachers, teaching, schooling, and the advancement of the society. It is also to demand that the program be conceptualized and put forward with consideration given to its appeal to teachers and the degree to which that appeal will sustain participation over time. Here, of course, lies the rub. For an idea or a procedure or a new way of viewing teaching to "stick," it must be (for teacher education) uncharacteristically powerful. We know that teachers, like most adults, can learn to do almost anything. But we also know that teachers are more attracted to some ideas and practices than others. Part of the work of providing clinical teacher education is learning what is attractive, and another part is developing means to interest teachers in aspects of teaching that appear less attractive.

This last point may appear to be condescending. It is not meant to provide support for the argument that teachers "don't know what is good for them." It is meant to provide a stimulus for teacher educators, preservice and inservice, to discover and invent ways to act upon the conditions of teaching such that latent interests and concerns of teachers can be brought to the forefront of attention and used to promote growth and change. In the end, teacher education must be concerned with its appeal to teachers. In many schools, for instance, the conditions of work are such that it is no wonder that teachers resist or, at best, uneasily and reluctantly engage in professional development activity. Certain conditions militate against engagement, such as already crowded days, adult exchanges inhibited by schedules that must be followed, administrative refusal to provide release time for professional activity, the absence of a congenial space for adults to gather together over professional issues, and other roadblocks placed in the way of "excellence." It is when these and other negative context conditions are ameliorated that teachers will respond positively to the provision of clinical teacher education. And it is when these conditions are corrected that truly ongoing, sustained, and cumulative clinical teacher education can be put into place.

Clearly, in addition to offering a vision of what such an ongoing program should accomplish, we must also acknowledge that the support necessary for such efforts is considerable—support in terms of dollars, in terms of redistribution of scarce resources, and in terms of new ways of constructing teachers' workworlds. There is evidence, however, that the support for an ongoing set of meaningful professional growth opportunities is well repaid in terms of both improved teaching and more positive climates in classrooms and schools.

Feature #6: The program is developmental. The term *developmental* has been used by psychologists to refer to what can be called naturally occurring stages of growth, alterations in the ways that mind and body work as a consequence less of intervention than of the usual order of events. The RITE framework of clinical teacher education uses the term differently. Because we are concerned with the professional growth and change of teachers, we use

the word *developmental* to suggest an orderly progression toward advanced professional status.⁴⁶ Although one can assume that young adults, for example, will grow in maturity as human beings, we take the view that teacher education programs can contribute to that growth in professional ways.

Naturally, the developmental feature of the RITE framework is aligned with the ongoing feature in its emphasis on a set of activities that, *over time*, are incremental, cumulative, and purposeful. In contrast, repetitive, unsequenced, unconnected teacher education opportunities are out of alignment with the RITE framework.

Three considerations are of particular importance in designing a program that is developmental. First, one must distinguish the various levels of professional growth. Second, teacher education programs should be designed according to these distinctions between levels. Third, developmental differences will affect appropriate sources of information for planning a teacher education program at every level.

The existence of levels or stages of professional growth has been well-documented.⁴⁷ We are aware of the distinctions that can be made between prospective teachers, new teachers, and career teachers. Recently, teacher education programs have begun to be guided by these distinctions, and perceptive observers of schools have helped to sort out conceptual and programmatic issues that clarify the various stages. For a number of years, the role of teacher and the acts of teaching have been viewed as relatively "flat" or uniform. That is, "a teacher is a teacher is a teacher." This position suggests that there are relatively few differentiators in quality or style. It promotes the notion that the new teacher should look, act, and think much like the career teacher, that student teachers should quickly make the transition toward that same look, and, importantly, that teachers should therefore be rewarded pretty much the same, although longevity and advanced degrees are typically used to provide greater rewards for the veteran than for the newcomer.

Research activity and political activity have made serious dents in that point of view. From a research perspective, we are most sharply aware of the distinctions between novices and experts, neophytes and longtermers, beginners and veterans.⁴⁸ Furthermore, we are aware of qualitative differences *within* these groups: Some newcomers are different from other newcomers, some veterans are more expert than others, and so on. These distinctions

⁴⁶Norman A. Sprinthall and Lois Thies-Sprinthall, "The Teacher as an Adult Learner. A Cognitive-Developmental View," in Gary A. Griffin, ed., *Staff Development*, Eighty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983).

⁴⁷Fuller and Bown, "Becoming a Teacher."

⁴⁸Phillip C. Schlechty, *Teaching as a Profession. What We Know and What We Need to Know about Teachers* (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1985)

have meaning for the ways we think about and conduct teacher education programs.

The differences also have political and economic meaning. A current issue is the controversy over the selection and subsequent reward of so-called "master teachers."⁴⁹ To claim that this controversy is purely (or even mainly) intellectual is to miss the point. The claims for mastery for some and, one would assume, less-than-mastery for others call for differential rewards, real and ceremonial, and for radically different ways of going about the business of teaching and schooling. State legislatures, local school boards, teacher organizations, and other constituent groups are taking positions on the mastery issue right and left. Many of these positions are based more on political and economic viewpoints than on theoretical and rational proposals to stimulate mastery in teaching.

Notwithstanding the difficulties posed by within-group differences, we can and should attend to the distinctions between groups. Armed with the knowledge that people who have never taught are different from those who have taught for five or ten years, we can plan teacher education programs that take that issue into serious consideration, as well as plan programs that are inherently developmental themselves. Clinical teacher education programs can not only address the distinctions between initiates, neophytes, and veterans, but also sort out what it is to be a "successful" student of teaching. What are the most powerful influences in learning about teaching? In the same way, we can conceive of what it is to be a "successful" student teacher. What is it to be effective in a heavily supervised setting? And so on, through career teaching. Basically, in this aspect of the developmental feature of the RITE model, we demand that distinctions be made between career stages, and that those distinctions be in terms of expectations for success and effectiveness as well as in terms of the learning opportunities that are considered to be of greatest potential in accomplishing that success and effectiveness at each stage.⁵⁰ These considerations will, we believe, raise important questions about the "sameness" orientation that is too often applied across teachers as a group.

In terms of the developmental feature as a planning stance, the RITE framework requires that clinical teacher education programs be planned and implemented such that the various intentions and activities lead toward significantly more sophisticated consequences over time. For preservice teacher

⁴⁹The entire issue of *The Elementary School Journal*, Fall 1985, is devoted to discussions of the concept of the master teacher.

⁵⁰The idea of career stages for teachers has captured the imagination of a number of legislators, lay persons, and educators. Generally, this idea takes the form of a recommendation that teachers move through such stages as novice, beginning teacher, career teacher, and professional career teacher. In such a progression, responsibilities and rewards would be differentiated according to the roles played by teachers at various career stages. This is seen as a way both to attract teachers to the profession because of the promise of greater reward, and to hold teachers in the profession because of increased professional responsibility.

education, this might mean a reconsideration and strengthening of the "observe, tutor, teach small group, teach whole group, student-teach, teach all day, and teach all week" sequence that is typically spread over a two-year or longer period of time. For beginning teachers, it might mean a systematic assessment of the new teacher's role in the system and a gradual set of events that lead the person through that role and into career teacher status. For inservice education, it might mean a school system commitment to a conception of excellence and then, in the same way that a sound curriculum for children is planned, the formulation of a program presenting increasingly complex ways of demonstrating that excellence. (This is not to deny the importance of treating pressing issues and events that may not fall within the purview of the developmentally planned program. It is, however, meant to suggest that deviations that deflect attention from the developmental program must be considered seriously).

One way to look at the developmental feature is to consider the degree of autonomy versus supervision that teachers enjoy during the course of a career. The prospective teacher in a college or university setting has little autonomy and is heavily supervised by professors. As the person moves into the first year of teaching, he or she is typically supervised by building and system officers but to a lesser extent than in a preservice program. Tenure and extended teaching experience are accompanied by greater autonomy of professional practice.

Such a complementary relationship of decreased supervision and increased autonomy over time must be based on decisions as to how that autonomy is exercised, what knowledge informs it, and what career goals guide it. Teachers, teacher educators, and school officials need to work together toward the implementation of clinical teacher education programs that capitalize on the teacher's growing autonomy such that it leads toward exemplary professional status.

It was suggested earlier that there are appropriate sources of information, knowledge, and skill for determining the focus of a developmental clinical teacher education program. Naturally, valued knowledge regarding teaching and schooling will be a primary guide. Two others are suggested. First, recent research regarding teacher development, its prospects and its pitfalls, can provide important information for planners. We know considerably more than in past years about how teachers grow and change, how they think about their professional activity, and how they perceive problems and issues in their worlds.⁵¹ This information can provide data for decisions both about purposes and about implementation.

⁵¹Lieberman and Miller, *Staff Development*.

Also, it has become apparent that many of the best ideas for improvement reside within the teaching ranks, especially among career teachers.⁵² One approach to development is to systematically and rigorously assess the status of teaching and teachers in a school or a system. By status, we mean not just deficiencies that can be noted and verified, but also widely-held concerns about the conditions of schooling, modes of instruction, roles of teachers, outcomes of instruction, and so on. This assessment approach is guided, of course, by one of the most time-honored maxims regarding teaching children and youth: "Start from where they are." Why not do the same with teachers? By designing clinical teacher education programs that are responsive to the development levels (pedagogical and institutional rather than psychological and physical) of teachers, the program can capitalize upon vested interests and realize the true value of its human capital.

Feature #7: The program is analytic and reflective Naive observers of classrooms and schools often comment on the helter-skelter human activity they see. Children are moving; teachers are moving; materials are distributed and collected; whole groups shift from one place in the building to another. Although teachers and other educators may agree that the activity is purposeful, our patrons sometimes conclude that this is a confusing and uncertain state of affairs. There is a certain "busyness" about teaching and schooling. The students arrive more or less on cue, and the next five or six hours are characterized by a variety of interactions between those students and their teachers. In fact, it is this "meeting with students" that is most often central to any characterization of teaching as professional activity. Put another way, teaching is most often defined by teacher-student interaction.

There is, however, a more comprehensive view of teachers and teaching. According to this view, teachers engage in a number of important activities that take place apart from students. They plan; they diagnose; they evaluate; they learn from experts; they attend graduate school.⁵³ The RITE framework of clinical teacher education requires of professional development programs that time and space be set aside for the purposes of analysis and reflection, important intellectual activities that affect how one carries out one's professional role.

This feature, analysis and reflection, may at first glance seem a departure from our stance regarding the centrality of context to the RITE framework. Such is not the case. Too often, it appears, the time that teachers spend away from classrooms and schools, physically and emotionally/psychologically, is time that is purposefully divorced from consideration of those workplaces.

⁵²Etkunoff, Ward, and Griffin, *Interactive Research and Development on Teaching: Final Report*.

⁵³Gary A. Griffin, "Why Use Research in Preservice Teacher Education: A Proposal," *Journal of Teacher Education* 35, No. 4 (1984): 36-40.

Teachers attend classes in colleges and universities frequently devoted to issues dramatically unrelated to the realities of their professional worlds. There is, in effect, a distancing of the analytic and reflective aspects of teachers' lives that dilutes the power of those activities to alter life in classrooms. (Of course, it is important to engage in topics other than classrooms and schools. But to almost completely divorce the objects of study from what teachers regularly *do* is, we think, a serious error in judgment.)

It has long been hypothesized that reflecting upon one's activities is a powerful way to increase professional authority and effectiveness.⁵⁴ Furthermore, reflection is believed to improve the professional's ability to characterize and thus influence his or her ways of thinking about and acting upon the self in relation to others he or she encounters. In fact, teachers often become so caught up in their workworlds that they either choose to avoid reflection or are forced to do so in deference to the demands of classrooms and schools. Yet, there is evidence that teachers who regularly analyze and think about their professional activity are more perceptive and influential teachers.⁵⁵

Lest it be thought that the RITE framework is promoting the monastic contemplative life for teachers, we hasten to point out that this emphasis on analysis and reflection is meant to guide the development and implementation of exemplary clinical teacher education programs. The effective clinical program will have as a primary component the opportunity for participants, whether prospective teachers or teachers in service, to think about what they do in relation to their teaching activity and in relation to the teacher education program itself. The framework, then, calls for examination of self in relation to school and classroom contexts *and* self in relation to experiences in clinical teacher education programs.

This feature of the framework would preclude the "do-it-by-the-numbers" form of teacher education—the obligatory one-shot workshop, the no-follow-up lecture by a visiting dignitary, and so on. It would require that there be systematic allocations of time for individuals to reflect upon their experiences, alone and together, for the purpose of making those experiences more meaningful as well as for the purpose of raising important questions about the nature of meaning in experience.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has suggested a framework for clinical teacher education that may be put to use in programs designed for prospective teachers, beginning teachers, and career teachers. The framework proposes context as a defining property and a set of seven critical features that are believed central

⁵⁴John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (Toronto: Macmillan Company, 1944).

⁵⁵Susan Barnes and Sara A. Edwards, *Effective Student Teaching Experience: A Qualitative-Quantitative Study*.

to the enactment of sound clinical teacher education. Furthermore, the framework is based upon the strong belief that the best clinical teacher education programs will give attention to the defining property and all of the critical features in interaction.

Using this framework would cause teacher education, preservice and inservice, to develop programs with clearly stated and public purposes. Such programs would be based on a conception of teacher growth and improvement that is grounded in an understanding of the issues and problems of teachers' relationships in their classrooms and schools, guided by a conception of cumulative experience and power over time, rooted in a substantial and verifiable knowledge base, and sensitive to the ways that participants think about and reflect upon both the program and the places in which the teachers do their work.

The nation, some say, is "at risk."⁵⁶ We are not certain that this general conclusion is warranted by the assumptions that led to it in some commission reports, scholarly pronouncements, and studies of schools. We are, however, concerned about the "at-risk" status of the nation in special terms of its teachers and their work in schools. If we want to move from a nation of "knowers of facts" to a nation of "problem-solvers," from a conception of educational opportunity based on opportunism to one that leads citizens to discover the "good life," from a culture that undervalues the significant experiment in universal education to one that supports that enterprise, then we must work toward the intellectual and practical empowerment of teachers. One part of that important endeavor is the enactment of improved opportunities for teachers to become what we all know they want to be: thoughtful, effective, *excellent* professionals.⁵⁷

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⁵⁶The National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983).

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