

1975

**The practicum: present and future : report on the National  
Conference on Teacher Education, Perth, Western Australia, 18-22  
August 1975**

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"THE PRACTICUM PRESENT AND FUTURE"

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**ISBN 0 908008 04 X**

**Published and Printed by  
Mount Lawley College of Advanced Education,  
2 Bradford Street, Mount Lawley, W.A. 6050**

## FOREWORD

In Western Australia concern had been expressed among those involved in the professional preparation of teachers that there was a tendency to de-emphasize the practical components of courses in favour of the more theoretical academic disciplines.

There was a view expressed, perhaps rather parochially, that Western Australia, disadvantaged by distance for on-going communication between institutions, also appeared to be used very sparingly as a venue for conferences on education.

With this in mind College staff, early in 1974, decided to explore the possibility of mounting a national conference in Perth with the practicum of teacher education as its theme. A questionnaire sent to all institutions of teacher preparation in Australia expressing the concern felt in Western Australia and requesting opinion on the feasibility of the proposal, received an overwhelming positive response.

Respondents readily suggested a diverse range of issues in need of attention and it was from these responses that the program was defined and speakers were selected. The Planning Committee takes this opportunity of expressing its appreciation for the assistance offered from all parts of Australia and its regret that because of the nature of the Conference all offers could not be accommodated.

The Planning Committee is confident that the Conference achieved its principal objectives by bringing together teacher educators, exposing common problems and making some progress toward their solution. The pooling of experiences and the interaction between delegates at a formal and informal level was certainly a feature of the Conference.

The Proceedings which follow are a record of the formal aspects of the Conference and it is hoped that they will be of value for further development and research in the practicum of teacher education.



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## OPENING ADDRESS

**His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor, Commodore Ramsay**

Mr McKinnon, The Hon. Minister for Education, Mr Barton, Director-General of Education, Mr Peter, Principal of Mount Lawley College of Advanced Education, and Members of the College Board.

My first duty is to welcome to Western Australia those who have journeyed so far to attend this Conference — the First National Conference on the Practicum in Teacher Education. To those who have travelled from the Eastern States and in some cases from overseas I wish you a pleasant and rewarding stay in Western Australia.

To fellow Western Australians — I am sure that the hospitality you extend will be matched by the valuable interaction between yourselves and the visitors upon which the success of the Conference depends.

This Conference is unique in that it is the first occasion on which the practicum has been the sole or even the central issue of a national conference on teacher education in this country. This is somewhat surprising because the practical training component of teacher education programs is of particular significance for a number of reasons. It is the opinion of many authorities that the future teacher is influenced, in terms of attitude formation and personal development, more by his schools experience during the college course than by any other single aspect of post-school education. It is during this time that he establishes foundation values and patterns of behaviour that may take on a frightening or encouraging permanency according to one's viewpoint, and it is in this arena that the future teacher's problems of identification in the inevitable clash between, on the one hand, what the colleges and universities preach, and, on the other, what the schools practise, are likely to be resolved.

In several senses I feel at home in the present setting. My own career in the Royal Australian Navy embraced a wide variety of educational responsibilities in programs with specific vocational orientations, perhaps a little more narrowly prescribed than teacher education, but following the same general model and subject to the same accountability and the same public scrutiny. It would probably be true to say that in the balancing out of theory and practice my own experience has veered towards the latter in training terms, and I understand that is the aim of the present conference to focus attention similarly on the practical training component of teacher education programs. At the same time in both situations a strong, continuing research thrust may be identified. In your case the variables are more elusive, being almost exclusively in the human dimension, and the shifting values which guide your efforts create further formidable problems in research design and

evaluation. Nevertheless, it seems that considerable progress has been made in the last decade in the direction of more rigorous, systematic and analytical studies of the practicum in teacher education. No doubt the challenge of change in society as a whole has created a good deal of ferment and activity and a widespread questioning of traditional programs. In the wake of the challenge several significant techniques have been developed and enjoyed widespread currency in teacher education, among which interactional analysis, micro-teaching, simulation and games strategies are probably the more noteworthy.

These techniques, combined with new technologies and management systems, and underpinned by a philosophy of concern for individual development and relevant objectives have resulted in the emergence of new total approaches to teacher education. One such total approach, performance – based teacher education and certification, has dominated the educational scene in the United States in recent years and has caused considerable re-examination of teacher education in all Australian States.

This conference is being held at a most critical time in the history of education in Australia. Although public spending on forms of education has never been higher, there is increasing pressure on educational systems and institutions to justify the massive expenditure, to demonstrate that each dollar spent has a value commensurate with the effort involved in producing it and to vindicate the pattern of priorities that society has approved in which education shares top ranking with health and other forms of social welfare.

I think it is reasonable to assume that one of the important outcomes of this conference will be a change in attitude among all those who participate and that the most significant direction of change will be towards the public accountability concept. I presume to anticipate that the doubts which I understand many teacher educators experience in the operation of their various programs will be strengthened rather than alleviated, and I further venture the opinion that this is not necessarily a bad thing and that it is in the climate of doubt, concern and questioning that the most exciting educational changes take place.

I realize that the rate of educational change remains painfully slow. But if there is any single event, apart from substantial injections of funds into areas of needs, that may both set the stage for and accelerate change, it is the coming together of dedicated and highly experienced educators such as yourselves in a spirit of cooperation, with a desire to share knowledge and experience to seek answers to the perennial problems of teacher education. I believe that in selecting a teacher education practicum as the central point of attack on these problems you have really gone to the heart of the matter because it is at this level that the teacher in training develops understanding of individuals and competence in their guidance in teacher-learning situations. It is at this level as I mentioned earlier that the values and behaviours of future teachers are substantially developed or reinforced.

Altogether then you are about to embark on a week of deliberation on an issue of national importance. Some of the conference findings by virtue of the offices you hold you will be able to implement or not, according to your personal conviction, or the extent of your personal influence. Other findings may not survive the various hurdles always present in the process of educational reform – inertia, disinterest, tradition, financial restrictions and so on.

One thing is clear, the very phenomenon of such a large and distinguished gathering of educators having deemed the conference worthy of support by their presence is in itself proof of a great sincerity of purpose and a deep desire to effect change and enhance the quality of the training of the nation's teachers.

In formally opening this National Conference I express my sincere wish that it will experience the success it so richly deserves.

## OBJECTIVES OF THE PRACTICUM IN TEACHER EDUCATION

**Dr George Crank, UNESCO Advisor to the Government of Iran  
on Teacher Education**

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I have been asked to put the objectives of this practicum on teacher education in a global perspective; in the succeeding sessions it will be your task to determine how these objectives - at least some - might be placed in an Australian context.

In 1970 Unesco appointed an International Commission on the Development of Education. Its report, "Learning to be" was published in 1972 and has since been the object of world-wide discussion, and often, dispute. This report highlights a 21-point programme in the form of recommendations for educational change required to meet the increasingly complex demands of all nations, rich and poor, developed and undeveloped. The final proposal of the Commission was that all agencies involved in education "review the present state of research and development in education with a view to strengthening the capacities of individual countries to improve their present educational system and to invent, design and test new educational experiments appropriate to their cultures and resources". The aim being to build "learning societies", and the key word, innovation. (In a recent Unesco document on the latter, I took the trouble to count the bibliographical entries of publications on innovation since 1972: there were 97!)

Now no one in his right mind would attempt to read all these, even if one had the time to do so. Nevertheless, educational change is inevitable and who is the most important agent in the process? The teacher, of course.

In most countries the child is socialized by the school for twelve years — on an average of six hours a day for 180 days a year. The classroom teacher, an individual with human limitations, is supposed to counteract forces outside the school and somehow prepare every child to take his place in society which is constantly changing.

Institutional life — beginning with the family, proceeding through school and including industry, social and ethnic groups and usually the church — is designed to reinforce and sustain the individuals who take part in their activities. As a consequence certain modes of behaviour are encouraged and reinforced. Yet research and practical observation tell us that what happens in the classroom is not bringing satisfactory results, often confronting the teacher with the spectre of change, which may imply — real or imagined — that the status quo will be disrupted. The problem becomes that as an institution functions, behaviour becomes predictable and the security generated by a relatively stable operation sustains a de facto conservative stance which nourishes the institution and impedes change.

You are probably asking yourselves what does this analysis have to do with the purpose of this conference. Well, if we admit that educational change is not only desirable but necessary to meet the demands of a rapidly changing world, yet the institutional nature of education inhibits innovation, the type of objectives needed for teacher education becomes all important.

The relation of theory to practice then takes on new meanings. Evaluation both of course content and teaching practice is the key activity in the training of teachers. Systematic approaches to introducing change become imperative. Research and development in classroom practices and the learning process play an important role in determining how change may be brought about.

These activities should provide the framework for the development of objectives of the practicum which are realistic and sensible. In developing countries the objectives are usually simple and basic — the main purpose is to get young, often poorly trained students through the practicum as quickly as possible and into rural schools. Hopefully they will have sufficient skills to cope.

In the Ivory Coast, Unesco has participated in a nationwide television programme to improve teaching in primary schools — after six years the results are far from convincing. In the Eastern Caribbean micro-teaching has been introduced in 23 training colleges — it will be several years before this type of practicum can be properly evaluated.

In affluent, sophisticated countries, defining practicum objectives — and evaluating them — is very complex. In almost all cases, and especially the United States, the U.K. and I believe even Australia, social, economic and ethnic differences complicate the determination of objectives. And despite the many innovative schemes in teaching practice being tried in many countries — Sweden, Denmark, Great Britain, the U.S., Canada, Japan and even France, the old, traditional practicum appears to reign supreme.

Despite what validated research tells us, despite the new emphasis on learning rather than teaching, despite the doubtful value of teachers college "supervision" and the influence of the experienced teacher on the student-teacher, the trend towards changing the practicum has made very little progress. I believe this is due to the situation I described earlier; change implies a threat to the teacher and to the position of the institution in society.

There are, however, indications, almost certainties, that throughout the world educational systems will be obliged to change, both in content and in actual practice. The direction of change is towards a) a longer education for everyone (Unesco calls it life-long education), b) a changed structure of authority involving all sectors of society, c) a new distribution of knowledge and information and d) an open education rather than schooling.

If we accept these four directions of change as valid, the role of the teacher will have to be reassessed and redefined. If, as research strongly indicates, the learning process should replace the teaching process, the role of the teacher must change accordingly. This indicates re-examining the relation between teaching and learning. We might consider, therefore, the following as guidelines for re-defining objectives for practice teaching;

- 1) Studying the structure of the learning situation
- 2) Improving the techniques of the teacher
- 6 3) Reviewing the attitudes of teachers
- 4) Encouraging teaching as a cooperative exercise rather than an individual exploit

The foregoing suggests that teachers have to be prepared for a new role. Initial training, especially the practicum, will have to be reoriented towards the new role of teachers as agents of change. In-service training, including systematic review of classroom practices, should become a new type of practicum – the old idea that, once appointed a qualified teacher, further training is unnecessary, is no longer acceptable.

It should be added that continuous education of all those involved in teacher education and school activities should be a requisite for tenure in any educational institution. The time has past when professors and lecturers can isolate themselves from the real, everyday problems of the school teacher and the life of the classroom – Practicum should mean involvement of all those concerned with the education of teachers.

Bruce Joyce of Columbia University says:

“To live with truth and dignity we have to teach so that our models have moral validity. When we select practices we nurture not only short-term growth but the testing of our students and society. Deciding what to instruct and what to nurture and how to instruct and how to nurture are humble decisions made by each of us in our classrooms and in curricular and learning materials laboratories. These humble decisions, each affecting just a few students, operate to shape the reality of humanity, for all of us are created in some part by our teachers and by the models they use.”

In most countries of the world, the teacher teaches, the children “learn” – how and how well they learn is seldom questioned. The teacher teaches as he or she was taught in college and as was influenced by the supervising teacher during the practicum. After certification, apart from an occasional visit by the Headmaster or inspector, the teacher is on his own, master of his class, accountable only to himself.

In Sweden and particularly in the United States, new approaches to teacher education are being tried and tested. Although it is too early to judge their real effectiveness in improving the quality of education, I believe that a brief look at Performance or Competency – based Teacher Education in the U.S. might have implications for Australia.

Competency-based Teacher Education is an attempt to provide a more systematic approach to teacher education in order to deal with problems inherent in the United States. The movement has grown from wide-spread concerns expressed by educators, parents, community leaders, youth and Government officials. These may be summarized as follows: 1) a concern for maintaining quality in a rapidly changing society, involving improvement and reform; 2) a community demand for accountability as to why schools are not providing an education suitable to

the desires of young people, yet in tune with the requirements of modern society; 3) an insistence upon a more responsible accountability on fiscal questions (the public wants to be informed on how and why their money is used); 4) a State and public demand that teacher certification be related to the present trends of society; 5) a nation-wide demand from youth that education be more relevant to the world of today.

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The CBTE movement, in its various forms and activities, is becoming a concept which tends towards a national approach to teacher education, based upon specific principles which may or may not be accepted by all States. Nevertheless, the trend towards a common approach to teacher education appears to be increasing. The characteristics of the CBTE are in brief: 1) competencies (once defined) must be demonstrated by ability, not by time or course completion; 2) criteria have to be defined to test these competencies; 3) objectives are stated in behavioural terms; 4) exit requirements for student teachers are more important than entrance requirements; 5) instruction is personalized and individualized.

The plethora of literature on this subject is indicative of American higher education: "Publish or perish", the esoteric exchange of information among the "specialists", the increasing use of jargon to confound the uninitiated, the repetition of ideas and techniques, the over-emphasis on technology compound the problems which these very people are trying to solve. (In reading the vast documentation published in the last five years, the impression is that most of it was written in airplanes travelling between conferences, meetings and seminars which seems to be continual).

Despite these reservations, there are several documents which deserve praise for their clarity and style and which bring forward cogent arguments for implementing CBTE. Their assumptions are that traditional teacher education is ineffectual and inappropriate to the realities of today and that it is time that educators made a strong commitment to an approach which holds promise for improving teacher education.

The best example of a CBTE programme I have seen is found at the University of Toledo.

The emphasis is on performance and product. That is, prospective teachers must produce evidence of what is expected of them as well as that which is specified for them.

The fundamental process of competency-based teacher education curriculum development necessitates the use of systems theory, a systems analysis approach. Teacher education must be thought of as a system because (1) the role of the teacher must be designed (and his education developed) in the context of various related educational roles (such as teacher aides, educational technologists, various supervisory personnel, etc.); (2) the role of the teacher must be considered in relationship to all of the elements of the learning environments; (3) the distinction between preservice and inservice training is eliminated and teaching is more and more viewed as a continuing, developmental process; and (4) the education of teachers has become goal-oriented based on the development of competencies required of a teacher in order to facilitate children's learnings. Thus, the systems approach forces a total consideration of teacher education — its objectives, its means, its subsystems and their relationship to each other.

Competency-based teacher education further requires that such programs must be both personalized and individualized. Personalization requires that students and those involved with the teacher education process have a direct impact on the design, development, and operational implementation of the programme in which they are participating. It fundamentally calls for learners to help determine the nature of their learning experience. Individualization refers to the teaching-learning process where opportunities will be provided for students to engage in learning activities independent from other learners.

Competency-based teacher education commits us to the use of competency-based criteria for teacher preparation. These criteria will hold students, and ultimately teachers, accountable for their realization. Realization is based on acquired knowledge, demonstrated performance, and predictable products which become the three basic kinds of criteria to be used in the competency assessment process. Decisions on what behaviour and what products are to serve as a criteria base must be made in collaboration with appropriate agencies or persons who act together to specify appropriate knowledge, behaviour or product outcomes. The teacher education institution can no longer be the major determinant of program focus to requirements. All educational groups become a part of the whole in determining a basis for competence assessment.

The heart of a competency-based teacher education programme is the instructional module. An instructional module may be defined as a set of learning activities intended to facilitate the student's achievement of a specific objective or a set of objectives. In its simplest terms the module consists of the following elements: (1) a specific objective or set of objectives in behavioural terms; (2) a pre-test designed to test the student's level of achievement relative to the objective or objectives prior to their experience; (3) a series of instructional activities designed to help a student to meet the objective or objectives; and (4) a post-test designed to assess the student's level of mastery relative to the objective or objectives. The use of modules increases the possibility for self-pacing, individualization, personalization, and various means of instruction which involve interdisciplinary team approaches to teacher preparation.

Competency-based teacher education calls for continuity, the joining together of preservice and inservice teacher training. This is based on the assumption that a teacher is never fully educated and his intellectual and practical development is a continuous matter which must be nourished regularly. This strategy calls for timely delivery of instruction at the time a teacher needs it, not just during vacation vacations, weekends, after hour sessions, or in informal instruction classrooms. Under such conditions continuity in teacher education is a necessity, not something to be possibly considered.

Multi-institutional organizational patterns and interdisciplinary study are prominent in competency-based teacher education. Multi-institutional organizational patterns refer to the fact that teacher education must be the business of not just colleges but also public schools, involved educational and governmental agencies, educational industries, educational professional organizations, and the community where teacher education activity takes place. Such a conception greatly extends the cooperative base for teacher education planning and operations. The objective is to maximize the resources available to teacher education programmes and to involve more closely, directly and indirectly, those concerned with the decision-making processes related to teacher education. Various kinds of partnership relationships can be developed, and the use of consortia has become a much used pattern of



organization for developing teacher education efforts. Crossfertilization is implicit in the competency-based approach.

Finally, competency-based teacher education focuses unusual attention on evaluation. If such programmes are to be effective in realizing their objectives, it is essential that modern systems technology be employed in their management and evaluation. Evaluation must begin with a clear understanding of what is to result from the teacher education programme; detailed plans must be made to achieve these objectives; and then such plans are put into effect with constant evaluation and revision being employed to find even better means for achieving the objectives. Such a programme, arranged in behavioural terms, can be checked out at any given point and time, and provisions for prompt and objective feed back will enable it to become selfcorrecting. Such increased attention to evaluation calls for much in-service staff training as well as the collection and use of an increasing number of specialists, who usually have been outside of teacher education, such as programme systems analysts, computer programmers, media specialists, systems technicians, counsellors and accountants.

Some of the significant features of CBTE, common to most of the institutions using this programme are the following:

- 1) A retreat of at least one week at the beginning of the academic year which brings faculty and students together to discuss in depth their studies for the year and common problems.
- 2) Students are involved in critiquing their course activities and instructional materials and recommending changes.
- 3) The College faculty are responsible for the follow-up of graduates for at least one year. Over that period of observation and advice, reinforcement to the incertitudes and weaknesses of a first-year teacher will be provided.

I should like to terminate this morning's meeting by quoting Allen Smieder of the U.S. Office of Education, because, although he addresses American educators, I believe his words have meaning for all of us:

"American education has become an eighty-billion-dollar-per-year enterprise. One of every three persons in the nation is enrolled as a student; another 3 million persons are teachers of one kind or another. Almost every one of us is involved directly or indirectly in the educational process. The condition leads to the common lament of school administrators: "Everyone is looking over our shoulders". Educators in general seem to be uptight because everyone wants a piece of the action.

This attitude is unfortunate. Democratic participation in the educational mix by a great variety of constituencies just might make for the most exciting and meaningful era in the history of American education. Perhaps, for a change, education will be in the forefront of our society, rather than lagging behind in the posture of defending the past.

For too long, educators have helped to make education a second-class profession by acting like second-class professionals. The time has never been more perfect for an upward leap. Everyone is looking at the quality of our educational system — both from within and from without. Such a responsibility should be viewed not as a burden but as an invigorating challenge. During the past five years of excitement about educational reform, educators have prepared themselves — possibly more than any other group of people — for taking the lead, not only in meaningful educational reform, but also in positive and constructive long-range social reform.

It is highly probable that there has never been a time when educators were so well equipped and positioned not only to prepare young people to cope with their contemporary situation, but to provide the kind of present and future leadership that will finally prove that democracy not only works but is the most desirable possible condition."

## THEORY AND PRACTICE IN TEACHER EDUCATION:

### a developmental interactionist view.

Bernard Newsome and Roderick Fawns

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Whilst the involvement of the student teachers in the school should, we agree, at least allow them "to come to terms with the realities of a teacher's duties, to see their way through complexities of an unfamiliar organization, to gain familiarity with routine tasks, to experience teaching as a continuous process rather than a series of expository exercises and to find out something about their own strengths and weaknesses" (NUT, 1970),<sup>1</sup> we feel more must be asked even of a one-year practice based pre-service course.

We receive a fair amount of anxious and frustrated feedback, a good deal of which challenges us: "surely we could expect from our seminars and lectures some practical guidelines which would help us to establish and maintain purposeful order in the classroom and help prevent unfortunate classroom situations". In the face of such demands can we justify our failure to offer our explicit version of the message, "The Power and How to Get it"?

Our defence rests upon two major value judgements. Firstly, we are not convinced that we should. We are not fundamentally interested in helping young teachers make discipline, or more broadly management, a routine skill. Teaching and learning seem to us to be enterprises in which ends and priorities are unlikely to be ever finally defined. So, it concerns us that any attempt to provide this explicit guidance may well be counterproductive to our central purposes of evoking judgement, personal responsibility and accountability rather than rote obedience to "good advice" from any source. There is also the not inconsiderable risk that this good advice may be promoted from ways and means to justifiable ends in early teaching and reflection, and inhibit further development. Secondly, we doubt that anything we say in seminars or lectures which could be said to be explicit, would be relevant in any absolute sense, at a time when young teachers are increasingly conscious of the nature of the ideological, social and psychological influences which they must manage in a variety of situations in planning and presentation. They also feel significant scepticism of traditional institutional solutions. It must be an age of "high irrelevance".

It appears to us that an important way to make our teaching relevant to the new demands of schools is to make that teaching applicable to the problems at hand as perceived by the student and her pupils; to strive for contextual relevance. The mode of our teaching in schools may be more clearly seen as clinical in that it is:

- based upon the student's commitment to action through either planning or review
- 2 problem directed — either diagnostic or therapeutic in its search for significant solutions
- 3 dynamic in that it deals with contexts which change, demanding flexibility in thinking and responsive adaptation

- 4 a conscious attempt to provide competence models for development of those tacit skills of teaching — theoretical and practical.

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The teaching focuses upon discrepancies between the student's system of expectancies and the events experienced. The hypothesis is that some moderate or optimal degree of conflict constitutes the most effective experience for structural change. In this interactionist theory experience is plainly essential to progress.

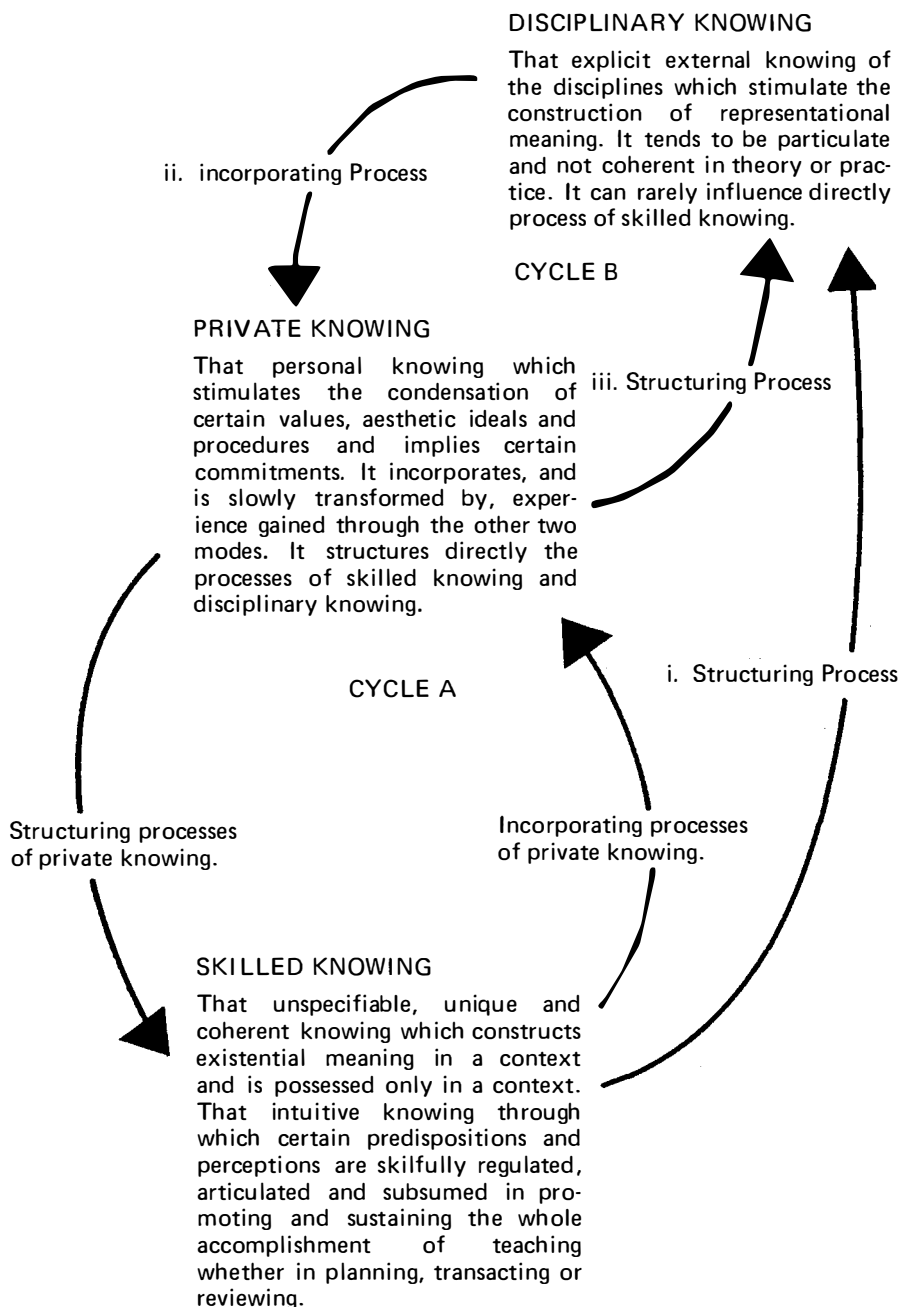
This implies:

- 1 Attention to the student's current level of knowing.
- 2 Matching the type of experience to the current level of knowing.
- 3 Arousal among students/staff of genuine cognitive and social conflict and disagreement about problematic situations.
- 4 Exposure to situations in and out of classrooms towards which the student can be active and in which the anticipatory or structuring response is subject to natural feedback.

The type of understanding transmitted by our teaching in schools is unlikely to be specifiable in formal theoretical propositions of "stages of cognitive development" or "structures of knowledge", although frequently we direct students' attention to references in these areas, and may address problems in the same area more formally in subsequent discussions at the University or in school.

It appears to us that at the unformulated level of educational theory that is currently employed in attempts to guide our understanding of the teaching process, the development of "skilled knowing" is less likely to depend upon the intellectual appreciation of a few semi-related half-truths than upon the quality of the student's previous experience and upon the personal qualities of temperament and personality. But, as Dewey points out, the central problem for us in teacher education, and for any education based on experience, is to select the kind of present experiences that will live fruitfully in subsequent experience. One fruitful source of educational theory for such unspecifiable knowledge is the student's own informed critique of her own practice. It is the broad view of teaching practice — planning, transacting and reviewing — with which we are concerned. We aim to encourage and employ this informed critique not only to focus upon the skilled contextual knowledge, but also to inform and confront basic values. This is the other aspect of personal knowing ("private knowing") we aim to develop in our students; towards the formalization of a coherent set of values, commitments and ideals. One component of "private knowing" will be those aesthetic ideals which the student sets for herself and by which she values her own and others creative accomplishments, akin to that sensibility which guides art and art criticism. We would like to see a process-centred view of teacher training emerge which offers a substantial alternative to the usual material-centred disjunction between practical and theoretical knowledge based upon a firm distinction between the subjective and objective and between the synthetic and the analytic. These distinctions seem more appropriate to courses which see as their central purpose the transmission of representational meanings which are proper to the study of the disciplines of education thought, than to the two modes of "personal knowing" to which we direct our teaching.

The dynamic relationship, as we see it at the moment, between the two modes of personal knowing and disciplinary knowing about teaching, is summarized in the model.



The development of the Private and Skilful modes of knowing are seen to be bound in an interdependant spiral in that further growth in either form is based upon certain limiting growth in the other. We see these modes of knowing as distinguishable in theoretical discourse but rarely in action.

- 14 Cycle A is the cycle of critical review and self analysis in which the focal activities are those of planning, transacting and reviewing. The cycle is stimulated in most students by "conversations" maintained in each school between the students and different members of the collaborating team — the pupils, other students, school staff and University staff. Together, these conversations will ideally comprise a learning-teaching network through which the two forms of personal knowing evolve to inform both practical and theoretical professional judgements. We find that these reflective conversations, which lead to the active application of alternatives, only prosper where student teaching commitment provides common experience with each of the members of the team and where optimum levels of uncertainty prevail.

It seems that Processes I and II in the model significantly influence personal theory building in so far as Cycle A is operating and the University staff is involved in the Cycle A conversations. These conversations are difficult to influence in any systematic way from the University alone. Traditional teacher training programmes seem to base almost all their teaching upon the assumptions that Process II and perhaps III account for most, if not all, the development of skilled teaching in young teachers; that these processes are by and large independent of concurrent Cycle A type activity, and that Process I is unimportant or unmanageable. We find Cycle B processes difficult to stimulate in isolation from Cycle A activity.

We feel the relationship between knowledge and successful teaching is far from the simple disjunction frequently assumed: "teachers rarely fail because of lack of knowledge of subject matter, when they fail it is almost always because they have been unable to transmit what they know so that it makes a difference to their students".<sup>2</sup> Perhaps the young teacher fails because she does not really possess what she is teaching as part of her best loved self, that personal knowledge which commits her to convey not merely what she knows but how she knows it and how she values it.

This then, is a representation of the dynamics of knowing and doing which appears to us to inform the detailed workings of the course.

How, more specifically, do we consider a student should develop during the training year?

While the reality of teaching is that teacher, pupil and task are bound up in high order interactions, we find it useful to view teaching as a sum of four simple interactions:

- (1) Teacher — pupil
- (2) Teacher — task
- (3) Pupil — task
- (4) Teacher — teacher

We have listed below under each interaction, student behaviours which we attempt to promote and develop on the way to a personal synthesis of practice and theory. Each "growing point" presents opportunity for effective teaching from both directions. Whilst we have some notion of the order or stages of development through some of these growing points, no attempt has been made to represent these ideas in the lists.

Broadly, we have identified growing points which we would regard as the common property of teacher educators. The way they are worded and placed indicate however the relative emphases we place on each area, and provide a structure for looking at the developmental interactionist stance which informs our work.

We aim to provide each student with an opportunity to establish an appropriate teacher-pupil relationship with children individually as well as in groups and classes

Growing points:

- (a) The recognizing of pupils as individuals possessing different temperaments, personalities as well as academic abilities, rather than relating to the class as an amorphous mass.
- (b) Responding to individual qualities of pupils rather than remaining remote and detached from them.
- (c) Recognizing the need to exercise influence, often direct, to develop a cooperative environment based upon mutual respect rather than either denying any right or responsibility to guide learning or displaying an over-anxiety to be liked.
- (d) Developing through continuity of experience with classes of different ages and interest, techniques of control which, as with other management techniques, will be highly personalized and appropriately applied to establish and maintain a pattern of cooperative discipline within her classes.

2 We aim to provide students with an opportunity to establish an appropriate teacher-task relationship by providing such experience as might allow the students to acquire confidence in the teacher role which they construct for themselves, and by promoting self-analysis

- (i) to evaluate her interest in children's learning, and more generally her potential as a teacher and suitability for the teaching professions;  
and
- ii) to evoke self-judgement, personal responsibility and accountability.

Growing points:

- (a) A critical reappraisal of the student's values, attitudes and skills through facing disaffected pupils who actively and passively resist her influence and that of the system.
- (b) An active review of the student's appreciation of the deeper meaning and structure of her knowledge through the challenging exposure of weaknesses in her intellectual grasp of the subject matter.
- (c) The appreciation that the emotional and physical strain of full-time teaching will force the student to formalize priorities amongst her teaching objectives, and to examine critically her organizational competence in relation to subject matter and procedural sequencing, mustering and deployment of materials and the management of class and groups.
- (d) The appreciation that there is a high probability that any commercial curriculum package will need to be significantly modified to meet her aims and her classes, but that the examination of selected packages may lead to an understanding of rational curriculum development in so far as:

- (i) the materials, procedures and sequencing were developed by a team of specialists in context and instruction;
  - (ii) the products have been revised and refined on the basis of internal evaluation and field testing;
  - (iii) a deal of summative data is available which will help in evaluating its relative effectiveness with different groups of pupils, against stated aims.
- (e) The student grows in confidence as she experiences and identifies:
- (i) instances of a creative and imaginative enterprise displayed in a range of contexts both within and peripheral to her major discipline areas;
  - (ii) learning achievement in her pupils as a result of her teaching;
  - (iii) her satisfactions within the day to day operations of the school;
  - (iv) pleasant and profitable personal conversations with individuals and groups of pupils both inside and outside formal class times;
  - (v) instances of acceptance and approval of both staff and fellow students at the school.

3 We aim to provide the student with an opportunity to recognize the significance of the pupil-task relationship as the prime process in the construction of private meaning for her pupils, by evoking self-judgement, personal responsibility and accountability in the pupils for their own learning.

Growing points:

- (a) An ongoing investigation by the student with her pupils of what they consider to be valuable experience both in terms of content and mode of exploration.
- (b) The development of an idea into a lesson by taking pupils into consultation about its potential.
- (c) The experience of being used as a resource in pupil initiated and directed activity.
- (d) The ongoing exploration with pupils of the emotional and physical strains that they associate with tasks of personal development and learning within the institution of the school.

4 We aim to provide the student with an opportunity, through the development of a range of teacher-teacher relationships to establish influential teaching models and also a competent understanding of the politics of a school.

Growing points:

- (a) The evolution of aesthetic standards of 'good teaching' through observation, reflection and co-operative analysis of alternatively effective teaching styles, particularly of supervisors; it is these experiences which can be revisited and reassessed at maturer levels of discussion and personal synthesis of values and skills.
- (b) The recognition of the growth of skilled knowledge achieved by working alongside and collaborating with an experienced and committed supervisor.
- (c) The "trying on" of different teaching styles influenced by supervisors and other staff but in an attempt to solve important problems which she and her supervisor perceive in her teaching.
- (d) The examination of decision-making channels, modes of communication and patterns of interaction among staff members in a school.
- (e) The examination of the different influences which pupils, staff, parents and the education department have on the decision-making in a school.
- (f) The examination of innovative programmes in the school and the identification of the forces marshalled for and against.



How to start, then, and how to proceed? The student is placed in a school for at least two days a week throughout the year, where she will initially collaborate with her supervising teacher, working in small groups and usually on the teacher's own syllabus. As soon as she feels confident, she is encouraged to work up programmes of her own to present to the pupils. In most cases, the school is encouraged to keep the same classes for the student, so as to enable her to develop a platform for teaching on which she can come to grips with teacher-pupil, teacher-task and pupil-task with children she knows.

Cycle A is thus set in motion, and provides the basis for discussion and investigation which will enable the **structuring process 1** to proceed. This is supported at the school end. It is also supported back at the Faculty, where the whole programme is organised under two headings: **Curriculum Studies** and **Methods**.

In theory, the distinction between the substance of these courses is easy to draw. The Curriculum Studies element takes up the theoretical and practical sides to issues which are broader than the teaching of disciplines, such as the instrumental, expressive and organisational aims of a school, the deschooling debate, inequality in education, the nature of learning, and on another front, provides a general forum where styles of thinking proper to the teaching disciplines are clearly identified and contrasted, where the conceptual boundaries are tentatively explored, and where students pool and debate what their disciplines hold in common, working together in school groups to build general studies programmes.

The Methods courses are more clearly devoted to what the student is attempting to achieve, both in the classroom and in teaching in general. Here she explores what is teachable in her own academic disciplines, what she can teach, what she must teach, what the pupils can do, what they must do and what they do do.

In practice, the two elements of the course interlock, not merely because the topics might relate to one another, but because they engage the student's personal knowing and are informed by the students' experiences in school. For example, the deschooling debate could be introduced through a discussion of the philosophical assumptions which underlie the purposes of education, in which the expressive aims which underlie a school like Summerhill could be critically compared with the instrumental aims which support traditional school policy. But when you have students who are practising their teaching in a school which considers itself to be an "alternative", and who, in attempting to explain to the group disturbances in their classes, or the difficulties they have coping with an unfamiliar, and for some, disturbing educational philosophy, the debate takes on a more urgent tone and a more engaged purpose. The fruits of these discussions then become part of the methods work, where the students attempt to relate such theorizing to the details of their proposed programmes. Methods enquiries also inform Curriculum Studies.

More time is spent on Methods than on Curriculum Studies. This emphasis embodies our belief that the study of, and practice in, the teaching disciplines is a larger matter than a tips-for-teachers forum, whether concerned with management or control (as referred to earlier), or materials. To study the teachability of one's own discipline is to engage in theoretical discourse about the content and processes germane to that discipline, which in turn leads to a discussion about the priorities individuals decide on within it. In each and every case, the discussions must engage the student in how she values her disciplines for herself (the Incorporating Process). They must also be discussions in which the student investigates her actual teaching concerns, and explores the gaps in her understanding and knowledge related to those disciplines (the Structuring Process).

Within such deliberations, the classroom confrontation is central. Consider, for example, the teacher of English when she first enters the classroom. She will have had three to four years experience of reading Literature, which she had discussed and written about at length, mostly in a highly discursive kind aimed at examiners. She may have studied theoretical linguistics, although that is less likely. It is even rarer that she would have considered explicitly the roles that language has played in her learning, nor will she have seriously considered what distinctions should be drawn between writing and speech, either as modes of language through which one learns or as means of communication.

She is almost certain to have no notion of what a pupil will write during a week in English lessons, during a week of schooling, or during the year as a whole. In so far as she has such notions, they would depend upon her memories of past experience, which, in relation to the school population, would be certain to be exceptional. In reviewing the work done by the class she is likely to see wrong spelling, punctuation, incoherence, a good deal which is composed according to the recipe 'write anything at all in any way you like about anything you like to no-one in particular', and is almost certain to perceive the pupil spectrum which ranges from those who like writing and can, to those who can't write and won't.

All of this would be bad enough if she didn't have to take the class next day for a writing lesson. But she has, and what is she to do? She could be forgiven for feeling that her discipline has hardly prepared her for this eventuality, for feeling that she is on Mars for the first time.

The teacher suggests she continue the topic of **Being in a Battle**. Armed to the teeth with a literary text she reads to the class, and, following discussion, asks them to write. Some pupils do, some don't; some who have trouble with writing struggle for a quarter of an hour, some who are fluent write quickly for two minutes. When reading their work over afterwards, she concentrates on the writing of one of the slower pupils. After deciphering the handwriting, she arrives at this version:

#### The Balte of Wacster

I was on my hase the Balelt begun someone Bule of a derteygrat gun. my mate was hit in the are and, the hed and he fell to the grawnd, and ofcuse he wos ded a nuther was het with a flipping grat skik a nuther was hit and a nuther was Hit.

Having reached this point, she now has a set of questions which she must reflect upon. Obviously, the spelling is awful and the punctuation awry. It is coherent? As a piece of writing it doesn't appear to be. Did the pupil mean it, or is it accidental? At that point the author walks past, and the student gives him the original and asks him to read it out aloud. The pupil does so with great gusto. He comes up with this version:

I was on my horse and the battle begun;  
Somebody blew off a dirty great gun.  
My mate was hit in the arm and the head,  
And he fell to the ground and of course he was dead.  
Another was hit with a flipping great stick,  
Another was hit and another was hit.

The student's previous problems are resolved, but she is now faced with another cluster of questions:

- (i) Does it capture and express what was running through the pupil's mind? (A matter of language and the self.)
- (ii) Is it worth sharing with others? (A matter of communication.)
- (iii) Will he next time write more easily and with greater confidence? (A matter of development in writing abilities.)
- (iv) If it is a piece of Literature, is it any good? (A matter of value.)
- (v) Would any significant difference be made to what the pupil understands about himself and his environment if he had not written it at all? (A matter of relevance.)
- (vi) What shall I do when I give it back? (A matter of practice.)

The student could be excused her panic, for (vi) has to be resolved urgently, and her way of proceeding will be influenced by the answers she gives to the other questions. (i) — (v) cannot be resolved overnight, for they need to be placed in a perspective which brings together such related matters as language and mental development, language and communication, language as an art, language and culture. Such a perspective will be informed by theoretical consideration at all points.

A theory/practice discussion has begun.

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## TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN OPEN SITUATIONS

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Last year, while I was in Tasmania having a counterlunch in a broken-down old hotel out at Windermere, I said to the lady — “Pat, where do your children go to school?” “Oh” she said, “they go to school at Scottsdale”. “And” I said, “what have they got at Scottsdale — area education?” “Oh, no Jack” she said “area education went out years ago”. And I said “What have they got?” “Oh,” she said “they have got open education”. And I scratched my head. I said “what is this open education?” “Well” she says, “it is like this — they work when they like. They play when they like. They go to the loo when they like. When they come home they are so bloody tired I can’t get any bloody work out of them”. Now, I don’t think that is a definition of open education.

A.S. Neal brought in open education. It was used for human beings — I suggest the word curing. But what kind of curing. I don’t want to be cured of my habit of using McCulloch’s orange and black. Nor do I want to be cured of smoking. Nor of my liking for a bottle of beer. No teacher has the right to cure a child of making noises on a drum. The only curing that should be practiced is the curing of unhappiness. The difficult child is the child that is unhappy. He is at war with himself and in consequence he is at war with the world. The difficult adult is in the same boat. No happy man ever disturbed a meeting or preached a war or lynched a negro. No happy woman ever nagged her husband or her children. No happy man ever committed a murder or a theft. No happy employer ever frightened his employees.

Now there is no doubt at all that we want to produce happy children in our schools too. But, we want to produce literate children. Some people call for literacy, numeracy and oracy the old guard call for reading, writing, and arithmetic (Spelt with capital letters — starting with R). That is one of the problems that is with us too. In the past in Teachers Colleges we job trained people — they are excellent technicians. These days perhaps we have failed in that angle — the baby was thrown out with the bathwater. Nobody would ever question that the recipes that were given had to be informed and people had to know the reasons for those recipes and I think most thinking people would agree even in an open area, an open situation, there is still a place for talk and chalk.

In this 20th century really four things are influencing the whole problem of teacher education. The first thing would be the knowledge explosion. As we all know, knowledge is doubling or trebling at the rate of every two years. It is an era of the specialist. Nobody seems to be able to synthesize or get the total overview. When people of my vintage went out to teach we went out to a fixed syllabus. We knew exactly what was expected of us. Now, teachers, students, nobody knows what is really expected of them. Say we have all seen the fashions come and go. Say we

have seen the project system that was brought in and the project system of course degenerated to cutting and pasting. No doubt that helps to keep the Womens Weekly in business. After that we had group work where the whole object was to break your children up into as many groups as you could possible get so they could pool their ignorance. After that we has cuisenaire which has been renamed Modern Mathematics. Now we have open education. Open education has a lot to recommend it.

The second thing which has really influenced education is our knowledge of child development. The whole problem of course here is to get students to transfer this across to the classroom – the nitty gritty of teaching. Once upon a time transfer of learning was a dirty word. Strict behaviourists maintained it wouldn't take place. This is years ago. But our only justification for existence is to try and bring about transfer. All too often the students will simply say they read psychology and theories of learning purely and simply to pass examinations. The suggestion that they have relevance to a classroom situation brings raised eyebrows. That's why I think we should have kept the job training but attempted to combine the job training with a theoretical base. Then I think we can become a profession because of a body of theoretical knowledge that can justify what we do.

The third thing of course comes through with theories of learning. I don't want to go into that too much but perhaps what happens too here is people get enamoured of one particular theory and they use that theory all the time. I think there is a place for behaviourism. There is a place for gestaltism. There is a place for all the various other theories. They work, but they have to be used selectively. This is perhaps our job in teacher training – to enable students to discover when, why and how. These things should be used.

The last thing of course, is something I think which is with us for ever and that is individual differences. We pay a lot of lip service to that but we very seldom carry it out in practice. That's why I think there is no one way of teaching, there is no one body of thoughts that can be put up because of these individual differences. I mean, everybody is not intended to be a genius. There is a place for the ordinary person within our highly complicated world. Now, if we just move into the idea now of the open classroom. You could have unstructured, semi-structured, tightly-structured situations and then you have what might be called open areas. I think the unstructured situation is the area where disrepute has been brought in to the whole movement. Where children, say, who had worked in the highly traditional and tightly structured open situation were just flung into an open situation. They were just lost and they reacted accordingly. Everybody agrees that we have to gradually move into it. In some schools now they are starting with open education in the prep. grade, then they gradually move through the school and the kids can accept it. They can learn to accept the responsibilities. They can adjust to what's expected of them.

I think we have had semi-structured situations for some time. There has been some talk and chalk. Our children have been allowed to work for themselves, and various things like that have occurred. With the tightly structured situations, there is a place for that even with certain types of kiddies who perhaps can't profit from what we might call freedom. Children who can't make the kind of decisions that are necessary in an open education. Now if we look at the various categories of learning and so on which are available we have got basically the learning of concepts, the learning of attitudes, values and ideals, the learning of psychomotor skills and creativity. I suppose that is basically what the learning situation revolves into.

All those are used in an open classroom in exactly the same way as they are used in traditional schoolrooms. We have the psychological theory where we can teach this quite effectively. Sometimes I almost weep when I see appreciation being taught in the school and I compare it with an advertisement on television or something like that – where the advertisement on television is done so effectively and yet the teachers and students have the same implements to use if they want to. Where they can really get attitudes, values, ideals, appreciation across but they refuse to use the psychological tools. This is where I think the theoretical training is vital and essential. There is no doubt too that the whole basis of reading and most of the things that we do is to get children to form concepts and in an open classroom elsewhere I think perhaps that has helped. By the open situation the friendliness, the cooperation which operates between teachers and things like that perhaps the information comes across a lot more quickly.

Suppose we just have a glance at teaching techniques. Fundamentally I suppose they are three. Pure discovery learning, guided discovery learning and expository teaching. They all have their places. Sometimes we have fashions where we go overboard for pure discovery learning. Other times we have fashions where we go overboard for guided discovery learning – other times for expository teaching. But they all have their role and perhaps that could be equated with the distribution of intelligence. But we have gifted children – not many of them. We have the so-called average children, and we have the under-achieved. Now the bright kiddy learns through pure discovery learning. He is self-motivated. His curiosity is aroused. He knows what questions to ask and he seeks the answer to those questions.

As you move down the scale you move into the guided discovery learning where a teacher puts up the questions, perhaps gives them the solutions, or gives the way of finding the solutions and ultimately I suppose when you get right down to the end of the scale you are face to face with expository teaching with the under-achiever. When I see some films of America at times when we see education consultants being paid huge salaries that do remediation and all they are doing is teaching the way we used to train the ITC's to teach. And now, of course, to teach anybody to teach that way is forbidden. I think that's the whole thing, that perhaps we have just gone too much for fashion, in the whole situation and in the whole business. The point I really want to make is that there is no one answer, there is no panacea. Comenius, years ago, thought he had the answer to pantheism. Duey thought he had the answer in the project method, and so on. But even Plato way back realized that there are individual differences among children. There were the leaders. There were the led. There were people who will learn. Different methods had to be used. I think that this kind of open situation has to be used selectively.

You might say that in-service training is going on all the time among the teachers and they learn to work together. For example, I started teaching in 1940, I never saw inside another classroom until 1957 when I was doing my Diploma of Education. I think it was the same with most of us. We just kept tied up with ourselves and that was it and there was no inter-change of ideas. Inter-change is going on all the time now. People are now learning and young teachers are learning at an unbelievably rapid rate. Now, I would just like to sum up this whole business. I said to you earlier I don't think there is any panacea for the problems of education. We have had things we have brought in, used holus-bolus and these things seemed to have failed. It almost looks as though we have to prepare students with an armoury of skills and they have to learn and experience how to apply



those skills. In other words, if we get rid of fashions in education and really consider the needs of children, I think we are going to get a better educated populace.

In the past we used the fashions as they came in purely and simply. It was required of us to get promotion etc. etc. etc. No doubt all of you have been in a position where you toiled hard one year. You really worked hard and you got nothing out of it because results were no good. Next year you get bright intelligent kids, have the biggest loaf you have had in years and get an outstanding mark. Now, I think if that goes, and it is gradually going, I think with teaching and the really important thing here is the child and what the child needs. That's why I am saying the armoury of methods has to be given but nothing to be used in an arbitrary fashion. There is no doubt, too, that children today are going to grow up into an unbelievably complicated world. We all know that the change is coming with unbelievable rapidity. Values could settle down. We are going through a period of value change. But the interesting thing is that when you look through history, value change always seems to appear at a time when communication improves. Here, with the television, the media, the breaking down of distance and time, the value changing is colossal. Children are adapting to it far more than adults. The arrival of super-industrial state is going to demand a completely different type of person — a type of person that literacy just couldn't bring into existence. I don't think there is any doubt at all if the open education works properly, and is used properly, it will produce a resourceful kiddo.

**Question:**

To what extent do you feel that the training institutions are adapted to suit the needs of change which you are experiencing in your own schools?

**Answer:**

I find that we are getting students coming through who certainly know a great deal about open area education and they are prepared to give things a try. It is very refreshing because you see when I get a change in staff at the end of the year I inevitably get two or three old stages who come into the school and they say "I hope you are not going to expect me to teach in that situation there — I'm just going to pull those walls across and I am just going to stay doing my own thing". Well, I'll say "well if that's the way you want to be you just be that way, that suits me fine". We have a great policy of allowing people to do their own thing in this state. But it is very refreshing to see students come to school to give lessons who want to give teaching a go. They appreciate being in a situation where they can manipulate children and formulate their own programmes. Certainly the Education Department has a system of further education for teachers, in-service work and so on. Teachers by and large have been playing around with team teaching and so on and scratching in the dark a lot. Most of the innovation is coming from the younger generation I would say.

**Question:**

Could you perhaps briefly outline for us the aspects of your programme at Frankston that are particularly aimed to prepare students for open space?

**Answer:**

All I am basically saying here is there is no arbitrarily designed programme operating at present. In our inspectorates the schools there are two open-type schools operating and according to statements made by the administration it seems that all future schools built in Victoria will be open area schools — you know, where

four or five classes will work in the one big space with four or five teachers working with them. Basically all that they are doing at present here is trying to introduce them to the skills of teaching, trying to make them more flexible, and so on. So we have the same problems arising in the starting of rural schools where it is a very expensive thing to send the students out and yet the number of rural schools in Victoria is gradually diminishing. That is another problem. No thorough programme has been devised yet to prepare people for open situations. Yet if we try to prepare everybody for open situations we could make a lot more trouble for them in the conventional area. What I am doing here is asking people who are really interested in this to go into the particular schools that we have got and making them aware of what's happened. We show them these video tapes. We do about seven or eight lectures on open education, show them the principles and some of them might find their own way into schools — the ones that are interested. But there is no set programme at present.

### **Question:**

One of the chief concerns of the Director of Primary Education in this state (W.A.) about open-area education is the fact that there is a tendency for there to be not enough talk and chalk going on. Far too much freedom of choice as far as students are concerned and not enough guided teaching. I've discussed this one with my own staff too. We have found a couple of things here. Firstly we keep our teams small. The only way you can operate an open school really is like team teaching — you can't have people just all doing their own little thing. Firstly you have got to keep your teams small and this way you have preserved some form of flexibility. From a Principal's point of view I insist that when teachers are planning they must plan to get some certain core of information across every lesson, be it small or large and let it branch out from there. But the one thing I insist on with teachers is that if they are going to give a social studies lesson then they are going to allow the children to do a certain amount of their own research and so on. They have got to have the books ready for those children but they have got to get some message across and this is the one thing that I know our Director is becoming very concerned about and he is inclined to push this across to people.

### **Comment:**

That we should be concerned with the process of openness is an admirable statement. We must not under-estimate this. The fact is that openness in education is determined by the building code of the state Education Department. What we have to ask surely is what happens to children because of our definitions of openness. There is clear evidence to suggest that openness that is not just the building is related to rationality and clear lines of discipline upon children's behaviour and their activity which makes learning interesting. But openness in terms of architecture does have ethnic and cultural differentials. There are some children who because of their ethnic difference cannot operate in the same sort of open situation as children who are not the same ethnically and culturally. But the spectrum of age has got to be taken in account. Surely what we must do in training institutions for students is to make them aware of what research is saying about this.

There is a clear distinction between the two terms, open education and open area schools, or open space schools, because the two terms have very definite different meanings and uses. The first, open education, relates to a form of teaching and the second relates to an architectural device. Bearing that in mind, if we are looking at open education in Australia, the number of open plan or open space schools is hardly an index of commitment of education systems to open planning. In fact, open planning or open space architecture is a device deliberately employed by architects to avoid imposing a particular educational form of organisation on schools. This can be substantiated by reading statements from the Department officials who are responsible for designing schools. Hence, to simply look at an open plan building is not going to be a very useful exercise in predicting the form of education that goes on inside it and I think that point needs to be made.

Let's return to the topic, open education. What is it? There is no doubt despite the huge volume of literature that it's a difficult term to pin down and it has not been helped at all by the abandon with which various experts have used the term, and it has been part of our job in a nation research project to come to some sort of understanding as to what the term is.

Let me make my point by quoting to you a definition of open education by one of the leading authorities, Roland Bath, from the United States. I think this will make my point.

He says that "open education is a way of thinking about children, about learning and about knowledge". He says "it is characterised by openness". From here onwards the confusion begins. "Doors are ajar". Ajar presumably means another word for 'open', perhaps, "and children come and go. Classrooms are open and children bring objects of interest in and take objects of interest out. Children move openly from place to place, from activity to activity. Time is open to permit a release rather than constrain or prescribe. Perhaps, most importantly, open education is characterised by an openness of self, on the part of children and adults. Teachers are open to the possibilities inherent in children. . . ." and so on. It's unfortunate that what is a very important development in education happens to have been labelled by such a confusing yet simple word. So it is no wonder that the term has come now to have so many different meanings among educationists and why dialogue is so difficult because each of us is talking about some other notion of openness.

A general definition for the purpose of this discussion, judging from the literature, would be that, in an open classroom or a classroom characterised by openness, you are more likely to find a teacher encouraging more informal classroom protocols. You are more likely to find a teacher expressing warm inter-personal relationships with children rather than favouring detached child management strategies. You are

more likely to find a teacher allowing more scope for children to determine the nature of their day to day program and so you can feel the flavour for what people are talking about when they are talking about open education.

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A colleague of mine in our research project has rather succinctly, I think, summed it all up. He's defined openness as the extent to which pupils are regarded as persons learning rather than organisms to be trained and if we think about that definition we probably find ourselves as teachers, on various times, switching from more or less open strategies to the opposite extreme.

Very briefly, that's what the literature says or what you can deduce from the literature. But what about the practicalities of Australian schools, and particularly with reference to Australian primary schools? It has been our pleasure to examine the responses of some 300 teachers in 120 primary schools with respect to the sort of programme that they operate, and in asking teachers to describe their programme, we deliberately asked them questions which we thought would allow us to determine whether the programme was more or less open, according to that theoretical definition that I just described to you. I think the lessons we learned from that analysis are firstly, that openness is really a quality of education, rather than of personality trait of teachers. At least, that's a more useful way to consider the problem. Secondly, that a teachers pedagogy isn't usefully described as being open or not open. There are some degrees of openness. Thirdly, that teachers usually employ some practices when they teach which are inherently open and some which aren't. They don't all neatly adopt practices which are consistently open. And, fourthly, that they are on some occasions, disposed to be open and, depending on particular circumstances, not on others.

That's the picture with regard to most Australian primary school teachers. They don't happen to be completely open or not. In other words, in our schools system, teachers tend to be selective and pragmatic and they are not driven as some of the people in the literature would pretend that they are, by some overall powerful ideology of belief in children that allows them to integrate all the information with respect to their teaching and make consistent decisions, because in the hustle and bustle of classroom life, there are all sorts of constraints on people that forbids them to be consistent according to such an ideology. For example, you have simple little factors like tradition. Like, for example, the way the school timetable is organised. Like, for example, the attitudes and expectations of colleagues, of superintendents or inspectors, of their principal, all of these things act upon the behaviour of teachers. We tend to want to avoid, to minimize conflict and we tend to want to avoid wasting our energy on strategies that appear to be unsuccessful. So I think then, its important not to think of teachers as being either open or not, and neatly fitting some theoretical model, if we are going to cope with training teachers and getting them ready for teaching.

I think this is easily illustrated if you look at the literature and you read from people such as Bath, who in a fairly famous document, has listed assumptions about open educators in respect to teaching. For example, two assumptions read that children are innately curious and display exploratory behaviour quite independent of adult intervention or that children have both the competence and the right to make significant decisions concerning their own learning. I think most teachers can go along with that. But there will be times when they won't and can't or are unable to implement that sort of ideology because of local constraints.

To finish what I see to be some of the implications of this perspective for teacher education, I think we should look at conventional teacher education and how, perhaps in my day it would have approached this problem. When I was at teachers college it would have perhaps concocted a course on the history of open

education, another on the psychology of open education, another on the philosophy of open education and maybe it would have stopped there. What's missing is the skills that are necessary to cope with organising and running an open classroom, in which teachers genuinely are allowing children to exercise a greater degree of choice and there is a greater attempt to individualize.

Let's pursue a medical analogy of a surgeon who perceives there to be an important area of interest, a heart condition. He leaves it generally, as that, and the profession then provides the surgeons in their training courses, with a course on the history of heart disease, on the psychology of heart disease patients, and perhaps the morals and ethics of treating patients with heart disease. But it's the skills that they really require if they are going to be successful. I think in conclusion, that what's required is a good deal more analysis of precisely what happens at a microscopic level in classrooms when successful open teachers operate. We need a good deal less concern with the ideology and the philosophy and will be helped if we desist in thinking of teachers as being either always operating open principles or never operating open education principles. I think we should look at what open education literature has produced for us and take what we can, rather than simply accepting in toto or dismissing in toto.

**Mrs Giles, Vice President, Council of State Schools Organisations in W.A.**

The first thing I will do is dwell very briefly on the policies of both the Australian Council of State Schools Organisation and the Western Australian Council, the state body, which gives me the opportunity to say of course that WACSSO is not some new floor polish but the West Australian Council of State Schools Organisation.

Annually, the Conference of the West Australian Parents accepts the policy of the national body, the Australian Council, which is a document of which most of us I think are justifiably proud. The section in that which refers to teachers, suggests, and it does not differentiate here between new teachers and old teachers, that they should be endowed with the ability to communicate a high level of knowledge and skills, imagination, enthusiasm, tolerance, judgement, sensitivity, perception, individuality, awareness of man and of nature, and awareness of the dignity of those they teach. The responsibility is also theirs for establishing the basic philosophy of the school. The idea that the philosophy of the school is enshrined in the design of the buildings, is a somewhat risky assumption. All of us have seen very happy and productive situations in totally closed buildings with the windows deliberately designed so that all you can see is maybe the occasional passing aircraft, and some very very closed situations in beautifully modern designed open spaces.

The West Australian Council of State Schools Organisation comes much closer to home, and has a more pragmatic type of policy. It's put together by our annual conference here which tends to be heavily loaded with country representatives. Our own policy here in Western Australia, besides accepting what the National body says, talks about the professional status of teachers, the great need for ancillary staff, specialist teachers, guidance counselling and puts great emphasis on stability. It goes on about the housing of teachers for instance, and generally implies that the main thing about teachers is that they should stay put for some length of time; that the system should provide adequate training, undefined, and then provide the conditions under which the teacher can get on with his job, again, generally undefined, except in terms of the aims of education generally.

West Australia has been labouring for very many years under the constraints placed on parents by our Education Act which says very specifically in clause 27 and its talking here about Parents and Citizens Associations, "An Association shall not exercise any authority over the teaching staff or interfere in any way with the control or management of any Government School". This, I believe, has been one of the factors that has created a climate here where parents, on the whole, feel that education is a fairly esoteric thing, and best left to the professionals. The type of situation arises very rarely where the parents have tried to insist on some point of view in some particular school. Parents on the whole, have not been given any reason to think that their opinions were going to be particularly significant in the design of education or in the education of their children or that their own experiences are the ones which shape their expectations. I think it might be useful for me to discuss, just for a moment with you, the nature of the average parent, as a worker, as a member of the community, as a citizen, and so forth, and without going deeply into any theory of social economic determinism, to just put to you that in the Australian work force 67% of the males have no training, except what they got on the job, and only the most basic of education, and little over 20% of them have had trade training. When it comes to the women in the work force 80% of them have no training, except what they got sitting next to Nelly or working next to Nelly and only the most basic of educations. Now this will change very gradually. But it will take a long time to make any significant difference to those figures that I have given you. The majority of parents of children in our schools now have different or higher expectations for their children. The unskilled worker is perhaps looking for a trade for his son, and for his daughter maybe a short secretarial course. The unskilled woman perhaps working in a hospital laundry or kitchen will be delighted if her daughter does an 18 month nursing aide training. But in terms of what they want out of the education system, their ideas, their aspirations are very closely occupationally determined, and as far as any philosophy is concerned, that's just not the language they talk. It's just not the sort of books they read. This can be well illustrated by a study done on the Australian Womens Weekly magazine. Up until 1972 there was a study done on three years of issues of the Womens Weekly with the intention of discovering just what its philosophy was, just what the angles were, just what it was putting to the average woman, who read the Australian Womens Weekly and who modelled her life on the sort of woman she found in there. From those three years' issues, the only mention of education was one short short letter which suggested that if heavy homework books had to be taken from one room of the house to the other, it was much better done in a shopping trolley.

I don't think we need to be unduly pessimistic about this. Developments in education do stimulate interest amongst quite a lot of parents, and I think every parent is fascinated by what happens as his child acquires numeracy and literacy. He and she tend to lose interest, when the language of the numeracy gets beyond understanding at about level of grade III and when it seems at the same time that junior is never going to learn to spell. After that, one assumes the education system is going to do its job and churn out something or other at the other end of it. But, still, after all these years, the predominant feeling amongst the majority of parents I think, would be that which is so very strongly influenced by their own experience of schooling, of what they knew as children. They are suspicious of change. They, in most cases, are not consulted, or encouraged to be interested in the changes that are occurring, bar the introduction of the achievement certificate which here was accompanied by a very determined campaign of involvement. I believe that possibly one of the reasons we are losing touch now is that that has not been kept up — that that was possibly one of the exceptions that proves the rule. The introduction of open area schools in 1968 received some mention some publicity, considerable

amount of interest but very little controversy in the areas where these new schools were being built. They were just schools badly needed, and most people were just jolly glad to get a school of any sort. When it turned out to be a school that was fully carpeted, that was light, airy and attractive, that was a marvellous bonus. And the best thing of all was that because it was a show piece, it was extremely well equipped, and these were in the days of endless subsidies. So that was another bonus. But, as for any actual change in teaching techniques, in the approach of teachers who had all been trained in the old way of course, well it was not immediately obvious. Even now, six or seven years later, I doubt whether there would be many parents who could describe what changes had occurred in the education system in relation to open schools. While Dick and Dora reign supreme, and God's in his Heaven, then all is right with the world and all is as it was before.

**Mr Broadbent, Principal, Warradale Primary School, South Australia.**

Perhaps by way of introduction, may I first state that I am just an ordinary head of just an ordinary primary school. The children who attend the school that I run, are from a good middle class area, quite well behaved, well adjusted, and enjoy, if that is the word, a traditionally styled educational programme, presented by a fairly average, stable staff, the sort that you would find anywhere in Perth, Adelaide, Melbourne or anywhere else. The teachers are, in the main, interested. They are committed. They are involved. But change is treated with caution, as many of them are past that enthusiastic period of life. Their teaching style has been guided in a very conventional way by previous heads and the occasional young appointee has certainly been influenced in that direction as well. I took up the appointment this year. I have attempted to stir the winds of change slightly. We are gradually working it up to perhaps a modest sea breeze at this stage. But I am finding that teachers are receptive and more and more of them are accepting that education must be a participatory event.

Our particular association is with the Sturt College. At present I am considering the future of that. I wonder if this sketchy picture typifies the situation in most schools in Australia today --- most schools to which our young graduates will be appointed. Now I think most of these schools are attempting to develop some sort of openness in their educational program. But because of the nature of the principals, or perhaps the complexity of the school, perhaps the type of family background that we just heard about, the physical state of the buildings, the grounds, or even the quality of the staff, we find that schools are spread right along this evolutionary scale, towards openness. Each one is perhaps trying to present a face of confidence in their particular program but I think most of them are rather inwardly hesitant and unsure that what is happening is best for the kids in that school. But I think they are concerned for their children. Naturally, this could be a rather disconcerting experience for the young graduate, as his practice teaching background could have been most inappropriate for the system in which he now finds himself. Strong and definite variations in such fundamental areas as educational priorities control and discipline, programming, timetabling, administration, senior staff supervision, assessment, staff responsibility, community relations, use and supply of equipment and aids, could range from virtual complete freedom and individual interpretation right through to rigid structure and thorough supervision. Some schools could be heavily supportive of that young appointee. Others almost depressive in their application, some even appearing to be disinterested. I believe this applies to schools, whether they be open space or cellular type, I would therefore strongly suggest that the young graduate, whether he be destined for the special or for the ordinary school, be given what I would like to call, a survival kit in basic teaching skills, which will allow him time to find out

about himself as a teacher, time for him to develop his teaching personality, and time to feel confident in the teaching situation. These skills, I think, are in the areas of control, organisation, teaching and supervising techniques, curriculum making and interpretation. I think if we do something along this way we tend to rescue that teacher who develops the action-reaction style of teaching which is the usual result of an ill-prepared person. That is, the teacher responds to the situation instead of the teacher manipulating the situation.

The story is told of one particular open space unit in South Australia where five of the six young teachers were, in fact, graduates. After about six months, the 'open space' consultant arrived and had a look, he was quite impressed, but then he turned to them and started to offer a few suggestions. Well, the five of them immediately ganged up on him and said "Look, just hold it boy. We have spent six months learning to survive in this unit. Just let us get a bit of confidence. Come back at Christmas time and we'll receive your ideas." I think this perhaps is rather the exception than the rule, but I feel it does highlight the first year situation in most schools. The process is slow and experiential, and yet the needs of the children are immediate and imperative and I think this is the real dilemma faced by the first year teacher i.e. how can he cope with this situation? and it is a very real problem.

On the topic of open space, I believe it is different in perhaps one particular way. I am not an expert in this particular field, I know only a little about it. But in the area of preparation, I would think that a graduate teacher wanting to teach in an open unit should have had some experience in that field, should indicate a definite interest in co-operative working, should be prepared to accept group rather than personal needs, and should have a reasonable degree of self confidence before he should apply for an open space unit. Some would even suggest that he should have at least a one year period in a conventional type classroom. I don't know what the answer to that is. It is an interesting question and I think people's views would vary.

The big bogey with open space units, which is raised very often of course, is the interpersonal relationship question. Whether a course is possible at college, I don't know. Is a study of group dynamics desirable? Some would definitely recommend it, I know. But two points come to mind. It is probably true that during the years of studentship, most students mainly operate as individuals and might it not be profitable for certain assignments to be set which would give two, three or four people, the opportunity of training together, working through a particular task and finally assessing the result of that task. Perhaps in conjunction with such a task, a parallel course in human relations could be given. Perhaps some colleges do this. I met a group the other day in an open space who argued against this. They said this is just a natural evolution, and you soon find out how to get on with your neighbour. But I am inclined to the view that the better the understanding of the problem, the better prepared we are, the more positive and profitable will be the outcome.

Is this a problem in the open space school only? I don't really think so. I think it's the same problem faced in the conventional type school, the only difference being that in the conventional school the teacher can disappear into the individual classroom and shut the door and there they feel particularly safe. I think this is the only difference.

If I can perhaps quote my own particular situation as an example of an attempt to open a school. We've just spent this term considering the options for 1976. I said to the staff, "Let's consider the total school and decide what you want to do with it" with whom would you like to teach; what grade would you like to



teach; which block would you like to teach in. Are there certain people with expertise that you would like to have to assist you in your co-operative working"? Now, as a result of that, we spent a term thinking and talking about it. All but two of our teachers have opted for a change. No longer will we have a school that is divided into primary, middle primary, infant. It will become blocks of grades — people who want to work together because they are compatible with each other, because they like to meet that particular person, perhaps on a social ground, perhaps because they want to work together for certain particular lessons, because they want to change classes for particular work. But the interesting thing is that these teachers are now becoming receptive to change, and I think this is the important thing. I am hoping that out of this situation a number of things will grow and develop, because I believe that teachers should have confidence in their own particular teaching approach and I think they can best develop this if they are doing what they want to do. I think they want to be given and allowed to develop an appreciation of their own individual strengths, so that we acknowledge that there are variations in a school, each one different, but each one making a worthwhile contribution. I believe that teachers should have a good self image as far as being a teacher and being a staff member, and I think teachers should see that they have a commitment to co-operative effort. I am hoping that out of this situation we will get a more open approach to co-operative working. Only then, I believe is it possible for teachers to offer their children an educational program which highlights the same basic points for each and every child.

#### **Mr McGowan, Principal, Southwell Primary School, W.A.**

Tonight I was asked to speak on the type of graduate teacher I would like in my schools. I thought about this a bit and decided I would interview some graduate teachers and some young teachers on my staff — looked through a few notes I had taken over the years and I came up with some very interesting quotations from graduate teachers which might impress you. They might stir you. They might make you worry a bit. That's up to you.

One teacher told me, "The present courses at College appear to be there to keep the lecturers in jobs, rather than to develop students as teachers. What we learn has little to do with what you expect us to do at your school". "At College we have too much emphasis on academic work and not enough on options, electives and specialist skills. We have too much theory and not enough on developing our communication skills and our personality". I think that is a very important one.

"Children at your school get more freedom than we do at College. We are treated like High School students". Now here we are practising open education techniques in schools and trusting children to do all sorts of things and our trainee teachers tell us that they don't get that freedom at College — "Our lecturers are too far removed from the classrooms — we go into classes and we don't know what to do. We are not taught enough about modern educational trends that are happening in schools". Now, these comments came from teachers one year out of College, or teachers still practising in college, and the last one, "College wants us to take more traditional lessons so they can assess our teaching — we want to take small informal group lessons and child learning activities".

The teachers I want in my school at Southwell, would come under five headings.

**Communication**, I'd like teachers with very highly developed communication skills, who can communicate at the child's level, I want teachers who know that communication is a two sided business — you talk to the children, and the children talk to you. They don't have to shut up and listen to you talking all day. I want teachers who can communicate with their peers. Some teachers we get are terrified of

speaking to other teachers. I'd like teachers who can communicate with the Principal and the Superintendent, the teacher and the parents.

**Co-operation** — I'd like to get teachers from colleges who knew about the theory that two heads are usually better than one. I'd like teachers who will co-operate with other teachers, I want teachers who are prepared to say "This is our class. These are our children", NOT "This is my class. These are my children". We have no room for that sort of teacher in our school. In other words there is no room at the type of school that I am involved in for a self-centred teacher who wants an ego ride in the classroom.

**Skills** — I would like teachers with skills in art, craft, sport, dance, these sort of things. Give me the guitar player from Gidgannup, rather than the Professor from Pittsburgh — we are looking for people who can do things. I wonder why at college we are doing so much academic work and not enough of these sorts of skills that teachers can use (You say to some teachers "take some folk dancing" "What's that" they say. You say, take music "Oh we're not taught that anymore" they've plenty of degrees but they can't do what I would expect of them in the school). Give me the teacher with some skills in art and craft, sport or music, the sorts of things that relate to what they are doing in the school room.

**Knowledge** — A Bachelor of Arts is all very fine, but what does the graduate teacher coming out of college know about curriculum, standardized tests, text books, new teaching methods — can the graduate (and this is a very important one) operate a duplicator. I am sick of demonstrating how the school duplicator works. It gets worse --- can they operate a spirit copying machine? Can they operate the school copying machine which I keep in the office, or are they, too, going to set my office on fire once again? Audio visual aids are becoming a feature in schools. I would like a teacher who comes to my school to know how to operate these, what to do when they stop, put in a globe, or change a cassette — not come running to me all the time. I'd like teachers who know how to make software, how to make overhead transparencies, films, slides, cassette commentaries. I'd like teachers who know the value of motivation and I think this is one of the things that we are trying to do in our schools at present.

In conclusion, I don't want a gun teacher, I don't want a teacher who is the centre of attraction, I don't want a teacher who thinks he is the be all and end all of learning. That's the sort of teacher we don't want at our school.

The sort of teacher I do want, is one who allows the children to learn, one who is kind, gentle, loves children, one who is dedicated, one who allows freedom in his classroom, one who allows child development, one who can relate to the children. This is the big point — one who is fully involved and committed to what he is doing. One who questions what he is doing and one who is prepared to question what the Principal and the rest of the staff and even what the Superintendent is doing around the school.

The perfect graduate teacher is one who is doing his or her best for the children in his or her care, who is using the school resources to the maximum, who is co-operating and communicating with all the school's population, be it the child, teacher, parent, principal, superintendent or even the school gardener.

### Mr Stone, Principal, Madison Park Primary School, S.A.

I come from a school called Madison Park with an enrolment of 1,000 half of whom are in open plan buildings. It's a migrant area and clusters of buildings have developed all over the campus, some open space, some conventional, which has allowed us to create a series of mini schools of about 120 children each, of various ages. Although these mini schools operate under the common school philosophy and under school expectations, each has developed characteristics of its own, and this diversity has proved quite a strength, given us quite a capacity of choice for the child, certainly quite a capacity for the teacher and helps us quite a deal in our work with Salisbury College of Advanced Education, because we are the Laboratory school for that institution.

As far as our philosophy about openness is concerned in the school, I think we as a staff, agree that perhaps the real thing is a sort of psychological security and a sort of psychological safety, that we've got among ourselves because I think everybody works pretty hard at trying to establish those sort of human relations. We don't believe that you use indiscriminate open or closed practices just because someone has got a philosophy that they want to be dogmatic in being open or dogmatic in being closed. The teachers at Madison Park are expected to select their practices that they employ, based on the need of the child, those that they diagnose, and the needs of their own group. Now to me, this conscious selection of experiences, based on the needs of the child, is the hallmark of the professional teacher. The big thing is that the teacher can keep these things in balance. So, what sort of skills and competencies would I want from graduate teachers to join my staff?

I think that no matter whether the teacher happened to enter our buildings which are conventional or whether the teacher enters the open space buildings, I would like these things to happen — The ability to project himself as a person and to get his personal identity very quickly in a staff is important. Not only how distinctive he can make himself in appearance, speech and so-on, but this real ability that can be taught and can be developed, to project himself or herself intellectually to groups he is teaching, emotionally, socially and so on. I would certainly like to see them cultivate an independent mind. They have to have this capacity for choice; this ability to take the initiative, and to make informed choices on behalf of the children. So, independent-mindedness I rate highly too. Thirdly, I think you must have a genuine vocational enthusiasm. Apart from this, on the personal competency factor, I think that there ought to be some good training in interpersonal relationships. Sure, Colleges of Advanced Education and other people and ourselves in the schools should have some courses in human relations and group dynamics and participation training — all the things that help young graduate teachers to be competent in groups, because that is what they are going to be dealing with mainly, groups, large or small, of people.

I suppose, traditionally, we'd expect teachers to be scholars, and we should. Today, I would hope that they are educated in the wide sense of the word. But I also hope that they come to us with at least one speciality. I'd certainly like them to have an obvious enthusiasm for learning. If they are going to turn the children on then they must have this feeling, this drive for learning and love it themselves. I'd like to see them have a willingness to research, the ability to interpret professional material, to interpret curriculum and obviously, we want them to have a competency in basic literacy and numeracy.

What would I like to see from the professional competency point of view? I think if graduates are going to develop into real professionals and to me that's the accolade, if they are going to be able to develop this capacity for choice, initially, they have to have learnt and heard a great deal about various educational philosophies and their history. But I would not like to see them come out to me dogmatic, not aping a lecturer's particular dogmatism. I'd like them to have a reasonably wide framework of theory and I don't expect them to translate this into practice straight away. But at least I would like them to know, and I think they can gain this in their training institution, the theory of some of the following: A knowledge of curriculum, a knowledge of its construction, a knowledge of its development. This can be done in training. I'd like to see them have some idea of theory of catering for individual differences. I'd like to see them at least have the theory and some of the practices in the diagnosis and the remediation of children with disabilities and the ability to detect children who are having these problems. I'd like them to know something about the various organisations of learning and not be thrown by all the jargon and the semantics that go with it. Organisations do help. If something is known about them, about the theory of them, a selection can be made in practice later on. Certainly, I'd like them to be aware of the theories of open education, whatever that might be, and I would like them to know the distinction (previously referred to) that open education and open architecture are two quite separate things. One thing that I would dearly like to see happen, is somebody to explain to them just what the development of teaching style means and that they won't gain it all at once.

Now what technical competencies do I want, as opposed to the professional? Well, I like them to come out with a supply of child class management strategies, sufficient for their survival, until they can start to pick up their own practice. It's a shame to see kids coming out of college with all sorts of idealisms and ideas and then just become inhibited because they can't get off the ground with simple ordinary practice. I think we should ensure they have got enough survival skills. I think it was Malcolm again who mentioned the ability to handle technology. A lot of their work is going to be based on this. One of the big major changes in the last decade has been this massive technology in schools. It is a very expensive thing to be lying around if people can't use it. I would like the graduate to have a supply of materials and ideas sufficient to launch him confidently again, until the school in-service program can pick him up, until his own familiarity with the place can help him and he can go. Finally, I would like him to have a realisation of the need for and some idea about setting objectives and actually planning his work. I know and I think we all realise that the sort of world that these graduates are going into today, in a school, is too complex and the student himself can no longer wait until he faces his first class or group of children to get an identity as a teacher, and he can't wait to get an identity as a person. Things move too fast. I think that things like skills and human relationships, the search for teaching styles, a knowledge of children, and familiarity with the many processes and content of learning experience, should be given the moment he decides on his vocation, the moment he enters the training institution. I think the joint operation between the schools, and the Colleges of Advanced Education should be to see that at least these things should be given to the graduate.

## **Mr Malcolm King, Principal, Lynwood Primary School, W.A.**

The Lynwood Primary School of which I am the Principal, is an educational tricotomy. The school offers educational alternatives. Its strategies range from the fairly structured to the informal. There are two teacher, and three teacher co-operatives. There is an open 50/50 school, a junior family group and a radically open junior primary area. Features of the school worth mentioning at this stage are options for teachers and parents on behalf of their children. You will understand therefore that it is impossible in any way to describe the school in further detail in such a short time as this. I think that this general description plus the fact that one third of the school is involved in a two year innovation program with spinoffs such as in-service education, and attempts to come to terms with gifted children, demonstrate the impossibility of colleges predicting the learning programs their graduates will encounter.

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Competencies of graduates? I have always thought of the three E's with a capital E for Enthusiasm. Gone is the cynicism that used to be apparent in our staffroom. Gone is the malaise which affected schools in the 50's and the 60's. There is an excitement because of the open school, because of innovation. In staff rooms teachers talk about learning. They talk about children. Capital E for Energy. You will need it because teaching, and I am talking to graduates or those of you who will be graduates, you will need considerable energy because teaching in an open school is the most exhausting assignment you will ever face. I have done many things in my life, all legal. But the heaviest work I have ever done is working in an open space school. Capital E for Enterprise – we want self starters with teachers as well as with children. If you are a graduate you will be responsible for working in a team and for making decisions which affect the policy and the ongoing determination of that particular team. Small E for Erudition. Three questions I ask of graduates when they join the staff at Lynwood. Firstly, "Can you describe the philosophy of the open school?" I know its impossible to define, but there are basic assumptions. If the graduate can describe this with conviction that gives him one third of a start, as far as placement in the open school is concerned. Secondly, I ask them "How much time can you put into your assignment, into your teaching responsibility?" If it's a quarter to nine to half past three, it's just not on. I would venture to say it's an eight till five job in an open team, working successfully. Now I know in our system, there are commitments outside. There are study commitments, there are people with family commitments, and our involvement after school helps us to be a better person and therefore a better teacher. There are places at Lynwood for teachers in two teacher co-operatives and other roles, if they are committed after school in such ways. Thirdly, "How long are you going to be with us?" If it is going to be a temporary passing phase, we can't possible place you in a team. It takes two or three years to accomplish change.

It is not possible for teachers who are to be with us for six months to be involved in any sort of team. It is too difficult to train them. It's too difficult for them to be replaced. But, two years with a conviction for an open philosophy and with the time to put into it, we welcome them with open arms into the open part of the school.

We would expect graduates to know the needs of children, not to just pay lip service to them, because without understanding children and their needs, you can't possibly teach effectively, and you can't possibly determine and help to determine curriculum. You will be involved, if not now, in the near future in developing curricula. You will have to know not only the needs of children, but what interests children — not what your interests are, because they are quite dissimilar. You will also have to know the developmental stages of children so that you can apply and you can develop interests at appropriate developmental stages. Most importantly, you will need the ability to motivate children, not only single children, but small groups. This emerges as the greatest skill for any teachers entering our schools. This sometimes worries advisors and others who come to our schools to see students on practice. How do we assess them? I suggest that you assess them on ability to relate to children, to personalize with them, and secondly on the ability of the student to motivate and to switch on children and sometimes as you know, because you have all been with children and you know them, it's a most exacting assignment. With some of course, it's easy.

Another major competency, is the development or the setting up of interest areas. As we equate most effective learnings with the product of motivation through interest and experience, if possible, real life experience, interest areas need to be developed so that children will be provided with a program which is related to their interests. You have to be aware when to fade from the scene, become a resource and to let children have their head. We would expect the graduate to understand that children learn in different ways, and that each child is unique, that his learning program may go in many different directions.

We would expect the graduate to have skill in such techniques as the setting up of little linking programs — the five minute programs which capture the attention of children between major structured programs. I believe that in open schools the teacher should be a low dogmatic. This is one of the characteristics of an open school — You very rarely hear a teacher's voice raised. This is not to suggest that there is never any strain or there is any need to speak to children in a certain way. It is not to suggest that a low dogmatic is a 'yes' man and someone who just goes along with an accepted philosophy and an accepted strategy. We want people who can be involved in decision making, but be low dogmatic with children. If children are to be the agents of their learning — a trite but true statement — we would expect graduates to have the skills which are associated with resource based learning. We have the unusual situation of having to teach teacher librarians to teach teachers to teach children how to make effective use of resource areas. Most of our learning is resource based. So the skills of research and notetaking, skimming and scanning and reading techniques, even if you haven't collected them along the way, through your tertiary education, and the skills in the use of audio visual equipment, are essential in any open school. These are some of the competencies which I would appreciate you coming to the school with.

Finally, and most importantly, I believe, that graduates and practising teachers and principals should be able to do one thing well. You can see the influence of our history and our system of expecting teachers to be jacks of all trades. You find lamentable weaknesses in areas of music, and physical education, and drama, discovery programs and maths and on and on you can go. Do one thing very well and you will be welcome at the open school.

The organisation of this section of the conference will be as follows:—

## 1. PRESENTATION

**Theme** Commitment through involvement in fostering the development of students toward teaching.

## 2. DISCUSSION

Delegates will be placed in groups for the purpose of extending discussion on issues raised and exchanging ideas on communication procedures. It is envisaged that delegates will be prepared to present approaches on communication used in their own institutions.

### A. Communication On School Experience Involves These Groups of People

- |                                     |                         |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| (a) College                         | i. Lecturers            |
|                                     | ii. Students            |
| (b) Schools                         | Supervising Teachers    |
| (c) Teachers' Employing Authorities | i. Education Department |
|                                     | ii. Independent Schools |

### B. Some Factors In Developing and Maintaining Effective Communication

#### 1. General

- (i) Building a spirit of professional responsibility to contribute to the **practical** training of students, founded on mutual trust and respect.
- (ii) The importance of a team approach with provision for feed back within the college; from college to schools and from schools to college.
- (iii) Philosophy based on cooperative enterprise with emphasis on mutual contribution of schools, college AND STUDENTS.
- (iv) Teacher practicum program development committees should include representation of schools bodies and students.
- (v) Regular continuing evaluations of programs with consultative feed back to all groups involved in Teaching Practicum.
- (vi) The establishment of common goals and standards of expectation of students in the school experience situation.
- (vii) Difficulties or problems arising from Teacher Practicum.
  - (a) Act quickly;
  - (b) Listen to all sides;
  - (c) Never pre-judge.
- (viii) Liaison with schools should always focus attention on positive aspects of teacher preparation. Even in the face of criticism or negative feed back maintain a positive approach and attitude.

## 2. Schools and Supervising Teachers

- (i) Colleges need to build up and maintain a close working knowledge of the following:—
  - (a) Schools — Physical features, resources, general educational policy, organisation of learning, socio-cultural background of school population.
  - (b) Supervising Teachers — specific educational approaches for each classroom, organisation and management techniques and personality.
- (ii) Who shall train students?
  - (a) Selection and/or election procedures; Roles of college, school and employing authority.
  - (b) Teacher attitudes — genuine interest in working with students, use of students as teacher aides, etc.
  - (c) Problems arising from growth in demand for supervising teachers e.g. quality, distance from college.

## 3. Lecturers — Supervisors of School Experience

- (i) Dichotomy of interests of lecturing staff in teacher education courses viz. academic studies and professional studies (applied education).
- (ii) Colleges conducting concurrent integrated courses. Are all lecturers to be 'method' lecturers?
- (iii) Variations of organisational structures of various courses, content and personnel within colleges create problems of liaison within colleges and associated schools.
- (iv) Recent trends — appointments to Teacher Colleges without teacher training qualifications.

## 4. Students Preparation and Programs

- (i) Students should be thoroughly prepared for school experience.
- (ii) Students should visit schools prior to commencement of each school experience for familiarisation and induction purposes.
- (iii) Allocations should take account of the student's needs in terms of development and placement in the 'right' classroom.
- (iv) How prescriptive should teaching practicum programs be in terms of actual teaching tasks, directed activities and observation? Schools may object if programs are too structured.

## C. An Approach for Establishing and Maintaining Effective Communication Between College and Associated Schools

- (i) **Role of Teacher Practicum Staff**
  - (a) Continuing and regular personal contact visits;
  - (b) School staff conferences and addresses;
  - (c) Liaison advisory services;
  - (d) Informal programs e.g. Teacher Effectiveness.
- (ii) **College Lecturer Panels**
  - (a) Attached to a particular group of schools;
  - (b) Increased possibility of personal contact with small group of teachers;
  - (c) Importance of informed, interested staff.



- (iii) **Lecturer Visits to Schools**  
Dual function of lecturer –
  - (a) Supervision and guidance of students;
  - (b) Consultation with associated school personnel.
- (iv) **Student Visits to Schools**  
Prior to commencement of school experience.
- (v) **Daily Communication Groups**
  - (a) Counselling for teaching;
  - (b) Use of Resource Centre.
- (vi) **Feed-back Procedures**  
Importance of all groups being informed.
- (vii) **Committees**
  - (a) **General**  
Teacher Practicum Committee.  
Wide representation of schools, students, college and inspectors which fulfils the functions of informing, reviewing and consulting on practical teaching.
  - (b) **Within College**  
Methods/Curricula Committee.
  - (c) **Specific Committees**  
College Course Development;  
Evaluation Procedures;  
Annual Review of School Experience Program.
- (viii) **In Service Workshops and Seminars**
  - (a) Inducting new schools and new supervising teachers into system;
  - (b) Review of new programs for existing supervising teachers.
- (ix) **Briefing and Consultation Sessions**
  - (a) College lecturers – guidelines for function in schools;
  - (b) School coordinators of school experience.
- (x) **Involvement of Supervising Teachers in Teacher Practicum Programs**  
Use made of expertise related to areas such as:–
  - (a) Subject specialisation;
  - (b) School organisation and management.
- (xi) **School Coordinators of School Experience**  
Responsible for organisation of student activities within the school.  
Future – School based supervision.
- (xii) **College Services to Schools**
  - (a) Encouragement of college staff to work with and in schools on joint programs;
  - (b) Production of software;
  - (c) Availability of college staff, facilities and resources to assist schools in curriculum development and implementation.
- (xiii) **Student Involvement in School and Community Activities**  
Assisting schools on:–
  - (a) A voluntary basis with programs e.g. remedial reading;
  - (b) School camps and excursions;  
Build up a continuing involvement and relationship with schools and staff.

(xiv) **Publications**

School Experience Manual.

Comprehensive statement of policy in relation to the nature of the school experience program.

(See Appendix – Reprint of Table of Contents)

## COMMUNICATIONS BETWEEN COLLEGES AND ASSOCIATED SCHOOLS

**Mr B. Geary, Head of Department, Procedures and Practice of Teaching,  
State College of Victoria at Bendigo.**

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This paper will focus on two main areas. Firstly, the objectives of communication between college and associated schools and secondly, on some possible approaches for establishing and maintaining effective communication by looking at an example of a communication structure, namely Bendigo.

Underlying the address will be the theme that many effective school experience programmes are based on effective communication. The purpose of establishing effective communication is to create a system of cooperative enterprise between college and its associated schools, generating a spirit of professional responsibility in the involvement of all personnel, in fostering the development of students towards teaching.

Whilst it is the primary responsibility of teacher practicum staff to develop such effective structures of communication, it requires the cooperative efforts of several groups of people to foster and maintain its achievement.

So often, universities' and colleges' teacher practicum departments have been satisfied with one way communication. We place students in schools with a set of written prescriptions regarding teaching tasks and observation, with little or no consultation with our school personnel regarding implementation or consequent evaluation of such programmes. It is rather remarkable that associated schools have generally accepted this situation for so long with little overt friction, in view of the fact that schools are not always in agreement with courses and practical programmes designed by us.

While long term goals of both institutions is to foster children learning, there is dichotomy in the short term with the colleges' primary aim being to foster student learning. We all realize this is not invariably compatible in the school situation, with the immediate fostering of children learning. Opportunity must be given to all those involved in teacher training to be heard and for all those involved in teacher training to consult. This can only be achieved through the establishment of some systematic structure of communication. Basic to this structure is a provision for effective feedback systems with schools, students and most importantly, college personnel supervising school experience, all contributing and this being co-ordinated by the teacher practicum department.

The objectives of the communication structure are based on a continuous exchange of information, operating in an atmosphere of cooperation. There must be provision for information to flow from colleges to schools and from schools back to college. This provision is achieved through either the written word or the spoken word.

### **The Written Word**

44 Circularized material in the form of letter, duplicated information, manuals on school experiences etc are all based on the assumption that the material will be assimilated and will be accepted by all those for whom it was intended. We know this is not so. Schools vary widely in organisation and so the structure must ensure that communication permeates to all level of personnel involved. Too often communication permeates or is effective only at the level of the schools principal and/or the teacher practicum coordinator. Personnel at grass roots level, that is, the supervising teachers, tend to miss out. Further, feedback from schools in response to circularized material is usually ineffective in terms of time lapse and in terms of quantity response.

### **Direct Verbal Communication**

This approach tends to be more effective than the above, since face to face situations give opportunity for feedback which is immediate and direct from school personnel. Further, the direct contact encourages people to express ideas, desires and aspirations for the development of programmes, fostering an identification and direct involvement at school level in such programmes. However, this system as we all realise, is very demanding on college personnel and time. It necessitates with the college, recruiting and training of interested and dedicated college personnel who are prepared to act in this capacity, and so its effectiveness is reduced. A problem with verbal communication is that the message can easily be forgotten, so we need a combination of the two, of written and of direct verbal contact. Too many handouts produce a waste basket syndrome e.g. how many of us read notice boards or circulars that come to us in the mail, and too many calls wear out the welcome?

I want now to present some aspects of approaches that are currently being used at our college. We are a country college with 85 training schools, so we have very real communication problems, based on geographic distance, and supervising teacher isolation, particularly in rural areas. Our approach to teacher training is to foster, as I mentioned, a spirit of co-operative enterprise with our schools in the training of young teachers. We believe that our associated training teachers are people to be professionally respected. We consider between schools and colleges there needs to be a common realization of goals. By that I mean a common purpose. It is not a question of one being paid to have students in the room or the other getting rid of him for a while, but a question of common goals in developing and beginning a teacher with associated schools as well as colleges, having this professional responsibility to be accountable for teacher training. The teacher practicum department at our college is responsible for organising implementation of the teaching practice and the associated lecture programmes, although we don't do most of the lecturing – this is done by other college departments and we involve the schools to some extent in this programme. Teacher practicum personnel visit all training schools several times during the year and in many schools we are invited to attend regularly at staff conferences for consultation with teacher practice staff. In addition, the teacher practicum staff acts as a liaison and advisory service meeting the demands of the schools for college expertise and assistance in their programmes. Supervision of teaching practice at our college is based on lecturer panels being attached to a particular group of schools. This organisation establishes college-school interaction on a personal level with college staff getting to know a few training schools and personnel well and visa versa.

For Bendigo, the expectation of college staff in schools is much more than the supervision role of passive classroom observer of teacher/pupil interaction. It is stressed to staff that for many classroom teachers, their visits provide the only real liaison with the college. By establishing a personal relationship, this permits

a real two way flow of communication with school personnel. They feel that they have got some-one or some group of people in the college they can turn to for assistance. This generates ease of communication and so the mystique of the college and its lecturers falls away to be replaced by an honest communication system. No longer do you have communication between foreign institutions but between real individuals who see each other as real people. It also helps college personnel to gain expertise in knowledge of schools and classroom organisation so necessary for effective supervision, guidance and evaluation of student training.

By setting up supervision panels, the responsibility for liaison with schools is spread across many personnel rather than relying on a small teacher practicum staff who find it impossible to effectively service all schools adequately. Thus the lecturers' visits at our college have a dual function. Firstly, to undertake the supervision and guidance of students in relation to their teacher practicum programmes and secondly to provide an effective communication link with individual teachers. With supervising teachers operating full time, there are difficulties in finding suitable time for discussion. However, by restricting the number of students to be supervised on a visit, opportunity for such discussion becomes possible. We work towards at least one hour of contact per classroom to talk with teachers as well as students. Spending such time to discuss the teaching practice of students' college policy and courses, as well as finding out about classroom organization and approaches being used, maintains a direct feedback link between teachers and the college. It creates a real liaison which helps in our programme evaluation. Further, it contributes to a real sense of partnership in the minds of supervising teachers, which is most important. A sense of participation, a realisation that they, as supervising teachers, do make contributions to teacher training — that they are worthwhile and respected as people.

If these lecturer panels are to be effective, then they need to be fully informed on details of the teaching practice programme, as well as being able to present college policy accurately. We achieve this by conducting briefing sessions for all staff prior to each school experience. Briefing sessions involve not only details of teaching tasks and observations of directed activities to be undertaken by the students, but also give guidelines for the lecturer's visits, including evaluation procedures for students and any issues that we wish to have raised with our supervising teachers. Lecturers progressively feedback information to the teacher practice staff on any problems that they become aware of in the schools as each experience proceeds. Further, after each experience evaluation sessions are conducted with staff to review what has taken place. Practicing teachers are involved in these discussions.

We involve college staff directly in the preparation of students for teaching. Well over half the lectures in the professional or applied education areas are taken by lecturers from subject areas. This gives all departments continuing contact and involvement in the teaching practice preparation programme which we find produces staff who are better informed and more interested in the practical aspects of teacher preparation. However, we face a growing problem in the trend towards the appointment of academic staff lacking teacher qualifications and whose real interest lies in their specialised academic field. These people often have little or no interest in teacher training, and at Bendigo we are being forced to take a long hard look at this problem.

Another means of informing college staff in the teaching practicum programme at Bendigo is through daily communication groups. The teacher practicum department, in conjunction with its subject departments makes staff available to consult with students each day after school. Personnel from all departments gather in the teaching resource centre to give students opportunity to consult on their teaching.

For example, if a student has a reading problem he is referred on to a member of the English department who is either on hand or readily available. The teaching practicum staff act like the general practitioners, and when necessary, refer students on to the specialists. Also, we conduct a half day teacher practicum programme when our students are in schools each week.

This programme is designed to give college staff and students opportunity to progressively evaluate and review the activities being undertaken. These programmes are conducted not only in the college, but also in the schools as well and directly involve school personnel. A typical programme could consist of checking teaching plans to see if the aims are being stated correctly in behavioural terms to insure that the student is undertaking self evaluation followed by a session with a subject department related perhaps to a unit of work and then a discussion check on a child observation activity that may be related to the Education Department.

Another area of communication with the college arises from committees. We have a methods committee which meets monthly to discuss and exchange ideas on method and curriculum in relation to practical teaching. Representatives from each department have the responsibility of reporting to this committee on current activities. They also provide a feedback to their department on committee decisions. This forum evaluates programmes involving the relationship between curriculum studies and teaching practice. Thus all departments are being continuously informed of what is going on in all other areas of the course, as well as obtaining feedback from the training school. This provides a continuing overview of the total college programme for each department.

Written information on school experience has traditionally been mailed to schools shortly before the experience takes place. We followed this procedure until five years ago when we realised that this system just was not working. We were suffering complaints from teachers that the principal never passed material on to them; from students, that the classroom teacher hadn't read the information, and from our own staff and from the schools such statements as "oh no, not another teaching prac handout". So we put all the information into a manual and the appendix gives details of the contents of that manual.

Basically, the manual covers two main areas.

It's a statement of college policy on expectations of our students in the practical teaching situation. The reaction of schools and our own college staff to the manual has been very favourable. The manual has been one of our best means of communication. College staff and students and schools have available to them individually, a statement on all aspects of college policy in relation to teacher practicum, its aims, and its objectives. What is more, it is in a manageable form, not in a form of numerous handouts. This has cut down considerably on the problems that we had previously in this area. It has also shown to our schools that the college does really care about teaching practice and this is very important.

For each experience we also send out our lecturer panels to discuss the programme with the supervising teachers at a personal level. Further, we encourage our students to visit the schools prior to the experience to meet with school personnel and children and to become familiar with school organization and their programmes. Approximately three quarters of our student population do make these preliminary visits, even though some 40% of our training schools and classes are over 75 miles from the college.

As far as the induction of new training teachers is concerned, there is usually a turnover of some 30-40% in our schools any way, and the college must conduct induction programmes early in each year with all new training teachers attending either a seminar at the college or have college personnel visit them with presentation from all departments. In addition, all training teachers must be given opportunity to participate in some kind of workshop each year. We do this by either holding the workshops in the College or again taking the workshops out into the schools. The purpose of these programmes is to discuss problems arising from the teacher practicum programmes.

We involve all teachers in one of these at least once every three years.

With so many of our training schools being distant from the college, we have had to rely heavily on school co-ordinators to be responsible for students in the schools. In most cases, we have been successful in having school personnel not always at senior level, who have a genuine interest in teacher training. These people work closely with the college, making regular visits to consult with us and the subject departments as well as providing effective feedback on the feasibility of implementing college programmes in school situations.

All college committees involving practical teaching and associated lecture programmes include representation from associated training schools. An example of such a committee is a procedures and practice teaching committee. This committee was established to fulfil the function of informing, reviewing and consulting on matters related to school experience, including the associated lecture programme. The committee serves as a major forum on teacher preparation. So that communication may be improved, it gives all teachers, students and college lecturers a body to whom they can put suggestions and ideas. Samples of items dealt with by this committee in 1975 include teaching plans and a revision of the report form on student progress. Recommendations made to this committee have in general been incorporated by the college as part of its teacher practicum programme. All supervising schools are circulated with minutes of the committee meetings and we use our school representatives on the committee to visit all schools to discuss with them the items dealt with. We have very wide representation of schools, students, college staff, supervising teacher and the teacher employer authorities.

Another group of activities designed to assist in communication between college and school are the joint college-school projects. An increasing number of staff are becoming involved in working regularly in schools with teachers on joint programmes with children such as curriculum development. Through these schemes our training teachers have come to regard such staff as worthwhile practitioners and not just theorists. By operating in the classroom situation, college lecturers become more aware of school policies, organisational structures and the unique characteristics of individual classroom situations in the mid 70's. This growing practice has helped considerably in breaking down barriers of mistrust, uncertainty and misunderstanding on the part of both schools and college personnel. Associated schools see the college in a new light. They have confidence in approach-

ing lecturers for assistance. The relationship has become one of a genuine partnership with lecturers, training teachers and students planning, preparing and implementing programmes together. This type of venture is proving most successful.

In summary, what we are attempting at Bendigo is the direct involvement of college lecturers and training teachers in the development and implementation of teacher practicum programmes. Through this involvement we are endeavouring to foster a positive attitude towards teacher training. We are striving to build up a spirit of professional responsibility not only in the associated training schools, but in our own staff by emphasising that programmes ought to be based on mutual contributions by the schools and by college personnel. We emphasise that being informed

involves not just the college informing schools but the schools also informing the college. We emphasise that supervising teachers do have a professional responsibility in the overall development of the student towards becoming a teacher. In this setting, structures for communication are established within the college and we believe that we have or we are working towards a real communication and that it does take place. Effective communication will occur if the staff of the college and associated schools no longer see each other as being "them" and "us" but rather as real people, with a common goal, of fostering children learning and that is most important. Then we have the added professional responsibility of fostering the development of students towards teaching.

#### **QUESTION**

I believe you said you have a review programme one half day each week with staff and students on student progress.

Wouldn't this become somewhat repetitious and demanding after a while in view of all the other commitments you and your staff seem to be involved in?

#### **ANSWER**

We believe that yes, there is repetition certainly as far as lecturers are concerned because we have a problem in that we have to run this programme not only at Bendigo but also in areas such as Shepparton 70 miles away, but by spreading responsibility for this programme over the staff, different personnel are involved at Bendigo and Shepparton and we believe this helps to overcome this.



## COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

Robert G. Peter

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The paper on competency-based teacher education by Mr Robert G. Peter, Principal, of Mount Lawley College of Advanced Education, was written with the aim of stimulating discussion on the topic, rather than as a definitive paper.

Most teacher education programs throughout the world operate without any prior comprehensive conceptualisations from useful research findings relating to the role of the learner, the changing role of the teacher, and the kinds of skills and attitudes a teacher needs for continued growth.

Some breakthroughs in teacher education have been made concerning the analysis of teaching behaviour and the conception of such behaviour as a complex of skills that can be identified and practised systematically. Manifestations of this are micro-teaching, interaction analysis, simulation and team teaching. Their introduction, however, has been piecemeal and the total teacher education program has not changed significantly. What is needed is a total, integrated, research-based reform program.

The need for reform is nowhere more dramatically demonstrated than in the United States where, as an outcome of the serious breakdown in the desire and ability of the public to support education adequately at all levels, educators are under increasing pressure to accept responsibility both for their own performance and the performance of their pupils or students. Accountability in education has become a national issue both within and without the profession.

The emergence of an education system which emphasises the demonstration of competencies related to specified goals is a logical outcome of the cry for accountability. Competency-based (or performance-based) teacher education represents such a system.

A detailed description of competency-based teacher education cannot be presented in this brief paper, even should it be necessary to do so, but as a basis for discussion some generalisations may be made.

There now seems to be general agreement that a teacher education program is performance-based when it operates on the following assumptions:

- a) Specific knowledge, skills and behaviours may be identified which the beginning teacher should possess to be effective with children.
- b) These competencies are derived from explicit conceptions of teacher roles.
- c) Each competency laid down is related to the program of training; that is, it is related to student learning.
- d) Each competency is capable of being tested or measured, using:
  - i) *knowledge* criteria that assess the cognitive understandings of the student teacher;
  - ii) *performance* criteria that assess specific teaching behaviours;
  - iii) *product* criteria that are used to assess the student's teaching effectiveness by examining the intellectual, social, emotional (and perhaps physical) growth of his pupils.

- e) Students are held accountable for meeting the various criteria.
- f) The measure of progress through the program is not time or traditional assessment requirements but rather the demonstration of mastery of the various competencies.

Collateral with these elements are several others which may be observed in existing competency-based teacher education programs in the United States, namely:

- a) Instruction is *individualised* and *personalised*, allowing students to attempt the mastery of competencies at their own rate.
- b) *Instructional modules* provide the vehicle for implementation of the major part of the program. An instructional module is a set of learning activities intended to facilitate the learner's acquisition and demonstration of particular competencies. It usually comprises.

- i) a *rationale* that explains the place of the module and its objectives within the context of the total program.

- ii) *objectives* that specify the particular competencies.

- iii) *Pre-requisites* — any competencies that the student should have before entering the module.

- iv) *Pre-assessment procedures* — usually diagnostic in nature — that provide the student with an opportunity to demonstrate mastery of the objectives.

- v) *Learning alternatives* — the various instructional options available to the student.

- vi) *Post-assessment procedures* that permit the student to demonstrate achievement of the objectives.

- viii) *Remedial procedures* to be undertaken by students who are unable to demonstrate achievement of the objectives of the post-assessment. The use of instructional modules is quite vital for individualisation and personalisation of instruction. The module approach also makes it easier to change the program by the addition, modification or deletion of individual modules.

- c) There is a systematic approach to competency-based curriculum design. All inputs to the curriculum (that is, the available human, financial and environmental resources) are processed by the system and the output evaluated for effectiveness in terms of achievement of the stated goals. The results of this evaluation become part of a new input, and so on in a continual self-renewing cycle.

- d) There is also systemic management by students of the instructional modules they undertake in a step-by-step progression to the attainment of specific competencies.

- e) Educational technology is an important and major instrument in the implementation of competency-based education because of the greater access it provides to channels of learning, other than those in which the personal presence of a teacher is essential, and the opportunities it offers for individualisation and personalisation of learning.

- f) Although on the surface specific competencies appear to provide the main thrust, the integration of these competencies into total teaching patterns is of primary fundamental importance in the competency-based movement.

Competency-based teacher education has been described as the most hopeful development in teacher education in recent decades. Robert Houston and Robert Howsam of the University of Houston, both prominent, if not the most prominent, figures in this field in the United States, had that to say of it in 1972:

"Rarely, if ever, has any movement swept through teacher education so rapidly, or captured the attention of so many in so short a time as has the competency-based movement. Already well underway, the approach holds promise of renovating and regenerating teacher education. Equally significantly, it appears probable that it will do so in record-setting time."

This view is supported in Allen Schmieder's study guide, **Competency-Based Education : The State of the Scene**, published in 1973, in which he outlines the general degree of participation in competency-based teacher education and certification ranging from legislative and/or administrative mandates to the involvement of teacher training institutions and school districts.

There is of course, wide variation from state to state. The most thorough-going commitments are evident in Illinois whose State Department of Education has issued a mandate for all Illinois teacher training colleges and universities to initiate competency-based programs, and Texas, where the State Legislature has passed a bill requiring all teacher education and certification to be competency-based by 1977. Other states that have made a full commitment are New York and Minnesota. Most of the remaining states have made a partial commitment to move in the competency-based direction.

Certain institutions have introduced 100% competency-based programs, among them being Weber State College, Utah, and the College of Education in the University of Toledo, Ohio. In Texas, the College of Education of the University of Houston has achieved nation-wide recognition for its role.

Further evidence of the surge of interest in competency-based education is the proliferation of groups with a national focus whose activities, in the main, are funded by the United States Office of Education, for example:

The National Commission on Performance-Based Education (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey)

The Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education)

The Multi-States Consortium on Performance-Based Teacher Education (Division of Teacher Education and Certification, New York State Department of Education)

The National Consortium of CBE Centers (Florida State University, Tallahassee)  
National Competency-Based Education Centers (Florida State University, University of Houston, University of Georgia, University of Toledo, Syracuse University, Teachers College Columbia University, University of Wisconsin, Michigan State University, Oregon State System of Higher Education)

Summing up, it is clear that competency-based teacher education has taken a firm hold in higher education in the United States, and with the underpinning of state and federal legislative provisions and funding, it is likely to remain a viable educational proposition for some time, certainly long enough to permit substantial empirical testing of its basic assumptions.

Naturally enough, however, because answers to educational problems are rarely definitive, there is a wide range of judgements and opinions on competency-based teacher education.

Many proponents of the concept view see it as holding great promise for the realisation in teacher training institutions of the ideals teacher educators have preached for schools but have rarely been able to put into practice themselves, such as:

a) the specification of behavioural objectives and performance criteria that make progress measurable and visible thus bring the possibility of teacher and student accountability a little closer;

- b) the self-pacing and choice of learning path elements which are at the heart of individualised and personalised learning;
- c) the student-centredness of competency-based education which fosters humanistic teacher behaviours.

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Competency-based teacher education programs are also impressive both in design and format and the system with which they are implemented, and this is seen by some as a welcome and necessary change in teacher education and the teaching profession generally which is still plagued by obscurity, generalities and uncertainty.

The critics of competency-based teacher education, point to its emphasis on cognitive learning, its fragmentation and its mechanistic nature, but probably the greatest obstacles to its acceptance lie in the logistic and political challenges involved.

Logistically, not only are the competencies which are deemed essential to all teachers likely to run into many hundreds or even thousands — indeed, the Florida State Department, working with the elementary Education Department of Florida State University, came up with more than 2500 “essential” competencies for teachers — but the amount of time required to design behavioural objectives, performance criteria, pre-tests, instructional modules and post-tests, for only a small percentage of identified competencies, would be inordinately large.

The political problems are even greater in complexity and magnitude for, to effect change towards thorough-going competency-based teacher education, there must be a high degree of agreement among all parties concerned — the inter-institutional groups of staff and students representing different interests and areas, the organised professional associations, the agencies that govern and control teacher education, the major employing bodies, and the schools themselves.

To conclude, the competency-based teacher education movement in the United States has already been responsible for a resurgence of interest and activity of major proportions in every aspect of the training of teachers in that country. Its impact in the associated areas of teacher certification and schools generally has been less dramatic, though nevertheless significant.

The future of the movement is fraught with considerable hazard because it carries with it, inherent potential for opposition and hostility, as well as for approval and acceptance. One could forecast with certainty, however, first, that the momentum of competency-based teacher education is so considerable that there is no chance that it will suffer an early demise, and second, that, no matter what its eventual fate, it will leave in its wake such an abundance of questioning of established practices that teacher education will never be quite the same again in those systems which it has touched.

**Perceptions of Classroom Behaviour by  
Supervisors and Student Teachers**

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**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This paper is based on data derived from two Bachelors honours theses supervised by the author during 1974: Archer, J. Supervisors' perceptions of their student teachers' classroom behaviours, and George, D.J. Student teachers' perceptions of their classroom behaviours, J.C.U.N.Q., Townsville, 1974.

The advice of Mr Gerald Elsworth, Lecturer in Education, J.C.U.N.Q. is acknowledged with gratitude.

### **Introduction**

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Good and Brophy (1974) observe that because classrooms are such complex and busy places, teachers are unaware of much of what takes place in them. This view has been supported by a number of studies which have investigated the accuracy of teachers' perceptions of classroom behaviour. Emmer (1967) found that teachers were unable to describe accurately even simple classroom behaviours such as the percentage of time during which they and their pupils talked. In another study Peek (1971) compared teachers' self analyses of verbal behaviour with those of trained observers and concluded that teachers were not able to self analyze their overall verbal behaviour except in the areas of praise and encouragement. Martin and Keller (1974) reported significant differences between teachers' estimates of their dyadic interaction patterns with children and the estimates of trained observers. Further support for the proposition that teachers inaccurately perceive much of what occurs in their classrooms may be derived from studies by Lett (1970), Ehman (1970), Lantz (1970), McDonald (1971) and Morgan (1972).

### **The Present Research and its Significance**

The present research focused upon two sets of perceptions. The first was student teachers' perceptions of behaviour in their classrooms; the second was supervising teachers' perceptions of that same behaviour. In order to assess the relative accuracy of students' and supervisors' perceptions, trained observers were used to provide an estimate of objective reality.

The significance of any inaccuracy in student teachers' self perceptions is that it may be associated with the perpetuity of unproductive patterns of teaching. This point was emphasized by Good and Brophy (1974) who concluded that:

"The studies reviewed . . . underscore the point that much teaching behaviour is unconscious. If one assumes (as we do) that this fact, and not callousness, indifference or irresponsibility is the major cause of inappropriate teaching, it follows that much inappropriate teaching can be eliminated by simply making the teacher aware of what he is doing."  
(Good & Brophy, 1974, p. 177).

If student teachers are unable to accurately perceive their own behaviour, then they must be helped to do so. Of the various approaches to this problem, including micro teaching and guided self analysis from video tapes, supervisor feedback is still the most common in this country; and the assumption which underlies this latter practice is that supervisors are able to observe classroom behaviour accurately and report it meaningfully to the student teachers under their charge. This is an unwarranted assumption; supervisors' perceptions may in fact be inaccurate, and subsequent advice to student teachers may well be inappropriate and misleading. The present research therefore investigated the accuracy of supervisors' perceptions of student teachers' classroom behaviour by comparing their ratings with those of trained observers. A further question concerned the accuracy of student teachers' self ratings on the same dimensions of classroom behaviour. A number of studies has revealed that supervisors and their student teachers frequently disagree about what happens in the classroom. A comparison between supervisors' perceptions, student teachers' perceptions and estimates of objective reality may suggest whether such disagreement arises from the misperceptions of student teachers, their supervisors, or both.

A further concern of the present study was to identify those dimensions of classroom behaviour on which the perceptions of supervisors and students were least accurate. Identification of such dimensions would provide a valuable starting point in the training of supervisors and students in classroom observation.

### Subjects of the Study

The subjects of the study were forty-one fourth year secondary student teachers at the James Cook University of North Queensland, and thirty-eight supervising teachers. The student teachers comprised males ( $N = 8$ ) and females ( $N = 33$ ) who had experienced a gradualistic induction to the total classroom situation over a period of approximately five months on a half day a week basis. At the time of the study these students were teaching total classes under the direction of their supervisors. In most cases supervising teachers were responsible for only one student, but in three instances supervisors were assigned to two student teachers. Information descriptive of the 41 student teachers and the 38 supervisors is provided in Appendix 1.

### Selection of Classroom Observation Scales

One purpose of this study was to investigate the dimensions of classroom behaviour on which supervisors' and student teachers' perceptions were inaccurate. A set of observation scales were therefore sought which sampled a wide variety of classroom behaviours including:

- (i) teacher behaviour and pupil behaviour;
- (ii) verbal and non-verbal behaviour;
- (iii) cognitive and non-cognitive behaviour.

A set of twelve classroom observation scales developed by Emmer (1970) met these criteria.

For the first nine of his twelve scales, Emmer factor analyzed coded observational data gathered from 28 classrooms on five occasions. This data was collected by using five existing classroom observational systems:— OSAR5 (Medley et al, 1968), FAIR (Fuller, 1970), CASES (Spaulding, 1970), DYADIC (Good & Brophy, 1970) and CCS (Emmer & Albrecht, 1970). The intercorrelations between the categories in these five systems were factor analyzed and the resulting factors were intercorrelated across systems to produce common factors (Emmer & Peek, 1973). From these factors, scales were defined utilizing the behaviour categories associated with each factor.

Scales 1 to 9 which were empirically derived in this manner are reproduced in Appendix 2 together with a brief description of each. The final three scales (Appendix 2), which are rating scales, were not empirically derived. They were included by Emmer on the grounds that the dimensions of teacher behaviour which they designate have been shown to have low but consistently positive correlations with pupil achievement (Rosenshine & Furst, 1971).

The 12 dimensions measured by Emmer's Classroom Observation Scales (COS) are:

- 1 Pupil attention
- 2 Teacher-initiated problem solving
- 3 Pupil-pupil interaction
- 4 Teacher presentation
- 5 Negative affect
- 6 Positive affect
- 7 Higher cognitive level pupil behaviour
- 8 Passive pupil behaviour
- 9 Convergent-evaluative interaction
- 10 Task orientation
- 11 Clarity
- 12 Enthusiasm

Emmer's scales therefore have a distinct advantage in that they sample a broad spectrum of classroom behaviour. A further advantage is that the dimensions are behaviourally defined; and for the first nine dimensions in particular, they require a fairly low level of inference from an observer. However, as there are twelve dimensions involved, the time interval between ratings by a single observer must necessarily be large. In the present study, ratings on each dimension were made at fifteen minute intervals; a shorter interval would not have produced enough behaviours on some of the scales to discriminate among teachers, while a longer interval would have placed too much reliance on the observer's memory.

### **Administration of the Classroom Observation Scales.**

Three different sets of ratings were obtained from each of the 41 lessons involved:

(i) **Trained observers** Observers were trained in the use of Emmer's twelve scales in order that an estimate of objective reality could be obtained. The perceptions of student teachers and supervisors were subsequently compared with these trained observer ratings.

Two observers were trained in the use of the scales from video tapes and from observation in actual classroom situations. For each scale the inter-rater reliability was .85 or higher. This encouraged the belief that throughout the study the estimate of objective reality was derived from trained observers who rated consistently and reliably, interpreting the twelve scales in a similar manner.

(ii) **Supervisors** At the end of each lesson supervisors completed the twelve scales. None of the supervisors knew what were the dimensions of behaviour concerned prior to completing them. The first nine scales required supervisors to remember specific behaviours, or sets of behaviours, and then to estimate the frequency of their occurrence on a five point scale. The last three scales required a more inferential judgement, but on similar five point scales. In order that supervisors had as much information as possible about the behaviours entailed in each scale, they were provided with an information sheet which outlined the behaviours characteristic of each scale. Supervisors were also invited to consult with the trained observers where difficulties were encountered in the interpretation of the scales. Supervisors therefore made only one global rating for each dimension at the end of each lesson. Consequently any difference between supervisors' ratings and trained observers' ratings may have arisen from the greater accuracy of observers who did not experience the effects of memory to the extent experienced by supervisors. However, this difference is very much one point of the research, for it is upon the retained perceptions of supervisors at the end of lessons that feedback to students and evaluation is based.

(iii) **Student Teachers** The forty-one student teachers followed a similar procedure to the one described for the supervisors. Immediately after their lesson they provided ratings on the same twelve scales as those completed by their supervisors and the trained observers.

### **Results**

#### **Comparison between trained observers' ratings and the ratings by supervisors and student teachers**

The ratings of supervisors and student teachers were matched with those of trained observers for each of the forty-one lessons. Table 1 indicates that the mean discrepancies between supervisors and trained observers, and student teachers and trained observers, were of similar magnitude. In only one instance (Scale 4, Teacher presentation) was the discrepancy between supervisors and trained observers significantly smaller than the one between student teachers and trained observers; a trend in the same direction occurred on Scale 11 (Clarity).



Scale	Supervisors and observers		Students and observers		Supervisors and students		F ratio
	Mean	S	Mean	S	Mean	S	
1. Pupil attention	.93	.78	1.12	.91	1.17	1.07	0.77
2. Teacher initiated problem solving	1.08	.70	1.17	.79	.73	.87	3.51 *
3. Pupil-pupil interaction	1.40	1.21	1.01	1.01	1.07	1.03	1.50
4. Teacher presentation	.87	.72	1.21	.89	1.37	.99	3.23 *
5. Negative affect	.87	.86	.83	.72	.71	.78	0.51
6. Positive affect	.98	.81	.98	.80	1.05	.92	0.09
7. Higher cognitive level pupil behaviour	1.53	1.11	1.36	.98	1.07	.88	2.28
8. Passive pupil behaviour	.91	.73	.96	.76	.97	.79	0.08
9. Convergent evaluative interaction	1.28	1.22	1.25	1.14	1.44	1.05	0.32
10. Task orientation	.61	.56	.76	.63	.73	.77	0.64
11. Clarity	.66	.59	.99	.70	.80	.68	2.49
12. Enthusiasm	1.44	.98	1.33	.82	.82	.74	5.90 **

\*p .05;    \*\*p .001

That is, for eleven of the twelve dimensions concerned, supervisors were not significantly closer to the estimate of objective reality than were their students. The standard deviations reported in Table 1 indicate that the level of agreement with the trained observers varied considerably within the group of student teachers and supervisors studied. This is graphically illustrated by the bivariate frequency distributions presented in Appendix 3.

These distributions (Appendix 3) show that for the majority of these five point scales, approximately one quarter of the student teachers and supervisors disagreed with the observers by two or more scale points. This represents a forty per cent disparity between the estimate of objective reality and the ratings by students and supervisors. In terms of the behavioural categories of the scales, this represents a discrepancy ranging from, say, a "very low" incidence of the behaviour to a "moderate" or "high" incidence.

This level of disagreement was most marked on Scale 7 (Higher cognitive level student behaviour) where almost half of the supervisors and student teachers were two or more scale points removed from the observer's ratings. With only two exceptions, students and their supervisors tended to overestimate the occurrence of this behaviour, which may reflect a degree of optimism about the extent to which pupils were engaged in intellectually challenging classroom activities.

Enthusiasm (Scale 12) was another dimension on which there were large discrepancies between the trained observers and both supervisors and students; for more than one third of supervisors and students the discrepancy was two or more scale points (Appendix 3). This is probably to be expected for high inference variables such as Enthusiasm which are so difficult to operationalize in terms of specific behaviours. Nevertheless evaluation check lists abound with poorly defined dimensions such as this one.

On several dimensions, however, the perceptions of supervisors and students were more closely aligned with those of the trained observers. Both were aware of the extent to which the lessons focused upon the attainment of substantive goals (Scale 10, Task orientation). Only three supervisors and seven students disagreed with trained observers by more than one scale point. One would expect this to be the case in the student teaching situation where supervisors are concerned that students keep to the set lesson, and that they do not waste time in unfocused, wandering discussions. Similarly, perceptions of the amount of Negative affect (Scale 5), Positive affect (Scale 6), and Passive pupil behaviour (Scale 8) tended to be closer to those of the trained observers than were those on other dimensions. These dimensions relate closely to classroom management which, like task orientation, is likely to be an issue of focal concern for supervisors and students alike.

### **Reliability and Validity of the Scales**

The question which arises is whether these discrepancies arose from differences in the manner in which students, supervisors and trained observers interpreted the scales, or from real differences in their perceptions of the same situation. The answer is probably that each of these factors contributed to the discrepancies. Because neither the supervisors nor the students had been trained in the use of the scales, differences in interpretation were likely. Interpretation of Emmer's scales certainly involves some observer inference, especially on dimensions such as Enthusiasm for which specific behaviours are not well-defined. It is also true that for any dimension, it is difficult to exhaust the array of relevant behaviours. In the present study only a limited number of behaviours illustrative of each dimension were provided for supervisors and students. It is therefore likely that some of the differences between observers, students and supervisors arose from difficulties in classifying some of the observed behaviour.

But even if differences did arise in this manner, it does give emphasis to one point of the study; and it is that communication between supervisors, students and others involved in the supervision of practice teaching generally occurs in circumstances even less favourable than those described here. It is a rare situation, indeed, where each party has been trained to recognize and report on a common set of classroom behaviours.

Another important but somewhat different question is whether the scales measured the behaviours which they purported to measure. Support for the validity of the scales may be derived from two sources within the data. First, the intercorrelations between the scores derived from the observers' ratings were internally consistent. There were negative correlations between Passive pupil behaviour and Level of attention ( $-.58$ ), and between Positive affect and Negative affect ( $-.20$ ); and there were positive correlations between Level of attention and Enthusiasm ( $.41$ ), Clarity and Task Orientation ( $.41$ ), and between Convergent evaluative interaction and Task orientation ( $.36$ ). That is, the relationships between the scales were as one would expect if they were measuring the behaviours they purported to measure.

The second area of support for scale validity derives from the picture of the classroom situation which was reflected by the observers' ratings. For the most part these were 'formal' lessons in which student teachers interacted with large groups of pupils under the supervision of experienced teachers. The picture which emerged from the observers' ratings was consistent with this situation; there was little pupil-pupil interaction, a generally high level of pupil attention, little passive pupil behaviour, and very high task orientation. And probably because student teachers did not know their pupils by name, or because it is an attentional strategy, questions were generally addressed to the whole class rather than to particular individuals. This is not an unfamiliar scene during practice teaching in high schools, and it lends support to the validity of the scales.

#### **Comparison between supervisors' ratings and student teachers' ratings.**

The mean discrepancy scores (Table 1) and bivariate frequency distributions (Appendix 3) indicate considerable disagreement between supervisors and students about the amount of behaviour which occurred on most of the dimensions. On four of the scales (Level of attention, Pupil-pupil interaction, Teacher presentation, and Convergent-evaluative interaction) approximately one-third of students and supervisors disagreed with each other by a margin of two or more scale points. For a further three scales (Positive affect, Higher cognitive level pupil behaviour, and Passive pupil behaviour) over one-quarter of the supervisors and students reached this level of disagreement. With so little consensus about what actually happened on seven of the twelve dimensions concerned, there would appear to be little chance of effective communication between students and their supervisors. And the evidence reported in the preceding section suggests that such disagreement does not arise from supervisors perceiving the situation more accurately than their students, or vice-versa. The data suggest that in most instances the situation arises because supervisors and students each perceive the situation inaccurately and differently; and/or that they have conceptualized the dimensions differently and are operating through different conceptions of which behaviours constitute each dimension.

However, it was also the case that on a number of dimensions there was considerable agreement between supervisors and their students. For Task orientation, Negative affect, Clarity, Teacher-initiated problem solving, and Enthusiasm more than eighty per cent of the supervisors' and students' ratings were within one scale point of each other.

Several observations can be made about the particular dimensions on which discrepancies between supervisors and students were greatest. Four of the seven dimensions on which discrepancies were greatest were pupil-centred (Pupil attention, Pupil-pupil interaction, Passive pupil behaviour, Higher cognitive level pupil behaviour). Disagreement on pupil-centred dimensions may have arisen from the different vantage points occupied by students and supervisors in the classroom. Because they face pupils for a greater part of the lesson, student teachers may gain a different perspective from supervisors who are placed where they can best observe teacher behaviour rather than pupil behaviour. This positional difference alone might well account for the discrepancies between supervisors and students on the pupil-centred dimensions.

It is also likely that at this early stage of teaching practice, supervisors were primarily concerned with what their students were doing, especially with respect to basic teaching behaviours, such as how much time was spent presenting information, whether it was clearly presented, whether the objectives of the lesson were clear and whether a satisfactory relationship was established between the teacher and pupils. It was on these dimensions rather than on those which described the kind and amount of pupil behaviour, or the type of teacher questioning behaviour, that supervisors' ratings were closest to those of trained observers' ratings. This may have been because these are behaviours which supervisors and students have conceptualized and are able to recognise when they occur, presumably because they have high priority on the list of classroom survival skills to be mastered.

### **Summary and Implications**

This study, like others which have preceded it, indicates that supervising teachers and their students have somewhat different recollections of the events which have occurred in their classrooms. Supervisors and students not only disagree with trained observers on most dimensions, but also with each other. The magnitude of these discrepancies has not been described in terms of statistical significance. Preference has been given to presenting the data in a form which permits the reader to examine the magnitude of these discrepancies and to make her or his own value judgement about the acceptability of such differences. The position taken by the writer has been that any difference of two or more scale points on these five point scales is a psychologically meaningful difference; and in the case of these supervisors and students, more than one quarter of the sample reached this level of disagreement on seven of the twelve scales. It is regarded as psychologically meaningful because such a level of disagreement indicates the absence of a shared frame of reference around which evaluation and feedback can take place.

This absence of a shared frame of reference for many supervisors and students is perhaps the major point illustrated by the study. Although it could be asserted that the discrepancies were merely an artifact of differences in scale interpretation, or differences in the way various behaviours were classified, it can also be argued that more frequently than not, the conditions under which supervisors and students are expected to communicate with each other are less favourable than those provided in the present study. Here, a common point of reference was provided by the access to an information sheet and the opportunity to discuss problems of interpretation with trained observers. Even under these conditions, which are more conducive to consensus than is the usual post-lesson verbal exchange, many supervisors and students were still in substantial disagreement about what had occurred.

It is emphasized that the purpose of the present research was not to improve supervisors' and students' perceptions, or to facilitate communication within a shared frame of reference. It was rather to demonstrate that recollections of what has occurred may vary, as well as the interpretation and application of rating

scales and check lists. And yet these are the conditions which presently prevail in most teacher education programs. There is often absolute reliance upon the ability of supervisors and student teachers to conceptualize the teaching-learning process in the same way, to recognize and classify behaviours within a similar category system, and to interpret check lists and rating scales pertinent to the various dimensions of the process in the same way. Clearly this simply does not work. The practitioners have their own mini models of teaching, and coding systems which derive from their own training and experience; and so do the students. Added to this is the whole question of value differences between supervisors and students, which implies that where little value is attributed to a particular classroom behaviour, its perception is likely to be blurry or non-existent.

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There is an approach to this problem of bringing supervisors and students to a point where they have an accurate and shared perception of what happens in the classroom; but it is one which some teacher educators may be unwilling to follow. This is because it involves providing supervising teachers with the same classroom observational skills as those provided for students. Such a proposition may be unattractive because it raises practical problems such as the payment of supervisors and the availability of training time slots in what may be already overcrowded schedules. Moreover, teachers and school administrators may be unresponsive to proposals which imply that experienced practitioners are not adequately equipped to undertake the supervisory task. Notwithstanding these problems, a skills training program of this kind is presently being undertaken at the James Cook University of North Queensland.<sup>1</sup> A group of 50 fourth year education students and their supervisors are being trained in three basic skill areas: the skill of basic questioning, the skill of variability, and the skill of reinforcement.<sup>2</sup> There are two major aims of this project. First, it is an attempt to develop these skills as part of the student's teaching repertoire. Second, by bringing supervisors into the training program, it aims to improve the quality of feedback and reinforcement to student teachers. For supervisors this involves reading the Sydney Micro Skills Handbook and other written materials pertinent to the three skills (symbolic modelling); watching video tapes which illustrate the three skills (perceptual modelling); and discrimination training which involves identification of the components of the skills from video tapes.

Apart from gaining practising teachers' commitment to a program with demands of this kind, a major task has been identifying the categories and behavioural components for each of the skills. The belief which underlies the program is that this level of specificity is essential if a shared frame of reference between supervisors and students is to emerge for each of the skills.

Whether the approach is through programs such as the one just described, or through some other approach such as college-based analysis of video and audio tapes recorded in the schools, the answer is always the same. And it is that the development of skills, their observation, and the analysis of their development in student teachers has moved teacher education firmly into a socio-technological area which demands heavy inputs of supervisory time, both from the training institutions and from the schools.

This study has demonstrated one obvious thing. It is that supervisors do not have the same perceptions of classroom events as do their student teachers; and/or that supervisors and students are not on common conceptual ground during observation, discussion, and the application of rating scales such as those used in this study. If one accepts the notion that communication within a shared frame of reference and accurate supervisory feedback facilitates improvement in student teaching, then the present data have serious implications. One implication is that if

school supervisors are to be used in the area of skills development, then they must be trained for the role. The usual objections to suggestions of this kind revolve around issues such as staff, time and equipment. However, if skills training is properly recognized as a clinical commitment, as it is in medicine, counselling, law, engineering and social work, then the resource question has to be faced. Perhaps this might be accomplished if some of us shifted part of our present commitment from the "semantic stratosphere" into the "practicum".

#### Footnotes:

1. Hawkins, W.A. and Sager, B. The Effects of training school supervisors on the performance of technical teaching skills in student teachers. (AACRDE Study in progress)
2. These three basic skills were derived from: Turney, C. et al., Sydney, *Micro Skills, Series I Handbook*. Sydney University Press, 1973.

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# APPENDIX 1

## INFORMATION RELATING TO SUPERVISORS (N=38) AND STUDENT TEACHERS (N= 41)

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TABLE A1. Frequency distribution of students and supervisors according to subject area.

Subject Area	Supervisors	Students
Mathematics	5	5
Physical and life sciences	5	6
Foreign languages	5	5
English	10	10
Social Sciences	13	15
Total	38	41

TABLE A2. Frequency distribution of supervisors according to experience in the subject area (N = 38).

Experience (in years)	ff
Under 2	4
2 – 5	12
6 – 9	7
10 – 13	4
Over 13	5
Total	38

TABLE A3. Frequency distribution of supervisors according to experience as supervisors (N = 38).

Experience (in years)	ff
Under 2	17
2 – 5	14
6 – 9	5
10 – 13	2
Over 13	0
Total	38



## CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCALES, (KORTNER, 1970)

II

## NATION

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1. self (½) of the pupils whose activities were noted at the time.
2. the same question (½) of the pupils who were observed at the time, the respondent's own body activities were noted at the time.
3. pupils whose activities, but not (½) were observed at the time.
4. pupils whose activities, but not (½, 2 or 3) were noted at the time.
5. whose activities were noted at the time.  
(Note of the time = 75% of the time)

III

## NATED PAROBLER SOI VING

1. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

2. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

3. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

4. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

5. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

III

IV

1. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

2. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

3. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

4. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

5. What are the activities of the pupils who were observed at the time?

#### IV TEACHER PRESENTATION

What percentage of time did you spend providing the pupils with information?

1. Teacher presentation occurred 0-20% of the period.
2. Teacher presentation occurred 20-40% of the period.
3. Teacher presentation occurred 40-60% of the period.
4. Teacher presentation occurred 60-80% of the period.
5. Teacher presentation occurred 80-100% of the period.

#### V NEGATIVE AFFECT

Did either you or your pupils show negative or hostile feelings during the lesson? See the Information Sheet for definitions of mild, moderate and severe forms of Negative Affect.

1. No negative affect.
2. One instance of mildly negative behaviour.
3. Two or three (2 or 3) mildly negative behaviours.
4. Several mildly negative behaviours, or one or two (1 or 2) moderately negative behaviours.
5. Several moderately negative instances or one or more instances of severe negative affect.

#### VI POSITIVE AFFECT

Did you show support of and positive regard for your pupils and their behaviour?

1. Absence of affect (not necessarily negative). No hints or encouragement.
2. Some positive affect, but its expression was limited to rather perfunctory acceptance of pupil answers.
3. Occasional smiles, hints or praises by teacher, but not particularly intense.
4. One or two (1 or 2) instances of obviously sincere support or regard, accompanied by other teacher approach behaviour such as smiling, encouraging or praising.
5. Three or more instances of obviously sincere support or regard. Teacher smiles at pupils, approaches pupils, provides praise.

#### VII HIGHER COGNITIVE LEVEL STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

How much higher level cognitive behaviour or complex reasoning was shown in pupils' responses? See Information Sheet for a further description of the scale.

1. Higher processes did not occur.
2. Higher processes occurred rarely. (One instance only or several questionable occurrences).
3. Higher processes occurred occasionally. (Two or three (2 or 3) reasonably certain instances).

4. Higher processes occurred moderately. (Four or five (4 or 5) certain or reasonably certain instances).

5. Higher processes occurred frequently. (Six or more certain instances).

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## VIII PASSIVE PUPIL BEHAVIOUR

How many pupils passively disengaged themselves from any classroom activity?

1. No more than one of the pupils was passively disengaged at one time.
2. A few pupils appeared passive occasionally.
3. Several pupils appeared passive occasionally, or a few pupils were passive much of the time.
4. As many as five or six (5 or 6) pupils were passive much of the time.
5. Passive behaviour was exhibited by one third (1/3) or more of the class much of the time.

## IX CONVERGENT-EVALUATIVE INTERACTION

Did you ask questions for which there was only one right answer?

1. Very little or no convergent-evaluative interaction; all or almost all behaviour followed some other pattern.
2. Some of the interaction was convergent-evaluative; but most interaction was something else.
3. Up to one-half (1/2) of the interaction was convergent-evaluative.
4. Much of the interaction was convergent-evaluative.
5. Almost all interaction was convergent-evaluative. (i.e. 75% or more).

## X TASK ORIENTATION

1. Very low task orientation. Much wasted time, pointless activities or discussions, and little substantial progress was attempted.
2. Low task orientation, but neither moderate nor very high.
3. Moderate task orientation. Attainment of content objectives was usually, but not always, the main purpose of class activity; class activity and procedures were occasionally a waste of time and effort.
4. High task orientation, but neither moderate nor very high.
5. Very high task orientation. Emphasis was clearly upon pupil attainment of content objectives; class activities were carefully planned; discussions were fruitful and a minimum of time was lost on procedural activities.

## **XI CLARITY**

1. **Very low clarity.** Pupils seemed very confused by the presentation. Pupils' questions were answered in an unclear manner by using concepts and terms that pupils were unfamiliar with, or by overly complex answers.
2. **Low clarity.** Between very low and moderate.
3. **Moderate clarity.** Most pupils seemed to understand, but not all the time. Sometimes teacher behaviour was vague and confusing.
4. **High clarity.** Between moderate and very high.
5. **Very high clarity.** Pupils easily understood explanations and their questions were answered adequately. The teacher was aware of the pupils' ability levels and sensed any problems they had or might have had.

## **XII ENTHUSIASM**

1. **Very low enthusiasm.** Teacher behaviour was lethargic, dull, routine, with a minimum of vocal inflection, gesturing, movement, or changes in facial expression. Teacher appeared to lack interest in what he was doing.
2. **Low enthusiasm.** Between very low and moderate.
3. **Moderate enthusiasm.** Occasionally the teacher was interested and involved, and displayed some activity such as gesturing, but at other times he was dull, routine, and lacked vigour.
4. **High enthusiasm.** Between moderate and very high.
5. **Very high enthusiasm.** Teacher appeared stimulating, energetic and very alert. He was interested and involved in what he was teaching. He moved around, gestured and inflected his voice.

## APPENDIX 2.2

### EXAMPLES OF INFORMATION ABOUT THE SCALES PROVIDED FOR SUPERVISORS AND STUDENTS

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#### II TEACHER-INITIATED PROBLEM SOLVING

This scale gauges a particular style of instruction. The teacher must first **address a question or problem to the whole class**. When a pupil has answered, the teacher may ask elaborating questions, or delve or probe into his answer.

#### III PUPIL-TO-PUPIL INTERACTION

This scale looks at pupil behaviours such as working together in groups on an activity, or talking back and forth in a discussion.

Also included are pupils' answers that are indirect responses to a teacher's questions. When these occur, they usually follow other pupils' responses and are, at least in part, reactions to the previous pupils' comments or responses.

#### IV TEACHER PRESENTATION

This scale measures the amount of lesson time spent by the teacher presenting \*substantive information that does not require a response from the pupils. This can include straight lecturing, answering pupils' questions, writing information on the blackboard or demonstrating (verbally or non-verbally) as in a practical Science lesson.

It does not include managerial information i.e. giving directions.

#### VII HIGHER COGNITIVE LEVEL STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

This behaviour can only be estimated in relation to the **pupils' verbal responses**. Their responses must give evidence of higher or more complex cognitive processes, such as when pupils make generalizations, inferences, give explanations or solve problems using the application of rules and principles.

**Generalization:** A rule, principle, or conclusion based upon specific instances or data.

**Explanation:** A rule or principle invoked to justify an answer.

**Defining Concepts:** The attributes of a concept are stated. However, presenting a single example of a concept with no further explanation is considered mere description and not higher level cognition.

Note — This behaviour **does not** include pupils responding with a generalization or a definition that they have learnt off by rote, or any sort of factual response. "Yes" and "no" cannot be interpreted as evidence of higher order cognitive behaviour.

\* substantive i.e. facts or similar content

## APPENDIX 3

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Frequency distributions of paired ratings by student teachers and trained observers, supervisors and trained observers, and student teachers and their supervisors. (n = 41)

**Scale 1. Level of Attention: Frequency distribution of paired ratings**

		Observer				
		1	2	3	4	5
Student Teacher	1	1	3	2		
	2	1	3	2	3	3
	3	1	1	3	1	6
	4				2	3
	5		1			5

		Observer				
		1	2	3	4	5
Supervisor	1		1	2		
	2	2	5	3		3
	3	1	1	2	1	3
	4		1		1	6
	5				4	5

		Supervisor				
		1	2	3	4	5
Student Teacher	1	2	2	2		
	2		5	2	2	3
	3	1	3	3	4	1
	4			1	1	3
	5		3		1	2

**Scale 2. Teacher-initiated Problem Solving: Frequency distribution of paired-ratings**

		Observer				
		1	2	3	4	5
Student Teacher	1					
	2	1	1	4	2	
	3	1	4	1	6	
	4	1	3	4	6	1
	5		2	2	2	

		Observer				
		1	2	3	4	5
Supervisor	1					
	2	2	1	4	1	
	3	1	5	2	7	
	4		3	2	4	
	5		1	3	4	1

		Supervisor				
		1	2	3	4	5
Student Teacher	1					
	2		5	1		2
	3		2	6	2	2
	4		1	6	6	2
	5			2	1	3

**Scale 3: Pupil-to-pupil interaction.** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

	Observer					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Student Teacher	1	12	2			
	2	4	1	1		
	3	7	3	1		
	4		2	2	1	
	5	2			3	

Supervisor

	Observer					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Student Teacher	1	11	2			
	2	3	2			
	3	8	2	1		
	4	1	1	1	2	
	5	2	1	2	2	

Student Teacher

	Supervisor					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Student Teacher	1	7	1	6		
	2	3		1	2	
	3	2	3	4	1	1
	4	1			1	3
	5		1		1	3

**Scale 4: Teacher Presentation of Information:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

	Observer					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Student Teacher	1	4	3	2		
	2	2	5		1	
	3	2	4		2	1
	4	2	2	2	3	
	5		1	2	3	

Supervisor

	Observer					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Student Teacher	1	4	3	1		
	2	5	7	1	1	
	3	1	1		2	
	4		4	3	4	
	5			1	2	1

Student Teacher

	Supervisor					
	1	2	3	4	5	
Student Teacher	1	1	5	1	2	
	2	2	4		1	1
	3	3	1	1	3	1
	4	2	4		2	1
	5			2	3	1



**Scale 5: Negative Affect:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	6	6	1		
2	2		2	2	1
3	1	2	3	3	3
4		1		3	2
5				1	2

Student  
Teacher

Supervisor

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	7	6	1	2	
2	1	1	4	1	3
3	1	2		4	2
4			1	2	1
5					2

Student  
Teacher

	Supervisor				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	10	1	2		
2	3	3	1		
3	3	4	3	2	
4		2	2	1	1
5			1	1	1

**Scale 6: Positive Affect:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1			1		
2	2	3	2	2	
3	1	2	5	4	1
4	2		4	3	1
5			2	4	2

Student  
Teacher

Supervisor

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1					
2	2	3	2	2	
3	2	1	7	4	2
4	1	1	2	3	
5			3	4	2

Student  
Teacher

	Supervisor				
	1	2	3	4	5
1		1			
2		3	1	3	2
3		3	6	2	2
4		1	6	1	2
5		1	3	1	3

**Scale 7: Higher Cognitive Level Student Behavior:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	5	1	1		
2	12	3	1		
3	6	3			
4	3	2	1		
5		3			

Supervisor

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	5		1		
2	7	4	1		
3	8	4	1		
4	5	3			
5	1	1			

Student Teacher

	Supervisor				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	3	3		
2	3	5	4	4	
3		2	4	3	
4	2	1	2		1
5		1		1	1

**Scale 8: Passive Pupil Behavior:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	3	3			
2	4	9	4		
3	1	6	5		
4	1	2			
5			3		

Supervisor

	Observer				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	3	2	2		
2	4	9	1		
3	2	7	3		
4		2	3		
5			3		

Student Teacher

	Supervisor				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	2		3	1	
2	5	6	4	2	
3		6	4		2
4		2	1		
5				2	1

**Scale 9: Convergent-evaluative Interaction: Frequency distribution of paired ratings**

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1	1	4	1		1	Supervisor	1
	2	1	3		1	1		2
	3	3	2			1		3
	4	3	2	2	1	4		4
	5		2			8		5

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1	3	1	1		3	Supervisor	1
	2	3	4		1	2		2
	3	1	4	2	1	2		3
	4	1	3			3		4
	5		1			5		5

		Supervisor						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1	1	3	2	1		Supervisor	1
	2	3		2	1			2
	3		2		3	1		3
	4	2	3	5	1	1		4
	5	2	2	1	1	4		5

**Scale 10: Task Orientation: Frequency distribution of paired ratings**

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1			1			Supervisor	1
	2							2
	3	1		2	4	5		3
	4			1	10	6		4
	5				5	6		5

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1	1					Supervisor	1
	2				1			2
	3			1	5	2		3
	4			3	10	7		4
	5				3	8		5

		Supervisor						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1			1			Supervisor	1
	2							2
	3	1		4	5	2		3
	4			2	10	5		4
	5		1	1	5	4		5

**Scale 11: Clarity:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1			1	1		Supervisor	
	2			1	2			
	3		2	2	8	6		
	4		1	1	8	6		
	5			1	1			

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1						Supervisor	
	2		1			1		
	3		1	5	9	4		
	4		1	1	9	3		
	5				2	4		

		Supervisor						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1						Supervisor	
	2			2	1			
	3		2	8	6	2		
	4			6	6	4		
	5			1	1			

**Scale 12: Enthusiasm:** Frequency distribution of paired ratings

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1		1				Supervisor	
	2		3	1				
	3		7	3	2			
	4		8	5	3			
	5		3	3	2			

		Observer						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1						Supervisor	
	2		3					
	3		5	2				
	4		11	6	6			
	5		3	4	1			

		Supervisor						
		1	2	3	4	5		
Student Teacher	1			1			Supervisor	
	2		1	1	1	1		
	3		1	1	9	1		
	4		1	3	9	3		
	5			1	4	3		

### PATTERNS OF POSSIBLE DEVELOPMENT

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Len Cairns

University of Sydney

Today, most, if not all teacher educators are familiar with the basic concept of Micro-Teaching and many have had considerable involvement in the development and application of Micro-Teaching within teacher education programmes. Turney et al in their 1972 survey found that close to 50% of all teacher education programmes in Australia were conducting Micro-Teaching and a further 8% were operating what was classified as "pseudo" Micro-Teaching. This figure has not been followed up since then, but there have been further introductions of micro programmes and some of the older programmes have been modified or have ceased - the result is probably that at least 50% of teacher education programmes still operate some Micro-Teaching.

In this paper Micro-Teaching is taken to mean teaching scaled down in three directions: time, class size, and complexity of teacher behaviour (Turney et al, 1973). It may or may not involve video tape recording of students and replay of this in the feedback step.

Within teacher education programmes operating at present in Australia and using Micro-Teaching, there are a number of patterns of implementation with differences in the context (pre-service, in-service); the placement (instead of practice teaching, pre-practice, concurrent or post-practice); and the methods employed (sequence of single skills practised, skills clusters, an individualized approach and numerous other variations).

The range of Micro-Teaching programmes being carried out points to both the flexibility of the technique and the ingenuity of Australian teacher educators. It is, however, a fact that few, if any, of these variations are accompanied by any attempts at evaluation or real documentation. Very few aspects of Micro-Teaching in Australia have been empirically evaluated or even descriptively documented - most colleges "have" Micro-Teaching in some form or are "to try it soon" but the values, pitfalls, problems and pay-offs are rarely carefully examined.

It is not intended in this paper to review patterns of Micro-Teaching at present in use in Australia - The following discussion groups and the afternoon session should cover many of the details in that area. What is proposed here is to look first at some of the areas of concern and the problems inherent in using Micro-Teaching and then to consider some of the possible developments within areas of application of Micro-Teaching and within the method of application of the technique.

#### PLACEMENT OF THE MICRO-TEACHING EXPERIENCE

The survey of Turney et al indicated that 48% of the respondents employed Micro-

Teaching concurrently with practice teaching, while 26% introduced students to teaching via a Micro-Teaching experience before any practice teaching. The remainder either had Micro-Teaching between practice teaching periods or at no set time.

The placement of Micro-Teaching in the sequence of development by students of teaching skills and professional attitudes is a problem which has not been resolved or adequately researched. In the University of Sydney programmes (the Bachelor of Education and the Diploma in Education courses), Micro-Teaching has been carried on in each of the patterns with the exception of fully concurrent with practice teaching. Neville Hatton will present some results of the Dip.Ed. programme in the next session (also see Hatton & Owens, 1971, 1973).

Within the Bachelor of Education (Primary) Programme, it has been found over the last five years that students consistently see their first Micro-Teaching experiences (first term in the first year of the professional course — in fact their first teaching experience) as more valuable than any later such work. Students have felt that a compulsory Micro-Teaching clinic later in the year between their first and second block practice teaching periods was something of an unnecessary imposition. The use of special individualized remedial programmes at this stage or nearer the end of the year, however, has been very favourably received and these programmes have been successful in assisting students with teaching problems.

## ARTIFICIALITY AND THREAT

Critics of Micro-Teaching frequently cite 'artificiality' as one of their main objections. Students sometimes react to the micro situation by 'acting out' or performing in highly uncharacteristic ways or by withdrawing and freezing under the threat and scrutiny they perceive in the situation. Video tape recording can, for some, influence these reactions to a greater extent (Stanton, 1972, 1973).

It seems that this area is one where there are great variations between Micro-Teaching programmes in Australia (Turney et al, 1973). Some consideration of the reality of the site and setting for the micro lessons needs to be introduced to many programmes. The obtrusiveness of some television equipment can be a variable in this area as well as the question of involvement of school-age or peer pupils in the actual lesson.

Related aspects needing careful consideration include the student teacher's familiarity with and knowledge of the pupils he is to teach as well as the perceived threat the student sees in the lecturer/peer feedback/analysis step. If video tape replay is combined with feedback that is critically focussed and non-supportive it seems that those students who find video feedback initially threatening may react very badly to the Micro-Teaching situation. Not nearly enough has been looked at with regard to the 'threat' component in Micro-Teaching and the extra effect video tape recording may have on students' development, attitudes and anxiety.

## FEEDBACK AND ANALYSIS

Following on from the previous point on the supervisory feedback/critique step in the Micro-Teaching cycle is the question of the nature and method of feedback.

Within existing programmes some research has been completed on both the nature of feedback and the 'refinement break' between the actual teaching and the feed-

back step (Levis et al, 1974). Findings in the study at Macquarie University indicated that there was little effect on skill acquisition or attitude to Micro-Teaching across four feedback conditions (video tape + supervisor discussion; audio tape + supervisor discussion; supervisor discussion only; student self-analysis). The study also suggested that there was little difference in the effects of a twenty-minute refinement break or a one-week break.

It remains to be seen whether the energy some teacher educators are investing in the feedback step and in devising feedback tools is really resulting in little in terms of student development. The use of such adjuncts as Flanders Interaction Analysis and specially developed observation instruments is advocated by many Micro-Teaching users but very few studies seem to indicate much benefit in relation to the time and energy spent by the staff in the feedback process.

With these few problem areas as background, there are quite a number of possible developments within the method or technique of Micro-Teaching and with the areas to which Micro-Teaching may be applied.

### **MICRO-TEACHING: POSSIBLE DEVELOPMENTS**

1. It seems not only possible but desirable that Micro-Teaching, for most relevance to student teachers and in terms of practical pay-off, should be closely linked with in-school experiences. Some introductory Micro-Teaching as a first teaching experience before full involvement with a class of pupils may be helpful to students but it seems that close integration with general practice will be of most benefit to all involved. Combinations of student pre-service and teacher in-service Micro-Teaching with closer school-institution cooperation becomes a possibility in this situation.

2. Micro-Teaching programmes could also involve alterations in length of lesson, numbers of pupils and clusters of teacher skills so as to gradually 'macro' the micro experience and thereby sequence the move from micro practice to the full classroom situation. Provision for students to practice skills relevant to large group instruction, small group work and one-to-one interaction should be built into practice/Micro-Teaching programmes to facilitate flexibility on the students' part.

3. Individualization of Micro-Teaching experiences seems a need which may not be as difficult to meet as some critics feel. Student characteristics in anxiety, dogmatism, confidence, preference for different feedback styles and the relationship of these to various individual skill needs could be built into a school-based micro/practice teaching programme. Clearly this is the area most in need of further research and development and seems likely to be the major future development.

4. The training of supervisors for Micro-Teaching work is a further possibility for development. Perhaps the technique of Micro-Teaching and in particular a skills analysis of the supervisory role can be applied to train supervisors. Techniques of planning and presenting the model step as well as the follow-up and feedback in Micro-Teaching practice would be needed for supervisors to adequately handle the task. Further research into feedback and its place in the Micro-Teaching cycle is also needed to clarify this area.

5. The place of adjuncts such as Flanders Interaction Analysis and similar systems or the use of Encounter Groups prior to Micro-Teaching (Stanton, 1973) are possibilities worthy of further development and consideration. The involvement of a

group in the preparation, presentation and analysis/feedback has been one successful feature of a number of programmes and variations on this theme are likely and useful to follow.

- 80 6. At the same time as the involvement of groups in Micro-Teaching there is a place for the development of self-instruction systems. Models viewed in carrells followed by self-taped micro lessons and guided self-analysis will no doubt be one way of handling larger numbers in some programmes.

The key point seems to be to avoid large groups of students being 'put through' a Micro-Teaching programme and thereby being processed like conventional small-goods. This approach is a tendency seen in some programmes by critics and seized upon as a real potential danger in the technique.

### **OTHER POSSIBLE AREAS OF MICRO-TEACHING APPLICATION**

Micro-Teaching has probably as many possible areas of application as the ingenuity of those considering its application can think of. To date the Micro-Teaching model has been applied with varying degrees of success in Nurse Education, Micro-Counselling, Teacher Education (from pre-school through primary, secondary and even in tertiary teaching) and recently in training Dental Therapists.

The central proposition offered here is that it may be possible to use the basic ideas of the Micro-Teaching cycle of activity (model, plan and teach, critique analysis, replan-reteach) and the method (reduce complexity and focus on sub-skills, reduce time, reduce numbers involved) in a wide variety of contexts — many not necessarily within the traditional educational frame of reference.

Such possibilities might include Business Management, Educational Administration (school principals, inspectors, etc.), Shop Assistants, Salesmen, Insurance Executives, Ministers of Religion, Social Workers, etc. The main application would be in those areas where interpersonal interaction is involved in any socially structured type of situation. Skills of questioning, responding, interacting and so on, lend themselves admirably to these areas in addition to the obvious situation specific aspects.

What we have in Micro-Teaching is not a teacher education programme, not a practical experience programme, not a panacea for ailing programmes, but a tool, one of the many in the repertoire of those applicable to the practical situation and one we can profitably use. The danger lies in seeing this tool as the tool and expecting it to fit all numbers, all skills and all needs.



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(This list assumes a basic knowledge of the Micro-Teaching literature in general and restricts itself to Australian articles relevant to the above discussion.)

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## MICROTEACHING SESSION

Dr. Dawn Thew

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The microteaching program with which I am concerned is a primary education one fitted into a three year Diploma of Teaching course. It consists of a three semester program on microteaching which we have called "Situational Teaching". We do not always follow the standard model of microteaching, so we thought "situational teaching" best described what we were doing. "Situational Teaching" is but one component of a number of studies in a subject area called Teacher Development. These studies are integrated and undertaken in each of the six semesters of the students' program.

The first semester course is a "Basic skills" course in teaching. This relies mainly on presentation skills so the student has a means of survival in his first practice teaching. The second course looks at Operational skills where we are trying to look at the teacher and the children as a functioning group and to focus more on the children's aspect. Finally, the third program is Advanced skills where we are doing some unusual things. Some are on an experimental basis to see if they will work. I think you might be highly critical of what we are trying to do in our program. The course is mainly a workshop course with practical exercises in lectures, balanced with practical sessions in the schools and video diagnosis. Students spend two hours per week on this particular program. We try to follow, in the first program at least, the microteaching principles of modelling, practice, feedback with some modified reteaching, very modified I must admit. Secondly we try to take a dimensional approach to teaching. By this I mean that it is very hard to focus only on a single aspect of teaching. When we are teaching we are thinking of many things — curriculum, childrens' reactions, and so on, I really think it is more realistic to look at a dimensional approach to teaching where many things fit together to make the whole. Again I think, and you might disagree with this approach, it could be argued that this is confusing to the student. My findings to date are that the students take to this very well because it is closer to their actual behaviour when they are in a full class situation. The third point I would make about it is, that we use the microteaching in a developmental sequence and insist that the skills become somewhat cumulative. So in the Basic skills for example we may start off with the first couple. By the end of the microteaching sequence we would expect some evidence of all the skills we have dealt with being evident in their microteaching.

I want to look briefly at what I mean by the dimensional aspect of teaching. We look at this model in the analysis of the teaching act which is divided into supportive techniques, essential skills and selective procedures which we ask students to consider in relation to the content that they might be teaching. Our microteaching sessions or practical sessions concentrate on the seven essential skills, not necessarily in the order in which they are listed. (Figure 1) We also discuss the supportive techniques and ask students to select, from a repertoire of supportive techniques, those things that are going to be appropriate to their

practical sessions. And, in conjunction with an education lecture series on the principles of teaching, and with some curriculum studies, we look at the application of various procedures and how these would be interpreted using our essential skills and supportive techniques. So, from these strands I'm trying to get across to the students that teaching is a dimensional thing — you need to think on many levels at once and you need to mix and match components to these to produce your particular lesson for the children. To put that into perspective I think it might be easiest if we look at the first semester program of Basic skills.

These are some of the generalized topics that were dealt with in the workshop at college. We look at a beginner's model of teaching practices. It's one in which we try to give the students an over view of some of the things they need to consider in their teaching and to add to it throughout the six semesters of teacher development. We also include a video preview. There is a session at college where the students can look at themselves on video in order to analyze their voice and their general interaction patterns with other students in a discussion group. We find this is very very useful. It gets over what is commonly referred to in the literature as 'cosmetic' shock. Being videotaped is an anxiety producing situation. It is a tremendous advantage when they first go into the school — that they are no longer worried about themselves, that they are in fact concentrating on their teaching. We give them an anxiety scale as part of enrolment procedures of being inducted into the college. On the basis of the anxiety scale I try to distinguish the most anxious students. These students have their programs varied a little bit. When we go into the practical sessions of the skills we ask these students to do their lessons for the confrontation of the video. They are usually very relieved that we ask them to make an audio-tape of their lesson and that we use peer analysis by another student team member who helps analyse their lesson. We have found that very anxious students wish to continue with the audio-taping of their lessons for a little longer. That is, two sessions out of the four, and that's fine, but, by the third session they are saying to us "We haven't been on video yet". They have come to the realization that they are now ready to do on video.

When we go into our practical sessions in schools, we use different schools each day of the week with different groups. We use different grades so that we are constantly changing schools and changing groups of children. We gain our security by arranging the students into teams of ten compatible people. That is we ask them to select their own group amongst the students and to work together as a team. We find that this is supportive for the high anxious students — supportive of one another's teaching techniques. Also they build up quite a deal of expertise in managing the video cameras, the VTR that they work in each practical session as a team. This we have found very useful.

The microteaching sessions that we arrange in first semester are very basic stuff. We ask students in the first microteaching to practice introductory set and closure in a "telling" lesson. (Figure 2) They may choose narrative, exposition or explanation in any subject area, with us offering them some suggestions of things that might be appropriate.

The second microteaching is pupil involvement and reinforcement in a so-called "doing" lesson. Here again they have a selective of procedures that they might like to try out and use either separately or in conjunction to formulate lesson plans.

The third session is stimulus variation and basic questioning put into a "thinking" lesson whatever that might mean to a student. Again they are given a range of possible things that might make up a "thinking" lesson — discussion, appreciation, emphasis on the childrens' thinking, guided study and so on. With the emphasis on the use of a variety of questions — cognitive, convergent, divergent, and

**Figure 1**  
**ANALYSIS OF THE TEACHING ACT**

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for Planning, Presentation and Performance

– Techniques	)	Verbal and Social Interaction in the classroom for Educa- tional goals and specific object- ives.
– Skills	)	
– Procedures	)	

Supportive Techniques	Essential Skills	Selective Procedures (re content)
1) Gaining attention	1) Introductory Set (Motivation)	1) Narration, exposition, explanation
2) Use of voice, focussing	2) Variation of Stimulus	2) Observation, demonstra- tion.
3) Non-verbal cueing, pausing, silence	3) Pupil Involvement	3) Drill, Practice, applica- tion.
4) Use of aids	4) Questioning	4) Discussion, Appreciation
5) Supervision – alertness, rapport, roles	5) Reinforcement (encouragement)	5) Expression, Creativity
6) Class management routines	6) Organization of the learning setting	6) Experimentation, Pro- blem-solving
7) Grouping – various criteria (ability, interests, socio- metric choice)	7) Closure (summation)	7) Induction, Deduction
		8) Guided study, Research
		9) Activities – Co-op (Parti- cipation, Inquiry, Con- struction)
		10) Review, revision, recapitu- lation
		11) Evaluation (Diagnosis, testing)

evaluative and we try to get them to use these to effect with the children.

The last session is a focus on the organizational aspects of the learning setting to vary class patterns in a mini lesson. Using a unilateral pattern which is my term for someone haranguing the multitude as I am now; a bilateral pattern is where you get some interaction between teacher and pupils and a multilateral pattern is one in which children actually engage in some work task independently. Perhaps the nearest example I can get to that from the conference is when Dr. Crank asked you all to complete the worksheet. We all busily got down to the individual task of working simultaneously in the class. The mixing and matching of these is important in my view.

The students have, at the school, an immediate replay of their lessons whether it is on videotape or audio-tape. The feedback may be given by the supervisor in conjunction with the student's own analysis of the lesson using a specific check list. The student sits down in front of the monitor and replays his lesson and checks off, on the check-list, aspects of the skill components that we are trying to produce and the supervisor may comment on that. If the supervisor is not available, pairs of students work together on two separate check-lists. One of these is a specific check-list about the skills being practised. The second check-list is a generalized teaching check list on things like voice, enthusiasm and other aspects. The high anxious students mostly work at first on this peer analysis in a comparison of check-lists and giving one another feedback. The student who works with the audio-tape is working with the student who has just immediately received feedback on his video lesson. So the student they are working with has already had practice, and has had feedback about his particular lesson and can then provide the feedback to another person immediately about the sorts of things that the supervisor noted or they have observed themselves. At the end of this semester there is a block practice so that our first semester program is designed for presentation skills of a very basic nature but which are cumulative so that the student has some chance, we believe, in a particular practice school.

On return to college they move into the second semester program which is labelled "Operational skills". They come back as perhaps your students do, talking about discipline, school context and worries about their experience there, perhaps of a more global nature rather than their specific skills. Whenever I say to them "how did your skills go?" I usually get a positive response "Oh, they worked pretty well. But, the kids, I didn't really understand the kids, and I didn't really understand the class structure or the school structure". So we try to look at operational levels of teaching, operational systems and finally come down to some operational skills. Operational skills are where we are trying to involve children more in the learning process. They focus on verbal interaction analysis where we actually come to learn the theoretical system and apply it to a micro lesson in discussion. The students both get video feedback on their discussion, and they also get objective data and an analysis of their indirectness in teaching. We find this a very important learning experience too. By examining higher order questioning before we go into discovery procedures the emphasis is on getting children to learn. Activity procedures are perhaps our first link to focus on the children rather than on the teachers' presentation of skills. These are more generalized applications of microteaching. We have learnt a lot. We run much the same as we did with the basic skills by giving everyone a six to eight minute lesson to put into a mini lesson which is reasonably self contained. So the basis, is for teacher and children working together as a functioning operational group. At the end of this program they also go off to a block practice. This pattern is going to change in the future because of circumstances at the college. But we found it very good to have microteaching and practice interspersed.

**Figure 2**  
**SITUATIONAL TEACHING**

**BASIC SKILLS FOR TEACHING**

— Semester 1 (2 hours per week)

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**Topics**

A Beginner's model for teaching practices  
Microteaching and video previews  
Analysis of the Teaching Act  
— Essential Skills (7)  
— Selected Procedures  
— Supportive Techniques  
Lesson Planning  
Class Management principles

**Microteaching Sessions**

- 1) **Introductory Set and Closure**  
in a "Telling" Lesson  
(Narration; Exposition;  
Explanation)
- 2) **Pupil Involvement and Reinforcement**  
in a "Doing" Lesson  
(Drill, practice, application, activity)
- 3) **Varying Stimulus and Basic questioning**  
(cognitive; convergent, divergent; evaluative)  
in a "Thinking" Lesson  
(Discussion, Appreciation, Guided Study)
- 4) **Organization of the Learning Setting**  
with a varied class set patterns  
(Unilateral, Bilateral, Multilateral patterns)

**OPERATIONAL SKILLS IN THE CLASS-**

— Semester 2 (2 hours per week)

**Topics**

Operational Level: School context analysis  
Discipline issues  
Group roles of pupils  
Operational Systems: Management skills  
Success Environment procedures  
Social organization patterns  
Operational Skills: Verbal interaction patterns  
Interaction Analysis — coding and reliability  
Higher Order questioning  
Activity procedures  
Discovery procedures  
Role playing

**Microteaching Sessions**

- 1) **Activity Procedures**
- 2) **Interaction Analysis**  
(Flanders coding) of a Discussion
- 3) **Higher Order questioning**  
(Knowledge; Comprehension, Application; Analysis, Synthesis, Evaluation)
- 4) **Discovery Procedures**

## **ADVANCED SKILLS IN TEACHING**

### **Topics**

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Concepts of Humanistic Education  
Sociometric Techniques  
Group teaching and organisational skills  
Interpersonal skills  
Sensitivity and T-group experience  
Individualized instruction  
Concepts for Open Education and  
Integrated Day  
Curriculum skills  
Teaching Outdoors  
Leadership skills

— Semester 3 (2 hours per week)

### **Microteaching Sessions**

- 1) Teaching **small groups**
- 2) **Individualized** instruction
- 3) **Open Education** simulation and  
Team teaching
- 4) **Teaching outdoors**



The third program of advanced skills in teaching is for our beginning second year students. Here the emphasis is on developing flexibility in their teaching style, and facilitating the learning of children. We work more on clusters of skills which are relevant to curriculum, skill clusters for small groups, individualized instruction, open education, teaching outdoors and so on. This is the most experimental program we have tried. In the first micro session students must teach a minimum of three small groups working on more co-operative work and shared activities, on different subjects if they like or in one subject area with different aspects of the same topic. That's the choice of the students. The emphasis is on the students mobility, their interaction in that group and getting that group working satisfactorily together to a worthwhile conclusion. Individualising instruction is an interesting one we tried. We asked students to prepare contracts for children which would take about 5 minutes to complete. Students had to prepare three contracts with different subject areas and use those contracts; first with individuals so that they tried all their three contracts out with one child. Then they had to set up three or more children to work simultaneously on different contracts so that they got the feeling of helping individual children at different stages of their progress through the contracts. It worked exceedingly well. The students told me that it was the most exciting thing that has happened to them in getting to understand children at work.

The open education simulation one was also hair raising, if that's the word. Students said "How on earth are you going to do that?" and we all scratched our heads and said "yes, how on earth are we going to do it?". But it is very hard to thrust a student into an ongoing open education situation: It is better for them to set up on their own. So working in our compatible groups of ten students we asked them as a team to plan an open education setting where they would use both small groups and individuals and to keep it running for an hour together.

Students arranged, about four or five groups, and four or five individuals — strategically placing them round the classroom and each student functioned in that setting for about ten minutes at a time. We had two student teachers working as a team for that ten minute program. We had some interesting results. The children finished tasks at varying times and had to select new tasks. The students learnt to cope with being flexible and adaptable from one sort of activity to another. Those who were not immediately participating in that setting were sitting on the sideline analyzing the role of the teacher; how the student teacher helped each individual; how the student coped with varying paces of work; what the equipment needs of the children were; what the diagnostic needs were and altogether it was a team effort. The students showed a lot of resourcefulness in running an open education setting for an hour by this co-operative team method. Not quite microteaching, as you would say. But we video-taped it and played it back for analysis, together with our check-lists that had been completed. Perhaps after that you will see that I am really talking about situational teaching, not so much microteaching in the traditional sense.

The last session was teaching out of doors, which everybody takes for granted, but which has a few things to learn in terms of skills for students, such as setting boundaries. Those who forgot to set boundaries for children outdoors really had some problems when the children scattered to the four winds. Again, at the end of this semester session we had block practice. We hope that this pattern is going to continue so that we continually reinforce what has been presented in the particular sessions. Most of the students at the end of this third semester ask to be placed in an open education class to try out some of the things they had been experimenting with.

At the end of the three semester program, I asked students to write me something as an evaluation and to tell me if it was a hopeless mess or if they were confused or whatever. I found that 85% of the students said that they had a positive experience all through, and that they had learned a lot. Typical of the comments were, "The course was exceptionally helpful and I found the practical sessions most beneficial for practice teaching". (They were talking about the full three semester program.) Or another one said "An essential program for providing a pool of ideas to help us in formulating our own style of teaching". I am very encouraged by those remarks. In all, I think the staff learned a lot about skills for teaching in the Situational Teaching Program.

The first program I am going to talk about is the remedial kind of post-practice program that we have tried in microteaching in Sydney and which has been written up in a number of places, e.g. **Microteaching**, Turney et al., S.U.P. 1973. This program was designed for and involved students who have had difficulties in practice teaching. Let me leave aside these difficulties and their description until I come to a later point. We take a fairly small group of students each year from our three hundred. This group might have 10 or 15 students. In the first stages we meet them, have a discussion with them and we gauge their reactions to the fact that they are now going to undertake this program. We try to present to them as clearly as we can our own rationale of microteaching. We give them an initial experience in a peer group with our heavy 2 inch TV equipment — get them to do a role play or a little drama of their own invention, then play it back so that they can get over the shock of seeing themselves for the first time. Sometimes we have followed that with modelling, using our own Sydney Micro Skill tapes. Generally, though, students have had some experience with these earlier in their course and we find we don't have to do that on every occasion. Finally within that first stage we will sit down and plan with them the activities for their initial recorded session in the schools.

Usually a week later, the second stage will involve getting into the schools and doing what we have now described as our initial diagnostic lesson. Here we take the typical pattern of a ten minute or so period with 8 pupils. We stress that we like the students to focus on interaction skills, particularly looking at basic questioning and reinforcement, but using a topic of their own choice in which their objective is to get with the kids and to get them talking. This lesson is then played back in the school setting to the group of peers taking part, with 1 or 2 staff members present. We ask our staff members to lean out of these early discussions. There is plenty there that the students themselves will talk about, on the positive side as well as on the negative. In the case of any particular individual, we will get them to reteach if they really "bombed out".

The third day then enables us to go into an individualised program. On the basis of what we have seen in the initial lesson, and on the basis of the kinds of problems that were described in the final report of the student's practice, we set students off on a program of their own — a program where we hope to meet the particular needs that become evident to us in that first performance. So, one student might get off onto guiding discussion with questions, through to advanced questioning, and to role playing. Another might simply remain on the basic sort of program, working on continuing needs like basic questioning and reinforcement, variability with reinforcement, and then perhaps working up to some aspects of questioning, with intent to lift the level.

I want to make some assertions now about this program. They are not research-based assertions; I think that they probably do, to some extent, support the kind of position that Newsome and Fawns were taking. At least, as I see it, what they are talking about is how you get those external demands of skills and disciplined knowledge internalized to some extent, within that framework of private knowledge a student sees as his own. Bearing that in mind, I would make the following assertions about this use of microteaching in a remedial application. It first of all depends on very close interaction within a small group of people, and that group of people is made up of one or two staff members, and 5 to 8 students, working on any one day. No doubt our cost-effectiveness would be incredible. But I'm afraid that's the way I see it working. It depends on very close-knit group and interaction to have any effect. Further, the staff members involved have to be fairly sensitive. After all, the students have been diagnosed as unsatisfactory in practice and are inclined to be a little edgy. The third point I would make is I think it takes a minimum of three sessions. I would lean towards four, five or six sessions of micro, to see changes occur, for students to see changes, and for the students to feel that they are getting anywhere. Any less than that I think does not get very far. And a fourth point I would make is based on our interaction with the students themselves and their own evaluation within that little "in-group" that they come to be. For those who originally in practice teaching had difficulties diagnosed as relating to teaching process skills, we do see quite visible evidence of progress within this microteaching setting, particularly if it is supported on another day by in-school practice. In other words, we see people developing skills related to responding and basic questioning and variability, particularly if these were the areas that somebody had observed as being a difficulty in teaching. But there was another group of students that we tended to get in this remedial program. I am no psychiatrist or psychologist, but I have noted that people having personal difficulties of some kind, "personality problems" I suppose is one tag that has been used, with those we have to report much less success. I think that in about half of the cases that we have dealt with over the four years we have been working the program, students have reported gains in areas like confidence, and their assessment of themselves. But I'm afraid there was another half that we just didn't seem to be able to do anything for, either on the personal side or on the skills and development side. Perhaps that just says something about our selection of people in a program like ours where they are committed to their Dip.Ed. year 3 years before.

The second kind of program is one we have tried for the first time this year. So this is really a formative evaluation of a concurrent micro-teaching program. It might sound strange to you that for the first time in Sydney we have just done that in our Dip.Ed. program. But we, like everybody else, ran into problems with numbers. We have 300 students each year, too many to give an adequate micro experience for each student. So we decided to try it with 32 volunteers this year, including, interestingly enough, 3 mature age students, who felt they benefited greatly. 2 staff worked with this group. We managed to get four hours per week of our university time for the group. Then on the in-school practice days we rotated around three schools, spending a day in each with the group of students teaching in that school or, in one case, another nearby as well. We have a practice program where our students are in the school two continuous days a week, Mondays and Tuesdays, spending the other three days on University work.

We employ a very similar pattern to the one I described to you in the remedial microteaching program. At the very least these students managed by half way through second term to have done about six sessions.

During second term I conducted interviews with each of the students – about 30 or 40 minutes just sitting down talking with each about the project. I would like to give you these various subjective reactions. First of all, most of the students did appreciate the presentation of a rationale before the microteaching. The kind of rationale I put is perhaps slightly different from the one in the book. I tried to sell the idea that we are focussing on manageable aspects of teaching, that we can focus at any one point in time on a little bit of the complexity that teaching is. Secondly, just about all those students who took part in the program verbalised that there was transfer of some aspects of the micro program, of some skills, into the larger class sessions. They verbalised this in two ways. Some said that it at least gave them tags which they could consciously use to analyse their own teaching – to analyse what they were doing and in many cases what they were not doing in the classroom. The other point they made was that certain skills were valued for their own sakes. They saw the use of them and they applied them. They found skills like reinforcement, especially with the lower achieving kids, to be very important and to work very well. They became very conscious of basic questioning, and components like pausing too. Non-verbal cueing was another component that students reported as having application in the classroom. Some students did see certain of the skills as being particularly subject related. Geographers and mathematicians in the group placed a great deal of value on skills like advanced questioning and the associated one of probing – following through responsive students and taking them as far as they can go. Role playing which has skills components we have not yet described in the micro skills material, but which can be practised very effectively in a micro setting, was valued by the history students.

Most of the students suggested that the experience was very nerve-racking to start with. But once they got over the initial kind of reaction, they themselves then verbalised that it did build confidence. It allowed them as individuals to practice within particular areas that suited them. I think microteaching is flexible in that way. Perhaps the position has been put across that we are presenting a series of competencies to be mastered intact and in sequence. I don't believe that is so. I think that individuals in fact have mastered many of the skills we talk about already. Students do like the freedom to choose and focus on those skill areas they see as important to themselves. They said, and I report this in their own words "We could see for ourselves the effect of what we were doing as teachers, and the effect of what we did on what the kids did." The final point was made by a number, who said there was a fair amount of self-criticism in that evidence on the T.V. screen. There were points that came up, but there was no need for anyone to say anything for there it was. Each individual noted personal quirks for themselves without anyone saying anything.

## **SPEAKERS – FACULTY MEMBERS FOR ARCHITECTURE, ENGINEERING, DENTISTRY AND MEDICINE**

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**Mr H.W. Jones, Lecturer in the School of Architecture  
Western Australian Institute of Technology**

I'll start with the requirements first of all of the Institute of Architects and the requirements for registration as an Architect. For admission to the Institute the person needs educational qualifications such as a degree or associateship from an Institute of Technology or he can take an examination which is set for people who work in the profession and have not come up through a formal course.

With regard to practical experience, a log book is issued to the student and he simply records the various types of work that he has been involved with and then at the end of the required period the log book must be submitted to, and approved by, the educational authority.

This also has to be supported by an architectural or practice exam in the more theoretical side of practice. The practice exam is a post graduate exam which students can only take after two years of practical experience – one year of which has to be done after graduation so that he can have one year of practical experience during his course. It is a five year course. In the case of our course, we include one year practical experience in the course, so that when he completes the theoretical aspects the student does another twelve months and that enables him to take the practical experience examination.

Most of that practical experience should be taken in an office with a further six months work which is allied to building or architecture, town planning offices, building offices, landscaping, any of that sort of range of activity. It is probably a good thing to try and give some sort of variety to the training. At least 10 consecutive weeks should be spent in the one office. It's not much good having a period of 2 weeks because you can't pick up much in this time. In a technical capacity we require at least four weeks.

Concerning objectives, the practical experience should consolidate the course work, relate studies to real situations, develop personal relationships in the work environment and develop competence and a sense of responsibility.

After ten or fifteen years you see the connection or you see the direct relationship but I think the conditions in an office are so different from the academic situation that it takes a student at least 12 months to a couple of years to see the pattern of work. We really try to relate studies to real situations during the course.

The development of personal relationships is a vital thing and I think that is the way the student really starts to feel the benefit of working out in an office, and it is here that the feeling of competence and the sense of responsibility is increased. An architect ought to obtain the contract documentation of his preparation drawings and specifications which is the fundamental activity in an architectural office. Discussion of the brief or the design with the client is very nice if the student can be involved but it would probably take place later on in his training. He may sit in on conferences and so on but it is necessary to have some sort of experience before

you are ready for the client. Site inspection is invaluable in that you can see what you've drawn in three dimensions. Association with the building team gets back to the working relationship with people. Contract administration, office management, should all be included in the two years of practical experience. Any facility in working in this sphere is only obtained a number of years. It takes quite a lot of maturity to get a grip with all these things.

The W.A.I.T. course that I am involved with is a five year course. The first three year's are full time and they have two part-time years and in those last two part-time years we have one semester each year in which the student goes out to obtain practical experience in an office or a similar situation. Design is the core subject that we are involved with and we try to get as much reality into these projects as possible so students are really getting practical experience in skills like drawing and so on. If possible, we try and bring in people to act as clients so that we simulate as far as possible, real situations. Practitioners come in to participate in these programs, mainly in reviewing them. Architects and professional people are always willing to consult with the students. We have encouraged this sort of thing so that if the students have a problem they are not necessarily going to get the answer out of text books. We encourage them to go into the community and to the profession to get advice and in this way get an introduction to the practical aspect of the work.

The amount of 'education' compared to 'practice' is always debatable in our set up. I probably tend to emphasise the practical aspects of design and designing buildings and so on. I do realise the importance of basic things like psychology and sociology as being the basis of assessing needs of people and so on.

There is a tendency more to try to achieve more education, so that practice can be obtained by going out into the world and learning how to construct things in an architect's office. In a real situation there is a transfer of learning. Students sometimes ask what use had the course been to them when they get out in the office?

The recognised professional qualification for an engineer in Australia is corporate membership of the Institute of Engineers of Australia, and to become a corporate member, it is necessary to have a University Degree and three years practical experience after obtaining that degree, or a Diploma from an Institute of Technology with 4 years practical training after graduating.

The student's practical training after graduation in either case, is scrutinized very carefully by the committee which admits to membership of the Institute of Engineers and it must be in what is described as appropriate professional work under the supervision of a professional engineer. Once a person has become a corporate member of the Institute, he can call himself a chartered engineer, in this country, which title is protected by law.

At the University we don't consider that we can turn out a graduate who will be immediately useful to any employer. We realise that his usefulness to any employer will increase as he gains practical experience and it is not possible for us to give him all or anywhere near the practical experience that is necessary to make a fully qualified engineer.

The trend over the last 20 years in engineering education, has been rather away from what might be called the art of engineering, to the science of engineering, and there are several reasons for this. One reason is that with rapidly changing technology, there is not much point in training someone in a technique which will be out of date two or three years after he had graduated. It is better, and this we try to do, to concentrate on the fundamentals, the basic fundamentals, which will not change and which will give him a solid groundwork from which he can tackle any problem. Another reason for this trend away from the practical side within the Universities is just the sheer cost. It is easier and cheaper just to teach someone scientific principles than to teach them practical techniques.

However, we have not gone completely over to pure science, and within our course at the University of Western Australia there are various classes which could be considered as practical training. I should state that we have three departments in engineering at the University of W.A. — the Department of Civil Engineering, the Department of Mechanical Engineering and the Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering. I am a civil engineer and the remarks I will make are specific remarks about the course which apply to civil engineering. But they are similar in the other two departments. In the first year, when the students enter the University, his first year engineering is largely science. He studies physics, chemistry and mathematics. We try to give him an introduction to engineering in a course which we call Engineering 10. He gets some practical experience in laboratory situations in the physics and chemistry laboratories. He has to become familiar with experimental scientific techniques and methods. In the engineering course in



the first year we require him to learn to draw, to produce and read engineering drawings, which are a very important means of communication between engineers, from an engineer to another professional and also a means of communicating an engineer design to the people who are going to make or build the design.

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In the second year, the course becomes more oriented towards engineering, and the student will take laboratory classes in strength of materials in which he studies the means of measuring the properties of the materials that he is likely to use as an engineer, the means of testing materials, and experimental methods of measuring a strain and these sorts of things.

In the third year, he is introduced to some design work where he is required to consider some simple practical designs. In the case of civil engineering, for instance, he might be asked to design parts of a structure, parts of a building and regard it as though it were an actual practical design job that he has to do. He has, for instance, to produce a set of calculations to show that the structure he has designed is satisfactory and strong enough and a set of drawings from which a contractor could produce or could build the structure. He also does a course in surveying, and this naturally requires a knowledge and experience in the use of surveying instruments, so that he does some practical work in surveying measurements which he does round the campus with surveying instruments.

In the fourth year, he gets on to rather more complicated larger designs. Again, talking about the civil engineer, he would be asked to design structures again producing the calculations and the drawings which would be the sort of thing that would have to be produced by a consulting engineer in practice. To assist us in this, we employ on a part time basis, visiting lecturers, consulting engineers who are prepared to come down and give our students the benefit of their immediate practical knowledge. So he produces designs. He also does some more laboratory work in, for instance, soil mechanics. He is made familiar with the methods to testing soils for engineering purposes, whether they be foundations or roads or dams. He becomes familiar with the methods used and the equipment that is used. He also spends some time in the hydraulics laboratory and becomes familiar with means of measuring water flow, water pressure and this sort of thing. So, although I said at the beginning that the course has moved away a little from the art of engineering to the science of engineering, there is I think, still quite a bit of practical work in the course. But that is not all. Between the second and third years of the course, during the summer vacation, students are required by regulation to spend at least twelve weeks working, preferably in a workshop or on a construction site. The purpose of this is to let them mix with the workmen, with the people they are going to be in charge of later on, and get to see the situation from the workmen's point of view. It is not always possible these days for students to get what we consider ideal vacation employment because of the increasing numbers of students and the deteriorating economic situations. So, some of them, in order to get work at all have to take jobs which are not always closely allied to engineering.

Between 3rd and 4th year they are required to obtain practical work of a professional nature where they might get a job again on a construction site, in a design office, on a main roads job or something like that. It's hoped that the sort of work they will get will be a little more professional than in the year before when they are just expected to work on the shop floor. Here again, we have had difficulty in placing students in this sort of work and we have had to waive our regulations in some cases.

Admission to our faculty is limited. At the present time we can take only 35 students into the first year of our course. We have no quotas in subsequent years now but we did formerly have a second year quota as well. We have no matriculation pre-requisites, but we do prefer students to have taken physics and chemistry at least at matriculation level. The selection is based entirely on the level of attainment in the matriculation examination. We do not interview or test students for any kind of manual dexterity skills. This has been tried in the past, but it has been found that there is very little correlation between these tests and the actual performance of the students later in the course.

At the present time the faculty is very much concerned with the reform of our undergraduate curriculum. We could possibly describe our faculty as being in a ferment. To a certain extent, we are now having to try and define what kind of a dentist the community really needs. The traditional training of a dentist has always concentrated very much on the development of technical skills of a high order. The cynics refer to us as tooth carpenters and we have in fact, tried to turn out effective and efficient tooth carpenters. But we realise very much these days that we need to improve the basic scientific training of our students, in order that they can fulfil a very much wider need in the community because things are changing in the way that health care is being delivered to the public. What we are endeavouring to do at the present time is to improve the basic scientific training in the early years of our course, and to concentrate the development of clinical and technical skills in the later years of the course.

Our present practice is to introduce students to dentistry by way of construction of dentures and other artificial and mechanical appliances. Therefore the emphasis and the beginning of the actual training of our dental students falls very heavily upon the acquisition of manual dexterity and technical skills. The emphasis is very largely on laboratory exercises and laboratory teaching. Usually, these are conducted with the assistance of skilled technicians, not necessarily trained dentists at all. The qualifications that are required of people who teach in this field are usually that they have had considerable experience either in a laboratory or in practice. It is rare indeed to find anybody in a dental school who has ever had any actual teaching training.

It's been the usual custom in our course to delay the introduction of dental students to living patients until the third year of their course. Then the introduction depends very much upon our decision that they have acquired, at bench type exercises, sufficient manual expertise. There are few attempts to teach anything about human behaviour or human psychology until the moment of clinical introduction actually arrives. The situation has been described by some as a handpiece with a terrified person on either end of it. The process has been justified on the grounds that usually, the first patients we introduce our students to have been or

are completely dentureless. In other words, the worst calamity that can befall them dentally has already happened and nothing we can do to them is going to make them any worse. The other aspect of it that justifies this approach has been the fact that the patients that we deal with under these circumstances are usually older, senior citizens who are relatively tolerant to our aspiring and to our sometimes perspiring dental students.

The problem which faces dentistry is very much the same as that which faces medicine, because we are required to teach both the art as well as the science of our discipline. A man called Wilfred Trotter, who nobody reads much these days, and who was a famous medical educator in the 1930's and 40's said that the genius of man has devised two methods by which his culture is built up and put into use — the practical arts and the applied sciences. There is a fundamental difference both in the history and the principle of action between these two. Applied science carries on its tasks by the application of ascertained principles to particular cases. A practical art, on the other hand has no complete and sure foundation of ascertained principles. The items of its knowledge are therefore incompletely definable and are preserved as traditional rules of the art. These are not applied like scientific principles to particular cases but are interpreted for its treatment in accordance with the judgement, the intuition and the personal skill of the artist. It thus comes about that in a practical art, satisfactory action is judged not wholly by its object being attained, but by whether the artist followed the established rules. Than is, whether he proceeded according to the art or not. In a true applied science, failure can be due only to ignorance. In a practical art, where so much is indefinable, success as a sole test for correct action is obviously impractical.

The standard of attainment applicable to an applied science is not to improve its status but to convert it into quackery.

When we compare science and art in medicine, we find that to use a mechanical analysis the former is enormously the more efficient engine, where it is available. Its only necessary fuel is knowledge. Given knowledge and the appropriate case, success with a very small margin of error is certain. But medical and dental art, on the other hand, is as an engine, extravagantly inefficient and it needs every faculty of the doctor or the dentist to get it to work at all. This is why a dentist has not only to be taught but has to be trained by teaching — I mean the imparting of knowledge, and for that we are dependent on our teachers. By training I mean the cultivation of aptitude and for that we are dependent upon our opportunities and ourselves. It is here that we can see most clearly the differences in the requirements of experimental science and of an art. The exactitudes of science call for the elimination of human faculty. The lack of exactitude in the practical art, calls for the use and expansion of the human faculty as far as possible. It would, for instance be a very poor physiologist who used his eyesight to estimate the weight of guinea pigs, or used his tongue to measure electric current. But the physician who makes the fundamental observation of medicine and says "My clinical judgment tells me that that man is ill" though he uses an instrument with an error deplorably great, uses the only instrument capable of making any record at all, and he will do well to keep it in repair.

Trotter lists a number of things with which the competent practitioner must become equipped, and these are as follows: firstly, the ability to give total attention to the patient without interposing anything of oneself; secondly, the intuition that he defines as inference from experience, stored but not actively recalled; thirdly, the art of handling living flesh. Hands must be co-ordinated to make firm and

gentle movement, for to the sick body these are the complement of an attentive and receptive mind. It yields its secrets to them but it denies its secrets to the mutton fist as it does to the beefy mind. Some extremists have thought that the man who has the handling of sick bodies, and I'll include sick mouths, should make himself ambidextrous.

The last aptitude to be obtained, is the handling of the sick man's mind. The simplest way to do this is simply to be interested in him. The effort will have its reward, because all our patients, come to us with a very deep unreasonable fear — a fear with which we have to contend and which we have to overcome. James Hinton expressed for me the essence of what is required of a practitioner in the healing arts, and I include dentistry in this, nearly a century ago. I believe it is true now and it is what we have to teach as much as anything. He says, "More than ever now medical man becomes, or should become, the friend, the confidant, the counsellor of his patients. A place too seldom filled by him yet impossible to be held except by him, stands vacant — that of a friend whose trained knowledge is in a quick sympathy and should be able to unravel for each man and each woman in these perplexed and restless days, what is physical and what is mental in their distresses. More than ever now, the physician must have knowledge of the soul, must feel with finer sense other pulses, and measure heats and chills which no thermometer can gauge. For who can tell us how much medicine has suffered by false virtues ascribed to remedies because perhaps the doctor has wrapped up hope with his pills and a sudden gladness has turned an ordinary drought of medicine into the very elixir of life."

It seems very much to me that the future in dentistry lies with the use of auxiliary helpers of all kinds. It's true that dentists will continue to need to be highly technically competent and that their role in the future may well be very much more than that of an oral physician and a diagnostician. It seems to us in our faculty at the present time, though we are still debating it furiously, that we must improve our basic scientific training, and that this should go hand in hand with an early introduction to clinical experience, perhaps in the first instance by simply allowing our students to observe patients being treated. If 17 or 18 year old girls in schools of dental therapy can be safely allowed into clinical practice within carefully prescribed and supervised limits, so should dental students be able to be so treated. But if we wish to have the depth of scientific training that we need in order for our graduates to become capable of supervising these auxiliaries, planning their duties and undertaking research and doing all the things that we see in the future are going to be necessary, then it seems that we are going to have to increase the emphasis on scientific training, the basic scientific training in the early part of our course.

It is true that there must be a basic core of knowledge and skill for all our graduates, because when they qualify at the end of a five year period, with a B.D.Sc. from our University, they are entitled to register and practice on the public. We are certainly going to need a good number of general practitioners, and we have a duty to see that our people go out with basic skills which can be safely intelligently and with common sense applied to those people who will seek their services. We are also going to require increasing numbers in various specialty areas:— health educators, research workers, administrators, teachers, because we are going to need them to teach not only in our dental schools, but in our schools of dental therapy as well. What we foresee, is a basic course occupying the first four years of the present five year course during which time we will teach all the theoretical aspects of our course. We intend, provided we can get agreement between other states and with our government, to follow this up with a period of pre-registration clinical training under supervision, which will have to be carried out in hospitals

or other approved institutions. If we can allow some elective study, there are some students who can accomplish a course in much shorter time than others, we should have sufficient elasticity in our curriculum to allow them to undertake periods of elective study earlier than we do at the present time. Some of these people should be capable of moving into specialty areas during this pre-registration year. There may be some who already at that stage, show an interest in teaching or research and it is foolish for us to waste their talent trying to make them all jump through the same hoop with the same degree of technical skill. It depends on what area of dentistry they are going to go into.

Perhaps the most important achievement that we have to look for in an undergraduate curriculum in dentistry is the development of right attitudes towards the responsibilities they are going to face. Technical skills can be learned from many teachers, and like a modicum of intelligence, technical skills are pre-requisites for research of course. But I believe that the most important element that we have to infiltrate into our students is not necessarily a high degree of technical skill, but what I would only describe as a proper attitude of humility, because this will flow only from the development of the self-critical mind and the realisation that they have got to continue throughout the rest of their professional career to study and to learn. The school should always have as its aim that the young man leave it as a harmonious personality and not as a specialist. This, in my opinion, is true in a certain sense, even for technical schools whose students will devote themselves to a quite definite profession. "The development of general ability for independent thinking and judgment and not the acquisition of specialised knowledge should always be placed foremost. If a person masters the fundamentals of his subject and has learned to think and work independently he will surely find his way, and besides, he will be better able to adapt himself to progress and change than the persons whose training principally consists of the acquiring of detailed knowledge." The man who said that was Albert Einstein and that I believe is the basic philosophy that we need in our school which I suppose, could be considered to be one of the most practical courses that should be taught in a University.

## Australian College of Surgeons

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If we look very briefly at training for medicine and the way it actually occurs, in fact only the very basic training does occur during the undergraduate years. After six undergraduate years, the doctor graduates with M.B.B.S. and he is then thought of as a basic doctor. But he is not thought to have the skills to practice medicine at all. He then does a pre-registration year in a teaching hospital and at the end of that time he is licensed to practice medicine. In fact, he is still a very uninitiated doctor and he will almost certainly need to enter into a period of vocational training at the end of that time.

The area in which I am mostly involved is the area of vocational training, for general practice. When it comes to scalpels, and I might also say that I am even further unqualified to talk about the undergraduate curriculum, I am really much more interested in the behavioural aspects of medicine rather than the cutting aspects.

In the first year, as with first year dentistry, there is physics, chemistry, human biology and biology, and I suppose one could say that students are starting to develop some psychomotor skills when they do biology, because they dissect rats and that sort of thing. In the second year, they no longer do anatomy dissection but in physiology they do operate on rabbits to demonstrate various physiological principles, and they take blood pressures on each other and record respiratory functions and do a lot of these fairly harmless things to each other. During the third term of third year, they are let loose on patients to some extent and they do an introductory clinical course in which they learn to take medical histories and to do medical examinations.

It's then that they suffer the trauma of being introduced to various nursing sisters in nursing wards. Once they get into the fourth, fifth and sixth clinical years, they really are becoming increasingly involved with patients. They do a term of surgery in fourth year and they do get a chance to see a patient being operated on and actually assist in the operating theatre. You need not have many fears about that because in fact, they are usually holding on to the end of a retractor and really getting very bored with the whole situation.

In fifth year, they again do surgery, but they do spend some nights for instance in the casualty department of the hospital and there they really start to feel that perhaps they are budding doctors, because in this situation they can suture up simple wounds, assist during surgery, put up drips, and of course, they get exposed to obstetrics and gynaecology and here they do at least ten normal deliveries. That's a pretty harmless occupation, well supervised. During the fifth year vacation, they can do locums in teaching hospitals or work in the north-west of the state and they do in fact, under some circumstances, get a lot of clinical responsibility in this situation and it is pretty good experience for them. In 6th year, they actually get exposed to two weeks of general practice.

I have restricted my remarks very much to the purely practical aspects of developing these skills as undergraduates, and certainly the responsibility increases during these six years.

# INNOVATION IN IN-SCHOOL EXPERIENCE IN AUSTRALIAN TEACHER EDUCATION

Cliff Turney

Dawn Thew

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The objectives of this paper are three-fold —

1. to provide some general perspectives on the evolution of the practicum in teacher education;
2. to highlight some of the basic issues currently surrounding the optimum operation of the practicum; and
3. to cite instances of how some Australian teacher educators are attempting to grapple with these questions.

I.

## **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE PRACTICUM**

The place of student practice teaching in the systematic preparation of teachers in Australia has passed (and is still passing) through four interlocking phases. Practical experience in teaching has moved from being the dominant feature of teacher training; to being a rather low-valued activity; to being, as it is today, an increasingly high-valued, focal point of professional teacher education.

### **Phase 1. Monitorial System 1800-1850**

Under this system elder school pupils were required to teach small groups of younger children after being given simple directions concerning the content of a lesson and the mechanics of teaching it. Poorly educated themselves, monitors learned to teach predominantly through observation and practice. They taught as they were taught, generally very badly.

### **Phase 2. Pupil-Teacher System 1850-1900**

The inadequacies of the monitorial system were soon realized. It was acknowledged that beginning teachers needed greater personal maturity, more knowledge than they were required to teach, and a more thorough grasp of the art of teaching. The pupil-teacher system hoped to meet these deficiencies. Under this system students who had completed primary schooling were apprenticed, on small salary, to experienced and competent teachers for a period of four years.

During school hours they taught classes and were supervised by the schoolmaster. After school they received instruction from the master for up to two hours (plus homework) on the subjects of the curriculum and on the principles and practices of teaching.

Eventually, a short period of full-time study at a normal school or training college was made available to the most promising pupil teachers upon the completion of their apprenticeship. This course extended and strengthened their general and professional education given during the apprenticeship.

### Phase 3. Training College System 1900-1960

The shortcomings of the pupil-teacher system were extensively criticized at the turn of the century. The system placed great physical strain on the apprentice. Young pupil-teachers often 'lacked firmness and tact' in dealing with pupils of almost their own age. The extension of the primary school curriculum and the introduction of secondary education demanded greater knowledge and wisdom of teachers. The history and theory of teaching were also seen to be of increasing importance.

So the apprenticeship component was lopped, and the college course was extended to two years full-time study of the theory, content and processes of education. Few people stopped to regret the denigration of school practice in the training of teachers. 'Imbue teachers with principles' it was said, 'and the practices will look after themselves'.

During the college course, students were placed in schools for several brief periods of block practice. In these periods they were required to give 'criticism lessons' before college staff and often other students. Sometimes their teaching performance was evaluated by an inspector of schools, as was customary in England.

'These dreaded periods of school practice', one student wrote earlier this century, 'loomed like an uneasy shadow at the back of our minds. It meant a period of very hard work, long hours, early rising, and much anxiety about whether you would be able to satisfy college tutors, teachers and the children and whether you would secure a reasonable teaching mark. We had little real knowledge of teaching and less real understanding of pupils. In the eyes of many teachers we were intruders and time-wasters. . . . It was sink or swim! That many survived was more tribute to our own endurance and ingenuity than to the help the college provided.'

Some colleges did, however, provide students with a few brief homilies or sermons before the fire of practice teaching. For example, over 70 years ago some of the written instructions students received on maintaining discipline were:

'Your relations with the class should be pleasant and kindly, yet firm and authoritative. Do not be lax in your dealings with the class on the first day in the hope of strengthening the discipline later. Remember that you are strangers to the children and that the first step is to establish your authority. As you and the children get to know each other, the relations may become gentler and more familiar, and the government freer. It is easier to relax than to tighten the reins of discipline.'

Though such vague statements were of little help, some advice was eminently wise. For instance:

'Do not be continually finding fault. The eye is a better instrument of discipline than the tongue, and less likely to get out of control.'

### Phase 4. Reconstruction 1960-

During the last decade the levels of general and professional education provided by teachers' colleges have begun to reach towards the standard of a bachelor's degree. At the same time there has been an increasing endeavour to recapture the importance, continuity and integration with professional learning which characterized practice teaching under the pupil-teacher system. This concern is evidenced in such innovations as continuous practice, master teacher arrangements, internships, school-based programs, and the changing role of special co-operating schools.

Awareness that many past college practicum patterns were misguided and inadequate arose from knowledge that principles alone are not enough; that practice is important; and that integration of both is critical. We now realize that if beginning



teachers fail to find ways of translating theory into practice the chances are they fall back into the established ways of the system – to follow worn paths which, for many older teachers, have unfortunately become ruts.

Evidence of the growing concern of teacher educators for improving the practicum is provided by our study of innovation in teacher preparation.

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## II. INNOVATION AND THE PRACTICUM

Much of what we will say today has emerged from this study which is sponsored by the Commission on Advanced Education. The project has four main related parts:

1. an overview of research, development and innovation in teacher education overseas;
2. a survey of innovation in Australian teacher preparation;
3. detailed case studies of selected significant innovations; and
4. recommendations for future lines of development.

So far, the survey in part 2 has resulted in the following statistics:

1. The response to an initial inquiry to program directors was excellent. Seventy-one of 77 program directors replied.
2. These replies revealed a total of some 700 innovations of varying size and complexity, significance and originality.
3. The gathering of detailed survey information on each of these innovations is in progress and has resulted, so far, in 250 responses.
4. Of particular relevance to us today is the fact that of 700 innovations, some 100 (or about 14%) are connected in some way with the in-school experience area. To date we have received information on only 46 practicum projects.

In order to provide an organizational framework for the consideration of a selected range of practicum innovations, we have raised what we consider twenty basic questions about in-school experience [see Appendix]. We obviously do not have time to treat all of these questions or to treat even some of them adequately. The issues we have asterisked seem to be attracting very little thought and action. The questions that are double asterisked seem both neglected and of crucial importance.

In discussing some of these questions we must stress we are making somewhat tentative comments based largely on survey data which is still very much incomplete.

### Question 1

It seems rather astonishing that very few, if any, Australian teacher-education institutions have constructed, made known, and consistently applied a comprehensive, meaningful and realistically attainable range of objectives specific to student teaching practice. Much more deliberation needs to be given to the knowledge, skills and attitudes that might well be developed in students through the practicum.

There are, however, a number of interesting moves in the right direction. For example:

1. In the last few years teacher educators have given increasing attention to defining the broad and distinctive aims of their total programs from which more specific practicum objectives could flow. In fact, some programs have already followed through into the practicum some of their dominant aims. For instance, at the Sydney Nursery School Teachers' College the aim of promoting knowledge

and skill in cooperative curriculum development is held to be important. Consequently in the practicum several students drawn from various years of the course ('cross-age grouping') are allocated to pre-school classes, and a feature of their work is involvement in jointly developing interest or learning centres comprising curriculum materials of various kinds to focus and facilitate children's learning. Similarly, the Sydney University's Dip.Ed. program is identified with the idea of innovative teaching and, accordingly, students are encouraged to carry out small-scale action research projects on problems of teaching and learning identified during in-school experience.

2. Microteaching has led to the clearer specification of basic teaching behaviour thought worthwhile for students to develop. In many cases these are being pursued into practice teaching through the use of feedback instruments listing such behaviours and by acquainting supervisors with the skills.

3. Not unassociated with microteaching is the growing interest in competency-based teacher education. This has two main aspects: (i) the analysis of teaching into a range of competencies (knowledge and behaviours) which are believed necessary for student teachers to attain, and (ii) learning modules to facilitate and evaluate student progress in the development of the specified competencies. These modules permit individualization, are applicable to all components of the program, integrate theoretical and practical considerations, and have implications for what students should try to achieve in classrooms. Currently Macquarie University is planning to make competency-based approaches a feature of its teacher education program.

### Question 18

Just as there appears to be a lack of concern for the objectives of the practicum there is little systematic attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of it. Of course, any attempt to evaluate the practicum must wait on the specification of objectives and establishment of criteria for appraising their attainment. When one considers the substantial cost of conducting the practicum in terms of supervision fees and staff time, it is almost scandalous that we do not yet know if it is achieving worthwhile objectives.

As far as can be ascertained, only one institution, Sturt CAE, is attempting to evaluate the short-term and long-term effects (as perceived by students) of school experience.

### Question 3

The question of attempting to integrate the experiences of the practicum with other components of the teacher education program is occupying the attention of a number of institutions and a variety of approaches is being devised. Two examples will suffice here:

1. In the Dip.Ed. program at Sydney University we try to integrate the theory and the practice of teaching through a core course, 'Foundations of Teaching'. Conducted in small student groups by all curriculum and education staff, the course runs concurrently with practice teaching and tries to bring research and theory (drawn from the various educational disciplines) to the analysis of modelled or simulated teaching situations and problems drawn directly from students' in-school experience. Running parallel to the course seminars is a staff seminar-workshop in which staff discuss, develop and refine learning modules or units on various aspects of the teacher's work. Each module has a common format setting out its objectives, basic research and theory, practical implications, media resources and readings. Though the 'Background to Teaching' course is flexible in its specific structure so it can focus on issues and problems arising from practice teaching, its general pattern moves in 'expanding environments' (from teaching and learning

in classrooms, to say staff curriculum development, to broad school-community and system questions).

2. One of the most exciting recent approaches to integrating theory and practice is the so-called field-based or school-based teacher-education program. Currently there is a growing number of pilot studies in Australia which typically provide for a small number of students and sometimes are limited to one curriculum area or a part of a total program. For example, there are school-based programs at SCV Rusden, SCV Hawthorn, SCV Melbourne, WA Secondary Teachers' College, Melbourne University and Queensland University.

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These school-based endeavours subscribe with varying degrees of adherence to some or all of the following five characteristics:

(i) The program, or the majority of it, is pursued by a group of students in school locations.

(ii) Practice teaching is conducted concurrently with other course components.

(iii) There is a close and continuous relationship between practice teaching and work in education and curriculum courses.

(iv) Both school and college staff (and indeed students where possible) are cooperatively involved in planning, organizing, conducting, supervising and evaluating both the theoretical and practical components of the professional program.

(v) College and school staff (and students) are cooperatively involved in teaching children, in action research and curriculum development to improve the quality of teaching, and even in activities related to the community.

The reaction, so far, of persons involved in these programs has been very favourable: Students comment on the reality, relevance and stimulation of such courses; college staff speak of their increased professional credibility in the eyes of students and of the salutary challenge of translating ideas into practice; school staff remark on their increased professional knowledge and skill, on a lift in morale, and on a keener awareness of their own and students' professional needs.

As promising as the school-based movement is, it needs careful evaluation in terms of its objectives and cost-effectiveness studies of its implementation.

### Question 9

Given that students' work in the practicum should be supervised, few teacher educators seem to be seriously considering the roles of the supervisor and ways of preparing personnel to effectively play these roles. Some institutions (e.g. Sturt CAE) attempt to state clearly in a Handbook the differing supervisory roles of college and school staff; other institutions have regular meetings with supervisors (e.g. Macquarie University's master teacher program); a few institutions (e.g. B.Ed. program at Sydney University) have attempted to involve supervisors in aspects of the program having particular relevance to the practicum. Only one institution, James Cook University, is carefully examining the effectiveness of specially preparing supervisors: Hawkins is investigating the effects of training supervisors in teaching skills on the practice teaching performance of students.

Much more thought needs to be given to preparing supervisors. Should they be identified with the objectives of the practicum? — if so, how is this to be achieved? Should they be able to model and advise on teaching behaviours? — if so, how can they develop such competencies? Should they be sensitive student counsellors? and so on.

### Questions 11 and 12

These questions concern ways in which students can be effectively prepared for the practicum at the college and phased into teaching responsibilities within the

practicum itself.

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Probably the most important recent movement for preparing students on-campus for practicum (either before it and/or concurrently with it) has been the consideration in theoretical and practical terms of canned and simulated school experiences. The movement has two main divisions:

1. **Modelling.** Quite a number of institutions have a course in their programs concerned with the theoretical analysis of models of specific teaching behaviours (mediated through audiovisual programs and handbooks). The analysis of the modelled behaviours is generally followed initially by their application by students in microteaching, then in macroteaching in ordinary classrooms. The most influential project in this area is the Teaching Skills Development Project of Sydney University which since 1972, supported by funds from the AACRDE, has been developing courses on specific teaching skills. These courses have been widely applied, adapted and supplemented in many programs.

2. **Simulation.** Various forms of simulations of teaching are also being commonly employed and a number of institutions are developing distinctively Australian materials. For example:

a) At Newcastle CAE Telfer and Rees have recently developed a book called **Teacher Tactics** which comprises case-study material and an array of described critical incidents concerning education in the mythical schools of Illoura. These incidents are grouped into those concerned with teacher-pupil relationships, teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator relationships, and teacher-community relationships.

b) At Townsville CAE Gallagher and Marland have developed an excellent range of paper mediated simulations connected with the so-called Vale School.

c) At Sydney University, as part of the Inner City Education Project funded by the Schools Commission, Turney et al. are developing a multi-media collection of simulations for an Inner-City Simulation Laboratory. This developmental activity is based on research into the problems and concerns of children, teachers and parents of inner-urban schools.

d) At Canberra CAE Hughes and Traill have developed a major simulation program touching each year of their courses. It involves about 50 staff and 1,000 students. The wealth of materials used are (i) commercially produced kits, both modified and unmodified; and (ii) resources developed by groups within the institution.

## Question 12

The idea of placing students into full-scale teaching responsibilities, the so-called 'gradualistic approach', is receiving the attention of a few institutions. The idea is, of course, by no means new. It was the feature of what were termed 'participation programs' in the United States during the 1930s. Examples of several short-term and long-term approaches to this question are as follows:

1. In Sydney University's one-year post-graduate Dip.Ed. program, the first term of continuous practice is given over to students working initially with individual pupils, then with small groups, with campus course-work especially relevant to these contexts. Students move into full class and multi-group teaching in second term according to their readiness.

2. In the field experience program at Sturt CAE there is a progressive build up of time and expectation. First-year students work for several weeks as a teacher aide, have informal teaching and observation experiences, and carry out in-school practical activities required by curriculum studies. In second year students spend

three weeks in schools and are required to demonstrate the beginnings of competence in planning, organizing, providing, supervising and evaluating learning experiences of children in both small and large groups. In third year students spend nine weeks in schools and are required to display increased competency in handling learning experiences over both short and extended periods, the capacity to work with other teachers, and the possession of a suitable and sufficient store of resource materials.

### Question 13

It is educational common-sense that not only should student involvement in the practicum be carefully prepared and concurrently supported, but it should also be systematically followed-up. This idea has been basic to a number of Australian developments. For example:

1. **Post-practice remedial microteaching**, tailored to the needs of individual students, has been successfully introduced in a number of institutions, particularly in the Dip.Ed. program of the University of Sydney.
2. **Further remedial classroom practice and counselling** in specially selected school contexts, supervised by skilled and sensitive staff, is employed in a few programs. This practice focusses on clear, mutually agreed areas of student deficiency.
3. **Sturt CAE has developed an 'Issues in Teaching' course** which is directly based on student-perceived concerns and problems arising from practice teaching. In third year, after a nine week period of block practice, students communicate their needs in curriculum method and content and in teaching. This information provides the basis for construction of a four-week course which involves student groups in planning projects, and attending lectures and workshops by resource people, and in student initiated seminars.

### Question 19

This question is particularly relevant to programs which realize the potential of the school context for both improving teacher education and the education of children. Schools can be very important laboratories in which teacher education institutions can productively carry out research and development on teacher preparation and on learning, teaching and curriculum.

Traditionally Australian teachers' colleges have been associated with model and later demonstration schools in which the latest and best teaching procedures were thought to be exemplified. Over the last decade many demonstration schools have ceased to have special functions as teacher education institutions have become disenchanted with their worth. At the same time a few institutions have developed new relationships for achieving new objectives with one or a number of schools.

1. For example, **Salisbury CAE has an on-campus laboratory secondary school and an off-campus laboratory primary school**. These schools provide settings which facilitate such activities as student observations, microteaching and remedial practice teaching, and investigations of teaching and curriculum. A feature of the scheme is cross-institution staff appointments. The College has appointed seven lecturer-teachers and the SA Department of Education five teacher-tutors to the laboratory schools. The lecturer-teachers spend half-time in college and half in schools. They conduct specific curriculum courses in cooperation with teacher-tutors, teach in the school, and advise school on course planning. The teacher-tutors are released from some of their teaching duties to participate in curriculum courses, work with lecturers and students in planning, demonstrating and teaching lessons in connection with these courses, provide counselling and assistance to students having special teaching difficulties, and supervise microteaching.

2. Sydney University is developing a special relationship with North Sydney Demonstration School. The future functions of the school, as conceived by a joint planning committee of representatives of school and university, are as follows:

a) **Student Practice Teaching.** Besides providing conventional practice teaching opportunities, an important focus would be the implementation and evaluation of innovative approaches to in-school experience. For example, pilot schemes could be introduced in such areas as gradualistic induction to teaching, counselling and supporting students encountering major problems with teaching, competency-based practice, and school-based teacher education.

b) **Microteaching.** The development and refinement of microteaching techniques would be a continuing function. This work will range from the development of videotaped modelling materials to piloting new modes of practice and feedback.

c) **Systematic Observations.** New approaches to observation and demonstration will be trialled. This work will involve close collaboration between school and university staff in both planning, executing and evaluating the programmes.

d) **Research and Development on Teaching, Learning, and Curriculum.** Working jointly, and sometimes independently, school and university staff will be concerned with generating new ideas and approaches to teaching and learning and with evaluating new ideas and approaches. An important aspect of this work will be cooperative curriculum development, especially with regard to construction and evaluation of curriculum resources. Where appropriate, both students and parents might become involved in this innovatory activity.

e) **Cooperative Staffing and Shared Resources.** Where feasible and appropriate, school staff will participate with university staff in seminars/workshops on teaching and curriculum. Similarly, university staff might become cooperatively involved in teaching within the school. Such arrangements will promote the exchange of ideas and integration of theory and practice. When required university staff will provide advisory and support services to various aspects of the school's work.

Also the material resources of school and university department will be shared, where necessary, for the advancement of the cooperative enterprise and other educational concerns.

f) **In-service Education Activities.** School and university staff will collaborate in providing in-service courses for teachers from other schools. Here again, approaches will be innovative and will be appraised accordingly. The in-service activity will seek both to promote educational improvement and disseminate ideas and practices emerging from the cooperative program.

g) **Communication and Dissemination.** A vital activity within the cooperative program will be communication, and both formal and informal channels need to be clearly established. Communication will be of two kinds: (i) horizontal, whereby ideas and information are transmitted between school and university staff, and (ii) vertical, whereby information flows to parents, the community, administrative authorities and, importantly, to other teachers and schools. This last concern will probably involve such devices as a liaison officer, visitation days, newsletters, and conferences.

h) **Exploration of School-University Cooperation.** In pursuing the foregoing functions, models of inter-institution cooperation for the improvement of teacher-education and the advancement of education in general will be progressively investigated and developed.

## Question 20

This is a question of great significance. What happens to the beginning teacher during the first months of his full-time appointment is likely to influence strongly his future career. Beset with problems and pressures in classroom and school, it is then that novice teachers need assistance, support and guidance.

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There are several interesting developments in this regard:

1. The fourth year of the **Flinders University** B.Ed. primary program features an **internship** which endeavours to bridge the gap between student teaching and teacherdom. Students are appointed on a full-time, full-salaried basis to Adelaide schools and during the year receive supervision and guidance from (i) senior school staff, (ii) visiting university lecturers, and (iii) teaching advisors. The latter are skilled teachers of deputy-headmaster status seconded from the Department of Education. Each advisor is allocated a group of fourteen interns and spends an average of half-a-day a fortnight per term per intern (with a concentration on term 1).

Interns also pursue two courses during the year:

(a) In the first half-year they undertake a course 'Problems of Educational Practice', which tries to relate educational theory to problems students are encountering in their internship experience. This involves them in 3 x 2 hours after-school seminars, 1 x 1 day conference, and 1 x 2½ day conference. In addition, they prepare three assignments which explore problems of teaching and learning.

(b) In the second half-year interns pursue one elected curriculum course which makes an in-depth study of a primary curriculum area. Their course loading is only slightly lighter than that of the previous half-year.

2. In the **Western Metropolitan Directorate of Education in NSW**, Gordon Findlayson has pioneered an in-school support, in-service education program for beginning teachers. The program has two components: (i) workshops, seminars in individual schools, and (ii) residential, three-day courses each for forty teachers. The program cuts across curriculum areas and focusses on teaching skills and the development of understanding of children and their learning, of teachers and society.

[Questions 6, 7, 11, 13, 14, and 15 to be treated by Dawn Thew.]

**Background Information on the  
School-based Dip. Ed., University of Melbourne**

**Ms G. Dow, University of Melbourne**

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**I. Background to the Course.**

**(a) Origins.**

The Course (known as Course B) began in 1973 with 23 students. In 1974 the numbers rose to 50 and in 1975 to 53. Students are volunteers, chosen on no special criteria except an attempt to balance pass and honours graduates, men and women, and teaching methods.

The course was initially funded by the Australian Advisory Council on Research and Development in Education, and by the New Developments Fund of the University of Melbourne, which provided a senior lecturer and a lecturer for three years.

It was planned to be experimental in the following ways:

- (i) to relate theory and practice by providing continuous teaching practice and relating University study to the problems experienced in teaching
- (ii) to provide the opportunity for each student to discover a style of teaching that best suited her/him
- (iii) to encourage reflection on the students' past education, a strengthening of their undergraduate studies and an examination of the teachability of their various subject specialisms in secondary schools
- (iv) to break across the subject boundaries in curriculum planning and team teaching in schools so that students could obtain some practical and theoretical training for the sort of curriculum planning they often have to undertake early in their teaching life
- (v) to encourage reflection on and analysis of teaching experiences throughout the year
- (vi) to introduce and arouse interest in educational thought and research
- (vii) to establish a partnership in every way possible between teachers in schools and in the University
- (viii) to encourage as much self-direction and autonomy in students as possible
- (ix) to test the belief that graduates in a professional course are capable, under guidance, of self-evaluation and would benefit from it: that competitive assessment is unnecessary as motivation in such a course
- (x) to provide a workshop in participatory education as a basis for students to consider the feasibility and desirability of pupil participation at an earlier age.

**(b) Its autonomy.**

Faculty regulations had to be passed to allow the Course to break free from the examining pattern in the traditional Course.

**(c) Accountability.**

Internal and independent ongoing evaluation of the Course for reporting to the A.A.C.R.D.E., the University and Faculty.



## **II. Specific Data.** should you want to refer to it.

### **(a) Outline of Course**

#### **(i) Programme**

Minimum of two days per week in school practice (mainly one school). One methods seminar weekly in each of two teaching subjects (methods available: science, maths, English, history, social studies, geography, modern languages, economics — we have at other times offered music, and guidance).

Curriculum Studies once a week for groups across teaching subjects.

#### **(ii) Organization**

**Students:** 53 students divided into two groups for Curriculum Studies

**Schools:** Eleven schools — five high schools, one technical school, four small community schools, two independent schools.

**Policy Committees:** Schools Committee consisting of a representative from each practice school, the Course's University staff and student representatives. It deliberates on policy and on the effectiveness of school practice.

Professional Studies Committee of the University which deliberates on all first-year courses. Methods Staff deliberating on methods programmes. Centre for the Study of Higher Education (University of Melbourne) independently evaluating the Course.

#### **(iii) Teaching staff at University 1975:**

Director (part-time), lecturer in history method and Curriculum Studies.

Assistant Director (full-time), lecturer in English method and Curriculum Studies.

Lecturer (part-time) in philosophy part of Curriculum Studies team.

Lecturer (part-time) in method of social studies and Curriculum Studies.

Lecturer (part-time) in psychology, part of Curriculum Studies team.

Senior Lecturer (part-time) in history and comparative education, part of Curriculum Studies team.

Temporary Lecturer (part-time) in sociology, contributes to Curriculum Studies.

**Note:** All but the last lecturer visit schools.

#### **Part-time staff seconded from schools 1975:**

Lecturers in methods of economics, modern languages, geography, maths.

#### **(iv) Course Requirements for Students.**

School practice, attendance at relevant University courses, preparation of seminar papers, assignments in methods work, and a depth study for the year of the student's own devising in consultation with a member of staff who is also the student's supervisor. It is regarded as mini-research, preferably relating theory and practice, but is essentially independent work. Personal diaries (requested but not required) recording important experiences and any turning points. Work diaries of lessons observed and taught.

**ABSTRACT: Features of the Course to be Discussed.**

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**1. A discipline-based or an interdisciplinary course?**

Have these terms much meaning in our experience – consider, for example, the increasing emphasis that experience has led us to place on the importance of methods (albeit some are interdisciplinary methods, like social studies)?

**2. A structured or unstructured course?**

The traps we fell into by failing to clarify our interpretation of this bit of educational jargon. The pulls on the staff resulting from its necessity to justify itself to the rest of the Department.

**3. Group Learning.**

The course, from the beginning, was structured to provide individual and group support to students; but quite unexpected and unplanned groupings emerged that proved to be as important as, or more important than, those that had been planned.

**4. Evaluation of students' work and students' evaluation of the course.**

Reporting on school practice	)	the ethics of confidential reporting;
Evaluation of written and field studies	)	the educative importance of parti-
	)	cipatory evaluation.

Students' responsibility to attend University courses or negotiate alternative activities.

**5. Independent evaluation of the experiment.**

Evidence and guidance provided by the evaluators (cited in discussion under previous headings). Their difficulties and unintended effect on the experiment. Some of their methods.

## THE MURDOCH TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME

By Dr Colin J. Marsh,  
Senior Lecturer,  
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"Performance based", "field centred", "community oriented", are just some of the many catchwords that are touted in educational circles to describe innovative practices in teacher education. But are major changes really occurring? Are we moving away from the innumerable combinations of a little professional education, some professional background and some personal education? In the words of B. Othanel Smith, are any of these recently heralded moves much more than a basic liberal arts programme covered over with a thin veneer of pedagogy?<sup>1</sup>

Like many other teacher education institutions, we at Murdoch, have developed an individual pre-service teacher education, incorporating its own specific emphases and thrusts. The program is by no means complete, rather it is still evolving and its rationale is based upon informed hunches rather than supportive evidence. Despite all this, we are confident that the formula being adopted is viable and that the programme merits attention, along with a number of other alternatives that are currently being publicised in educational articles and texts.

Our overall objective is to develop professional educators who will be capable of guiding learning and have the flexibility to operate in a variety of learning situations. Such persons in our opinion, require a wide general education; special competencies in a chosen area of work; expertise in curriculum development and implementation; and a professional style and ethic. One might well ask whether this constitutes anything different to the three major emphases of teacher education mentioned above and which have been the bulwark of so many teacher education systems. Yet the Murdoch system in operation does represent something different, especially with regard to its emphases on "interrelated learning", "experiential activities", "individualization of instruction" and "informal counselling". These aspects we feel are particularly relevant in the development of professional educators.

### Interrelated Learning

Hilliard comments on "the welcome reaction away from the 'mush' of 'Principles of Education' towards a more precise demarcation of educational studies into distinct areas of philosophy, psychology, history and sociology of education".<sup>2</sup>

This may indeed be a welcome move so long as these studies do not themselves become self fulfilling and that the focus on education as a totality is not eclipsed. At Murdoch, we tend to look upon history, philosophy and sociology of education collectively, as the "context" strand of the teacher education program because they provide students with valuable information about the external forces impinging upon the school, pupils and teachers. It is these social, cultural and historical

factors that affect the whole educational enterprise and consequently warrant closer attention. But these contextual factors must be considered along with internal "process" and "curriculum" emphases. Given a particular cultural backdrop, various processes of learning will occur. The types of learning involved and the stimulating and retarding influences are of great concern to educationalists. Given specific contextual and process elements, a limited number of curriculum activities can occur in terms of the formulation and implementation of classroom activities.

We have made deliberate attempts to interrelate the three strands of context, process and curriculum in the programme via special integrated studies courses together with numerous team teaching and joint sessions and seminars and tutorials. Students are encouraged to adopt, and are indeed achieving, some facility with this interrelated approach.

### **Experiential Activities**

The experiential component has a major influence on the programme. Student exercises are not confined to lengthy stays in the semantic stratosphere<sup>3</sup> – rather, the emphasis is on student topics which require on-going research in the local community and schools. For example, specific community expectations about schools are ascertained by local surveys, visiting speakers and panel discussions.

Students are not encouraged to study psychologists and their theories in isolation. What better way to study Piaget than to use some of his cognitive development tests with groups of school children of varying age levels? Students may obtain very biased and incomplete empirical data about Piagetian concepts, yet their memories of young children grappling with the concept of conservation may remain long after they have forgotten numerous theoretical accounts on the subject.

The curriculum strand, even more so than the context and process elements of the programme, is firmly embedded in experiential activities. Theoretical discussions on classroom planning and teaching-learning techniques are rarely seized upon by students as being remotely relevant unless they have the opportunity to verify them in the classroom situation. For them, the classroom is the testing laboratory. All curriculum study activities from instructional models to specific questioning strategies are anathema to them unless there is the opportunity to experiment and practise in real schools and with real children.

### **Individualization of Instruction**

No longer can we utilize a common mould in teacher education to produce the standard teacher. The analogy of the multiplicity of models in the motor vehicle industry, including custom built and limited production versions has considerable relevance to present day needs in teacher education. The modern teacher is being called upon to fill an ever widening variety of roles.<sup>4</sup> He or she has to not only have an insatiable appetite in a number of areas, but in addition, considerable expertise in one or more.

Consequently, teacher education institutions can no longer be content with providing a narrow range of subjects nor an encyclopaedic range of goodies at a superficial level. It seems more useful to provide a small number of general areas of common interest together with a large number of specific, individual study options.

The graduating students may indeed follow the full gamut of the motor vehicle range, from deluxe models with performance options to the standard, somewhat gauche versions. Here the analogy should end, because we are, after all, dealing in teacher education institutions with real, unique individuals, rather than production units, even though we may ascribe all sorts of personal attributes to our normal mode of transport!

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Be that as it may, we are taking the individualization of instruction very seriously at Murdoch, and to this end, we have produced a number of self-instructional material packages (S.I.M's) encompassing a variety of topics and activities. These individual study packages contain multi-media software, in addition to selected written articles, passages and observation schedules. Topics range from classroom discipline to simulation games, and varying widely in format and presentation. However, it was considered that a fundamental component in all S.I.M's. should be a theoretical aspect and a related practical activity.

In addition to the S.I.M's, which have been included with many of the teacher education courses, students are encouraged to undertake up to two independent studies. A staff member and a student agree upon a topic of common interest, a study contract is drawn up and the student can then dig in as deep as he/she considers desirable. Topics to date have included the general and the specific, the classroom oriented and the abstract, as exemplified by such titles as "Staff acceptance of innovatory methods in open area schools" and "curriculum development and the geography syllabus".

In the curriculum courses, the emphasis is squarely upon individual growth. All students are encouraged to search out and attain some degree of congruency between their educational beliefs and their actual or intended teaching practices. This can only be achieved through intensive discussions in which students think through their educational values and attitudes. Specific curriculum models from Skinner to Rogers are analyzed in some detail, so that each student has an opportunity to build up his own unique approach to teaching and learning.

### **Informal Counselling**

The counselling needed with students cannot and should not be confined to those sessions which staff members on campus can provide. Undoubtedly, the lynch pin of the Murdoch teacher education programme has been the "*tutor-supervisor*" complete with mobile laboratory (caravan).<sup>5</sup> It is these personnel who have really provided on the spot, individualized assistance to students.

The tutor-supervisors are practising teachers who have been selected from the schools for short term appointments of two to three years. They were selected not only for their experiences in a wide range of teaching situations but their ability to counsel, empathise and relate with student teachers and school staffs.

Their responsibilities are largely confined to specific schools where they spend three days per week on site with student teachers. Each tutor-supervisor has a specially equipped caravan located at his assigned school. This vehicle, born out of expediency (resultant of overcrowded school staff rooms) has proved to be a very versatile facility. It serves many functions, including an office for the tutor-supervisor, a preparation and study room, lunch room, seminar and small group discussion room, as well as a "*retreat*" for school staff members and even the Principal!

It is the tutor-supervisor who bridges the theory-practice gap. During the one day per week on campus, he discovers the activities that students are currently involved in and which require practical follow-ups in the school. It is his lot to facilitate the integration of the three education components of context, process and curriculum referred to above.

But it is the informal, trusting relationship that tutor-supervisors build up with students that is the lasting feature of their role in the teacher education programme. The tutor-supervisor consults with each individual student as to the type of school experiences required. Class teacher strengths are selected and utilized by the tutor-supervisor as he sees fit, rather than students being subjected to the whims of the classroom teacher who sometimes turns out to be the conservative arch-dictator! Thankfully, the caravan provides a withdrawal area for the tutor-supervisor and student to discuss issues at length and away from the prying eyes and ears of other staffroom members.

This has been a very brief sketch of the Murdoch teacher education programme as seen by a very biased observer! We feel that our emphases on interrelated learning, experiential activities, individualization of instruction and informal counselling are receiving positive reactions from students and that our hunches about the goals of teacher education may be on the right track. Needless to say, we are painfully aware of our shortcomings and deficiencies and in particular, the blunders we have made during our first semester of operation. But, we believe in the formula that we have adopted. Only time will tell whether our perceptions of the needs of teacher education students have been appropriate or not.

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## SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION : WHAT? WHY?

Kevin Murray — S.C.V. Hawthorn

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“But now I have been ‘on the carpet’. Summoned to the headmaster’s study I find both Mr. Curle and Miss Prynne looking grave. Miss Prynne is pursing her lips and puffing through them, as though she is about to blow a valve. I am transported back in time to naughty boy occasions from my schooldays. A strong connecting link is the wish I have now, and always had then, that I knew which of my many crimes has been detected. Black marks? — Homework? — Discipline in 2B? In fact it is a total surprise. Emotion seems to have blasted Mr. Curle’s syntax, so it is with difficulty that I sort out the story. Some parent in an anonymous phone call to Miss Prynne has accused me of recommending all my third-year pupils to have sexual intercourse before the age of twenty-one.

I stoutly deny the charge, but admit to having held a discussion with 3A about sex before marriage. Miss Prynne gulps with amazement and then puffs on. She remains silent, however, and leaves me shadow boxing with the strange shattered brilliance of Mr. Curle’s mind.

‘It’s too early in your, you, perhaps you lack the, it needs experience to tackle such a subject.’

‘I didn’t tackle it exactly. They brought it up and wanted to talk about it.’

‘Well, subjects, I think it would be, subjects like this really come under my “Education for Adult Life” course.’ (Two lessons in the first year to show them that rabbits do it; two lessons in the fourth year to hint that some married, Christian, adult humans do it too; two lessons in the sixth year for any questions.)

‘But they wanted to talk about it now, not the January after next. I do feel it is important, Mr. Curle, to take these matters as they arise naturally for the children.’

‘Oh, I quite agree, but it takes a lot of know-how to guide a discussion of that kind.’

‘A guided discussion is not a discussion. I can’t decide their conclusions before we start.’

‘Of course, of course, I’m with you all the way there, but sooner, or, sometime, sooner or later they will turn round and ask you what you think about it.’

‘They did.’ (Double gulp from Prynne.)

‘And what did you do?’

‘I told them. What else can one do?’ ” (14, p.100)



In many respects this incident in Nicholas Otty's probationary year of teaching in England crystallises the problems of the beginning teacher anywhere — a sociological stranger in the classroom, marginal man in the staffroom, low in self-concept and alternately enthusiastic or shattered.

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Can teacher education programmes really assist in the professional development and socialization of 'learner teachers'?

To some extent the answer lies in how we define and perform our role as teacher educators. If learning is conceived as change, because of experience, in the student's way of thinking, feeling and acting then

"Education may be regarded as a system of learning experiences that brings about desirable changes in students." (6, p.410)

Inevitably then teacher education is, at least in part, concerned with changes in the attitudes and behaviour of beginning teachers. The question of what are considered to be "desirable changes" is of course a matter of personal value orientation. The range of values underpinning various teacher education programmes is dramatically exemplified by such diverse approaches as competency - based teacher education and courses based on third-force theory.

Common to these extreme approaches and all those that fall between them is an attempt to influence the attitudes and eventually the teaching behaviours of our students. In some instances, changes of a specific nature and in a pre-determined direction are sought, e.g. the attempt to influence the student teacher's verbal behaviour by the application of interaction analysis techniques. In other cases the student teacher is encouraged and supported to adopt and develop the model of the teacher he sees as most appropriate for him.

Given then that some degree of influence is attempted, just how successful are we? A review of the literature provides inconclusive evidence.

McAulay's (12) 1960 research suggested that the co-operating teacher in the school was the major influence on the student's teaching behaviour. However, weaknesses of his research design and especially the small sample involved make it hazardous to generalise from this study. However, support for the influence of the co-operating teacher is available from Price (16) and more recently from Harrison (5). The latter's research is particularly interesting. He administered Kerlinger's (7) Education Scale VI three different times during the professional semester to each of 57 seniors in elementary education and 120 in secondary education at Kansas State College of Pittsburg. It was also administered to each of their 7 college supervisors and their 177 co-operating teachers. His findings reveal that co-operating teachers are only one factor influencing the direction of attitudinal changes —

.... "in every instance during the professional semester the educational attitudes of the students changed in the direction of the teacher who happened to be supervising them at a given time: during the period of instruction in professional education courses, in the direction of those held by their college supervisors; and during the period of student teaching, in the direction of their co-operating teachers" (5, p.361)

These results lead inevitably to the question of what factors are significant in determining the extent of the influence exerted by either co-operating teacher or professional teacher educator. It is hypothesised that personal credibility may be an important variable operating.

Very recent research by Sigall and Helmreich (17), McGinnies (13) and in 1974 by Cooper, Darley and Henderson (3) has all pointed to the importance of source and communicator credibility in both the extent and direction of attitude change. While such findings still remain to be applied to the field of teacher education they do suggest that credibility is a very important factor in attitude change and there is no reason to suspect why this would not apply to teacher education.

This is not to imply that specific teaching behaviours will arise congruently with particular attitudes. After La Piere (9) such an assumption would be rather hazardous. Nevertheless, as

"attitudes represent a major determinant of the individual's orientation toward his social and physical environment, including himself" (10, p.108)

the problem of understanding attitude formation and change and also the relationship between attitudes and behaviour is of great significance to the teacher educator.

Along with credibility, it is also hypothesised that visibility and accessibility are important in the degree of influence exerted by a teacher educator. There are no doubt many ways of developing teacher education programmes which provide almost immediate, on-the-spot support "at the coal-face" from credible people. The remainder of this paper is devoted to outlining one such approach viz. the concept of school-based teacher education and how it is currently being field-tested at the S.C.V.Hawthorn.

### **The Concept of School Based Teacher Education : A Review of Examples in the U.K., U.S.A. and Australia.**

Even a brief survey of current teacher education journals indicates that amid all the discussion about the future of teacher education, at least three consistent trends are appearing, viz.

- (I) the realisation that teacher education is a career-long process;
- (II) that initial teacher preparation programmes are only one phase of this continuing education;
- (III) that school-based teacher education programmes are becoming increasingly popular, especially in the initial phase.

The thrust for stronger links between schools and teacher education institutions as well as for greater relevance in teacher preparation courses has been a common theme in journals of teacher education during the last decade.

In England, Professor R.S. Peters has been one of the strongest advocates for closer links between Universities and teachers.

"Much more attention has to be paid to methods of teaching, to the diverse motivation of students, and to the values inherent in the different subjects on the curriculum . . . . A joint approach to this sort of problem by university and school teachers should prove beneficial to both. But this sort of co-operation is only

possible if there are solid organic links between the universities, colleges of education, and the teaching profession. There have to be real opportunities for representatives of each to work together on common tasks; for are not university teachers also teachers?" (15, p.47)

The following examples serve to demonstrate how many exhortations like those of Peter's have been translated into practice. 123

Knowlson (8) has conceptualised a new and specialised role for a member of the school staff, viz. the school-based tutor.

Drawing on The White Paper "Education : A Framework for Expansion", and also on the James Report, Knowlson defines the separate functions that such a person would perform in his three major fields of responsibility, viz.

- students in initial training
- induction year teachers
- continuing teacher education

His duties might include:—

- (a) liaison with colleges and university departments;
- (b) arranging short visits by staff and students of the training institutions for particular purposes;
- (c) administration of school practice arrangements;
- (d) pastoral care of students on school practice;
- (e) assessment of the capabilities of students;
- (f) offering a programme of school-based in-service training;
- (g) arranging for induction year entrants to visit experienced teachers;
- (h) giving information and advice to individual colleagues about conference, in-service activities available.

At Bristol University there are thirty-five school-based tutors associated with the School of Education. Furthermore, Knowlson suggests that college lecturers may see the position of professional tutor as a phase of their careers, leading to more responsible positions later.

In America, a similar emphasis is being attached to the role of the school in teacher education.

Walsh (18) has argued that we ought to pay much more attention to the consumers of teacher education in the design of our courses. He describes the Off-Campus Methods Course (O.C.M.C.) developed by the University of Missouri - Saint Louis -

" . . . . . an innovation designed to make pedagogical instruction more realistic and meaningful by changing its setting from the campus lecture hall to the actual urban school . . . . emphasis is placed on giving the student many opportunities to interact with inner city teachers and their pupils as a mode of learning effective teaching". (18, p.348)

Following a pilot run of O.C.M.C. at Lagrange elementary school in Toledo, Ohio, Walsh surveyed student opinion and concluded -

"Although the pilot run just described was successful in terms of the enthusiastic response given it by students, teachers and the children themselves, the need was indicated for additional refinement of the O.C.M.C. approach". (18, p.351)

America's "Portal Schools" described in detail by Evans (4) are a further excellent and recent example.

A new approach to teaching practice was trialled at the Melbourne College of Education in 1972 for intending secondary teachers. Beeson (2) has stated that this approach was —

"... based on the acceptance of the assertion that, at least for their first few weeks of teaching, the students' main concern is whether they will cope in the teaching situation. It was hoped that the provision of maximum support for students while they were in schools, the removal of some factors which tend to increase their anxiety, the creation of opportunities to observe and take part in a wide range of school activities, and improved liaison between college and school, would make for a more satisfying school experience." (2, p.17)

There were six aspects of the experimental teaching practice which were considered important:—

1. Faculty-based orientation program.
2. Formation of school-based groups — a group consisted of sixty students and six college staff.
3. College lecturers based in schools during teaching practice.
4. Absence of formal teaching requirements; phasing of student teachers to classroom teaching.
5. Absence of assessment.
6. Participation in a wide range of school activities.

Beeson attempted to evaluate the programme by —

- (a) recording the subjective judgments of the college staff associated with the schools during teaching practice;
- (b) administering a questionnaire to the college students and school supervisors involved.

Beeson concludes —

"The new style of teaching practice was successful in meeting many of the requirements of an introductory teaching experience . . . . It is clear . . . . that the success of the new approach depends to a great extent on the presence of a college lecturer in each school for a significant amount of time . . . ." (2, p.19)

While such widely dispersed examples as those quoted here are too limited a sample on which to build workable generalisations, they do provide the basic conceptual models necessary for further field testing.

A field study of school-based teacher education is currently underway at the State College of Victoria at Hawthorn (S.C.V.H.). This College has operated a form of internship for Temporary Teachers and Student Instructors and currently maintains an enrolment in excess of twelve hundred. It is important to note that the majority of these students are already employed by the Victorian Education Department (Technical Division) on a part-time basis.

The nine school-based projects at S.C.V.H. fall into two distinct categories —

- A. The school-based college lecturer provides support for all the student teachers in a single school.
- B. Student teachers travel to a centrally-located school instead of the college for their Special Method (homogeneous groups) classes.

The basic objectives of these projects include –

1. The general improvement of the quality of the in-school experience.
2. The provision of in-school support from the college during the teaching practice programme.
3. The development of inter-institutional co-operation between the autonomous tertiary institutions and the schools.
4. The development of stronger links between the theoretical and practical elements of the teacher education programme.
5. The increased credibility and influence of the college and its staff.
6. The promotion of interaction between students of various subject areas.
7. The encouragement of integration and other alternative modes of schooling by the stress on interaction and experimentation.
8. The provision of opportunities for student-teachers to experiment with a variety of teaching styles within a diversity of classroom contexts.
9. The attempt to focus attention on the specific problems of particular schools, e.g. migrants, lack of resources, rather than develop generalised answers in College.
10. The provision of opportunities for student-teachers to take a more active role in the design, implementation and evaluation of the Special Method segment of their courses.
11. The attempt to support beginning teachers through the coping stage to a position of self-confidence and basic competence.
12. To assist the socialization of the beginning teacher into the teaching profession.

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Detailed evaluation of these programmes is currently underway by a team of independent evaluators. However, it is already possible to generalise from the subjective judgments of school-based lecturers that this new approach is at least achieving one of its objectives viz. to assist beginning teachers to cope with their early, survival concerns in their classrooms. It remains to be seen whether the perceptions of the beginning teachers match those of their lecturers.

## CONCLUSION

McArthur's 1975 (11) research into the pupil control ideology of beginning teachers strongly suggests that they are socialized into the prevailing paradigm of teaching. Despite influences to the contrary in teacher education institutions, beginning teachers become more custodial in their attitudes towards their students and less humane.

If teacher educators seriously intend their programmes to exert a lasting influence on the attitudes and teaching behaviours of their student teachers then approaches such as school-based teacher education might well be considered.

"... the minimal goal for each graduate of the undergraduate training program must be the student's belief in his ability to cope with the classroom. Unless this is accomplished before the completion of (initial) teacher training, there is not much evidence to support the hope that the teacher will develop into the best teacher he can become, since the present school situation seems oriented toward teacher survival rather than teacher growth." (1, p.308)

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**The Newcastle Model**  
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Until there is a clear idea as to what is meant by effective teaching, teacher educators will always find difficulty both in specifying detailed objectives for teacher education programmes and in devising methods of implementing them. In the last fifteen years or so, researchers have concentrated their efforts on defining the criteria by which effective teaching might be measured and on evolving valid ways of assessing their fulfilment. A multiplicity of criteria has resulted with Mitzel (1960) introducing some order to them by distinguishing those that relate to presage, process and product variables respectively.

Presage criteria consist of factors having their origins in "guessed predictors" based on cognitive, affective and other teacher characteristics such as sex and socio-economic status. Traditionally, cognitive factors have been important criteria for teaching success. There has also been strong support for the view that the real determinants of success in teaching depend on qualities of personality, character and temperament but discrepant research findings make it difficult to reach conclusions as to which of these characteristics are most important. Vernon (1953) has commented that "... teachers are as diverse in their psychological traits as any other occupational group" making it "fallacious to talk of the teaching personality as something distinct and consistent". Others, too, have seen the reliance on such a priori measures of a teacher's personality attributes as being the single most important deficiency on research on teacher effectiveness because of the idiosyncratic backgrounds of teachers and pupils, the great range of typical instructional objectives and the immense variation in the environments where teaching occurs (McNeil and Popham, 1973).

While personal attributes may be regarded as being somewhat distant from teaching behaviour it seems reasonable to assume that they interact in some way with the kind of teacher education provided to produce 'teaching styles' (Garner, 1972). Hamachek (1969), in reviewing studies of teaching effectiveness, emphasizes style of communication as being the critical variable, with effective teachers being characterized by humour, openness, warmth, ability to relate at the one to one level, spontaneity and flexibility. As well as these affective factors Gage (1965) draws attention to the cognitive aspects of teacher effectiveness when he selects five global characteristics which seem to be components of effective teaching. These characteristics include warmth, cognitive organization, orderliness, indirectness and problem solving ability.

In light of these findings it would seem apparent that teacher education programmes should provide experiences to enhance the intergration of affective and cognitive learning in student teachers. Recognition of this need is evidenced by the increased emphasis given to the affective and human relations domains in the more innovatory teacher education programmes (Joyce 1972). Such programmes attempt to clinically train students to help them relate more productively with others, the implication being that there are certain personal and

social qualities desirable in teachers.

Process criteria for effective teaching relate to those aspects of pupils' and teachers' behaviour believed to be worthwhile in their own right. For the teacher they include such behaviours as explaining, questioning, evaluating and leading a discussion while such pupil behaviours as attention, interest and co-operation are considered. In addition, teacher-pupil interactions are examined. Teacher directed and pupil directed exchanges are examples of these interactions. Effectiveness is assessed directly through the observation of the behaviour of teacher and pupils during classroom instruction.

A multiplicity of systems have been devised to classify the observable, verbal and non-verbal patterns of action in the classroom (Simon and Boyer, 1967). These systems are most beneficial for recording and analyzing the teaching act but effective teaching cannot be proven by the presence or absence of any instructional variable. For this to occur process criteria need to be related to pupil outcomes. In the past, research workers have been criticised for making judgements of teacher effectiveness using process criteria alone (Saadeh, 1970). If specific teaching behaviours can be linked with specific learning experiences on the part of pupils then training in these behaviours would warrant inclusion in any teacher education programme.

Those who assess teacher effectiveness using product criteria examine the behavioural changes of pupils in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. These changes are assessed directly with tests and performance ratings before, during, and after instruction. Proponents of this point of view (Popham, 1970) sidestep the issue of effective instructional techniques on the basis that teachers may accomplish identical **ends** with equal success, employing quite disparate instructional **means**. They also argue that when a rater is concerned only with the instructional means or process skills the teacher employs, without any explicit consideration of the ends he is trying to achieve, there is a tendency for evaluators to impose their own value systems on teachers, even though they may use neutral measuring devices.

Crucial to the validity of using product criteria to evaluate teacher effectiveness are the instruments used to evaluate educational outcomes. The emphasis on standardized tests has much to commend it, but such assessment tools may not be highly related to what actually takes place in the classroom. At present, there is a need for the development of teaching units with tests of pupil attitude and achievement for the various grade levels and subject-matter areas. (Flanders 1970). Even given this development, there is still a need for researchers to identify process variables which have a high probability of achieving instructional ends. Results of product variables alone lack generality and contribute little to the development of teacher education programmes that will facilitate teacher training.

Although subsequent research workers have refined and developed Mitzel's original classification of criteria for teacher effectiveness (Flanders 1970 and Dunkin and Biddle 1974) recent research in the area, while highly illuminating and suggestive, is largely tentative and does not provide an adequate and definite basis for describing what constitutes teacher effectiveness. Teacher educators, however, are faced with the problem of designing programmes for training teachers even though there are no clearly formulated scientifically based generalizations to use as a guide for setting their objectives. Despite this, Newcastle C.A.E. has developed a school experience programme for first year primary students based on Mitzel's distinction between presage, process and product criteria of teacher effectiveness and their possible inter-relationships. It is felt that such an approach provides a conceptual framework for a programme of teacher education which is broad enough to



encompass existing knowledge of teacher effectiveness and, at the same time, flexible enough to incorporate on-going research results that have theoretical and practical value.

Given the theoretical framework on which to base a programme of teacher education the problem arises of effectively translating it into practice. Traditionally, the training college has concerned itself mainly with supplying the student an adequate body of theory on which to base his practice but research has shown that the schools' concern with theory and the opportunities they provide for the discussion of educational problems are very slender. Cope (1971), for example, has presented evidence which indicates the existence of considerable mistrust between schools and colleges and points to the lack of a real sense of partnership between the two agencies collaborating in the training of teachers. Such evidence clearly indicates the need for inquiry and experiment into ways of making the liaison between college and school staffs more effective and the teacher's participation in school practice more meaningful.

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Any experimental attempts to relate theory more effectively with practice must also consider other factors which can facilitate transfer between the two conditions. A significant factor involved in any form of transfer of training is the degree of similarity between situations (Thomson 1959). With increasing student numbers requiring places for practice teaching, the material conditions for actual practice tend to deteriorate and schools more distant from the college must be employed (Shipman 1967). In terms of transfer, the former condition reduces the relevance of the theory emphasized in college courses while, the latter condition reduces college control over the types of experiences it sees as being appropriate for its students. There exists the real danger of practical experience making the theory appear irrelevant instead of reinforcing it.

It is clear that the adaptation of educational theory to the conditions that exist at present is a complex and delicate procedure which will require the student to have a sound grasp of theory with the college having some control over the external conditions under which the theory is later to be put into practice. Control, however, must be of the type that is developed in an atmosphere of genuine cooperation with the school and should ensure that the conditions be varied in a systematic fashion so that the generalization effects of the theoretical concepts to be mastered are maximized.

The programme devised at Newcastle C.A.E. has attempted to meet these conditions to some extent by reducing the number of schools and teachers involved in the supervision of students. Attempts have been made to establish the same theoretical frames of reference for students, teachers and lecturers alike, so that they can be followed up in practice. Also, teachers have been actively involved in planning many aspects of the programme.

### **Flow Chart Description**

The programme caters for 250 students and uses two schools for micro teaching and four schools for macro or full class teaching. Altogether there are 40 teachers involved and 26 lecturers. Only 14 of these lecturers are involved on any one day.

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The programme consists of eight sequential experiences each designed for a section of approximately 30 students. Experiences are held concurrently so that on the day allocated for the programme one section of students is at Experience One, another is at Experience Two and the other at Experience Three and so on. Students cycle through these experiences sequentially on a weekly basis and having cycled through the experiences once, commence the sequence again.

Experiences One and Five treat a particular teaching skill at a theoretical level and prepare the content to be taught.

Experiences Two and Six involve teaching the prepared content in either English, Social Studies, Mathematics or Music in a micro teaching situation. Micro teaching units containing 10 'mini' classrooms are located in each school.

In Experiences Three and Seven students teach lessons in the previously mentioned subject areas to full classes. All the experiences mentioned thus far highlight process and product variables in teaching effectiveness. The remainder, Experiences Four and Eight, relate to self, pupil and teacher role awareness and give emphasis to presage characteristics.

**FLOW CHART OF FIRST YEAR SCHOOL  
EXPERIENCE PROGRAMME**

1. **TEACHING SKILLS: THEORY** 131  
**Activities:** Treatment of a teaching skill and preparation of lessons (English or Social Science)  
**Location:** N.C.A.E. Room A159.
  
2. **TEACHING SKILLS: MICRO-PRACTICE (AUDIO)**  
**Activities:** Teach and reteach of planned lesson under audio conditions.  
**Location:** New Lambton South Primary School
  
3. **TEACHING SKILLS: MACRO-PRACTICE**  
**Activities:** Involvement in a number of planned activities in a full class situation under the guidance of a co-operating teacher.  
**Location:** Heaton, Wallsend, Waratah and Waratah West Primary Schools.
  
4. **HUMAN RELATIONS: TEACHER ROLE AWARENESS**  
**Activities:** Involvement in a number of planned activities related to teacher role awareness.  
**Location:** A local primary school or N.C.A.E.
  
5. **TEACHING SKILLS: THEORY**  
**Activities:** Treatment of a teaching skill and preparation of lessons (Mathematics or Music)  
**Location:** N.C.A.E. Room A159
  
6. **TEACHING SKILLS: MICRO-PRACTICE (VIDEO)**  
**Activities:** Teach and reteach of planned lesson under video conditions.  
**Location:** Lambton Primary School
  
7. **TEACHING SKILLS: MACRO-PRACTICE**  
**Activities:** Involvement in a number of planned activities in a full class situation under the guidance of a co-operating teacher.  
**Location:** Heaton, Wallsend, Waratah and Waratah West Primary Schools.
  
8. **HUMAN RELATIONS: SELF AND PUPIL AWARENESS**  
**Activities:** Involvement in a number of planned activities related to self and pupil awareness.  
**Location:** N.C.A.E. Room C102

### **Videotape Commentary**

Each student is issued with an individualized School Experience Workbook which contains all details of the programme. Students record all their lessons and other information gathered throughout the programme in this workbook.

132 Prior to entering experience one, students are required to read a chapter which relates to a particular teaching skill from one of their textbooks. The textbooks, "Sydney Micro Skills Series I and Series II" are products of the Teaching Skills Development Project from Sydney University. Skills treated are reinforcement, basic questioning, variability, explaining, introductory procedures and closure and advanced questioning.

For each of these teaching skills students have a reading guide in their workbook which is written in behavioural terms. Knowledge of each skill is subsequently tested and, the behavioural orientation is not only consistent with the approach taken by the programme but also gives students direction for testing.

In Experience One a lecturer from the Faculty of Education discusses the educational and psychological significance of the particular teaching skill and then students view the video tape-recording of that skill which also has been developed by Sydney University. The first part of the tape concentrates on the components underlying the particular skill. After viewing these the components are discussed with students and then the second half of the tape is viewed. This part is a segment taken from an actual lesson and while this is being played, students practice using analysis sheets to analyse the particular skill in question. During the next experience, students will use the same analysis sheets to analyse the teaching of their peers. The skill orientation concludes with a practically oriented criterion reference objective test based on the previously mentioned reading guide. A subject specialist then provides students with details of the content that they will teach in their next experience. The content taught is decided upon by the subject specialist after he has consulted with the class teacher whose pupils will be used in the subsequent teaching experience. By thorough content treatment it is hoped that students will be able to concentrate more on the process skills when they subsequently teach. When all students are certain that they understand the content to be taught they break into their teaching groups. Most sections have 10 groups of three and they work in these groups throughout the year. Together they formulate specific behavioural oriented objectives for their lessons and methods in which they can evaluate the degree to which their pupils have mastered the content presented. Also, when planning, an attempt is made to integrate the components of the skill and the lesson strategy which, when completed, is examined by one of the supervisors. Each group of three students works independently but towards the end of the experience the full group of 30 students comes together to exchange views and approaches. While some may debate the behavioural orientation of the programme it is done basically to give students greater direction with their teaching. There is some evidence which supports this view as teaching has been found to be more effective if it is based on behavioural objectives rather than generalised non-specific objectives.

At the next experience students teach their lessons under micro conditions. These lessons are recorded either with video or audio equipment and students assemble all recording equipment working in their teams of three. Two students from each team teach consecutive and related 15 minute lessons but sometimes students share one of the 15 minute lessons. While one student teaches another observes and analyses the teaching behaviour of the student teaching. The other operates the recording equipment. At the end of the teaching session the recorded lessons are played back in a one hourly refinement break for self, peer and supervisor appraisal which, in turn, are supplemented by observed pupil performance. Lessons are modified and then the refined lesson is retaught to another small group of children from a parallel class. When this finishes a general wash-up sessions is held with the students, college supervisors and the class teacher. The recorded tapes are stored in the college library for review during the following week.

Having practised a particular skill in the micro situation students then practise the same skill in the macro or full class setting. Usually, the actual lessons do not constitute a reteach of the same content. Each student practises the skill in either English, Music, Mathematics or Social Studies. Except for music, the content is taken from units of work constructed by class teachers. To encourage integration previously practised skills are also analysed in the lesson. The students maintain their micro teaching teams and teach four lessons at the school each week with one student teaching two lessons. At the end of the morning session, the teacher, students and, if possible, the College lecturer get together to discuss the various teaching performances. Class teachers keep a record of the students that they are responsible for in the macro experience.

The fourth experience concentrates on the development of teacher role awareness. Students visit various schools where they are able to involve themselves in professional activities which go beyond the actual classroom situation. Some of the activities include using the school library and other school resources, talking to a Principal about his expectations of his staff, organising school sport, and discussing community school relations with interested persons. The excerpts that you are about to view on tape come from a visit to a school to discuss how the library is used in that school and how a sports mistress organises her sport.

The final experience is primarily concerned with human relations and gives emphasis to such matters as awareness of self, peers and pupils, communicating with others and handling behaviour problems. Activities supporting these themes include the completion of self report inventories, the critical incidence programme and role-play of typical teacher interactive situations. The activity on tape is a role play of a parent who has written a letter to seek an interview with a teacher about the progress of his son. Students not participating in the role play observe and analyse the interaction between parent and teacher.

As yet the programme is to be systematically evaluated. A comparison is being made between block practice, micro teaching and this programme using pupil performance as a criterion for teacher effectiveness. The results for this programme cannot be obtained until next year. Also, discrepancies between students perceptions of ideal and actual experiences in school practice are being examined with respect to the previously mentioned approaches to teacher preparation.

Some comments on the programme from a small sample of first year students may be of interest.

#### **FEMALE**

The video tape recording gave us a chance to look at ourselves objectively to see if there was anything in particular that you really did wrong. You see yourself more than the supervisor sees you therefore if you just do a bad lesson and the supervisor's in, it doesn't really tell you exactly what you were teaching like.

#### **MALE**

I think there is just the normal embarrassment of getting used to cameras but as the experience progressed the more times we were in front of the cameras I became more interested in the outcome of the experience so that I could see an exact representation of my efforts while teaching. I think it gives you a more true indication of your efforts than many personal comments from fellow students and supervisors. Though these are helpful I think the video tape does give a true indication of what you have done. You can see every point and hear every word.

#### **FEMALE**

The microteaching is valuable for practising the specific teaching skills you want to but it is a bit of an unreal image because you only have three students and we are, after all, going to be teaching a whole class.

#### **MALE**

In microteaching you are not really threatened by the whole class but I think it could have been taken further because there is not enough personal experience with the children. There is three children one week and then you go to a different situation the next week. I think you need more time to learn what those children are like; a sort of a more personal aspect. I have had three opportunities at macro-teaching and that is better because you get the personal aspect there. You learn about a few of the pupils but it is still not enough.

## MALE

The self-awareness aspects of the programme provide some intensely interesting experiences even if you were not going to be a teacher. To sort of put down your own personality in your own terms and then get it evaluated by your peers is good, but then to link that up with what you thought a good teacher was and then see how close your concept of yourself was approaching that objective is very beneficial.

## MALE

The microteaching situation gave us a change to practise the individual skills needed but in the practice teaching situation it was difficult to form your lessons around the skills that we learned. In the micro we could have a chance to practise these skills and see how they really benefited us.

## MALE

The programme helps a great deal because the whole programme makes us think about ourselves as teachers and makes us aware of teachers and makes us look at ourselves objectively. We pick up a skill from college then we practise it both in the micro with the smaller groups of children and then in the macro with the larger one and then we can go out into practice teaching and apply it realistically in a far more realistic situation so to speak. When we go and visit principals and things like this you get an idea of how a school is structured and that sort of thing and we are not just doing theory, it combines the theory with the practical aspects of teaching.

The basic model that you have viewed will be employed in 1976 with some important modifications. It is intended for students to teach units of work developed by teachers and lecturers in both the micro and macro settings. This will tie theory to practice more directly and also have an incentive function as students will be sure that they are teaching novel material. In addition it will cut down on the time taken for liaison between teachers and lecturers. All lessons will be videotaped and students will be provided with self-appraisal guides for videotape analysis at the College. Again, in order to improve communication, it is intended to cut down on the actual number of lecturers involved in the program from 26 to 8. All the projected changes have been piloted successfully on a small scale this year.

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## APPENDIX

The enclosed Reporting Forms were among those obtained from several institutions following conference members' request for a sample of forms to be made along with the other post-conference material. Unfortunately printing limitations have not permitted the inclusion of other equally useful forms submitted in answer to our request. Further, although detracting from the meaningfulness of the forms, it has not been possible to include the detailed explanatory notes which accompany them. 141

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- Figure V    University of Western Australia  
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              Teaching Practice Report
- Figure VI   Mount Lawley College of Advanced Education  
              School Evaluation

# FIGURE 1

The University of Sydney

## TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

### Teaching    Observation    Schedule

The categories in this record have been devised to guide observations in the classroom by TDP and co-operating teachers, as well as assisting teachers observing one another's lessons. On most occasions, comments could be concentrated upon selected skills: some simply may not be available for comment, while others may be either of little immediate relevance to the current task, or not of crucial importance for the individual being observed.

Space is provided on the right of each category for brief notations, and below for more extended notes. There is also provision for assisting teachers to comment after their teaching has been observed.

Information noted on this record is intended primarily to help the assisting teacher acquire and/or improve teaching skills, so comments should be fully discussed with the individual, preferably as soon after the observation as possible. Comments will also assist in planning course work, and in conducting supportive follow-up discussion with individuals. The document is to be retained by the assisting teacher.

ASSISTING TEACHER .....

SCHOOL .....

SUBJECT ..... Form ..... Level .....

TOPIC .....

OBSERVER ..... Date .....

### OBSERVER'S OVERALL SUMMARY OF THE LESSON OR UNIT

(to be completed after observing the teaching segment)

### ASSISTING TEACHER'S OVERALL COMMENT

(to be completed after discussing the teaching segment)

## I. LESSON AND/OR UNIT PREPARATION

### 1. Aims and Strategies

- clarity and appropriateness of aim (s)
  - logic of planned content sequence,  
(e.g., particular to general)
  - logic of intended procedural sequence,  
(e.g., timing the shift from  
discussion to summary)
  - suitable selection of aids, resources
- 
- 
- 

### 2. Content

- accurate, adequate, up-to-date information
  - thoughtful and imaginative in conception
  - meeting general syllabus demands
  - appropriate to this lesson or unit,  
(e.g., consistent with aims)
  - appropriate to age, background, and  
abilities of pupils
- 
- 
- 

## II. TEACHING PROCESS SKILLS

### 1. Beginning Lesson or Unit

- routine matters of management
  - introductory procedures, (gaining attention/  
inducing mental set/ structuring the  
task arousing motivation)
- 
- 
- 

### 2. Clarity of Presentation

- realistic choice of language
  - clear explanations, with well-chosen examples
  - emphasis and recapitulation
  - continuing evaluation of presentation's  
effect through feedback from pupils
  - usefulness of plan as a guide to action
- 
- 
-

3. Pacing of Presentation

- varying movement sight-sound stimuli
  - raising or lowering the conceptual level
  - cognizance of pupils' attention spans
  - timing of different activities within the course of the teaching segment
  - clarification of instructions where necessary
- .....
- .....
- .....

4. Encouraging Pupil Participation

- recognizing pupils' interests
  - varying question types and sequences
  - direct or indirect leadership according to changing needs throughout the lesson
  - reinforcing pupil responses
  - stimulating pupil-to-pupil interaction whenever possible
  - fostering pupil initiative
  - balance between censure and praise
- .....
- .....
- .....

5. Use of Learning Activities/Aids/Resources

- variety and defensible function
  - skill evidenced in their use
  - coherence of use - introductory explanation  
- follow-up discussion
- .....
- .....
- .....

6. Ending Lesson or Unit

- satisfactory closure
  - concluding assessment of presentation when and if appropriate
  - routine matters of management
- .....
- .....
- .....



## ASSISTING TEACHER'S APPRAISAL

(Your own evaluation of the teaching segment  
in the light of stated aims, intended strategies,  
and utilised process skills)

### III. DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONAL STYLE

#### 1. Confidence in Presentation

- fluency, voice 'colour'
- flexibility in allowing for unforeseen pupil behaviour or circumstances
- ease in the classroom situation

#### 2. Teacher-Pupil Rapport

- evidence of warmth, approachability or humour where appropriate
- awareness of group norms
- response to dilemmas of individual pupils-by counselling  
-by devising remedial activities

### IV. ADDITIONAL COMMENTS (AS DESIRED)

- e.g.
- teacher-teacher rapport
  - particular strengths in teaching (e.g. special interests, enthusiasm, spontaneity)
  - involvement in school activities
  - selection of strategies/content particularly suited to the individual assisting teacher

STATE COLLEGE OF VICTORIA BENDIGO  
REPORT ON TEACHING PROGRESS

SCHOOL EXPERIENCE.....	STUDENT .....
SCHOOL .....	TEACHER.....GRADE .....

**SECTION A:** For each category indicate:-

H Achieving a high standard.  
A Achieving an acceptable standard.

L Needs to improve standard.  
U Unsatisfactory standard.

AREA FOR EVALUATION	WEEK				AREA FOR EVALUATION	WEEK		
	2	3	4			2	3	4
<b>PREPARATION</b>					<b>CLASSROOM TECHNIQUES</b>			
Preparation of plans.....					Implementation of plans.....			
Details in planning.....					Effectiveness of introductory activities.....			
Standard of presentation.....					Provision for individual differences.....			
Provision for activities.....					Ability to guide learning effectively.....			
Planning for activities.....					Communication with children.....			
Planning for individual needs.....					Questioning techniques.....			
Use of own ideas.....					Correction techniques.....			
Relevance of self evaluations.....					Use of voice.....			
Aids and teaching materials.....					Speech.....			
<b>TEACHER-PUPIL INTERACTION</b>					<b>ATTITUDE</b>			
Understanding of children.....					Acceptance of responsibility.....			
Rapport with children.....					Willingness to contribute ideas.....			
Awareness of pupil's abilities.....					Eagerness to learn.....			
Establishing worthwhile working and enthusiasm.....					Attitude towards supervision.....			
Assistance given to individuals.....					Involvement in classroom activities.....			
Respect for children.....					Contribution to school activities.....			
<b>PERSONAL QUALITIES</b>					<b>GENERAL ATTITUDE TO TEACHING</b>			
Appearance.....								
Co-operation.....								
Vitality.....								
Leadership.....								
Ability to work with others.....								
Initiative in teaching.....								
Emotional control.....								

**SUGGESTIONS FOR FOLLOW-UP WORK** .....

.....

.....

**GENERAL COMMENTS** .....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....**SUPERVISING TEACHER**.....

.....

.....

**DATES OF ABSENCES** ..... **PRINCIPAL OR CO-ORDINATOR** .....

BTG:hjl 20/2/75

STATE COLLEGE OF VICTORIA BENDIGO

REPORT ON TEACHING PROGRESS

TEACHING APPRAISAL

SECTION B:

SCHOOL EXPERIENCE.....		STUDENT.....	GROUP.....
SCHOOL.....		TEACHER.....	GRADE.....
PRACTICAL TEACHING Tick the appropriate space.		COMMENTS	
ABOVE AVERAGE	.....		
AVERAGE	.....		
BELOW AVERAGE	.....		
UNSATISFACTORY	.....		
SUPERVISING TEACHER OR PRINCIPAL .....			

## MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

22

S

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM  
STUDENT SELF-EVALUATION FORMSubject Area  
or Primary: \_\_\_\_\_

Report No(✓) [1][2][3]

Student's Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Master Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_

Please tick (✓) the appropriate square.

This is a progress report — assessment should be relative to the present stage in your year of teaching experience. Not all categories may be applicable.

Students are advised to complete the form away from the school situation, after a careful review of progress made in the period under review.

The headings below indicate ratings as follows:

V.S.: Very satisfied

S.: Satisfied

D.: Dissatisfied

		V.S.	S.	D.	COMMENTS (Please comment freely)
I	Knowledge of subject matter.				
	Selection of subject matter.				
	Planning — daily, long range.				
II	Motivation of class.				
	Communication skills/ clarity of presentation				
	Use of questioning				
	Selection and use of instructional aids/ materials.				
	Organisations and teaching of small groups.				
III	Classroom management/ discipline.				
	Innovation				
	Initiative				
	Flexibility				
	Attitude to professional help				
IV	Understanding of role as a staff member				
	Attitude to pupils.				
	Recognition of and provision for individual differences.				
	Encouragement and management of teacher/pupil, pupil/pupil interaction.				
	Evaluation procedures:				
V	(a) Testing — formal and informal.				
	(b) Follow-up procedures.				
	(c) Student's awareness of his general teaching success.				
	Contact beyond the classroom:				
	(a) Use of people/ resources within the school.				
	(b) Community contact and involvement				

### GENERAL COMMENTS

In this space please give specific and detailed comments about your work and progress. Some questions to consider:

- do you think your teaching has improved or deteriorated? Give explanations.
- do you consider you are a creative teacher? In what way(s)? What has helped or hindered your attempts at being creative?
- is your attitude to teaching changing? Explain.

[illegible]

Number of days attended: \_\_\_\_\_

Student's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of lessons taught: \_\_\_\_\_ (Infants'/Primary  
Students indicate  
hours of teaching)

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of Lessons Observed: \_\_\_\_\_ (Infants'/Primary Students indicate hours)

THE UNIVERSITY OF QUEENSLAND – FACULTY OF EDUCATION  
DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION COURSE  
ANALYSIS OF STUDENT TEACHING PRACTICE

NAME OF STUDENT \_\_\_\_\_ (Surname – Block letters) \_\_\_\_\_ (Given names)  
SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_ Practice Period Ending \_\_\_\_\_  
Number of days absent \_\_\_\_\_ Reason (if known) \_\_\_\_\_

PLEASE SUBMIT A SEPARATE ANALYSIS FOR EACH CLASS TAUGHT AT THE CONCLUSION OF THE PRACTICE PERIOD

Class	Subject	No. of lessons	Nature of the class in usual setting
			Regarded as a 'good class'
			Difficult to interest
			Difficult to manage

Name of Supervising Teacher \_\_\_\_\_

To the Supervising Teacher:

The purpose of this analysis is to provide detailed information for the student and university staff on progress during the practice teaching.

The main categories used have been chosen to reflect the most important aspects of teaching. Would you please rate the student teacher's work on each of these eleven main categories using the scales provided by circling one of the ratings in each section. Please also rate overall performance.

1 – requires remedial attention	2 – not yet satisfactory	3 – average
4 – competent	5 – highly competent	X – no opportunity to assess

The statements in fine print in each section are presented to help define what is intended in the category. If you wish to provide additional information please write YES for satisfactory performance or NO for poor performance beside **appropriate** statements only. Alternatively you may wish to provide a brief comment in the space provided.

1 — requires remedial attention

2 — not yet satisfactory

3 — average

4 — competent

5 — highly competent

X — no opportunity to assess

1. ABILITY TO MAINTAIN THE INTEREST OF STUDENTS  
(on the teacher or on the learning task)

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

**The Student Teacher**

provides clear goals for students . . .

COMMENTS

provides interesting approaches/illustrations . . .

questions on relevant interests and experience of students . . .

capitalizes on students' interests and knowledge . . .

uses questions to provoke interest . . .

sets tasks appropriate to knowledge/ability of students . . .

encourages student participation, comments and questions . . .

demonstrates his/her own enthusiasm and interest . . .

uses approval effectively . . .

2. ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE

**The Student Teacher**

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

produces and projects speech effectively and fluently . . .

sequences statements logically . . .

COMMENTS

refers verbal information to student's experience/knowledge . . .

informs, explains and questions so that students understand  
what is intended . . .

always uses terms which students understand . . .

demonstrates meaning of new terms . . .

uses aids to make his communication effective . . .

3. RESPONSE FROM PUPILS

**During the Student Teacher's lessons the pupils**

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

were attentive throughout . . .

appeared to understand instructions . . .

did the work readily . . .

responded enthusiastically . . .

COMMENTS

4. CATERING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

**The Student Teacher**

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

learns and uses the names of individual students . . .

ascertains differing individual abilities . . .

COMMENTS

adjusts goals and tasks for individual students or groups . . .

adjusts learning procedures for individual students/groups . . .

gives opportunities for students to choose methods . . .

exhibits a sympathetic interest in individual students . . .

## 5. INTERACTION WITH STUDENTS

### The Student Teacher

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

listens carefully to student responses and questions . . .

uses responses as part of "content" of the lesson . . .

modifies approach according to student interest/performance . . .

uses questions to assess understanding . . .

provides "immediate" feedback to students' responses . . .

corrects misinformation . . .

diagnoses students' difficulties and acts accordingly . . .

asks questions leading to self evaluation . . .

COMMENTS

## 6. EVALUATION SKILLS

### The Student Teacher

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

devises evaluation tasks such as tests, and can comment on essays and projects . . .

evaluates learning of whole group at appropriate times . . .

accepts responsibility of evaluation work he has taught . . .

modifies/improves his teaching as the result of evaluation . . .

COMMENTS

## 7. DEVELOPING LEARNING SKILLS IN STUDENTS

### The Student Teacher

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

guides students in the use of a variety of resources . . .

encourages original thinking . . .

encourages clear expression of ideas . . .

insists on accurate reading and interpretation . . .

encourages accuracy in following directions . . .

encourages the use of appropriate diagrams, charts, etc . . .

encourages critical assessment of information . . .

provides opportunities for independent choice and decision-making . . .

encourages independent work in increasingly complex tasks . . .

COMMENTS

## 8. HELPING STUDENTS DEVELOP SOCIAL SKILLS

### The Student Teacher

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

shows consideration, courtesy, respect for students . . .

provides a model for responsible decision-making . . .

encourages responsibility towards the welfare of others . . .

provides opportunities for working in small groups . . .

COMMENTS

## 9. MANAGEMENT

### The Student Teacher

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

effectively organizes learning experiences for

a) a small group only . . .

b) a large group without differentiation . . .

c) a large group divided into smaller groups or working on individual assignments . . .

can reorganize class without undue loss of time . . .

attends to a wide sample of children . . .

provides all necessary resources without fuss . . .

has classroom, equipment, and instruction prepared . . .

teaches students how to behave for any new organization . . .

COMMENTS



## 10. PREPARATION

**The Student Teacher**RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

prepares lesson plans adequately to help achieve a high standard in the nine previous categories . . .  
(Please list areas in which preparation is weak)

**COMMENTS**

In addition, he/she

presents subject matter free from errors . . .

uses logical and effective sequencing of subject matter . . .

draws on a variety of illustrations to make his points . . .

teachers with minimal reference to notes . . .

Can answer or utilize most student questions . . .

selects suitable books, journals and other printed material . . .

prepares and uses duplicated material . . .

plans suitable use of such AV aids as films, TV and radio, strips, slides, OH transparencies, tapes . . .

prepares and plans display materials . . .

makes appropriate use of laboratory or library resources . . .

## 11. USE OF TEACHING PRACTICE OPPORTUNITIES

**The Student Teacher**RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

listened to advice willingly . . .

cooperated readily with staff members . . .

made full use of available opportunities . . .

**COMMENTS**

## OVERALL PERFORMANCE

RATING 

1	2	3	4	5	X
---	---	---	---	---	---

WHAT ARE THE STUDENT TEACHER'S STRENGTHS? \_\_\_\_\_

---



---



---

IN WHAT WAYS DOES THE SUBJECT TEACHER NEED SPECIAL HELP? \_\_\_\_\_

---



---

GENERAL COMMENTS (if appropriate include references to participants in school activities other than assigned teaching)

---



---



---

Supervising Teacher \_\_\_\_\_

Principal \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN AUSTRALIA  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

FIGURE V

REPORT ON PRACTICE TEACHING

NAME OF STUDENT \_\_\_\_\_ SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

DATE OF PRACTICE \_\_\_\_\_ SUPERVISING TEACHER \_\_\_\_\_

TYPES OF SCHOOL EXPERIENCE (e.g., year 9, social studies; year 11, physics; etc.)

NUMBER OF LESSONS TAUGHT \_\_\_\_\_

Supervisors are asked to indicate in the box opposite each section *ONE* of the following:

- ☒ Competent. (Ready to work independently in own classroom)
- ☒ Progress made; further help needed. (Further practice needed on this dimension before working independently in own classroom.)
- ☒ Unsatisfactory performance. (Little progress made; needs intensive help)
- ☐ No evidence available. (Insufficient opportunity to observe)

At the end of each section a space is provided for detailed comments about areas of special strength and/or specific skills which require further practice.

A. LESSON PLANNING AND PREPARATION

- ☐ *Clarity of objectives.* The objectives of the lesson are clear to the pupils.
- ☐ *Appropriateness of objectives.* Matches lesson objectives to the level of the class.
- ☐ *Organization of the lesson.* In the total organization of the lesson the individual parts are clearly related to each other.
- ☐ *Selection of content.* Selects content appropriate for lesson objectives and class level.
- ☐ *Knowledge of subject matter.* Shows sufficient knowledge of subject matter being taught.

Comments on Section A

B. LESSON PRESENTATION

- ☐ *Beginning the lesson.* Quickly gains pupils' attention and engages them in the tasks to be accomplished.
- ☐ *Clarity of presentation.* Presents the content of the lesson so it is understandable to pupils.
- ☐ *Pacing the lesson.* 'Stays with the class', adjusts the tempo of the lesson, moves from one part of the lesson to the next, according to pupils' achievement.
- ☐ *Variability in the use of voice, movement and gesture.* Varies the pitch, volume and pace of voice to attract pupils' attention and stimulate interest.
- ☐ *Variability of approach.* Takes opportunities to vary approaches, e.g. assignments, field-work, group work, role play.
- ☐ *Use of instructional materials.* Selects and successfully incorporates a variety of teaching materials appropriate to the lesson content. (Including chalkboard, laboratory equipment, etc.)
- ☐ *Ending the lesson.* Ties together planned and chance events in the lesson, and relates to lesson objectives.

Comments on Section B

### C. DISCUSSION AND QUESTIONING SKILLS

- ☐ *Framing questions.* Questions are clear, unambiguous and the level of difficulty is appropriate.
- ☐ *Distribution of questions.* Questions are distributed evenly to each segment of the class.
- ☐ *Reaction to pupil response.* When necessary makes use of pupil responses, probes for further information, provides additional or corrective information, uses praise effectively.
- ☐ *Discussion.* Can generate discussion involving all pupils.

Comments on Section C

---

### D. RELATIONSHIP WITH PUPILS

- ☐ *Group management.* Can effectively manage the class as a group, including movement, distribution and use of materials.
- ☐ *Maintaining pupil cooperation.* Pupils respond positively to teacher's requests.
- ☐ *Awareness.* Knows what is going on in the classroom. Can anticipate and deal effectively with discipline problems.

Comments on Section D

---

### E. EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

- ☐ *Evaluation of pupil achievement.* Devises and uses a variety of procedures to evaluate the extent to which lesson objective have been achieved.

Comments on Section E

---

### F. GENERAL COMMENTS

(Including comment on professionally relevant personal qualities such as reliability, self control in the classroom, sensitivity to pupils, audibility of voice, etc.)

Comments on Section F

---

---

---

### G. SUMMARY OF WEAKNESSES (IF ANY) REQUIRING FURTHER ATTENTION

---

---

---

SIGNATURE \_\_\_\_\_

DATE \_\_\_\_\_

**MOUNT LAWLEY COLLEGE  
OF ADVANCED EDUCATION**

STUDENT'S NAME \_\_\_\_\_ GROUP \_\_\_\_\_

SCHOOL \_\_\_\_\_

CLASS TEACHER \_\_\_\_\_ GRADE \_\_\_\_\_

PERIOD OF PRACTICE \_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_ ABSENCES \_\_\_\_\_ Half days

N.B. Please tick ONE column only per heading

**CONTACT WITH CLASS**

Classroom Manner

Attitude to Pupils

Pupil Reaction

Adjustment to Class Level

Degree of Confidence

O	H	S	B	U	COMMENTS

**COMMUNICATION SKILLS**

Command of Language

Appropriate Level of Vocabulary

Voice Quality

Speech Irregularities


**CONTROL & CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

Ability to Command Respect

Issuing of Instructions

Movement Supervision

Handling of Impromptu Situations


**TEACHING TECHNIQUES**

Questioning

Reinforcement (Praise or  
encouragement)

Drilling & Consolidation

Marking of Work

Desk Supervision

Motivation & Incentive

Attention to Individuals

Management of Groups

Use of Chalkboard

Use of Aids  
(i.e. visual, audio etc.)

Effectiveness of Strategies  
and Techniques


**LEVEL OF TEACHING DEVELOPMENT**

--	--	--	--	--

P16A/7/75

<u>PERSONAL QUALITIES</u>	O	H	S	B	U	COMMENTS
Dress and Appearance						
Vitality						
Enthusiasm						
Initiative						
Response to Advice						
Acceptance of Responsibility						
<u>PREPARATION</u>						
File Presentation						
Knowledge of Content						
Clarity of Planning						

## Vitality

## Enthusiasm

### Initiative

### Response to Advice

### Acceptance of Responsibility

<b>PREPARATION</b>				
File Presentation				
Knowledge of Content				
Clarity of Planning				

## File Presentation

### Knowledge of Content

### Clarity of Planning

LEVEL OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT				
-----------------------------------	--	--	--	--

### CONSTRUCTIVE COMMENTS ON AREAS OF WEAKNESS

**COMMENTS ON AREAS OF STRENGTH**

**NOTE:**

**O = Outstanding**  
**H = High Satisfactory**  
**S = Satisfactory**  
**B = Borderline**  
**U = Unsatisfactory**

**O = Outstanding**

**H = High Satisfactory**

**S = Satisfactory**

**B = Borderline**

**U = Unsatisfactory**

**SIGNATURE**  
**(Principal)**