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A HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM CONTENT
BEGINNING WITH TEACHER NORMAL COLLEGES IN 1839 THROUGH
SCHOOL DISTRICT ALTERNATIVE CERTIFICATION PROGRAMS IN 2007

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Educational Leadership
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at the University of Central Florida
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore teacher preparation program content throughout American history in order to determine trends in programs of study, specifically including coursework in education foundations, teaching methods involving the behavioral sciences, and subject area content. These categories were selected because their content is responsible for teachers' working knowledge of their subject area, as well as student learning, behavior management and motivation. The study also examined documented teacher knowledge voids: student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs to determine which aspects of teacher education could improve teachers' skills in these areas.

Programs of study from traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs were gathered from Massachusetts, Indiana, Tennessee, California and Florida in an effort to research across the United States. Traditional programs were defined as four or five-year teacher education programs in colleges or universities which began as teacher normal schools and in those that did not. Program components from 1839 through 2007 were analyzed using Thinking Maps[®] for organizing and interpreting the information while focusing on education foundations, teaching methods, or subject area content gaps which would correlate to teacher knowledge voids. Patterns were traced within teacher education programs focusing on the art or science of teaching. Trends in course offerings were investigated and linked to concurrent events which may have influenced them.

The following results were obtained from this research. American teacher preparation programs began in 1839 with elements of teaching methods, subject area content and education foundations, which remained the common elements in 2007. The ratio of each element in teacher preparation programs fluctuated throughout history. The dissent over teaching as an art or a science was evident in the early years of teacher normal schools, and the argument continued in 2007, largely affected by the absence of a clear definition of either approach. Early teacher normal schools admitted that teacher education programs were “imperfect preparation” for the classroom, and teacher knowledge voids remained an issue in 2007. From the inception of common schools in America, there was a shortage of teachers to fill them, and the teacher shortage continued in 2007, which may have contributed to the vast difference in teacher education program composition. An avenue taken to alleviate the teacher shortage issue was alternative teacher certification. Alternative certification programs were enacted in the 1800s, and alternative certification programs were widely used in 2007.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Teacher education programs in America faced an uphill battle in their quest for legitimacy, support, and public acceptance (Lucas, 1997). From the earliest forms of public teacher preparation in the 1800s to the present, critics and commissioned reports regularly declared that teacher preparation was lacking. One widespread controversy concerned the balance between liberal arts and pedagogy coursework. Another debate ensued regarding teaching as an art or a science. Yet another highly publicized and politicized difference of opinion focused on the merits of traditional teacher education versus alternative certification programs. Consensus in favor of one or the other in any of these cases has not yet emerged.

Federal and state governments spent millions of dollars, devised new laws and imposed strict regulations to improve a new generation of American teachers (Fraser, 2007). However, “it [was] one thing to analyze a job in a factory, perhaps an assembly skill or possibly a keyboard operation; it [was] another thing to analyze the job of a teacher” (Stones & Morris, 1972), and therefore it was equally difficult to pinpoint the elements of a perfect teacher education program. Studies were inconclusive regarding which components of teacher preparation programs correlated to success in the classroom (Allen, 2003).

The components of quality teacher preparation were widely debated, but prior to the nineteenth century there was no formal teacher education. According to Labaree (2004), “the rule was simply: take the class, teach the class” (p. 3). The establishment of free, tax-supported elementary common schools in the early 1800s led to the demand for more teachers with greater qualifications (Labaree, 2004). This began the classic struggle between quality and quantity in

preparing America's teachers, and resulted in sharp differences in the nature and extent of preparation they received (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002).

A Brief History of Teacher Preparation

Formal teacher education in America began in the first public normal school in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839 (Coble, Edelfelt, & Kettlewell, 2004). The concept of a public institution dedicated to the preparation of elementary teachers was based upon the European influence of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, who believed that teachers should not impose learning on a child, but rather employ children's senses to guide their learning (Coble et al., 2004). In order for teachers to acquire the essential techniques to guide learning, Pestalozzi created teacher training institutions which the French termed "escole normale." "Escole" means school and "normale" is Latin for "norma," figuratively meaning a principle or model. Americans translated the term to "normal school," meaning a place where the rules and principles of educating students were taught; hence formal public teacher education began (Coble et al., 2004).

The normal school was a place where prospective elementary school teachers studied the subjects they would teach (such as the Bible and orthography), learned teaching methodology, and practiced teaching in model schools for up to one year prior to accepting responsibility for a class of students (Coble et. al., 2004). The normal school focused on the art or craft of teaching, a practice in which pre-service teachers were taught to use intuition and their personal understanding of a situation to guide instruction (Doyle, 1990). This type of practitioner knowledge was tentative, situational, and "embedded in the particulars of practice" (p. 13). It

relied on personal reflection and life history to construct meaning; therefore, it was subjective and complex.

The development of teacher preparation in colleges and universities trailed the normal school movement, and it was not until 1873 that the first permanent university chairman in education was established (Coble et. al., 2004). During this era, behavioral sciences such as psychology, cognitive organization theory and social neuroscience became intertwined with education through the contributions of scholars such as William James, John Dewey and Edward Thorndike (Berliner, 2007).

Until the second decade of the 20th century, the university department of education's undergraduate level focus was on preparing high school teachers (Urban, 1990). As of 2006, approximately 1,206 schools, colleges and departments of education were dedicated to preparing teachers in 78% of four-year colleges and universities in the country (Levine, 2006). Teacher preparation programs existed in all types of universities from open admission and baccalaureate-granting colleges to selective and doctoral-awarding universities, and such programs awarded one out of every 12 bachelor's degrees, 25% of all master's degrees and 15% of all doctorates. This was more than any other branch of higher education (Levine, 2006).

Teacher education evolved greatly since 1839, and education and training requirements for teachers increased concurrently with advances in neuroscience and rising standards for student accountability (Angus, 1999). Images of science and technology penetrated contemporary teacher education (Eisner, 1983). Diagnosis and prescription entered the teaching vocabulary along with progress monitoring and intervention. Levine (2006) wrote, "In today's

informational economy, education has become the engine driving the future of the country and of our children” (p. 11).

The number and styles of teacher training programs grew immensely, and the United States acquired a teaching force with the highest levels of education in the world: 40% of public school teachers held a master’s degree (Angus, 1999). However, the level of American student performance did not correlate with the high percentage of advanced teacher degrees, which led to public doubt and scrutiny about the investment of time and resources in teacher education (Angus, 1999). The results of the *Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)* of 1999, which tested eighth grade students, ranked the United States nineteenth of thirty-eight countries assessed in math and eighteenth of thirty-eight countries assessed in science (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). Some, like Eisner (1983), wondered, “Why is it that one so seldom hears of workshops or conferences devoted to the art and craft of teaching?” (p. 6). The art of teaching seemed to be replaced by the science of teaching, but with little or no obvious benefit.

The doubt expressed by policymakers and educators regarding the quality of newly-licensed teachers was cause for alarm (Allen, 2003). As stated in *A Highly Qualified Teacher in Every Classroom: The Secretary’s Fifth Annual Report on Teacher Quality*, “The quality of teacher preparation programs nationally is integral to ensuring that our nation’s schools are staffed with skilled professionals capable of raising student achievement” (United States Department of Education [US DOE], 2006, p. 1). Many teacher education programs underwent reform efforts following the national government’s warning in *A Nation at Risk*. This report warned that American students were falling behind those of other nations (National Commission

on Excellence in Education, 1983). However, 14 years later the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1997) reported a growing number of new teachers had no pre-service preparation.

The United States could not afford to send unprepared teachers into classrooms. Hurwitz and Hurwitz (2005) reported projections as large as 2.5 million teaching vacancies by 2010. The most alarming factor contributing to the teacher shortage was that many felt ill-prepared upon entry into the classroom and quit within a few years. Studies indicated that approximately 33% of teachers left the classroom within three years, and 46% left within five years (Rubalcava, 2005; Fulton, Burns, & Goldenberg, 2005). Research has shown that the quality of a teacher's first year in the classroom is strongly related to teacher attrition (Sears, Marshall, & Otis-Wilborn, 1994). With limited experiential and practical knowledge from which to draw, a great number of beginning teachers felt overwhelmed and uncertain about themselves and their chosen career path (Feiman-Nemser, Carver, Schwille, & Yusko, 1999). New teachers, or those within their first three years of teaching, who were prepared to handle the pressures associated with the job, most likely became successful educators. Those who could not handle the pressure likely left the profession.

The often-cited concern about teacher quantity was the impetus for alternative means to teacher certification (Legler, 2002). Alternative certification is "a general term for non-traditional avenues that lead to teacher licensure" (Mikulecky, Shkodriani, & Wilner, 2004, p. 1). The United States Department of Education (2006) reported that several common characteristics emerged for alternative certification programs (ACPs) since 2000. These included: "focus on recruitment, preparation and licensing of individuals who have already earned at least a

bachelor's degree; field-based experience; course work or equivalent experiences while teaching; candidate monitoring during the first years of teaching; a rigorous screening process; and high performance standards that all candidates must meet" (p. 10). In 2006, the United States Department of Education reported that about 19% of individuals who completed teacher preparation programs were prepared in alternative certification programs; however, the proportion was higher in fast-growing states such as New York where 42% were alternatively prepared.

The Future of Teacher Preparation

Studies strongly suggested that teacher quality made the single greatest impact on student achievement, and United States policymakers recognized the critical role of the teacher in student learning (Viadero, 2005). Thus, the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB)* called for a "highly qualified" teacher in every classroom in America. A highly qualified teacher, as defined by the NCLB Act, met any combination of "a list of minimum requirements related to content knowledge and teaching skills" (United States Department of Education [US DOE], 2003, p. 1) determined by the state in which they taught. These requirements may have included obtaining full state certification, having a minimum of a bachelor's degree, and demonstrating subject matter competency in each subject taught. Even with these parameters, Torff (2005) explained that many educators agreed more initiatives were needed to upgrade the quality and quantity of the nation's workforce of teachers, but consensus broke down when determining how to accomplish such a task.

In the United States Department of Education's *Strategic Plan, 2002-2007* (2002), Objective 2.4 stated that the Department of Education "will work with the states, institutions of

higher education, alternative route programs, and accreditation agencies to dramatically improve the quality of teacher preparation” (p. 40). Furthermore, in a report titled *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge: The Secretary’s Third Annual Report on Teacher Quality* (United States Department of Education [US DOE], 2004), United States Secretary of Education Margaret Spellings proclaimed that “improving the quality of teacher preparation is as important as any education challenge that has faced the nation” (p. 13). She also noted that “all will need to fully embrace and rally around this critically important goal if we are to succeed” because it would “require nothing less than a national commitment” (US DOE, 2004, p. 13).

Strategies that were attempted in effort to improve teacher preparation programs involved state and/or external accreditation based on criteria or standards. However, this approach did not guarantee superior teachers (Education Commission of the States, 2000). Furthermore, there was no definitive correlation between program components and quality teachers (Education Commission of the States, 2000). Linda Darling-Hammond (1992) stated, “Reconfiguration of teacher preparation programs is necessary in order to provide a better integrated course of studies relating many areas of knowledge directly to classroom teaching issues” (p. 24). The best quality learning environments for pre-service teachers were those that shaped opportunities for exploration, examination, application and reflection of the teaching and learning activity (Darling-Hammond, 1997). However, Norton (1997) explained that teacher education programs could not address every situation a teacher may possibly encounter.

Teachers in the 21st century needed the knowledge and ability to do much more than their predecessors. Teachers in the United States were expected to “increase student achievement to the highest levels in history in a new standards-based, accountability-driven system of

education” (Levine, 2006, p. 5). This was a fundamentally different responsibility than that of past generations of teachers. Ideally, teachers' academic preparation matched the increasingly rigorous demands of the classroom.

Strong teacher preparation programs were essential to building a teacher work force qualified to meet high standards for all students (Arntsen, Compton, Gottlieb, & Roth-Mizgala, 1998). Teacher education programs needed to include various experiences throughout their entirety to help aspiring teachers integrate theory with practice and become highly qualified educators. There was a need to examine these programs in order to redesign teacher education in the future. The best aspects of each teacher training program must be combined, because if teachers in America do not receive the highest-quality preparation, the lack of highly qualified instructors will continue to exist (Dean, Lauer, & Urquhart, 2005).

Statement of Problem

In the 21st century, when medicine, law, and other occupations with which teaching was often compared developed extensive and elaborate systems of professional education, teacher education continually faced challenges to its very existence (Urban, 1990). Teachers were often critical of their education programs for not preparing them for success in the classroom. One could argue that this indicated issues and concerns with the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs.

Teacher education programs had many similarities and differences, and traditionally shared a common goal to prepare effective practitioners (Norton, 1997). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1999), many teachers were not adequately prepared during their pre-service education for the complex and changing demands they faced in their

classrooms. Teachers must be able to educate every child in their class to achieve the same learning outcomes at a time in which the student body has changed economically, racially, geographically, linguistically and academically (Levine, 2006). David C. Berliner, former Dean of the College of Education at Arizona State University, stated, “A college degree in education only takes you so far. It prepares you to be a beginner in a complex world” (Scherer, 2001, p. 7). As of 2005, unprepared teachers exited the classroom at an alarming rate of 46% within the first five years (Rubalcava, 2005; Fulton et al., 2005).

While federal and state governments, as well as private foundations, spent millions of dollars attempting to improve teacher preparation and “reports filled with critiques and recommendations continue[d] to be issued with predictable regularity” (Fraser, 2007, p. 1) the history of teacher education was somewhat neglected. Fraser pointed out that the call for reform in teacher education was nothing new, and the debate between preparing teachers for the art or science of teaching continued. In fact, it was present in every generation in the history of preparing America’s teachers. Borrowman (1965) recounted that in the classical tradition of teacher education before the 19th century, the liberal arts degree was equivalent to teacher preparation. The liberal arts degree included literature and mental, moral, and natural philosophy, which supported the view of teaching as an art. The 19th century development of pedagogy as a specialized field of study radically altered teacher education. Horace Mann and his normal school contemporaries argued that colleges were too committed to non-technical teacher training, and claimed education was a science based on a specialized body of knowledge; however, craftsmanship, or the art of teaching, was of equal importance. By the early 20th century, some normal school and college educators deemed “purists” by Borrowman (1965) felt

that all pre-service teacher instruction should be rigorously tested for its contribution to competence in classroom teaching, thus favoring the view of education as a science. Others argued that colleges should remain focused on liberal arts instruction, while universities should provide the professional, technical education. Still others, including John Dewey, supported Mann's assertion that education was both an art and a science.

This study explored teacher preparation program content throughout its history in order to determine trends in programs of study, specifically including coursework in education foundations, teaching methods involving the behavioral sciences, and subject area content. These categories were selected because their content is responsible for teachers' working knowledge of their subject area, as well as student learning, behavior management and motivation. Knowledge voids in these critical areas were cited as most problematic for beginning teacher success in the classroom (Veenman, 1984; Gratch, 1998). It was unclear which components of teacher preparation programs, those based on the art or science of teaching, contributed to success in the classroom.

Research Questions

In 2001, the United States Department of Education commissioned a report by the Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy in which it was noted that research on teacher education was a relatively new field. Wilson, Floden, and Ferrini-Mundy (2001) explained, "The development of a sustained line of scholarship that examines the content, character, and impact of teacher education programs only began in the 1960s and gained momentum in the 1980s" (p. 1).

This study added to the research base on teacher preparation programs by examining program components from normal schools through those in contemporary alternative certification programs. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How has American teacher education evolved since the inception of formal public teacher preparation programs?
2. How has American teacher education, as well as the metaphorical view of teaching as an art or a science, been affected by historical events, politics, and other outside influences?
3. What program requirements specific to education foundations such as the history and philosophies of education, behavioral sciences and teaching methods such as instructional design and student behavior management, and subject area content were included in traditional and alternative elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs from 1839 to 2007?
4. How did American teacher education program requirements throughout history align with commonly cited teacher knowledge voids such as student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided to ensure uniform understanding of terms used throughout the study.

Alternative Certification Program (ACP): A program of study that allows individuals who typically possess an undergraduate degree in a field other than education to take part in on-the-job or shortened training leading to certification (Legler, 2002).

Common School: A free, universal, tax-supported school which was founded in New England in the nineteenth century (Urban, 1990).

Education Foundations Coursework: For the purpose of this study, courses in the teacher education program which deal with purposes and theories of the content to be taught, differing philosophies of education, the history of education, conceptions of how teaching events influence learning, and illustrative cases” (Doyle, 1990).

General or Liberal Arts Education: General knowledge that educated individuals should have in common (Morey et al., 1997).

New Teacher: For the purpose of this study, a teacher with fewer than three years of classroom teaching experience.

Normal School: An educational institution that was established in the United States in the early nineteenth century for the specific purpose of training teachers.

Pedagogy: For the purpose of this study, the scientific methods and skills of teaching.

Teacher Education or Preparation Program: “Pre-service preparation that equips a teacher with the special knowledge and skills he or she needs to teach” (Coble et al., 2004).

Teaching Methods Coursework: For the purpose of this study, courses in the teacher education program which draw from behavioral sciences and educational psychology and deal with the methods of teaching a particular subject, student behavior management, instructional

design, and organizational learning. For the purpose of this study, teaching methods and pedagogy are interchangeable terms.

Traditional Teacher Education Program: For the purpose of this study, teacher preparation which takes place in a four-year college or university program.

Methodology

The history of teacher education which began in the normal school era and proceeded through contemporary alternative certification programs was examined through qualitative research. Relying on historical analysis for the study of teacher preparation sharpens perspective when encountering similar current events. Leedy, Newby, and Ertmer (1997) explained that historical research “looks intently at the currents and countercurrents of present and past events and at human thoughts and actions...with the hope of discerning dynamics that add rationality and meaning to the whole” (p. 173). Without historical perspective “we are in danger of falling into the mistaken and perhaps arrogant notion that the problems we face and the solutions we propose are unprecedented and bear no relationship to human problems of the past” (Furay & Salevouris, 1988, p. 1).

Programs of study from traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs were gathered from Massachusetts, Indiana, Tennessee, California and Florida in an effort to research across the United States. Archive librarians at the institutions housing these programs were contacted and asked for copies of undergraduate catalogs or other publications concerning educational foundations or teaching methods coursework in elementary and secondary teacher education programs. In addition, information pertaining to subject area coursework in English education was solicited. Librarians or program directors were asked to copy this information

beginning with their oldest archived documents. Documents from 1844 to 2007 were obtained for this research. Program components were analyzed for education foundations, teaching methods, or subject area content gaps which would correlate to teacher knowledge voids. Patterns were traced within teacher education programs focusing on the art or science of teaching. Trends in course offerings were investigated and linked to concurrent events which may have influenced them. The analysis reported in Chapters 4 and 5 presents the data both chronologically and thematically.

Significance of Study

This research contributed useful information to the small and conflicting body of knowledge on teacher preparation programs and their impact on beginning teacher success. In *Preparing America's Teachers: A History*, James Fraser (2007) insisted that teacher education was one of the most overlooked topics in the history of American education. According to Donato and Lazerson, "Educational historians can engage in efforts to...bridge the boundaries between history as a discipline and history as a way of rethinking the present" (2000, p. 8). Furthermore, Donato and Lazerson maintained that educational policy was often based on assumptions about events in educational history without care taken to obtain facts. Many contemporary educational issues, such as teacher preparation, evolved from historical roots which contributed to current policy and practice.

In the "Directions for Research" section of *Themes in Teacher Education Research*, Doyle (1990) suggested, "It might be useful to revisit many of the issues in discussions of method, in part to avoid the pitfalls of previous eras and also to frame research in ways that are intellectually productive and useful" (p. 20). He cautioned that many aspects of teaching have

been viewed as treatment variables and this preoccupation with causality has prevented researchers from understanding events and actions within contexts of purpose and meaning. Instead, they have treated these aspects of teaching as autonomous entities apart from the system of relations in which they are embedded. The results of this research provided a historical account of the evolution of teacher preparation program content and deepened understanding of the complexity of teacher education in order to better inform program construction in the future.

Limitations

Mauch and Birch (1998) defined a limitation as a factor that may affect a study but is out of the control of the researcher. Certain factors in this study limited its external and internal validity. First, the definitions of education foundations and teaching methods or pedagogy differed within the literature. While some educators and researchers included psychology and the behavioral sciences in education foundations coursework, others included the sciences in teaching methods. For the purpose of this research, behavioral science coursework was included in the teaching methods category.

The research was limited to a sample from selected geographical regions of the United States. The examination of the history of teacher preparation components was limited to those institutions and programs that responded to the researcher's request for transcripts, programs of study, and syllabi. The quantity and quality of materials contributed by these institutions, which often depended upon the availability of archives at the institution, further limited the study. Finally, the decisions of the researcher regarding the organization and reporting of the information also limited the study.

Conceptual Framework

According to Yarger and Smith (1990), there was no unified theory of teacher education; because this did not exist, research in this area was viewed as exploratory. Paradigms for teacher research focused on antecedents and outcomes rather than the process of educating teachers. Yarger and Smith argued that “this mentality must change if teacher educators expect to demonstrate that some generalizable principles of the education of teaching professionals exist” (p. 36). Therefore, a conceptual framework focused on the mechanisms used to educate prospective teachers guided this study.

Feiman-Nemser (1990) defined a conceptual orientation as “a set of ideas about the goals for teacher preparation and the means for achieving them” (p. 220). Doyle (1990) identified five major paradigms or themes underlying research in teacher education which served as the conceptual orientation for this study.

The good employee: According to this paradigm, pre-service education prepared teachers in the norms of the classroom. Graduates were able to enforce rules, manage classrooms and carry out standard forms of supervision and instruction with minimum supervision.

The junior professor: According to this paradigm, education instilled knowledge of core disciplines of the university curriculum, or the liberal arts, in pre-service teachers. Proponents of this paradigm argued that pedagogical coursework in colleges of education was not rigorous enough to produce effective teachers. They further supported that an internship under the direction of a skilled teacher was sufficient for learning how to teach.

The fully functioning person: According to this paradigm, teachers learned best through personal development, clarifying one’s values, and discovering one’s own meaning and style of

teaching. At the center of this paradigm were knowledge of human development and ability to create learning environments that promote growth.

The innovator: According to this paradigm, teacher education was utilized as a source of renewal for schools. Rather than educating teachers for norms of present schools, this paradigm focused on the current research which supported a technical and prescriptive focus. Rather than promote the best learning environment as an internship, clinical training occurred in a laboratory setting in which candidates were exposed to various models of innovative practices.

The reflective professional: According to this paradigm, pre-service teachers developed reflective capabilities through observation, analysis, interpretation, and decision making. Learning specific teaching skills was important when embedded in different contexts which enabled aspiring teachers to choose appropriate methods and then reflect on them.

These paradigms were utilized to frame the analysis of programs of study and other documentation received from traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs. Although teacher education programs varied widely across America, they all prepared their teachers based on one or more of these paradigms. However, in their variance, some excluded teaching factors that were crucial to the success and retention of new classroom teachers.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 presented the introduction to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, definition of terms, design of the study, significance of the study, limitations, and conceptual framework of the study. Chapter 2 included a review of literature and research related to the problem. Chapter 3 detailed the methodology and procedures for obtaining data for this study. An explanation of the data obtained was presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 contained

a summary of the findings along with themes that emerged from the analysis of the data and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provided a review of literature related to the history of teacher preparation in America. Elements of teacher education including coursework in education foundations, teaching methods, and subject area content were highlighted along with the ever-present debate over the view of teaching as an art or a science. An overview of the common school movement led to a description of teacher normal schools, the first public schools for teacher education. The review followed normal schools through their transition to teachers colleges and eventually the assimilation of teacher education programs by state colleges and universities. The review of teacher education programs continued with an explanation of alternative certification programs (ACPs) and their rapid expansion during the latter part of the 20th century. Literature regarding program support and criticism, as well as critical events in American educational history was included.

Free Public Education

Common Schools

Horace Mann, a lawyer elected to the newly created Massachusetts Board of Education in 1837, was often referred to as The Father of the Common School (Borrowman, 1965). Despite strong opposition from those who argued that schools should remain private initiatives, Mann and other political leaders wanted children of all groups together in a common school. They opposed the development of separate schools for different economic classes, churches, or ethnic groups, and they argued that a common system would reduce class, religious, and racial tensions (Lucas, 1997).

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts was the first to make elementary instruction free to all children in 1827. Using his position as Secretary of Education to enact major educational reform, Mann accelerated the common school movement offering a system of free, universal, and tax-supported grammar schools dedicated to moral and civic education (Lucas, 1997; Naylor, 2005; Urban, 1990). The English language was the chosen means for imparting a sense of national consciousness and culture, and Noah Webster's spellers were the primers used (Herbst, 1989). In addition to promoting English as a common language, Mann wished to create a united people by instilling in them the Protestant work ethic and standard of behavior (Herbst, 1989). According to Lucas (1997), Mann claimed that "the sheer power of popular learning would hold dissension and anarchy at bay" (p. 11). Raising a literate, obedient society would promote respect for private property, decency and gentility. The common school movement gained momentum and by the 1850s close to 81,000 public elementary schools were available, approximately one school for every 370 people. These free public schools enrolled over 75% of school-aged children at that time (Lucas, 1997).

During the early days of public schooling, a small fraction of those involved in public school-keeping were females (Lucas, 1997). Typically, men would teach in the winter months when they were not farming. Women took over during the time between planting and harvesting. However, a natural consequence of the multiplying common schools was the need for more teachers. Furthermore, the onset of industrialism and "the allure of adventure and economic opportunities beckoning from the western frontier" (Lucas, 1997, p. 12) left fewer and fewer males as teachers. Villages and towns turned to their recently graduated common school students to staff classrooms. Out of necessity, schools initiated a custom of choosing a young

female who performed well in the common school to supervise the class she had recently completed (Lucas, 1997). According to Lucas (1997), “the rationale offered for encouraging more women to become teachers stressed both economic and pedagogical advantages” (p. 13). Primarily, it helped to alleviate the teacher shortage. Some also claimed that the female’s innate abilities associated with nurturing and raising young children were the most important reasons for hiring more women. Eventually, it was also noticed that females worked for much less pay than was demanded by males, which also contributed to the increased hiring of women (Lucas, 1997).

High Schools

Although more females were teaching in common schools, high schools, which originated around the same time, were almost completely staffed by males. American high school teachers had reputations as learned scholars, which they traced to colonial times when, for example, the schoolmaster of the Latin grammar school had been a college-educated Latinist. These male teachers in those times enjoyed reputations comparable to lawyers and physicians (Herbst, 1989). Thus high school teachers were, from the beginning, not disposed to accept the normal schools as proper institutions for their own and their colleagues’ education. They outwardly opposed the views of Horace Mann and felt that normal school graduates could never compare with themselves, who had attended college or university.

One of the key components of some high schools was a separate course of study for those who wished to become normal school teachers. Although this specialized normal school curriculum was available in the high schools, a general high school diploma was often sufficient for employment as a teacher. There were roughly 21 high schools with normal departments in

the United States around 1885. In most cases, this was the only secondary program open to females; however, it was usually open to males in addition to their other opportunities (Fraser, 2007). One hardship for women hoping to expand their education was that high schools were often located in cities and only 14 of them accepted female students (Herbst, 1989). Academies, on the other hand, numbered around 75, but they required paying expenses for room, board, and tuition (Herbst, 1989). With financial and geographical hardships, this left females little other opportunity besides textile mills for lucrative employment between common schooling and marriage (Borrowman, 1965). According to Fraser, the normal course became a “girl’s ghetto” within the high school (p. 87). An 1873 survey of St. Louis High School alumni showed that over 90 percent of the school’s graduates who became teachers were women. A similar survey in Detroit showed that 95 percent of graduates who taught were women (Fraser, 2007).

Due to declining numbers of men becoming teachers and the educational hurdles women had to overcome, Horace Mann lacked hope that the existing secondary schools and colleges could train enough teachers to staff the new common schools. He and his contemporaries felt that students who attended these teacher preparation institutions either entered teaching for only a short time or did not enter at all, usually because of other opportunities afforded to them through social class backgrounds (Borrowman, 1965). School reformers wanted an increase in better-prepared teachers as a step toward the increasing professionalism of teaching (Ogren, 2005). Normal schools, proposed as schools specifically for teacher preparation, would open doors for students who did not have those opportunities for educational advancement elsewhere. These teacher training schools fulfilled the pressing social need of filling teaching vacancies with teachers who were prepared for practical matters in the common school classroom.

The Normal School

Although the idea of establishing an “institution specifically dedicated by the state to the preparation of teachers who would learn both what to teach and how to teach in the service of an expanding country” had existed for some time, Horace Mann was typically given credit for making it a reality (Fraser, 2007, p. 49). Until these teacher normal schools arose, many felt that teachers, who earned less than mechanics, would not be able to pay for full time schooling (Herbst, 1989). However, the Massachusetts Board of Education pledged to waive tuition in exchange for a student’s commitment to teach in the common schools after graduation. Students were responsible for providing their own books, room and board, and incidentals (Herbst, 1989).

Normal schools hoped to attract graduates of more elite academies and secondary schools; however, the majority of students aspiring to become teachers had only an elementary education background themselves (Levine, 2006). Due to the fact that normal school students had limited knowledge to draw upon, early normal school leaders had little expectation that graduates would pursue educational leadership. This was a class of students who had limited opportunity for advanced education in the existing colleges and academies or for achievement in professions other than teaching (Borrowman, 1965). Citizens who fought to have normal schools in their communities did so with the goal of a post-elementary education for their children similar to that provided in high schools and academies (Urban, 1990).

A chronically high absentee rate was typical in normal schools, and many students accepted teaching jobs without finishing the program (Levine, 2006). A student’s attendance did not necessarily indicate that he or she wished to become a teacher; some students merely wanted to strengthen their skills, which they might have used for a variety of other purposes (Urban,

1990). Herbst (1989) pointed out that an unintended effect of normal schools was that they helped many students escape from their rural lifestyle into a world of other opportunities.

In July 1839, the first American normal school was established at Lexington, Massachusetts principally to contribute to staffing the American common school (Borrowman, 1965; Urban, 1990). It offered a year of study for aspiring elementary teachers including the subjects they would teach, how to teach them, and practice teaching in a model school (Coble et al., 2004). Cyrus Peirce, a teacher and principal from Nantucket and graduate of Harvard College and the Harvard Divinity School, was appointed principal of the first normal school, which eventually moved to a permanent home in Framingham, Massachusetts (Fraser, 2007; Herbst, 1989). This normal school accepted only females, and to enter, applicants had to pass an examination in the common school subjects, prove their intellectual capability and high moral character, and be in good health (Herbst, 1989). The average student age during the first decade of the Lexington normal school's existence was 18.5, with the youngest allowed at age 16 and the oldest student in her late twenties (Herbst, 1989).

The second normal school opened later in 1839 at Barre in Massachusetts with the same entrance requirements; however, it accepted both females and males (Herbst, 1989). The inaugural class included 12 women and eight men. The opening oration was given by Governor Edward Everett, who listed four core elements to the program of instruction at Barre. First was a review of the branches of knowledge to be taught in the common schools because "the teacher should know well what he or she is teaching to others" (Fraser, 2007, p. 52). The second element was an equal emphasis on "the art of teaching" (p. 53) because there were specific methods teachers had to learn for teaching each branch of knowledge. Third, future teachers

were expected to become experts in “government of the school” (p. 53) which included maintaining order in the classroom and becoming a moral influence on the community. Finally, Governor Everett saw the model school as an essential piece of the normal school education in order to allow future teachers to observe and practice teaching before assuming full responsibility for a classroom.

According to Fraser (2007), normal schools carried on following Everett’s mandate. They offered instruction in the liberal arts beyond the common school curriculum to students who had no other opportunities to study in high school, academy, or college. They provided practical advice about instruction and classroom management based on the craft knowledge of acknowledged experts, often referred to as the art of teaching. Finally, they offered the opportunity to teach under observation with feedback intended to improve the teaching ability of the novice teachers who studied there.

Pedagogy in the Normal School

In his article titled “The Sins of 1839,” W.C. Ruediger noted that the “pride of craft, the indispensable spirit of the teaching profession, has been the unique contribution of normal schools and teachers colleges” (cited in Borrowman, 1965, p. 25). Indeed, the goal of Horace Mann in establishing normal schools was, by isolation from other institutions and emphasis on elementary education, to instill a sense of calling in future teachers. Principal Cyrus Peirce lectured on such topics as “the motives, qualifications and responsibilities of a teacher” as referenced in Lexington Normal School student Mary Swift’s journal (Borrowman, 1965, p. 58).

In a letter to Henry Barnard dated 1851, Cyrus Peirce provided insight on expanding the normal school mission. Peirce explained that he hoped to create better teachers for the common

schools so that children could learn information that would be useful to them outside of school. He continued writing that he felt, “education had claims to be regarded as a science, being based on immutable principles, of which the practical teacher, though he may modify them to meet the change of ever-varying circumstances, can never lose sight” (Borrowman, 1965, p. 68). Thus, at their first annual American Normal School Association convention in 1859, the principals passed a resolution proclaiming that “teaching is a profession based on the science of education” (Borrowman, 1965, p. 25). Therefore, by the mid-1800s, common philosophy deemed teaching both an art and a science.

Normal school professors were charged with conveying to their students “some appreciation of child development and the principles and methods of elementary school teaching and classroom management” (Herbst, 1989, p. 63). Borrowman (1965) termed the methodology by means of which knowledge could be transmitted a “bag of tricks,” but acknowledged that the more sophisticated title was “the art of teaching” (p. 23). Adams (1965) described the art of teaching in four parts: the history of education, the philosophy of education, methods in the school room, and the teachers’ seminary. The history of education included an explanation of foundations and methods from ancient, medieval and modern times. The philosophy of education involved analysis and discussion of theories about the human mind. Adams noted that the successful study and teaching of pedagogy, as a science, depended upon psychology, and the best teachers concentrated on this area. Methods in the school room were concerned with classroom management, methods of instruction, the art of grading, and “general school-room practice” (p. 91). Finally, the teachers’ seminary included discussion of the problems specific to teaching and comparative study of various systems of education. Adams also explained that

there may be methods coursework based on specific subjects included in the teacher education program.

According to Adams, the study of pedagogy was crucial to teacher success, but its overall knowledge base was limited during the early years of teacher preparation. This least developed aspect of normal school curriculum commonly relied on personal anecdotes from the school principal, who most likely was a successful teacher (Fraser, 2007). Some claimed “the art of teaching” coursework was not necessary because students had the opportunity to observe this very thing during their own common school experiences. Furthermore, whether any such principles and norms existed or needed to be explicitly taught was often disputed, as well as the question of normal schools’ sufficiency for doing so (Lucas, 1997).

However, others felt that observation was an unsafe guide for learning how to impart instruction, or what to teach and what to leave untaught. Most normal school educators maintained that even though an individual acquired a certain amount of knowledge through liberal arts coursework, there was no guarantee that teaching methods and a love of learning would be effectively inculcated in children. Therefore, coursework in pedagogy was required (Sarason, Davidson, & Blatt, 1986). Cyrus Peirce believed that although novice teachers could learn the necessary skills for teaching by trial and error, it would be at the expense of their students (Lucas, 1997). He therefore touted the normal school for imparting the basic rules for teaching and its underlying principles through direct instruction. According to Peirce, “the art of teaching must be made the great, the paramount, the only concern” (Borrowman, 1965, p. 31). In his letter to Barnard, Peirce described, “...the educator [should] teach that knowledge first, which the child can most easily comprehend...begin with what is simple and known, and go on

by easy steps to what is complex and unknown; that for true progress and lasting results, it were better for the attention to be concentrated on a few studies, and for a considerable time, than to be divided among many...that in training children we must concede a special recognition to the principle of curiosity, a love of knowledge..." (Borrowman, 1965, p. 68). Thus, Peirce seemed to include teaching methods as the largest factor in the art of teaching.

In *Science and the Act of Education*, published in 1886 (cited in Sarason, et. al., 1986), Payne also wrote about the importance of learning with the purpose of becoming a teacher as opposed to learning as a common school student. He explained, "There can be no doubt that the teacher should have an accurate knowledge of the subject he professes to teach.... But, then, it is very possible that although his experience has been real and personal, it may not have been conscious—that is, that he may have been too much absorbed in the process itself to take account of the natural laws of its operation" (p. 36). Payne described that this was the science behind learning, which teachers must understand in order to impart knowledge. He concluded, "...knowing a subject is a very different thing than knowing how to teach it" (p. 36).

Exemplifying that he not only believed teaching was an art, but that he concurred with Payne on the importance of teaching as a science, Peirce wrote "The old method of teaching Arithmetic, for instance, by taking up some printed treatise and solving abstract questions consisting of large numbers...would now be regarded as less philosophical, less in conformity to mental development, than the more modern way of beginning with mental Arithmetic, using practical questions, which involve small numbers, and explaining the reason of every step as you go along" (Borrowman, 1965, p. 69). Furthermore, regarding the methods of teaching reading, Peirce wrote to Barnard, "And the teacher who should attempt to teach reading by requiring a

child to repeat from day to day, and from month to month, the whole alphabet, until he is familiar with all the letters, as was the fashion in former days, would deserve to lose his place and be sent himself to school” (Borrowman, 1965, p. 70). Cyrus Peirce realized that both the art and science of teaching were integral to teacher education.

In 1891, Harvard philosopher Josiah Royce wrote an essay entitled *Is There a Science of Education?* denying the possibility of a true science of education. He explained, “Scientific pedagogy...will be limited to pointing out what does, on the whole, tend toward good order and toward the organization of impulses into character. This is the whole province of pedagogy as a general science. Its application to the conditions of a particular time, nation, family, and child, will be a matter of art, not of science. And therefore, no concrete educational questions can be solved in terms of an universally valid science” (Royce, as cited in Borrowman, 1965, p. 107). Royce continued to write, “If...you are an educator, and have to influence for a moral and social purpose the growth of a child...your knowledge, say of psychology, ought to aid you in your work; and in so far there will be a scientific element in education....You will degrade science,--not help your children,--if you persist in seeing only the ‘scientific’ aspects of your pedagogy. True pedagogy is an art” (p. 109). This essay from the early era of teacher preparation programs was typical of the debate between teaching as an art or a science throughout history.

Content Area Coursework in the Normal School

The Massachusetts normal schools included a review of spelling, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic. The Bible was the daily text for students, and additional subjects to be taught if time allowed were logic, geometry, bookkeeping, navigation, surveying,

history, physiology, mental and natural philosophy, and “the principles of piety and morality common to all sects of Christians” (Herbst, 1989, p. 62).

Cyrus Peirce often lamented that content area study dominated normal school curriculum because students were less prepared than initially expected. Much time was spent reviewing common school subjects (Fraser, 2007). William F. Phelps, principal of the Trenton, New Jersey Normal School, agreed. He argued that the normal school curriculum should include advanced liberal coursework, but he was constantly reminded that his students did not have a solid elementary background to build upon. Supporting Phelps’ position, S.S. Parr, president of the National Education Association’s Normal School Department in 1888, insisted that higher standards of entry be expected for prospective normal school students so that more advanced professional training could be accomplished (Borrowman, 1965). However, Horace Mann favored the restriction of the normal school curriculum because he wished for normal schools to become distinct institutions where the students would realize a sense of mission and dedication to service through teaching (Borrowman, 1965). He did not want students to become sidetracked by academic offerings outside of the direct focus of common school teaching.

Although Mann wished for a narrow curriculum, the trend in the 1870s and 1880s was to expand the course of study in the normal schools. The addition of subjects resembling those taught in academies and high schools left critics sensing that normal schools wished to compete with them. Normal school leaders defended their curriculum expansion by arguing that as professional standards were raised, it was expected that elementary teachers should increase their educational background as well. They also explained that the subject matter coursework was different from offerings of academies and high schools because instructors emphasized how the

content could best be taught to children (Lucas, 1997). This idea was promoted at Indiana State Normal School, for example, where courses in subject matter modeled principles taught in professional courses on the psychology of learning. The courses then engaged students in reflection on their experience as learners so they could understand some of the issues their future students might face (Feiman-Nemser, 1990).

Model Schools

Several types of practice were provided to pre-service teachers in the normal schools. These included exercises in conducting the regular classes of the normal school, classes of peers acting as children so the practicing teacher could have a near-authentic experience, and teaching in a separate common school where they were entrusted with the class (Edwards 1865, as cited in Borrowman, 1965). Edwards continued by explaining, “The school for practice is unquestionably essential to the complete idea of a normal school” (p. 81). This was the portion of the normal school student’s learning where he or she encountered real world situations.

Sarason et. al. (1986) explained that the training of teachers in the techniques of teaching fell short of the goal of blending educational theory and practice. The model school setting was a place where aspiring teachers could apply theories they had studied to a real world setting, receive immediate feedback from a supervisor, and practice reteaching a concept. This was a “new and important breakthrough in the structuring of professional education” (Fraser, 2007, p. 54). Cyrus Peirce and his colleagues believed that the model school, or “direct school practice under careful supervision,” was the most important part of the normal school venture (Fraser, 2007, p. 54). Fraser further explained that “when the links between the normal schools and their practice school were in place, the opportunities for practice teaching were the pride and joy of

the normal faculty” (p. 54). Clifford and Guthrie (1988) claimed that practice schools fostered close ties between theory and practice, and this was a relationship that would be cited as lacking in the future.

Normal Schools in Flux

Massachusetts Governor Edward Everett, who was supportive of the teacher education movement, was defeated by Marcus Morton in the 1840 election, and the first two normal schools were almost closed (Fraser, 2007). Morton felt that it was impossible and undesirable to continue to support the normal school establishment for teacher education. The academies and high schools cost the Commonwealth nothing, and their competitive spirit, Morton claimed, would increase the quality of the graduates they were to produce. The Committee on Education of the Massachusetts House of Representatives recommended abolishing the state board of education, the office of secretary, and the two normal schools that were opened. The Committee argued that the cause of poor quality teaching was not poor training on the part of the high schools and academies, but poor compensation for the teachers. However, when the bill came to a vote in the House of Representatives, the Committee report was rejected and all remained in place (Fraser, 2007).

Other states soon followed Massachusetts’ lead and opened normal schools for the purposes of preparing new teachers. New York, Connecticut, Michigan, Minnesota, and Illinois were among the early followers, yet by 1865 there were still only 15 state institutions for teacher education. By 1885, normal schools existed in states from Maine to California. However, their expansion took over half a century.

Although schools specifically dedicated to teacher education were spared in 1840, they continued to face scrutiny. Institutions that traditionally supplied teachers such as high schools, academies, and Latin grammar schools continued to operate, and many felt that their educational offering was far superior to that of normal schools (Lucas, 1997). Lucas explained, “what normal school students received...amounted to little more than a brief review of the subjects they were expected to teach when they returned to primary classrooms, plus some didactic instruction in pedagogy and a smattering of advice on school discipline and classroom management” (1997, p. 30).

Near the end of the 19th century, the number of public normal schools reached 127; however, all public and private normal schools together that year graduated no more than one quarter of the new teachers hired (Tyack, 1967). Many common school teachers without formal training were hired by locally oriented boards of education without strict standards of qualification. They hired some individuals who attended common schools to simply return to those schools as teachers (Urban, 1990). A survey of teachers in rural Pennsylvania in the early 1900s confirmed the limited impact of normal schools, showing that 76 percent of the 10,000 respondents had no normal school education of any kind. Only 18 percent were normal school graduates. Many attended high school, but 39 percent reported they had no secondary education (Fraser, 2007).

The public and the universities were apathetic toward normal schools because it was generally assumed that teaching was an occupation that required no professional knowledge. Sarason et. al. (1986) claimed the fact that normal schools developed outside of universities was largely responsible for educational debates throughout history into the present regarding the

worth and placement of teacher preparation programs. The number of normal schools reached approximately 326 in 1920; however, the onset of accreditation, professional organizations like the National Education Association, and the rapid growth of high schools prompted teacher normal schools to become competitive with colleges.

In 1919, the National Council of State Normal School Presidents and Principals appointed a Committee on Standards and Surveys to review the purpose, standards and curriculum of normal schools. It was this council that stated the normal school admissions standard would be satisfactory completion of four years of work in a secondary school approved by a recognized accrediting agency or the equivalent (Fraser, 2007). Because of the rapid increase in high school availability, the elementary and high school teacher shortage, and the demand for all high school teachers to earn a bachelor's degree, the committee was confident that their recommendation must be supported. Additionally, normal schools were determined not to allow universities to completely take control of the development of high school teachers. Therefore, the normal school would offer only college level work from this point forward. The committee and others involved in normal schools felt that their degree would only be meaningful if it was equivalent to the collegiate baccalaureate degree (Fraser, 2007). Though they knew they were still preparing only a fraction of America's teachers, they felt it better to maintain standards for what a teacher should know and be able to do.

When students began entering normal schools with a high school education, they were able to begin studying the curriculum at an intellectually higher level. This included progressively more complex analyses of teaching (Urban, 1990). Partly in response to competition from liberal arts colleges, normal schools hired faculty from these institutions and

began including more liberal arts in their programs of study (Morey et al., 1997). They opened their doors to aspiring secondary teachers and extended the length of programs to two years for elementary and four years for secondary certification, and by 1930 most normal schools became collegiate institutions often referred to as teachers colleges (Levine, 2006; Morey et al., 1997).

Teachers Colleges

The addition of liberal arts professors to teacher education changed the culture of the normal schools, which were transforming into teachers colleges. According to Levine (2006), “there were tensions over just about anything arts and sciences and professional faculties could disagree about” (p. 24). These disagreements included the quality of pedagogical instruction, the relevance of liberal arts coursework, the appropriate balance between academic and vocational coursework, and the requirements for admission to and graduation from teacher preparation programs. Coble et. al. (2004) listed the following differences between normal schools and teachers colleges:

- [1.] A four-year curriculum versus one that was two or three years
- [2.] Study of content well beyond what was to be taught
- [3.] The addition of a general education program more comparable to the liberal education provided for any baccalaureate degree
- [4.] Increased requirements in a major field
- [5.] A full program of professional studies in history and foundations of education, and curriculum and teaching methods
- [6.] Several practica, culminating in student teaching (pp. 4-5)

The first normal school to become a teachers college was Michigan’s state normal school at Ypsilanti, which became Michigan State Normal College (Coble et al., 2004). By 1920, 46 public and private teachers colleges were established. The National Council of State Normal School Presidents and Principals became the National Council of State Teachers Colleges, which

then merged with the National Education Association's Department of Normal Schools in 1923 to become the American Association of Teachers Colleges (AATC) (Fraser, 2007). Fraser (2007) explained that many normal schools gradually accepted the AATC recommendations to adopt the attributes of colleges, offering a four-year baccalaureate program. Some changed their names to teachers colleges after implementing the standards, while others changed their names first and then tried to live up to the academic expectations implied.

When normal schools became teachers colleges and began to compete with universities as producers of high school teachers they began to offer considerably more general education coursework (Urban, 1990). This led to the hire of faculty who were trained in academic subjects and not in the preparation of teachers. The academic faculty, as they were called, did not have the priority of preparing teachers and brought university values from their own disciplines into the teachers college setting. Their goal was to have students major in their subjects and have their identity formed by their subject matter professors, even if they also earned a high school teaching certificate.

A common argument from critics of teacher education entering the college ranks was that "educationists seized upon the opportunity to ensure their pedagogical interests would dominate a disproportionate share of the undergraduate curriculum," and this was at the expense of liberal arts courses (Lucas, 1997, p. 57). According to liberal arts tradition, "to be liberally educated and to be prepared to teach (were) equivalent" (Borrowman, 1965, p. 1). Contrary to the critics' argument, in the early 1920s, the median number of education foundations and methods credits required of secondary education majors was only approximately 20 hours out of 120 needed for graduation. This included credit for practice teaching. However, many students chose to take

more pedagogical courses. It was generally the case that elementary education majors were required to take more credit hours in pedagogy than secondary education majors (Lucas, 1997).

Early on, the student teaching experience in teachers colleges was typically done in the laboratory school setting. Laboratory schools were owned by the institution and not governed by local boards of education. The students were generally sons and daughters of the college faculties; therefore, they were quite segregated (Coble et. al., 2004). Laboratory schools around the turn of the century focused on research activities that were designed to improve the experiences of pre-service teachers. John Dewey felt that the teaching laboratory was to pedagogy what a clinical laboratory was to biology and physics. Like any laboratory, it had two main purposes. The first was to exhibit, test, verify, and criticize theoretical statements and principles, and the second was to increase the knowledge base of the profession (Stallings & Kowalski, 1990). However, the laboratory school came under fire during the Civil Rights era due to its exclusiveness; therefore, most of them disappeared by 1970 (Ogden, 2006). The teachers college era was relatively short-lived and served largely as a transition between normal schools and colleges and universities.

Those frustrated with the quality of American teacher education called for a study which the federal government published in six volumes in the early 1930s. The authors of *The National Survey of the Education of Teachers* acknowledged that teacher standards had been traditionally low. They pointed out that while many states had accepted that the minimum preparation for elementary teachers should be two years beyond the completion of high school, at least 25 percent of American teachers had not met this minimum. Those teachers who were least prepared were disproportionately located in rural areas. About 60 percent of teachers in one or

two-teacher schools in the country had less than two years of college-level preparation. Furthermore, across the country only one in eight elementary teachers held a college degree. About 13 percent of high school teachers needed further study to complete their degrees. The authors' hope was that the Great Depression would offer time to reflect upon and raise teacher standards while there was a surplus of teachers (Herbst, 1989).

A study of 57 teachers colleges in 1930 revealed that while all of them offered the four-year teacher education program, 80 percent of them still offered the two-year elementary certification program. Six offered a three-year program, which left five teachers colleges offering only the four-year degree. Great variety existed in the requirements of the two and four-year teacher education programs. One college required 60 hours of student teaching while another required 432 hours in their two-year programs. In four-year programs, 10 percent of colleges required less than 120 hours of student teaching while approximately 50 percent required more than 240 hours. The study concluded with the finding that teachers from both two and four-year preparation programs at teachers colleges received inadequate general education and professional preparation. Therefore, teachers colleges did not seem superior to the more informal routes to teaching still in use in 1930 (Fraser, 2007).

Because teachers colleges had already diversified their programs and become liberal arts colleges, it was not long before the word "teachers" was replaced with "state" (Labaree, 2004, p. 6). Community members and legislators promoted the evolution to state colleges because it meant more students for their institutions. Over time the broadening scope of courses led to the establishment of bachelor's degrees in education. Education became a separate entity in many of these colleges, which then became multipurpose universities (Morey et al., 1997).

State Colleges and Universities

Many college and university trustees and presidents resisted pressures to offer teacher training. Because universities were typically oriented to advanced study and research, their faculties studied education with the purpose of providing a science of education, or a systematic approach to the subject, by which the various schools and colleges that had been developing could organize themselves (Urban, 1990). Their approach to education was largely related to cognitive and behavioral sciences encompassing educational psychology.

Initially, college and university teacher preparation in the 19th century focused on the teaching of subject matter and the preparation of high school teachers (Morey et al., 1997). High school teachers needed training in advanced subject matter, and the number of normal schools was clearly insufficient for the increasing number of high schools. Illinois provided one example of the increase in high schools from 108 in 1870 to 208 in 1890 (Herbst, 1989). By focusing on high school teachers, universities felt they could “affirm a link with the schools, but not one with the low-status, common, elementary schools” (Urban, 1990, p. 64).

The impetus for the transition from teachers colleges to state colleges and universities came about when educators realized that, like law and other professions, “education had been growing up from the early normal school days of empirical application of vocational skills to a more theoretical understanding of the profession” (Sarason, et. al., 1986). Sarason et. al. explained that the overwhelming need for teachers paired with the requirements that elementary teachers were to develop ever-increasing competencies in a new technological society made it obvious that teachers needed an education which normal schools and teachers colleges were not able to provide.

University colleges of education began to grow in the late 19th century. Universities saw them as an avenue to alleviating enrollment problems because they would appeal to a different demographic: prospective female students. According to Urban (1990), universities felt that “this would be accomplished in a way that would allow women to enroll but not spread their presence or their influence across the campuses” (p. 63). Further contributions to increased enrollment in college and university departments of education were the end of World War II and the GI Bill. There was a much greater demand for university education, and adding to existing institutions was simpler than building new ones (Coble et. al., 2004).

By the end of the 1800s, at least 114 colleges and universities out of 400 sponsored a teachers program of study. Around 1892, at least 31 major universities housed chairs of pedagogy, and others had linked chairs of pedagogy with appointments in philosophy or rhetoric (Lucas, 1997). About 250 chairs of pedagogy existed in colleges or universities by 1910. The sharp increase in the national birthrate during the 1950s and 1960s resulted in a doubling of the number of teachers in America. According to Lucas, turnover, rising standards of preparation, and new mandated educational services kept teachers in great demand. By the mid-1960s, 75 percent of American colleges and universities were preparing teachers, and approximately 90 percent of pre-service teachers were attending them.

Components of College and University Teacher Preparation Programs

According to Levine (2006), “the greatest commonality among university-based teacher education programs (was) their diversity” (p. 15). There was no such thing as a typical education school and “colleges of education (have) scores of programs in a cornucopia of subject areas, covering education in the broadest sense of the term—in and out of the classroom and across the

lifespan” (Levine, 2006, p. 7). Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy (2001) reported not only of the variance between course offerings, but also between the sequence of courses in teacher education programs across colleges and universities. Although courses may have shared the same title, they could have been alternatively structured or covered different material, further compounding the problem.

However, given any title or course sequence, essential elements of teacher preparation programs that allowed teachers to go through their initial phases of learning included acquiring subject or content knowledge, studying the learning process or gaining knowledge of pedagogy, and building a beginning set of approaches to planning, instruction, and assessment (Feiman-Nemser, 2004). The National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (1997) reported that teachers needed rigorous training in education theory and pedagogy. The four-year program of study in which this typically occurred was referred to as a traditional teacher preparation program.

The history of teacher preparation in the United States was a foundation for the “continuing struggle to balance the amount of time and credit given to the various components: liberal/general education, specialization in subject matter, and pedagogy” (Morey et al., 1997, p. 6). Liberal or general education referred to a body of knowledge which universities typically attempted to instill in their students and generally took one to two years to complete. These courses were rarely deliberately articulated with the professional sequence. Few questioned the value of liberal education in the teacher education sequence; however, the issue was its quality and coherence within the total program. Lucas (1997) shared that general education was in a

state of growing disarray, and there was almost no shared vision of which core learning was essential to teaching.

In addition to general education components across a university, there were those that all students in a college of education should complete. Some of these were pedagogical coursework, which referred to the “knowledge teachers need in order to represent and impart subject matter to students” (Morey et al., 1997, p. 8). These courses usually included human development and learning, intelligence and its measurement, and human motivation. They were often placed within the general education program of study along with educational foundations coursework. The educational foundations were cross-disciplinary and broad, deriving their fundamental theories from a variety of academic disciplines, such as history, philosophy, sociology, and psychology (Borman, 1990). Although the nature of educational foundations coursework varied from one teacher preparation program to another, it was highly likely that pre-service teachers would encounter such coursework at least once (Borman, 1990).

Usually following general coursework, subject matter coursework assisted students in gathering a depth of knowledge and skill in their specified teaching area. Pre-service secondary teachers most often earned an academic major in the subject they wished to teach, while prospective elementary teachers enrolled in a more diversified series of courses. From the beginning of college and university teacher education programs there existed the issue of how much subject matter and pedagogy should be included (Coble et al., 2004). This continued to be an issue in modern colleges and universities, and was especially debated in the preparation of secondary teachers.

Teacher preparation programs depended upon the development of expertise through coursework and on the development of judgment through field experience. Gratch (1998) explained, “In order for either expertise or judgment to begin to develop in pre-service programs, these programs must help clarify the deep and complex connections between coursework and fieldwork experiences” (p. 2). Pre-service programs included various experiences throughout their entirety to help aspiring teachers integrate theory with practice and become highly qualified educators. Teacher educators continued refining and extending their own learning, building knowledge about teachers, and organizing that information into strategies for encouraging teacher growth (McNergney & Carrier, 1981). This was accomplished by working with more educators in various settings, and reflecting upon those interactions.

Stemming from their association with lower-level normal schools, educationists traditionally felt the need to elevate their status within the university (Lucas, 1997). Defenders of their place in the university originally based this on an underlying science of education, just as Pestalozzi had done in the 1800s. Methods of testing were devised for intelligence and achievement in order to ground practice in experimental and quantitative psychology and sociology. However, this quest to gain prestige may have widened the gap between theory and practical application in the classroom. A common complaint of students of education was that the abstract findings of educational science were not adapted to the needs of classroom teachers.

Education Foundations and Teaching Methods Courses in State Colleges and Universities

Linda Darling-Hammond (1992), a prominent researcher of teacher education, listed the foundational knowledge she felt teachers must have in order to facilitate student learning. It included knowledge of cognition; learning styles; motivation and behavior; how children and

adolescents develop physically, cognitively, and psychologically; organization of instruction; classroom management; effective teaching methods; special learning circumstances; multiple intelligences; and cultures. Foundational courses in traditional teacher preparation programs generally exposed students to texts and ideas regarding educational philosophy, human growth and development, contemporary issues and controversies, and the history of education. Pedagogical coursework was often required in several areas including the learning process, classroom management, curriculum development, multicultural education, and methods of teaching in various disciplines. Teaching methods courses included the selection and use of instructional materials and classroom teaching techniques (Morey et al., 1997). In a review of the research on teacher education Wilson et al. (2001) found two correlation studies in which research indicated education coursework was a better predictor of teaching success than content area coursework or grade point average.

Academic traditionalists argued that pedagogy would never deserve the status of being a true college discipline (Lucas, 1997). The general sentiment was that education lacked a well-defined body of knowledge and was unlikely to acquire one in the near future. When departments of education were established at colleges and universities, scholars experienced in organizing college-level coursework in pedagogy did not yet exist. Universities sometimes turned to former school superintendents and principals to help build teacher preparation programs. When pedagogical courses were organized by academics from the traditional disciplines, they were abstract and theoretical. Often, these teacher educators looked to the social science disciplines for any insight relevant to teaching children. Lucas (1997) explained that the expectation was that these studies might contribute to “a better understanding of schools

as social institutions, of learning in its cultural contexts, the nature of instructional goals, formative processes of child development, or ethical considerations in instruction” (p. 43).

The formal study of pedagogy was questioned for relevance to the process of becoming an effective teacher (Morey et al., 1997). Doyle (1990) argued that pedagogical knowledge was flawed in that it was based on craft experience or artistic sources. On the contrary, Shulman (1987) explained that the teacher educator could not prepare pre-service teachers without instilling in them the fundamental pedagogical understanding of subject matter content. This meant that teachers needed to know how to represent and impart subject matter to students. This level of content knowledge enabled the teacher to organize and manipulate the information associated with the discipline (Morey et al., 1997). Organization and manipulation involved drawing analogies, examples, hypotheses and theories regarding the content in order to help students grasp concepts and skills in the discipline. Shulman (1987) characterized this as the metacognitive capability to recognize alternative methods of organizing the content.

Some assumed that an education student’s preparation program was comprised almost entirely of education courses (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education [NCETE], 1985). In 1961, elementary education majors devoted nearly half of their studies to methods courses, while those majoring in secondary education spent about a quarter of their program in such coursework (Labaree, 2004). The National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education reported in 1985 that only 20 percent of a typical secondary education program was comprised of education courses, and more than a third of that was student teaching. In *The Miseducation of American Teachers*, James D. Koerner (1963) urged American colleges and universities to examine their teacher education programs. He felt that teacher training could

be accomplished in much less time, and that majors in education should be eliminated in favor of majors only in academic subjects. He claimed that methods courses should be incorporated into internships and managed by those who held advanced degrees in the academic subject.

Despite rather recent advances in understanding the learning process as well as the teacher's role as the facilitator of that process, pedagogical research did not achieve the rank of research in the arts and sciences in the academic hierarchy (Morey et al., 1997). Teaching was detached from its curricular and philosophical contexts and redefined as generic processes such as discussion, inquiry and problem solving (Doyle, 1990).

Content Area Coursework in State Colleges and Universities

According to the Education Commission of the States (2000), "There is a strong consensus that good subject matter knowledge is critical to effective teaching" (p. 2). Morey et al. (1997) explained that subject matter coursework in the academic major was designed to instill in the pre-service teacher a depth of knowledge, understanding, attitudes, and intellectual skills in their chosen area of teaching. Subject matter preparation for students majoring in elementary education was often across a broad range of areas, including English, mathematics, science, and social studies. Some students concentrated on one area, and some universities also offered a major in child development. Students who majored in secondary education typically earned their undergraduate degree in the subject they wished to teach.

Still, even after the reform movement in teacher education, a notion prevailed that the primary requirement of the teacher was to have a sufficient amount of knowledge to pass along to the students (Burke, 1987). This led people to believe that if teachers had enough knowledge they would be successful in directing student learning. However, knowledge of a subject did not

matter if the teacher could not convey that knowledge in ways that helped students learn at a rate and level based on their age and development (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985). Ultimately, deciding what constitutes good teaching and who is a competent teacher was a judgment call. Academic ability was but one consideration among many (Lucas, 1997). It was the knowledge combined with a myriad of teaching skills that made an effective teacher.

Educators and policymakers need to explore strategies which would ensure that prospective teachers acquire not only adequate knowledge of a subject area, but also expertise concerned with how to teach that subject. Some educators believed that understanding of subject matter in a way that makes it teachable to others was not available in a traditional arts and sciences curriculum (Education Commission of the States, 2000). This indicated a need for more subject matter courses in colleges of education, or ensuring that teachers were trained to teach subject matter they already know. The Education Commission of the States recommended a cooperative effort between colleges of arts and sciences and colleges of education in order to build coherent programs.

Internship or Field Study in State Colleges and Universities

When liberal arts faculty was combined with teacher preparation faculty the culture of the programs changed.

There were tensions over the quality of pedagogical courses, the relevance of liberal arts instruction, the appropriate balance between academic and vocational courses, the requirements for admission and graduation, and just about anything else arts and sciences and professional faculties could disagree about (Levine, 2006, p. 25).

In fact, as early as 1886 James P. Wickersham reported, “the experiment of educating teachers in colleges failed...The general work of a college and the special work of a teachers’ school can never be made to harmonize” (Frazier et al., 1935, as cited in Coble et al., 2004).

Following the completion of a four or five-year program of study, most programs required one to two semesters of classroom internships; these were otherwise known as field or clinical experiences. Field experience linked teaching candidates to the actual teaching setting, or “the real world” (Braun, Jr., 1989). The candidates were given their first opportunity to put into practice what they learned in their coursework while they were supervised by a classroom teacher. This portion of the traditional teacher preparation program greatly differed across institutions.

Gratch (1998) explained that those who were involved in teacher preparation were accustomed to hearing from interns and graduates that college coursework was unimportant. To strengthen this point, Corley (1998) reported that participants in his study of beginning teachers rejected much of their training and deemed it “too theoretical.” Research suggested that preparation in a given subject did not necessarily aid in developing understanding of how subjects are best learned (Allen, 2003). This separation of theory and practice led to confusion between what and how to teach. The most effective teachers combined the content and method to deliver an engaging lesson; however, it was unclear how such knowledge and skills were best acquired.

Internships were generally disconnected from coursework, and prospective teachers experienced difficulty applying what they learned in their classes to a real world situation (Wilson et al., 2001). Teachers learned best by studying, doing, and reflecting, and Darling-

Hammond (1997) stated that this kind of learning did not occur in college classrooms isolated from practice or in public school classrooms isolated from knowledge about how to interpret practice. Arntsen et al. (1998) agreed that the best quality learning environments for pre-service teachers were those that shaped opportunities for exploration, examination, application and reflection of the teaching and learning activity. They explained that linking methods courses and fieldwork necessitated that college faculty become more involved in the public schools where their students were placed.

A limited range of field experiences was offered to a student teacher. In addition, there was often miscommunication or lack of communication between universities and schools where pre-service teachers were placed (Wilson et al., 2001).

In one study, researchers found that when the student teachers become overwhelmed with the challenges of learning to teach, they revert to the norms of the schools in which they were taught, which sometimes means that they teach in ways quite different than those envisioned by university instructors (Wilson et al., 2001, p. 18).

Field experiences were usually the final step in the teacher education process during college, yet they gave the students their first real opportunity to try out their decision to teach (Sears et al., 1994). Students most likely finished three years of coursework, but had not taught a class of students. Too often, pre-service teachers emerged from a college classroom armed with knowledge of subject area content and human development, but were confronted with what was being taught, who was being taught, who was teaching it, and how it was taught all concurrently.

Interns and graduates claimed that their classroom experience was invaluable. Corley (1998) agreed that universities must provide their prospective teachers with more authentic teaching experiences prior to their graduation. In fact, Gratch (1998) completed a study of five beginning teachers in North Carolina, and the two teachers perceived to be the most successful

had spent significant time in schools from the onset in their preparation programs. One student in the study told her, “We all know that we don’t know what teaching is really like until we get to do it during student teaching” (p. 14).

Howey and Gardner (1983) reported that although opportunities for elementary pre-service teachers to teach in schools became more frequent, such hours made up about 15% of a student’s pre-service career. Secondary students engaged less frequently in internship hours. About 10% of secondary teachers’ pre-service education was designated for supervised practice with students. There was little, if any consensus on how the school experiences should be conceptualized, organized, and implemented, and research failed to provide the kind of information necessary to establish content effectiveness in teacher preparation (Sears et al., 1994). However, the Education Commission of the States (2000) reported that in the absence of conclusive research, it appeared that no matter the teacher preparation program type, those that included solid field experience and supervision produced teachers who stayed in the profession longer and were more effective in the classroom than programs that did not include these components. Darling-Hammond (1992) maintained that the internship period, when teachers translated knowledge into practice, provided an important kind of learning that did not happen in a college classroom. Furthermore, she argued that we must restructure teacher education to address the problem of translating knowledge to skill.

It is possible that the student teaching experience allowed pre-service teachers to explore preconceived notions about the profession; they assimilated information and shifted their prior understanding of the dynamics of a classroom. Braun, Jr. (1989) described this as learning that

was no longer abstract. The student teachers worked with real students in real situations under the direction of teachers who faced the challenge everyday.

Criticism of Traditional Teacher Preparation Programs

Critics of teacher training programs felt “they do not provide aspiring teachers with rigorous academic-content knowledge or practical skills, yet generally take four years to produce teachers” (Blair, 2004, p. 1). They treated the absence of a substantial body of research as a negative finding about the effectiveness of university preparation programs (Levine, 2006). According to these critics, alternative certification programs offered the opportunity to circumvent inadequate traditional programs and increase the number of minorities entering the profession (Legler, 2002).

Those critical of traditional teacher preparation programs argued that institutions should be more selective in their screening process of potential students, more intellectually challenging, and more connected to elementary and secondary schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). The National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education (1985) explained that neither formal instruction nor field work alone was sufficient for preparing a classroom teacher. They wrote, “Quality teacher education programs do not have a mechanical separation of class work and field experiences (p. 13). They recommended that class work and field experiences should be intertwined from the beginning of the program until its end.

The Reform Movement of 1983

The national government’s 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk*, caused policymakers and citizens of the United States of America to take a deeper look at the quality of education in their

schools. *A Nation at Risk* focused on the need for a renewed teaching profession that attracted top students, prepared them within an academic discipline with a de-emphasis on educational methods courses, and awarded them with adequate salaries (Sears et al., 1994). This report spawned increasing scrutiny and reform in education throughout the 1990s and 2000s. Most states responded to the report by devising more stringent certification procedures and mandating teacher certification tests. Sears, Marshall, and Otis-Wilborn wrote that the states' response to *A Nation at Risk* made the education profession seem as if it "follows directions mapped out by others" (p. 4), and that the emphasis on education shifted from meeting the concerns of beginning teachers to satisfying systemic needs.

Groups such as the Carnegie Task Force on the Future of Teaching and the Holmes Group prompted universities to "strengthen teacher preparation by requiring more subject matter preparation, more intensive coursework on content pedagogy and strategies for meeting the needs of diverse learners, and more systematic and connected clinical experiences" (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002, p. 1). However, a growing demand for teachers in critical shortage areas caused many states to lower the teaching entrance standards that were increased after *A Nation at Risk*. Hiring teachers who were unprepared to face the challenges of the 21st century classroom resurfaced (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002). The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1997) reported that minority and low-income students were served with under-qualified teachers in much greater proportion than their middle to upper class peers.

Alternative Certification Programs

Alternative Certification Programs (ACPs) allowed individuals who typically, but not always, held an undergraduate degree in a field other than education to learn on the job or

complete a shortened training program in order to gain full certification (Legler, 2002). Levine (2006) defined alternative certification programs as “everything under the sun except traditional university programs” (p. 16). Individuals who qualified for ACPs included those who wished to change careers, left the military, graduated with other degrees, or received teaching certification or education degrees years ago and later decided to teach.

Throughout America, alternative certification programs varied in terms of content, duration, rigor, and support for the novice teacher (Berry, 2001). According to Legler, components of alternative programs involved intensive, condensed academic coursework or training and supervised, job-embedded training in pedagogical skills. Beginning in 1983, Feistritzer and Chester (2003) catalogued information about each state’s alternative programs. They reported that similar characteristics emerged among the programs, including the requirements that participants have at least a bachelor’s degree, pass a screening process, begin teaching while engaging in on-the-job training, complete education coursework, work with mentor teachers and meet performance standards. Eventually, new teachers from ACPs were expected to pass required state teacher certification examinations.

Two reasons why alternative programs continued to grow were the need to fill regional and subject-specific teacher shortages and diversify the teacher workforce (Legler, 2002). ACPs emerged in the mid-1980s with New Jersey and Texas leading the way. Texas developed an ACP in 1984 that relied on local school training and instruction by college faculty. New Jersey’s first ACP in 1985 was a centralized program with the state responsible for training, monitoring, and supervising new teachers (Legler, 2002). When *No Child Left Behind* provisions recognized ACPs as an effective method of training new teachers, states were encouraged to develop more

programs (Mikulecky et al., 2004). Alternative certification programs continued to grow in response to the ever-increasing demand for teachers. As of 2006, the total number of such programs was 124 (Feistritzer, 2006).

According to the United States Department of Education in 2006, 47 states had alternative programs and about half of them were administered by colleges and universities, 21% by school districts, 6% through regional educational service centers, 5% by state departments of education, and the remainder by other groups. From 2000 to 2004, the number of alternative program teachers increased almost 40% from 29,671 to 40,925 (US DOE, 2006). ACPs enlisted a greater percentage of minority and male teacher candidates than traditional programs, thus contributing to the diversity of the teacher workforce (Allen, 2003). However, Berry (2001) reported that about 60 percent of people who entered teaching through alternative certification programs left the profession by their third year.

In most alternative certification programs, individuals with degrees in fields other than education were allowed to teach before having the chance to practice with supervision and feedback. Alternative certification programs generally focused on pedagogy instruction because students in these programs typically possessed subject matter mastery (US DOE, 2006).

Debate occurred regarding the merits of alternate routes to teaching as opposed to traditional teacher preparation programs. Opponents of Alternative Certification Programs argued that traditional teacher preparation programs made strides toward more rigorous, standards-based approaches to teacher education (Legler, 2002). They said that it was best to continue to strengthen university programs rather than circumvent them through alternative means. In addition, they pointed out that no other professions with the potential for ill-prepared

practitioners to do harm - such as medicine and law - made optional the components of college-based instruction, supervised internship, and testing. Cochran-Smith (2006) reported that proponents of traditional programs felt alternate routes to certification were inferior and they worried that policymakers saw alternative certification as a quick, easy way out of the teacher shortage.

Those who were critical of ACPs suggested that alternatively certified teachers should be expected to pass all certification examinations before being assigned to teach (Legler, 2002). However, most ACPs involved learning while on the job before gaining full certification. Former Dean of the College of Education at Arizona State University, David C. Berliner, compared alternative certification to “going into a hardware store and not knowing the names of the things you need to buy.” He explained,

Professional education teaches the vocabulary of schools—learning disabled, gifted, mean, median, mode. And it teaches the pedagogy: What does it mean to do reciprocal teaching? How does one teach math in a way that allows kids to discover the answers? Untrained teachers cannot invent reciprocal teaching on their own (Scherer, 2001, p. 7).

However, “states are free to redefine, in accordance with state law, their certification requirements or create non-traditional approaches to certification” (US DOE, 2005, p. 4). This allowed some leeway, especially needed in those states where critical teacher shortages existed.

Teacher Certification Examinations

In order to measure how well teacher education programs prepared their students for the classroom, 44 states required new teachers to take one or more certification examinations in order to obtain licensure (US DOE, 2006). Several states used some of the same assessments; however, there were an estimated 1,100 different certification tests among the 44 states (US

DOE, 2006). The number of prospective teachers taking certification examinations increased by 25% from 2000 to 2004, and the number of those passing successfully remained at or above 95% (US DOE, 2006). Students from traditional teacher preparation programs taking teacher certification examinations increased 14% from 2000 to 2004, yet pass rates remained stable (US DOE, 2006). Alternative certification program teachers taking examinations increased by 169% from 2000 to 2004, and these pass rates also remained stable (US DOE, 2006).

According to the United States Department of Education (2006), the pass rate for teacher certification examinations served as one way to measure how well new teachers knew the subject area content which they planned to teach. In addition to tests of subject area content, prospective teachers in most states had to pass basic skills tests and professional pedagogical knowledge tests. States were allowed to set their own minimum passing scores, and generally did so below the national median scores for their assessments (US DOE, 2006). A four-year study of the research on teacher education conducted by the American Education Research Association found little evidence to indicate that teachers who scored high on state certification examinations were more successful in the classrooms than those who scored lower on the tests (Viadero, 2005). Most researchers agreed that understanding teacher preparation and qualifications was more complex than determining whether or not a teacher had a degree or had passed a certification examination (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). This finding underscored the need to further research elements that are, in fact, crucial to teacher success.

First Years in the Classroom

Preparing capable professionals for the classroom required “intensive teaching training, meaningful licensing and thoughtful professional development” (Darling-Hammond, 1997, p.

334). There seemed to be no consistent definitions for “intensive, meaningful, and thoughtful” as they related to teacher education. Historically, universities separated knowledge from practice, as in liberal arts programs of study. McNergney and Carrier (1981) explained that it was traditionally thought that the best teacher preparation was a strong liberal education with an emphasis on a particular discipline. They noted, “some believe that the best approach to the preparation of teachers is to train people as scientists or problem solvers who will discover and apply laws of teaching and learning” (p. 1). This type of program prevented the student of education from learning about pedagogy hand-in-hand with academic content (Britzman, 2003). Therefore, this may not be the “intensive teaching training” of which Darling-Hammond wrote.

Norton (1997) suggested six pre-service activities which, as judged by first year veteran educators, were significantly related to growth in effective, reflective professional practice. These activities were clinical field experiences during methods and foundations courses, microteaching lessons, video analyses of student teaching performances, weekly seminars during full-time student teaching, reflective journals, and professor-modeled reflective thinking.

Beginning teachers often did not realize the incredible amount of preparation and follow-through that were necessary to succeed in educating students. They practiced writing lesson plans that included accommodations for students with learning difficulties, but then found they were unable to successfully implement the accommodations with their own students. They experienced students with behavioral issues during their internship, but in their own classroom a supervising teacher was unavailable to assist with classroom management. Where some of the workload during the internship was shared with the supervising teacher, the first year teacher was completely on his or her own. Williams (2003) clarified that student teachers were sheltered

from some of the unexpected events that could lead to the need to restructure activities at a moment's notice. However, on their own, new teachers experienced every possible event firsthand with their students.

Beginning Teacher Needs

During the push for teacher education reform in the 1980s, Veenman (1984) questioned beginning teachers regarding their common problems within their first year in the classroom.

Veenman's findings are listed below in descending order:

1. Classroom discipline
2. Motivating students
3. Dealing with individual differences among students
4. Assessing student work
5. Relationships with parents
6. Organization of class work
7. Insufficient materials and supplies
8. Dealing with problems of individual students

Gratch (1998) polled beginning teachers more than a decade after the supposed reforms spurred by *A Nation at Risk* had time to run their course. If the needs found by Veenman had been addressed by teacher preparation programs, the differences in the needs of new teachers could be seen. However, Gratch's study revealed that during the first two months of school, the beginning teachers mentioned concerns related to classroom discipline, time management, obtaining sufficient materials, organizing the classroom, dealing with parents, daily scheduling and planning, paperwork, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs. Of the

eight major themes from Veenman's 1984 findings, five of Gratch's 1998 findings were exactly the same. Two of Veenman's categories, dealing with individual differences among students and dealing with problems of individual students, could be grouped together to match Gratch's category of meeting individual students' needs. Gratch's time management and daily scheduling and planning could fit under the organization umbrella along with organizing the classroom and Veenman's organization of classwork. At this point, the only differences between the two studies' results were assessing student work from Veenman's study and paperwork from Gratch's study. New teacher knowledge voids were virtually the same from 1984 to 1998.

A 1998 survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics differed from Veenman's and Gratch's studies because this survey included teachers with varying years of experience. The teachers were asked to indicate how well prepared they felt for certain classroom demands. The demands were: maintaining order and discipline in the classroom, implementing new methods of teaching, implementing state or district curriculum and performance standards, using student performance assessment techniques, addressing the needs of students with disabilities, integrating educational technology into the subject or grade level taught, and addressing the needs of students with limited English proficiency or from diverse cultures. Data suggested that the majority of teachers felt either "moderately" or "somewhat" well prepared for most classroom activities which included implementing new teaching methods, implementing state and district curriculum and performance standards, and using student performance assessment techniques. Seventy-one percent of teachers felt "very well prepared" for maintaining classroom order and discipline, which was typically identified as a key source of teachers' stress and an essential prerequisite for student learning (National Center for Education

Statistics, 1999). Seventeen percent of teachers felt they were “not at all” prepared to address the needs of English language learners or students from diverse cultures. Only as much as nine percent of the teachers surveyed felt “not at all” prepared for any of the other activities. Finally, teachers were least likely to report being “very well prepared” for integrating technology into the grade or subject taught, addressing the needs of English language learners or students from diverse cultures, and addressing the needs of students with disabilities.

While the study from the National Center for Education Statistics included teachers with differing years of experience, the results showed no significant difference between new and experienced teachers in feelings of preparedness for implementing new methods of teaching. There was also no difference in feeling “very well prepared” to address the needs of English language learners or students from diverse cultures. However, teachers with three or fewer years of experience were less likely to report feeling “very well prepared” to maintain order and discipline in the classroom (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999).

Torff (2005) conducted a survey of principals who answered questions about threats to teacher quality. They rated how frequently they felt teacher ineffectiveness was caused by the following factors: deficiencies in content knowledge; deficiencies in lesson planning skills; deficiencies in lesson implementation skills; deficiencies in the ability to establish rapport with students; and deficiencies in classroom management skills. Torff reported that the most common causes of teacher ineffectiveness cited were classroom management skills, the ability to establish rapport with students, and lesson implementation skills. Interestingly, these survey results indicated that principals and teachers alike viewed classroom management skills as their primary weakness; however, principals noted lesson implementation skills as a concern whereas teachers

did not. In the case of these three studies, pedagogical knowledge emerged as the problem area for new teachers. “The finding that pedagogical knowledge was the main threat to teacher quality could be interpreted as a sign of failure on the part of the teacher preparation program in which such knowledge is taught” (Torff, 2005, p. 304). People were often accustomed to learning content from all of their years of schooling, but learning pedagogy was a new and difficult challenge. Torff (2005) wrote that the results of his study of principals indicated more time should be devoted to pedagogical knowledge in teacher education programs; additionally, because these skills were difficult to master in the time allotted did not mean the programs should be discarded.

Conclusion

Education in the United States was regarded as the foundation of democracy (Morey et al., 1997). Given its level of importance, it was expected that departments of education in American colleges and universities were highly regarded. However, this was often not the case. Other academic departments within universities often regarded departments of education as “ambiguous, peripheral, and lacking in self esteem” (Morey et al., 1997, p. 15). To expound, Levine (2006) explained that while some college and university departments of education had an explicit mission and goals, the field of teacher education as a whole disagreed about what, where, when and how much education future teachers need.

Some experts in the field of teacher preparation contended that there was a strong and common knowledge base for educating teachers. Others argued that despite advances in research, analysis, and knowledge of teaching and learning, teacher education had yet to develop a strong theoretical base for professional practice (Morey et al., 1997). The unpredictability of

teaching meant there was not necessarily continuity from the pre-service program to the first year of teaching. Teachers were challenged by reform initiatives and new requirements that had not typically been included in the expectations for effective teaching. A major portion of the learning process during the induction year of teaching involved adjusting to a context in which responsibility for pupils and their learning now rested fully with the beginning teacher (Williams, 2003). Unfortunately, much about the experience of learning to teach was negative, such as “learning what to avoid, what not to do, and what not to become even as one finds oneself performing these disclaimed actions” (Britzman, 2003, p. 4). Feiman-Nemser (2004) wrote that beginning teachers were on their own, faced with the same responsibilities as their experienced colleagues, and Gratch (1998) summed up this feeling by writing that the new teacher was given the same responsibilities as a veteran teacher and was expected to “sink or swim.”

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

In order to appreciate the current characteristics of American teacher preparation programs and where the major ideas about learning to teach were derived, the history of teacher education was studied via historical analysis and interpretation. This included explaining issues, identifying patterns, establishing cause-and-effect relationships, weighing evidence to draw conclusions, and making defensible generalizations based on information gathered from three types of teacher preparation programs: college or university programs which originated from teacher normal schools, college or university programs which did not originate from teacher normal schools, and alternative certification programs.

In *An Elusive Science: The Troubling History of Educational Research*, Lagemann (2000) cautioned that the history of teacher education has been so understudied that one must be careful when utilizing the information for making hypotheses or writing reports. Noting Lagemann's statement, this research was conducted with the understanding that "instead of (imposing) mandates and models, we need to learn from the past, experiment with alternatives, and clarify what is entailed in helping people in different settings learn to teach" (Feiman-Nemser, 1990, p. 212). Krathwohl (1998) explained that this type of historical analysis gives us "perspective so that we may better judge progress" (p. 572).

In addition to tracing patterns and trends from the beginning of formal teacher education in America, the study of teacher preparation programs throughout history highlighted elements of professional study in teacher preparation programs, such as coursework in education foundations, teaching methods or subject area content, which could be effective in filling teacher knowledge voids and readying new teachers for the classroom. The research also shed light on

whether programs have prepared teachers with the view of teaching as an art or a science, and if that concentration remained consistent throughout the decades of the programs' existence. The significance of this study was in its attempt to deepen understanding of the complexity of teacher preparation, to inform teacher educators and policymakers about effective and ineffective practices in teacher education, and to add to the body of knowledge and research regarding teacher preparation programs.

In order to organize this historical research and connect it with the present, a conceptual framework was utilized. Leedy, Newby and Ertmer (1997) explained that "events do crystallize into meaningful clusters," (p. 174) and Maxwell (2004) added that a framework imposes a structure which has pattern-making capacity and allows us to better understand and manage reality. The conceptual framework utilized for this research was identified by Doyle (1990), who clarified five major paradigms or themes underlying research in teacher education. Doyle believed that teachers in America were prepared to be "good employees," or those who could carry out standard teaching responsibilities with minimum supervision; "junior professors," or those who knew only of the liberal arts and not enough about pedagogy; "fully functioning persons," or those who learned best through discovering their own meaning and style of teaching based on a sound knowledge of human development; "innovators," or those who were prepared for the science of teaching with a technical and prescriptive focus; or "reflective professionals," or those who were prepared for the art of teaching with reflective capabilities and the ability to choose appropriate teaching methods based on differing situations. As teacher preparation program data were disaggregated, they were related to one or more of Doyle's paradigms.

The study of teacher preparation throughout American history was guided by the following research questions:

1. How has American teacher education evolved since the inception of formal public teacher preparation programs?
2. How has American teacher education, as well as the metaphorical view of teaching as an art or a science, been affected by historical events, politics, and other outside influences?
3. What program requirements specific to education foundations such as the history and philosophies of education, behavioral sciences and teaching methods such as instructional design and student behavior management, and subject area content were included in traditional and alternative elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs from 1839 to 2007?
4. How did American teacher education program requirements throughout history align with commonly cited teacher knowledge voids such as student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs?

In order to complete this study, the following procedures were implemented. A review of related literature provided a knowledge base regarding the history of teacher preparation programs in America. The teacher normal school, teachers colleges, departments of education in state colleges and universities, and alternative certification programs for teacher preparation were traced and summarized from 1839 to 2007. Information was provided pertaining to program components, which included education foundations, such as the history and philosophies of

education; teaching methods such as subject area pedagogy and student behavior management, and subject area content coursework. Viewpoints regarding teaching as an art, a science, or both an art and a science were highlighted throughout the historical review. The longstanding disconnect reported by beginning teachers, between coursework and actual practice in the classroom, led to a review of the literature about commonly stated knowledge voids among beginning teachers. The lack of applicable preparation for the classroom was the perceived problem in teacher education.

A sample of three types of teacher preparation programs was selected, and archive librarians or program assistants of those colleges, universities, or school districts were contacted in order to gather information. Programs included traditional four-year college of education programs at universities which began as teacher normal schools, traditional four-year college of education programs at universities which did not begin as teacher normal schools, and school district-based alternative certification programs. Primary source documents, including undergraduate catalogs and program descriptions from the teacher preparation programs dating from 1839 to 2007, were obtained and analyzed within the framework of events and eras in American history and Doyle's paradigms for teacher preparation. Furay and Salevouris (1988) explained that researchers possess historical-mindedness when they are aware of themes of change and continuity in human affairs, are sensitive to multiple causation, and are sensitive to how other times and places, or context, differ from our own.

Sampling Methodology

A small number of the original nineteenth century United States normal schools evolved into existing colleges or departments of education across the nation; therefore, the majority of

institutions did not have roots in teacher education. Due to the sheer number of programs from which to choose, a system was necessary for narrowing the amount of colleges and universities for this study. Methods were developed using categories established for the periodical report on higher education entitled *America's Best Colleges 2008* (U.S. News & World Report, 2007). Although the aforementioned guide publishes a ranking of American colleges and universities, only the objective data such as enrollment figures and types of programs offered were utilized for this study.

A subscription to the *Premium Online Edition* of *America's Best Colleges 2008* was purchased from <http://www.usnews.com/usnews/edu/college/rankings/rankindex.php>. This provided the researcher with full access to all data sets regarding the colleges and universities and enabled the use of search features. The first search conducted in order to narrow the selection of colleges and universities removed all but those that offered majors in elementary education and/or secondary English education.

The second criterion used for narrowing the choices was the size of the college or university. *America's Best Colleges 2008* (U.S. News & World Report, 2007) developed categories based on undergraduate enrollment at each institution. The colleges and universities chosen for this study were listed as "Medium," "Large" or "Extra Large." This indicated that they had enrollments between 3,500 and 30,000 students.

America's Best Colleges 2008 (U.S. News & World Report, 2007) criteria for assigning a label for the type of college or university was based on the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching's *Carnegie Classifications*. The Carnegie Foundation grouped American colleges and universities according to their mission, such as being recognized as a

research university, and factors such as the highest level of degrees conferred by discipline. According to U.S. News & World Report (2007), “the U.S. Department of Education and many associations use them to organize their data and to determine colleges' eligibility for grant money. In short, the Carnegie categories are the accepted standard in higher education.”

U.S. News & World Report (2007) combined Carnegie's categories into four groups: National Universities, Liberal Arts Colleges, Universities-Master's, and Baccalaureate Colleges and outlined four regions of the United States: North, South, Midwest and West. For the purpose of this study and further narrowing the selection, colleges and universities were limited to the categories of National Universities and Universities-Master's. National Universities were defined as those that offered a full range of undergraduate programs as well as master's and doctoral degrees. Most National Universities focused heavily on research and were federally funded for research endeavors. Programs defined as Universities-Master's closely mirrored the National Universities, although they offered few or zero opportunities for doctoral degrees. Two programs from each region were chosen: one from a college or university which began as a teacher normal school and the other from a college or university which did not begin as a teacher normal school.

Framingham State College in Massachusetts, the first teacher normal school, was the foremost choice for this research because it provided a foundation for formal teacher education in the United States. It represented the North region and was classified as a “Medium” college in size. Because it was Medium, the Medium category was included in the college sizes chosen. Otherwise, the researcher would have further narrowed the size category.

Normal schools which were established following Framingham's lead, fit the National Universities or Universities-Master's categories, and matched one of the three size categories were selected to represent the remaining three regions. After multiple contacts via telephone and electronic mail with a representative at San Jose State University in California, no information was obtained. Table 1 presents the current name of the selected colleges or universities that contributed information for this study, the name of their founding normal schools, the category assigned to them by U.S. News & World Report, their represented region of the United States and their size.

Of the four universities without a normal school background that were originally chosen for this research, none responded after multiple attempts to contact them. Therefore, alternate universities were contacted in California, Indiana, Massachusetts, and Tennessee. After numerous contacts via electronic mail and telephone, the University of Tennessee, Knoxville did not send information for the study. Those which responded to requests for undergraduate catalogs for teacher education from their inception are reported in Table 2 along with their U.S. News & World Report category, their represented region of the United States and their size.

A sample of three district-based alternative certification programs in Florida was selected for this research. These districts were representative of a rapidly growing, multicultural America with district programs typical of those across the country. Table 3 lists the Florida school districts that contributed information about their alternative certification programs to this study.

Table 1:
Contributing Traditional Teacher Preparation Programs, Originally Normal Schools

College/University	Normal School Name	U.S. News & World Report Category	Region of U.S.	Size
Framingham State College	Framingham Normal School	Universities – Master’s	North	M
Vanderbilt University, Peabody College	Peabody Normal School	National Universities	South	L
Ball State University	Eastern Indiana Normal School	National Universities	Midwest	XL

Table 2:
Contributing Traditional Teacher Preparation Programs, Not Originally Normal Schools

College/University	U.S. News & World Report Category	Region of U.S.	Size
University of Massachusetts Amherst	National Universities	North	XL
Indiana University	National Universities	Midwest	XL
University of Southern California	National Universities	West	XL

Table 3:
Contributing Alternative Certification Programs

School District
Brevard County Public Schools, Florida
Hillsborough County Public Schools, Florida
Orange County Public Schools, Florida

Data Collection

Traditional teacher preparation programs at colleges and universities were researched primarily by contacting archive librarians listed on their Web sites via electronic mail or telephone. The researcher requested copies of programs of study and syllabi in elementary education and secondary English education from the earliest to the most recent available. For colleges and universities which originated as teacher normal schools, this was a substantial undertaking for the personnel due to the number of years involved. In some cases, documents were not available from the initial normal school years. In several cases, recent undergraduate catalogs and syllabi were posted on the institution's Web site. One university declined the request for information due to the breadth of additional work it would cause for limited staff members. In conversations with two archive librarians who agreed to provide information, it was decided that the documents would be copied in two or three-year increments in order to save time, therefore enabling them to participate. Two colleges requested that the researcher pay a student assistant to make copies of the documents. All copies and postage were paid by the researcher. The amount of information contributed by each institution ranged from 256 to 413 pages.

Alternative teacher certification programs were researched by contacting the administrator or personnel supervising the program in each of the three Florida school districts that were studied. Requests were made for information regarding all program coursework and requirements. This may have included information about internships or fieldwork required of the participants and all other evidence needed for successful completion of the program. District personnel either mailed a copy of their alternative certification handbook or referred the researcher to a Web site where the information was provided.

Analysis of Data

Data were analyzed and reported first by individual teacher preparation program and then aggregated by the college or university origin (as a normal school, other type of college or university, or alternative certification program). Analysis of data was facilitated with Thinking Maps[®], visual tools which provided graphic representations of the voluminous data collected. Thinking Maps[®] creator, David Hyerle, wrote, “Texts are information stored through time...and meaning is created through the interaction of the mind of each individual learner and those overlapping texts” (2000, p. 105). Because the purpose of this research was to provide a deeper understanding of themes and patterns found in those texts collected, such as the debate between teaching as an art or a science, that have emerged from teacher education history and connect them to present concepts, as well as to determine the root causes of teacher knowledge voids, it was necessary to employ visual tools for extracting meaning from the documents. Authors Hyerle and Piercy (2007) explained, “Thinking Maps[®] are the bridge explicitly connecting the linearity of language to the deeper, multifaceted, overlapping patterns of thinking that exist in our mind.” Furthermore, “words and concepts are not held in isolation, but spread like

intricately spun webs across the (brain's) hemispheres, and the human brain patterns and constructs mental maps of information” (p. 5). Thinking Maps[®] assisted in bridging the mental maps of information and bringing connections in and among the data to visible form.

In order to begin analyzing the data from each teacher preparation program, the circle map (Figure 1) was utilized.

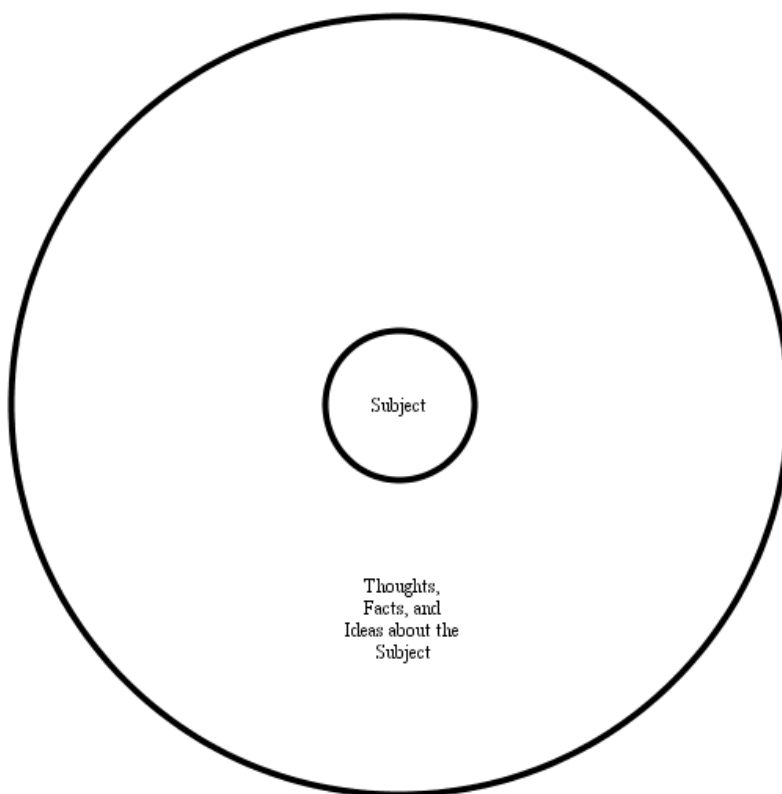


Figure 1: Circle Map

The circle map is a graphic tool for putting things into context, and how one names or symbolizes such things are possibly connected to metaphorical extensions (Hyerle, 1993). In the case of this research, circle maps about each teacher preparation program were the precursor to

insight about program content throughout time, Doyle’s five paradigms, the view of teaching as an art or science, and reasons why beginning teachers report knowledge voids.

The flow map (Figure 2) consists of an operation broken down into events and stages, and it acted as a timeline of events for each teacher preparation program.

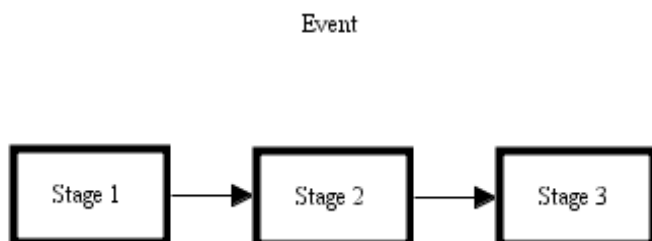


Figure 2: Flow Map

Each stage represented a decade and depicted the changes within the programs, therefore defining their evolving eras. The flow maps of each teacher preparation program also assisted with comparison and contrast of content between the various programs.

Once each college, university, and alternative certification program content was defined and organized, research questions could be addressed. To assist in answering Research Question 1: “How has American teacher education evolved since the inception of formal public teacher preparation programs?” a flow map of major events between and among all of the programs studied was utilized. By combining the individual programs’ flow maps into one, greater insight was gained into the evolution of American teacher preparation through a visual representation.

The flow map of teacher education history also began to assist in delving into the effects of outside influences on teacher education by highlighting major changes or turning points in teacher preparation programs. This laid the foundation for answering Research Question 2:

“How has American teacher education, as well as the metaphorical view of teaching as an art or a science, been affected by historical events, politics, and other outside influences?” However, to further visualize the changes effectuated, the multi-flow map (Figure 3) was used. Hyerle (1993) explained that often embedded in sequences of events are their causes and effects. The multi-flow map allowed the researcher to identify major events, such as the emergence of alternative certification programs, and work backward to investigate possible causes. Conversely, this map also guided the researcher forward to look for possible short and long term effects of the events.

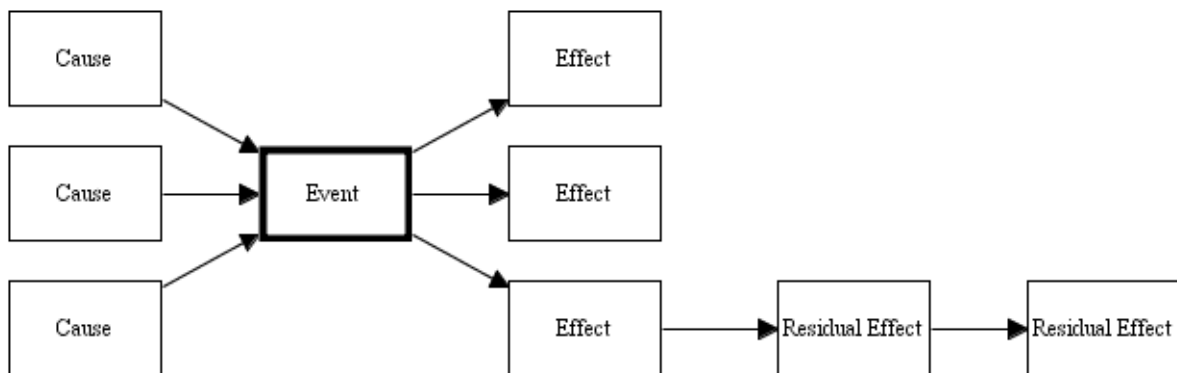


Figure 3: Multi-Flow Map

The flow maps also assisted in organizing information for Research Question 3: “What program requirements specific to education foundations such as the history and philosophies of education, behavioral sciences and teaching methods such as instructional design and student behavior management, and subject area content were included in traditional and alternative elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs from 1839 to 2007?” However, to

devise a clearer picture of the requirements in each branch of teacher education, a tree map (Figure 4) was utilized.

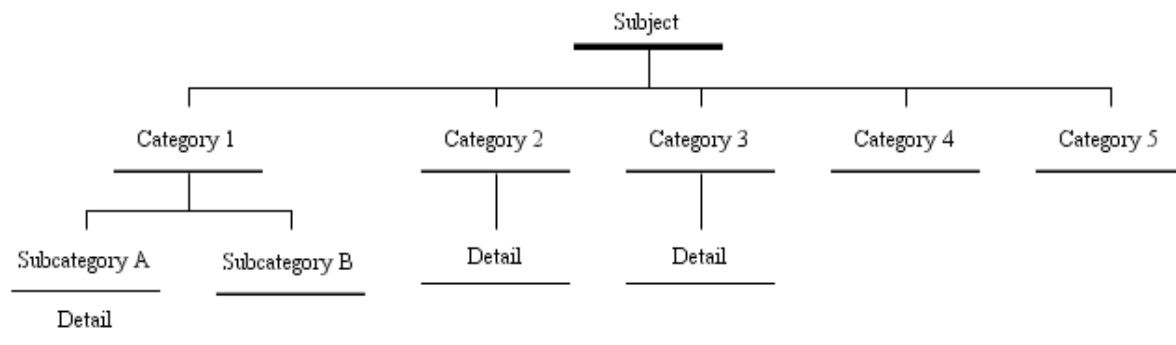


Figure 4: Tree Map

According to Upton (as cited in Hyerle, 1993), the tree map is a diagram for conducting a working classification of ideas. Categories were represented by education foundations, teaching methods, and subject area content. Subcategories and details listed information about the programs that supported each area.

The circle, flow, multi-flow, and tree maps were further analyzed to answer Research Question 4: “How did American teacher education program requirements throughout history align with commonly cited teacher knowledge voids such as student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students’ needs?” The tree map of education foundations, teaching methods and subject area content provided the greatest insight into the areas of possible knowledge voids.

Finally, a tree map was once again used to complete the framework of Doyle’s five paradigms for teacher education. Each paradigm was visually represented by a branch or

category, and details included specific teacher education programs and eras in which they may have fit each paradigm.

Through the use of visual tools, over 100 years of teacher preparation program content was analyzed. Connections were made to Doyle's paradigms, the art or science of teaching, and commonly stated teacher knowledge voids. Furthermore, possible causes and effects of trends in teacher preparation programs were acknowledged. The Thinking Maps[®] and findings were presented in Chapter 4, Chapter 5 and the Appendixes.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this study was to trace and examine elements of American teacher preparation programs which may have affected the National Center for Education Statistics (1999) findings that many teachers were not adequately prepared during their pre-service education for the complex and changing demands they faced in their classrooms. Possible causes or links to the teacher knowledge voids reported by Veenman (1984) and Gratch (1998) based on their studies of new teachers were researched. These knowledge voids were: student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs. Two longstanding debates regarding teacher education were also researched to determine possible effects of one philosophy versus the other on teacher knowledge voids. The first debate was the viewpoint of teaching as an art or a science. The second issue was which teacher preparation program content, such as education foundations, teaching methods, or subject area content coursework, was necessary to produce effective teachers.

Undergraduate programs of study and historical information were gathered from colleges and universities which originated as teacher normal schools as well as colleges and universities which did not begin as teacher normal schools. Program descriptions and completion requirements were also gathered from a sample of school district-based alternative certification programs. Historical data were gathered from 1839 through 2007. Each teacher preparation program's data was individually analyzed for content and important occurrences throughout its history. The data were also arranged chronologically and analyzed for trends and patterns in education foundations, teaching methods, and subject area content coursework, how those course

offerings may have been affected by outside influences such as war, economic conditions, or education legislation, and how they may have contributed to teacher knowledge voids.

In order to characterize the perceived objectives of teacher preparation programs based on their coursework, the study was conceptually framed by Doyle's five paradigms of teacher education, or the "type of teacher" that preparation programs planned to produce. Three of the paradigms aligned closely with the view of teaching as an art, a science, or both an art and a science. This enabled the researcher to analyze which type of program may have contributed more or less to specific teacher knowledge voids. The five paradigms were:

1. The good employee, or teachers prepared in the norms of the classroom including enforcing rules, managing classrooms and carrying out standard forms of supervision and instruction with minimum administrative supervision.
2. The junior professor, who was instilled with knowledge of the liberal arts in pre-service teachers with little or no pedagogical coursework.
3. The fully functioning person, who was encouraged to discover their own meaning and style of teaching. At the center of this paradigm were knowledge of human development and ability to create learning environments that promoted growth. This paradigm was closely aligned with the view of teaching as an art.
4. The innovator, who was trained in the science of teaching with a technical and prescriptive focus.
5. The reflective professional, who developed reflective capabilities through observation, analysis, interpretation, and decision making. Learning specific teaching skills was important when embedded in different contexts which enabled aspiring

teachers to choose appropriate methods and then reflect on them. This paradigm supported the view of teaching as both an art and a science.

Data in this chapter were interpreted with respect to the following research questions:

1. How has American teacher education evolved since the inception of formal public teacher preparation programs?
2. How has American teacher education, as well as the metaphorical view of teaching as an art or a science, been affected by historical events, politics, and other outside influences?
3. What program requirements specific to education foundations such as the history and philosophies of education, behavioral sciences and teaching methods such as instructional design and student behavior management, and subject area content were included in traditional and alternative elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs from 1839 to 2007?
4. How did American teacher education program requirements throughout history align with commonly cited teacher knowledge voids such as student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs?

Presentation of Traditional Teacher Preparation Program Data

Colleges and Universities Which Originated as Teacher Normal Schools

Framingham State College, Massachusetts

Region of the United States: North

Medium Universities – Master's (U.S. News & World Report, 2007)

Background

The Massachusetts legislature passed a bill in 1837 establishing a State Board of Education. The Secretary of Education, Horace Mann, lobbied for normal schools after learning of such successful teacher education models in Europe. Three normal schools were legally established in 1838 on a three-year experimental basis. The first state-supported school dedicated to training teachers in America opened in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839 and was simply called The Normal School. It accepted only female students.

The Reverend Cyrus Peirce was The Normal School's first principal. He created the model school, a functioning common school in which pre-service teachers could observe and practice, as a practicum for preparing future teachers. During the early years of The Normal School, there was much controversy over whether or not formal teacher education programs were necessary. Less than one year after The Normal School's opening, the Massachusetts Committee on Education asserted that "every person, who has himself undergone a process of instruction, must acquire, by that very process, the art of instructing others" (Fraser, 2007, p. 56). Because instruction in the art of teaching was The Normal School's priority, the Massachusetts Committee on Education felt the funding could be spent elsewhere and pre-service teachers could attend academies and high schools at no cost to the Commonwealth (Fraser, 2007). This seemed to be the earliest foreshadowing of the current debates over the need for educational foundations and teaching methods coursework in preparation programs.

Teacher Preparation Program Content: Framingham State College

Programs of study were obtained beginning in 1844 through 2007, although information from 1839 through 1844 was located in other reference materials. A circle map defining the

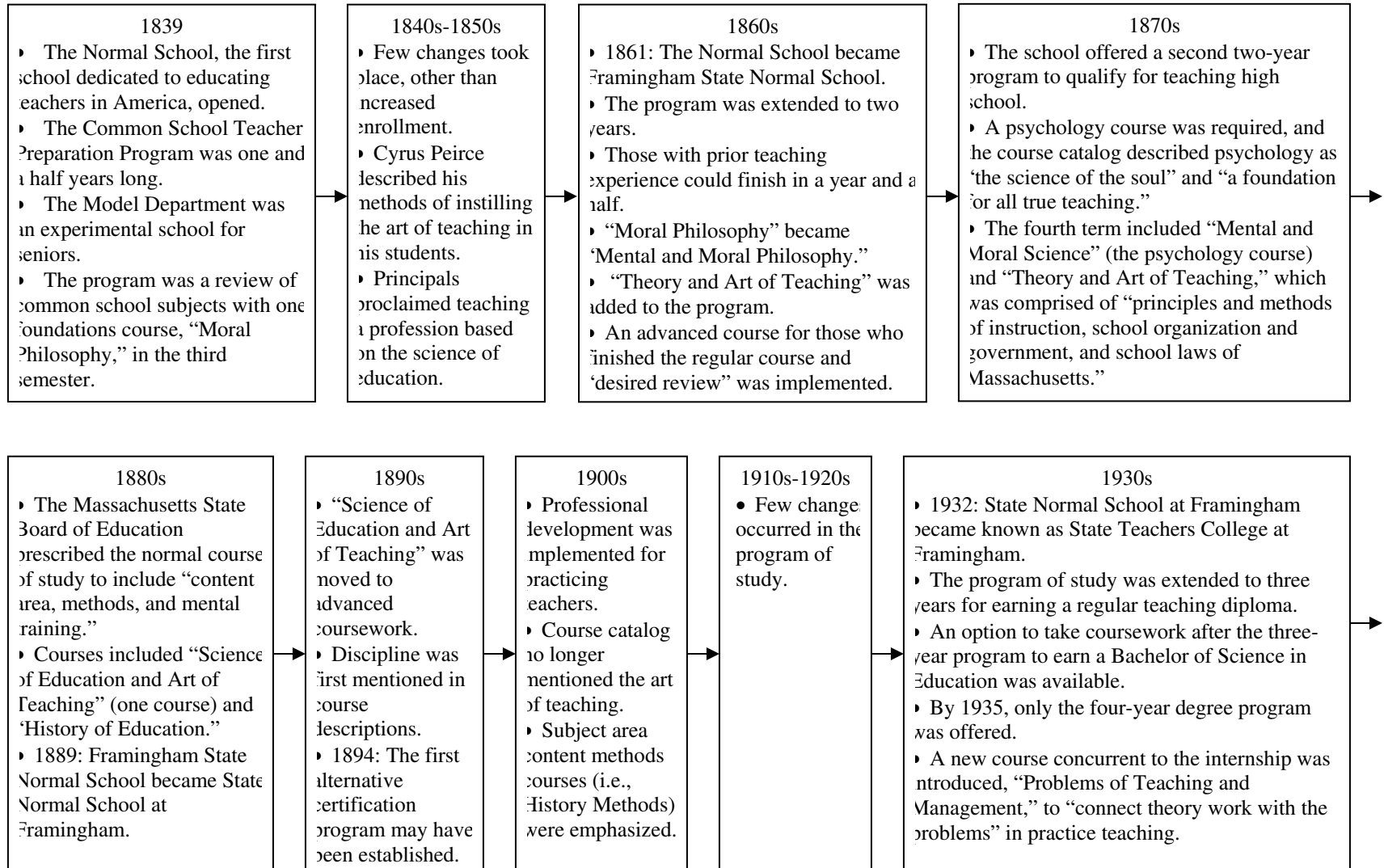
major highlights within the programs of study is available in Appendix A. A flow map sequencing the highlights and changes is shown in Figure 5.

1839-1869. The flow map in Figure 5 provided a mental model of the change and expansion of the Framingham State College teacher preparation programs since their inception. The foundation for the inaugural program in 1839 was based on the teacher normal schools of Europe, which included a review of common school subjects and model schools for practice teaching as core elements of their success (Coble, Edelfelt, & Kettlewell, 2004).

Possibly due to the Massachusetts Board of Education's disbelief in the necessity of specific teacher training institutions and in attempt to become stabilized, The Normal School underwent very few changes during its first two decades of existence. The major changes were in its location. After opening in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839, the school was moved to West Newton, Massachusetts in 1844, and finally to Framingham in 1853.

The preparation program consisted mainly of a review of common school subjects. In 1844, The Normal School course catalog listed "Studies" for "Juniors," or students in their first year, as "Orthography, Enunciation and Reading, Geography and Map Drawing, Writing, Arithmetic, Physiology, Punctuation, Phonography, and Drawing." The "Middle Class" (second semester) "Studies" were "Orthography, Writing, Reading, Ancient Geography and Map Drawing, Arithmetic, Phonography, The Globes, Algebra, Geometry, Grammar, Scripture Reading, and U.S. History." A scanned image of the 1844 program of study was included in Appendix B.

Framingham State College
 Teacher Preparation Program Content
 1839-2007



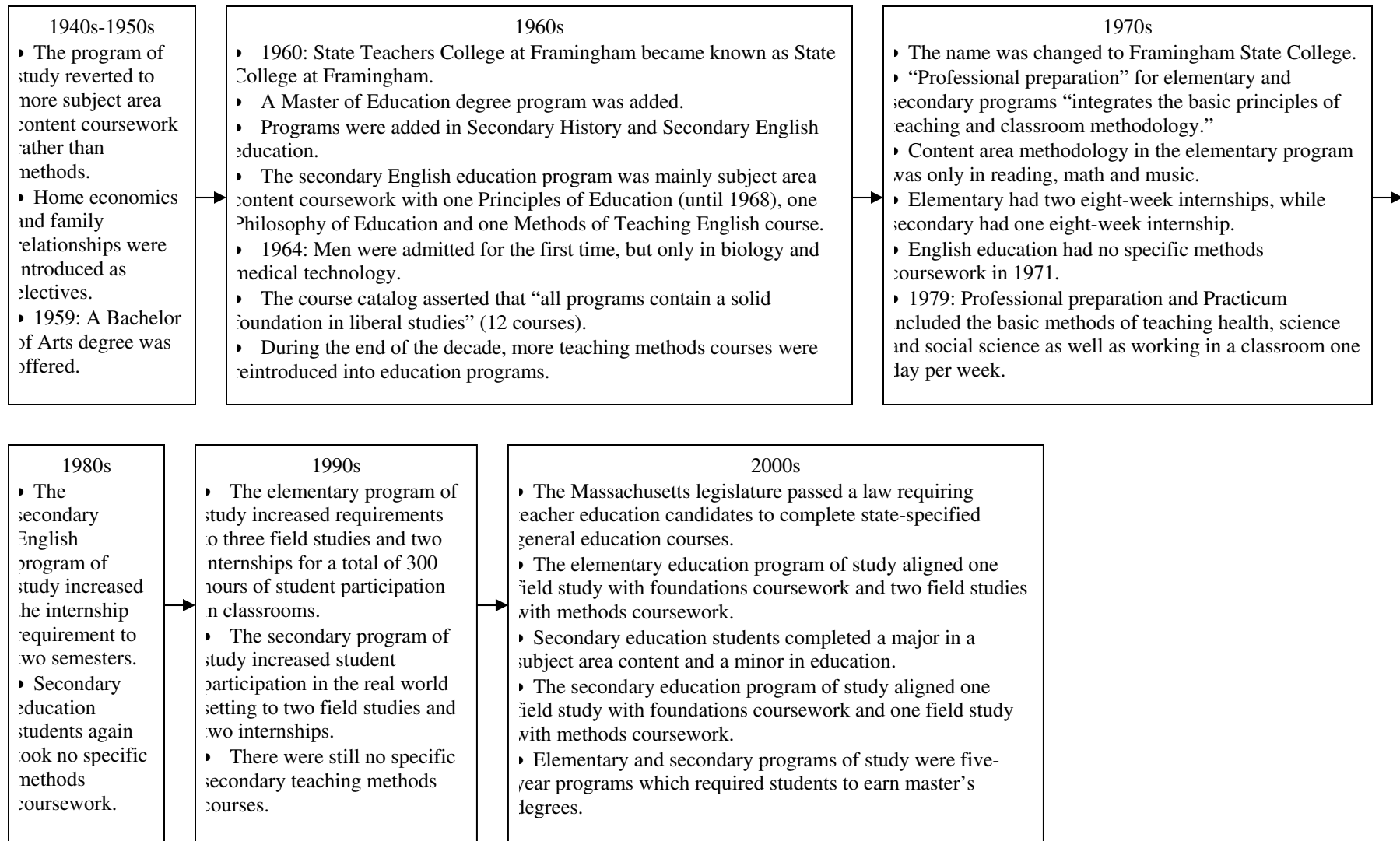


Figure 5: Framingham State College Flow Map

Finally, the “Seniors Studies” were “Algebra, Geometry, Reading and Scripture Reading, Orthography, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Rhetoric, Constitution of U.S., Book-keeping, and Moral Philosophy.” In addition, “all the school attend to vocal music, drawing, and composition, during the entire year” (The Normal School, 1844, pp. 19-20). In such courses Massachusetts Governor Edward Everett expected that equal weight be given to the art of teaching and the content of the curriculum (Fraser, 2007). He said, “There are peculiar methods, applicable to teach each branch of knowledge, which should be unfolded in the instructions of a Normal School” (Fraser, 2007, p. 53). However, according to Ogren (2005), very little was known about pedagogy in the early normal school days; therefore, the schools relied on those who had experience in classrooms to explain their teaching methods. In a letter written in 1841 from Principal Cyrus Peirce to Henry Barnard, the leader of the common school movement in Connecticut, Peirce attempted to explain how he taught the art of teaching. He wrote, “...you may get some idea of what I *attempt*, and of the *manner* of it... 1. To teach *thoroughly* the principles of the several branches studied, so that the pupils may have a *clear* and *full understanding* of them. 2. To teach the pupils, by my own *example*, as well as by *precepts*, the *best way of teaching the same things* effectually to others” (Peirce, as cited in Borrowman, 1965, p. 60). Peirce continued to write about the four methods by which he attempted to instill the art of teaching in the students. These included question and answer, conversation, asking students to analyze the subject of the lesson, and requiring written analysis.

Christine Ogren (2005) recounted the Governor’s opening day speech from the normal school at Barre, Massachusetts, which opened shortly after The Normal School. In the speech, Everett clarified that the normal schools should prepare future teachers to be experts in

the government of the school, serve as a moral influence in the community, and maintain order in the classroom. Perhaps the “Moral Philosophy” course in the 1840s and 1850s was the forum for lectures regarding these topics, as explained in the 1844 course catalog with “Moral Philosophy is taught to the whole school in remarks, or familiar lectures from the Principal, in connection with opening exercises in the morning” (p. 20). This was likely the earliest form of what has come to be known as education foundations coursework. In addition to the Moral Philosophy course, the 1844 course catalog described, “a general lesson, or lecture...given to the whole school...each day (including) subjects, miscellaneous, moral, scientific and historical” (p. 20).

According to Borrowman (1965), the “normal school people...waxed romantic about teaching as a ‘profession’” (p. 24). However, when asked for the definition of a profession, they struggled to articulate one. Of the utmost importance to normal school leaders like Horace Mann and Cyrus Peirce was instilling in students a “sense of being called to serve” (p. 24), but this in itself did not make teaching a profession. At the first annual normal school convention in 1859, the normal school principals passed a resolution and claimed that “teaching is a profession based on a science of education” (p. 25). Borrowman (1965) wrote, “Having said it, they labored to make it true, appropriating whatever scientific or pseudo-scientific knowledge the social scientists of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries offered” (p. 25).

In 1861, The Normal School became Framingham State Normal School. During the 1860s the teacher preparation program extended to two years; however, those with prior teaching experience were given the option to complete the coursework in one and a half years. According to the State Normal School course catalog of 1865, “The length of the regular course is two years; but pupils who have had much experience in teaching, and are well qualified, may

complete it in a year and a half, the shortest time in which one can be a member of the School” (p. 10). The Moral Philosophy course became Mental and Moral Philosophy. A second education foundations course, School Laws, was added along with a course which could be considered a combination of education foundations and teaching methods requirements: “Theory and Art of Teaching” (Framingham State Normal School, 1861, p. 10). The remainder of the courses during the 1860s were a review of common school subjects along with “teaching exercises...given during the second and third terms, subject to the criticism of pupils and teachers” (Framingham State Normal School, 1861, p. 11). It was assumed that the normal school educators were attempting to fulfill Governor Everett’s expectation that half of each subject area course be devoted to the methods of teaching; however, there was no evidence available in the data to confirm this assumption.

Overall, in the first 30 years of the normal school’s existence, the majority of teacher preparation consisted of subject area content coursework out of necessity. As much as half of the studies were devoted to the review of common school subjects and the methods of teaching them, or “the art of teaching,” while a small portion of coursework was dedicated to education foundations.

1870-1899. During the Reconstruction Era following the Civil War, reuniting and building a stronger country was the mission of national and state governments. While the first graduate programs were established at Harvard and Yale in the 1870s, Framingham State Normal School expanded in its own way by adding a second program of two years for ladies aspiring to become high school teachers (Framingham State Normal School, 1871).

A restatement of Framingham's work and objectives was prominently displayed on page one of the 1876 course catalog. "The imperfect preparation of most of the pupils admitted renders a thorough drill in common school branches necessary; but the object of the school, and the chief aim of its work, is instruction in teaching. This object is kept in view from the first, but during the last year of the course is specially prominent, the pupils having constant opportunity to observe and criticize the teaching of others, and to practice teaching themselves, both as assistants in the school of practice...and as teachers of single classes of children....This practical work is combined with a thorough course of study of the history and progress of education, the school laws of Massachusetts, and the best methods of organizing, governing and teaching the public schools" (p. 1). Coursework over the two-year period continued to include Mental and Moral Science and Theory and Art of Teaching.

The course catalog of 1879 included an explanation of the aim of teaching subject area methods at Framingham. "A review of the common branches is deemed necessary, and is combined with the study of teaching. Thus, if the subject be the fundamental rules of arithmetic, the class, with the subject fresh in their minds, are led to consider what are the best methods of teaching...and are required to give, under the direction of an experienced teacher, a series of lessons...adapted to the various schools in which they are taught....At the end (of the course), the whole subject is generalized and methodized, so that the class take from their study a definite idea of how to begin and continue the teaching of arithmetic in the common schools, which will at least serve them till they are able to evolve others from their own experience, and will preserve the children under their care from vicious or aimless teaching" (Framingham State Normal School, 1879, p. 9). With that being described about the art of teaching, the catalog also touched

upon a description of the science of education. Psychology was described as “the science of the soul” and “the foundation for all true teaching” (p. 10).

In 1880, the Massachusetts State Board of Education passed a vote to prescribe the normal school course of study. The legislation stated, “...there must be the most thorough knowledge, first, of the branches of learning required to be taught in the schools; second, of the best methods of teaching those branches; and, third, of right mental training” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1889, p. 12). The first year of study was devoted to subject area content training, while the second year included a new course entitled “Science of Education and Art of Teaching” and a new foundations course called “History of Education” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1889, p. 13). The behavioral sciences were also represented by a psychology course “for the purpose of ascertaining true principles and good methods” (p. 13).

During the 1890s, rather than highlighting subject area content knowledge in the first year of teacher preparation, the State Normal School at Framingham course catalog listed a “General Two-Years Course” as “Psychology, history of education, principles of education, methods of instruction and discipline, school organization, school laws of Massachusetts, (and) methods of teaching the following subjects: 1. English—reading, language, rhetoric, composition, literature, history. 2. Mathematics—arithmetic, book-keeping, algebra, geometry. 3. Science—elementary physics and chemistry, geography, physiology, study of minerals, plants and animals. 4. Drawing, vocal music, physical culture, manual training” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1894, pp. 11-12).

In addition to this new emphasis on education foundations and teaching methods courses, the normal school introduced a program whereby “graduates of colleges and universities, and of

high schools of a high grade and standing, who give evidence of maturity, good scholarship and of aptness to teach, may...select...(a course of study) which may be completed in one year, and when such course is successfully completed they shall receive a certificate for the same” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1894, p. 12).

1900-1929. In 1900, the State Normal School at Framingham expanded in two ways. The first was by offering a type of professional development on Saturdays. Graduates of any normal school were invited to “take up any line of work in existing classes” and “remain as long as possible” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1900, p. 9). The second area of growth for the school was the addition of The Mary Hemenway Department of Household Arts, whose graduates “easily found positions as teachers in public and private institutions” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1900, p. 9).

Throughout the early 1900s as male-dominated companies such as Ford and U.S. Steel were formed in an increasingly industrial America, the normal school curriculum underwent few changes. The State Normal School at Framingham continued to provide in its teacher preparation program for females “the study of the educational values of English, mathematics, history, science, drawing, vocal music, physical training, and manual training, and of the principles and methods of teaching them” as well as “the study of man, body and mind, for the principles of education; the study of the application of these principles in school organization, school government, and in the art of teaching; the history of education; (and) the school laws of Massachusetts” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1903, p. 8). Observation and practice in the model school, a program staple from the beginning, was still offered during the senior year.

“Health Conditions” were given prominence for the first time in the 1903 course catalog. “All students...are obliged to take exercise in the gymnasium...during the entire course. This training has a double object. Its purpose is to build up the student physically, and to enable her to meet successfully the exacting work of the school; it also prepares her to give instruction in this subject in her life as a teacher” (State Normal School at Framingham, 1903, p. 9). Population growth due to the influx of immigrants to America may have been the impetus for the focus on student and teacher health. Additionally, schools were growing due to the increase in blue collar families working in industry, thus placing more demand on teachers.

1930-1959. In the early 1930s, the normal school era was reaching its end. The State Normal School at Framingham became known as The State Teachers College at Framingham. Departments within the college were “The Elementary Department,” “The Department of Household Arts,” and “The Department of Vocational Household Arts” (State Teachers College at Framingham, 1932, p. 10). The teacher preparation program length for common school teachers increased to three years. An option was available to take collegiate courses following the completion of the three years in order to qualify for a Bachelor of Science in Education.

Two new courses, “Problems of Teaching and Management I and II,” were introduced into the curriculum. This marked the first time courses dedicated mainly to classroom management were required. Problems of Teaching and Management I was to be taken concurrently with the first of two internships, or “Practice Teaching.” The purpose was “to connect...theory work with the problems (that students were experiencing in their internship)” (State Teachers College at Framingham, 1932, p. 20). The second part of the course was taken along with the second internship.

It was obvious in the course catalogs during this decade that the teachers college was attempting to better prepare its students for success in all facets of managing and teaching the classroom. In the 1934 course catalog, students were warned, “Beginning in September, 1935, students admitted to this Department (The Elementary Department) will take only a four-year course” (State Teachers College at Framingham, 1934, p. 14). A scanned image of the new four-year program from 1937 was included in Appendix B. A “Freshman Orientation” course was implemented, with the purpose of aiding the student “in becoming adjusted to her new environment” (State Teachers College at Framingham, 1941, p. 19).

While references to the art of teaching went absent from the course catalog, additional coursework in the sciences was added. “Education Measurements” with the aim of teaching students to give intelligence and standardized tests was included in the preparation program. Furthermore, an “Introductory Course in Psychology” was added prior to “Educational Psychology” (State Teachers College at Framingham, 1946, p. 21).

Framingham State Teachers College became accredited in 1942 by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, which shortly thereafter became the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (State College at Framingham, 1963). This occurred at the same time as America was involved in World War II. Subsequently, the GI Bill made available to soldiers after the war would cause many males returning home to take advantage of educational opportunities.

1960-1989. In September, 1960 Framingham State Teachers College changed its name yet again, and it became known as State College at Framingham (State College at Framingham, 1963). In May, 1961, the State Board of Education allowed the college to award Master of

Education degrees. In the fall semester of 1962, teacher education programs in secondary English and history began.

Many colleges and universities, spurred by the “Space Race,” expanded their horizons by adding new programs. The State College at Framingham initiated a bachelor of arts program in biology and a bachelor of science program in medical technology in the fall of 1964 (State College at Framingham, 1963). This also marked the first time males were admitted to the undergraduate program of study; however, they were only accepted to the biology or medical technology programs.

The 1963 course catalog read that “all (four-year programs leading to the bachelor’s degree) contain a solid foundation in liberal studies and sufficient professional education to provide competence in the major chosen” (State College at Framingham, 1963, p. 5). Students preparing to become English teachers majored in English and minored in secondary education. This meant that students in the secondary program were exposed to teaching elements later than those preparing to teach elementary school. While students preparing to teach elementary school were exposed to “Principles of Teaching,” which was “designed to introduce the student to the curricular principles that are common to the specific subject matter areas” (p. 23) during their second year, those studying to become English teachers took the course during their third year.

The greatest difference between elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs at the State College at Framingham during the 1960s was in the amount of subject area teaching methods coursework in each. Elementary pre-service teachers took nine courses devoted to subject area teaching methods, while secondary pre-service teachers took one such course in their major subject area. Although the courses aligned with their specific area of study, multiple

methods courses may have given the students time to generalize learning across subject areas or deepen their metacognition about the most effective ways to impart knowledge.

During the 1970s, the college changed its name to the current Framingham State College. Teaching methods coursework was much less pronounced in the elementary course catalogs, decreasing from 18 to 12 semester hours (Framingham State College, 1970). Secondary English teaching majors still took one Methods of Teaching English course, although the semester credit hours decreased from three to two. Total semester hours required for the Bachelor of Science in Education degree decreased by four in both the elementary and secondary programs of study.

The 1970s brought an increase in the amount of classroom observation and internships required in Framingham's teacher preparation programs. Elementary pre-service teachers were required to complete a field study in education, two practica and one internship in the early part of the decade. Beginning in 1977, students of elementary education completed the field study, two practica and two internships to "comply with changes in state mandated student teaching requirements" (Framingham State College, 1979, p. 82). With each course, the students' involvement in the classroom progressed from observation to assistance to full-time instruction. Secondary pre-service English teachers completed one field study, one practicum, and one internship. There was less time required of them for real-world practice (Framingham State College, 1972). According to the course catalog of 1974, "these experiences (the field study and practicum) are designed to provide a transition from theoretical knowledge to professional application, culminating in assignment to student teaching" (p. 51).

Framingham State College was reflective of the attention given to education, particularly the education of new teachers for the nation's schools, in the 1980s. The 1983 course catalog for

Framingham State College referenced “new regulations governing the certification of teachers and other educational personnel” which were published in the summer of 1979 (Framingham State College, 1983, p. 45). It cautioned that “students with a minor in secondary education should take careful note...of the increased requirements for completion of that minor” (p. 45). Furthermore, it announced that beginning with the class of 1983, students majoring in elementary education had to choose a minor as well. Finally, it clarified that “The Professional Standards Committee (of Framingham State College) uses a number of criteria, both objective and subjective, for permitting students to progress through the teacher education programs” (p. 106). These criteria included maintaining a 2.5 grade point average in required coursework and earning a minimum grade of C in professional education coursework.

Students majoring in elementary education were required to successfully complete “Education Foundations and Field Study I” as well as “Psychology of Learning and Development” related to traditional education foundations coursework. Teaching methods coursework was “Mathematics for the Elementary Grades,” “Physical Education in the Elementary School,” “Science, Health, Social Science Methods and Field Study II,” and “Reading, Language Arts and Children’s Literature” (Framingham State College, 1987, p. 60).

Although students majoring in English with a minor in secondary education had to complete the same education foundations coursework as elementary education majors, the Methods of Teaching English course was now absent from the curriculum. The secondary program of study did, however, include two field studies and two internships just as the elementary course sequence (Framingham State College, 1987).

1990-2007. Framingham State College continued to grow in the 1990s. Commensurate with the on-going argument between which was more important, subject area content knowledge or knowledge of pedagogy, the college made a point of incorporating both. The 1991 course catalog explained “after September, 1994 individuals applying for teacher certification must complete a two-stage process. Stage 1, provisional certification, requires that students have a liberal arts major. At Framingham State College, students will meet provisional certification requirements for Early Childhood or Elementary Education with a liberal arts or science major and a Coordinate Major in Education. Secondary Education students will have a minor in education. Stage 2, full certification, requires that graduates obtain a master’s degree within the first five years of teaching” (Framingham State College, 1991, p. 63). In the first explanation of this new approach in 1991, an interdisciplinary liberal arts and sciences major or a choice from seventeen traditional liberal arts or science majors were offered to early childhood and elementary education students, and six were available to students minoring in secondary education. All students continued to take twelve general education courses.

The coordinate major in elementary education included “Education in American Society; with Field Study I,” “Psychology of Development,” “The Child and Literacy; with Field Study II,” and “Elementary Curriculum: Reading, Mathematics, Social Studies/Science” (Framingham State College, 1991, p. 64). In addition, the elementary education students completed two internships. The program of study for obtaining a secondary education minor included the same elements, although the content methodology work was in the specified area of study.

The late 1990s marked the first time the Massachusetts Curriculum Frameworks were mentioned in the Department of Education’s programs of study overview. The 1999 course

catalog promoted the connection between the 12 required general education courses and the Frameworks (Framingham State College, 1999). An additional field study was added to the elementary education coordinate major program of study. Courses taken concurrently with field studies then included: “Education in American Society,” “The Child and Literacy,” “Elementary Curriculum: Mathematics,” and “Elementary Curriculum: Science, Social Studies, and Special Needs” (Framingham State College, 1999, p. 78). Although the minor course of study for secondary education continued to include two field studies, the description “Methods, Special Education, and Technology for High School” was added to Field Study II.

In the era of the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*, education was brought into the spotlight with strict federal regulations and a new system of accountability for schools and school districts called Adequate Yearly Progress. Teachers were required to be “highly qualified” and teach only in their field of certification, placing new demands on teacher preparation programs. Framingham State College continued to require that elementary education students take three field studies along with education foundations and teaching methods courses, while secondary education students took two. Both groups of students participated in two full-time internships toward the end of their studies, and were required to complete a master’s degree within their first five years of teaching.

Throughout the history of the first college in America dedicated to preparing teachers, it was plain to see the ever-increasing demands placed by society and the national government on teacher education. Subject area coursework, which grew out of necessity in the common school era, continued into each new millennium. The struggle to provide adequate time in the program for teaching methods preparation continued as well, as evidenced by the wavering amount of

coursework dedicated to such throughout the years. Education foundations coursework continued to be a staple in teacher preparation programs as well, although in minimal numbers of courses. One constant which began and grew stronger throughout Framingham State College's history was student participation in real world scenarios. Students in the 1800s were given opportunities to observe, assist, and teach and these were built upon throughout the years until 2007.

Peabody College at Vanderbilt University

Region of the United States: South

Large National Universities (U.S. News & World Report, 2007)

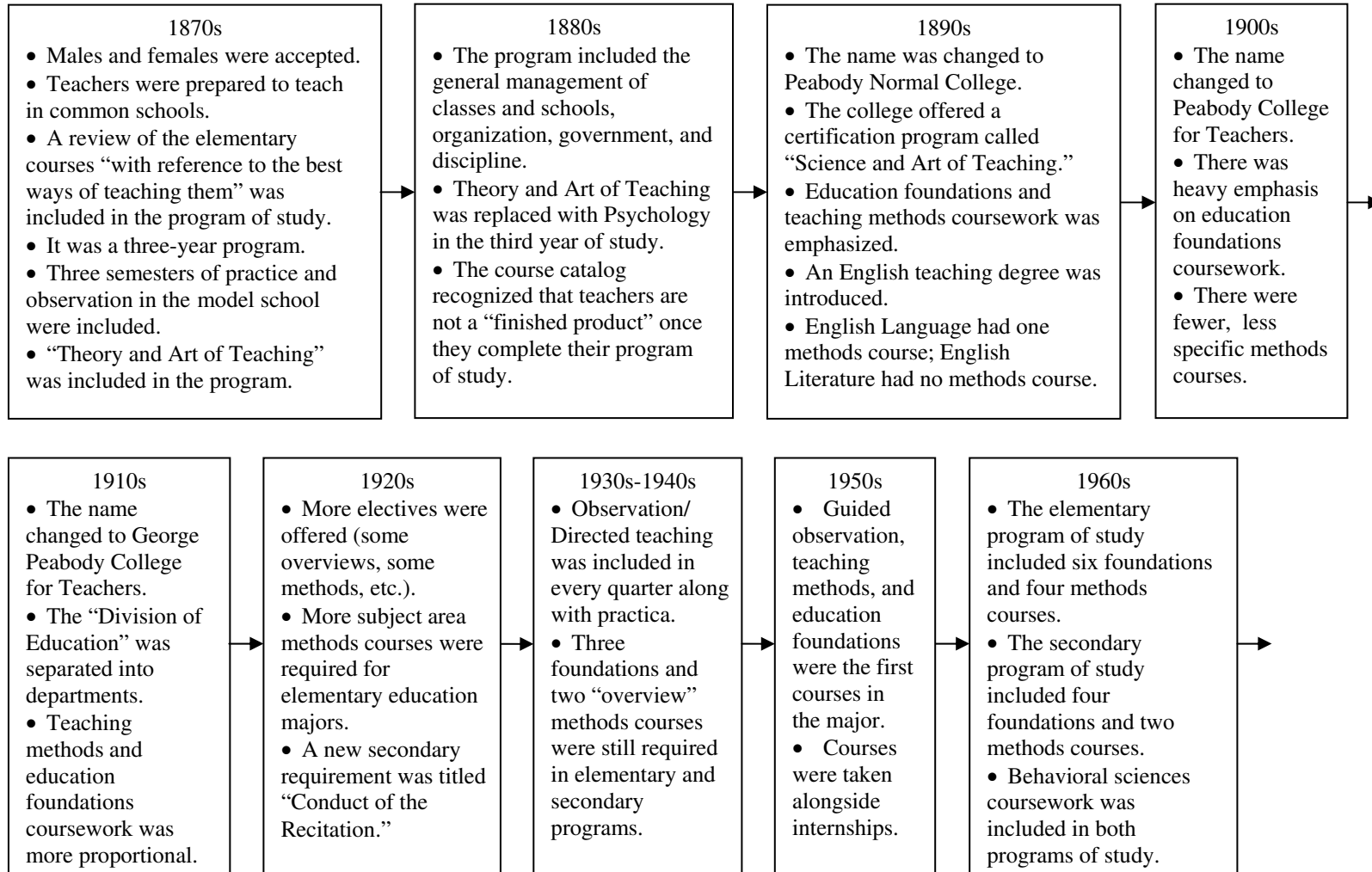
Background

George Peabody, an American who achieved financial success as an investment banker in London, donated one million dollars in 1867 to establish a fund for improving education in the South. Trustees of the fund decided that the best use of the donation was to establish a teacher education school. In 1875, the Peabody Education Fund financed the State Normal College, which opened in connection with the University of Nashville in Tennessee (Dorn, 1996).

Teacher Preparation Program Content: Peabody College, Vanderbilt University

Programs of study were obtained beginning in 1875 through 2007. A circle map defining the major highlights within the programs of study is available in Appendix A. A flow map sequencing the highlights and changes is shown in Figure 6.

Peabody College, Vanderbilt University
 Teacher Preparation Program Content
 1875-2007



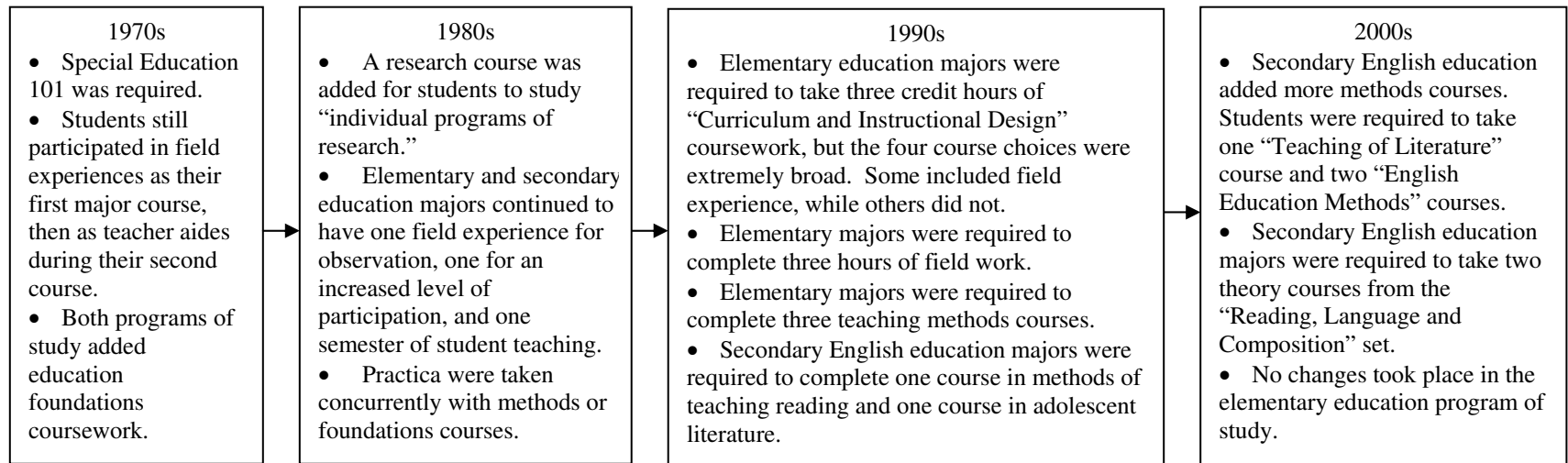


Figure 6: Peabody College, Vanderbilt University Flow Map

1875-1899. The State Normal College, which was designated for teacher education, opened in 1875. The school operated by George Peabody's motto: "Education, a debt due from present to future generations." It included a model school for the purposes of "practice in all the grades of instruction" (State Normal College, 1875, p. 11). The college accepted male and female applicants between the ages of 16 and 30.

Normal school principals had complained of students' lack of knowledge in the common subjects, stating that they spent too much time reviewing subject matter and little time in the instruction of pedagogy. The State Normal College's 1875 course catalog made clear that it did not, "where it can possibly be avoided, propose to undertake any work which can be as well performed in the ordinary schools" (p. 12). The goal of the college in its first year was to prepare students for "the organizing, teaching, and general management of schools....To this end there should be the most thorough knowledge—first, of the branches of learning required to be taught in the schools, and second, of the best method of teaching those branches" (p. 12).

The program of study at the State Normal College in the 1870s was described as "a rapid review of the more elementary studies with reference to the best ways of teaching them, a review of the higher branches of knowledge with the same object, and a careful study of such other branches as time and circumstances will permit" (State Normal College, 1875, p. 12). The length of the program was three years, each divided into three terms. During the first year at the State Normal College, pre-service teachers studied "primary and grammar-school studies, with reference to teaching them" (p. 12). Subjects included arithmetic, geography, map drawing, English grammar and analysis, geometry, chemistry, history of the United States, physiology and hygiene, rhetoric and book-keeping (State Normal College, 1875). The second year contained

additional subject area and methods coursework. Classes in the third year consisted of some advanced subject areas, as well as “School Laws of Tennessee,” “Moral Science,” and “Theory and Art of Teaching” (p. 13). The three terms in the third year included “Practice and Observation in (the) Model School” (p. 13).

In the 1880s, a new qualifier was added to the “Course of Instruction” description. As in the previous decade, the course of instruction included management of classes and schools, organization, government, and discipline; however, the statement, “with full recognition of the fact that NO PERSON’S ABILITY IN THESE RESPECTS CAN BE PROPERLY TESTED UNTIL HE IS ACTUALLY CLOTHED WITH THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL ROOM” (State Normal College, 1886, p. 8) was added.

The course in moral science was moved to the second year of study, and school laws and theory and art of teaching were deleted from the course sequence (State Normal College, 1886). Psychology was added in the third year, representing a possible shift to a focus on the science of education. Rather than list practice and observation in the model school as courses in the third year, the course catalog listed specific areas which “receive attention throughout the year” (p. 9) during the newly added fourth year of study. These were: “Drawing with black board delineations, English Composition, Declamation, Reading, Spelling, Defining, Penmanship, Vocal Music, etc., and Practice in Teaching” (p. 9).

The State Normal College changed its name to Peabody Normal College in 1889, honoring its benefactor. During the 1890s, Peabody Normal College awarded collegiate degrees instead of the diplomas or certificates of completion of the past. Students earned a Bachelor of

Arts, Bachelor of Science or Bachelor of Letters depending upon their course of study (Peabody Normal College, 1895).

Many curriculum changes occurred at Peabody Normal College in the last decade of the 19th century. Professional education coursework in the Science and Art of Teaching for the elementary education degree included “Theory and Practice,” “Science of Education—Lectures,” “Primary Methods—Lectures on Reading, Writing, Numbers, Form, and Color,” “Outlines of Educational Doctrine,” “Lectures on Pedagogy,” “History of Education,” “School Supervision,” and “Primary Methods—Lectures on Language, Geography, History, and Elementary Natural Science” (Peabody Normal College, 1895, p. 33-34). A scanned image of the 1895 program of study was included in Appendix B. New degree programs including English Language and English Literature were also added in the 1890s. Both programs of study were comprised of subject area content coursework.

1900-1929. The Peabody Education Fund dissolved in 1910, and trustees gave \$1.5 million and received matching funds to transform the school into George Peabody College for Teachers (The Tennessee Historical Society, 2002). In the early 20th century, the Vanderbilt University chairman offered adjacent land to George Peabody College for Teachers. “Peabody College became its own mini-university including liberal arts, music, physical education, and arts departments; a library school; a demonstration school” and more (The Tennessee Historical Society, 2002).

The 1915 course catalog of the George Peabody College for Teachers listed more specific teaching methods coursework for studying elementary education than the two “Primary Methods” courses of the late 19th century. Classes included “Methods in Reading and Phonics

for the Primary Grades,” “Language Study, Spelling, and Penmanship for the Primary Grades,” “Number Work for Grades I, II, and III: also Methods in Nature Study and Home Geography,” and “Special Methods in Grammar Grade Subjects” (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1915, pp. 34-35).

The course entitled “Principles and Practice in the Elementary School” included in its description some of the commonly cited teacher knowledge voids, according to Veenman’s (1984) and Gratch’s (1998) surveys of new teachers. Course topics in alignment with such knowledge voids were: “the preliminary organization of schoolroom conditions; means of securing attention, memory, and habit; ...selection of topics and organization of subject matter in studies; (and) planning of lessons” (p. 34). An observational course was also required of elementary education students “to enable students to observe application of pedagogical methods and principles” (p. 36).

The 1915 course catalog outlines a series of “Saturday Studies for Town and City Teachers” for students. Topics were relation to theory and practice, fundamental principles, “loss of time and waste in teaching,” and individual instruction (p. 35).

In the 1920s, degree programs in elementary education were divided into Early Elementary Education and Intermediate and Upper Grade Education. Teaching methods courses were again combined into “Elementary Method of Primary, Intermediate, and Grammar Grades” (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1926, p. 55), although specific methods electives were available. A new requirement, “The Improvement of Instruction Through Standard Tests and Scales,” was added to the program of study. Courses in the history and principles of education continued to be staples of professional study.

1930-1959. During the 1930s at George Peabody College for Teachers, more opportunities were given to students for observation and participation in real world classroom settings, as evidenced in the course catalogs. Six course descriptions in the elementary education program of study specifically listed observation and demonstration in the Peabody Laboratory School, while two such descriptions existed in secondary English course descriptions. A practicum and an internship were required of all education majors. The practicum was to be taken concurrently with the internship “to enrich and make the laboratory experiences of student teachers more meaningful” (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1937, p. 74).

A new elective available in 1937 was “Studies Affecting Elementary Education.” The purpose of the course was for elementary majors to “acquaint themselves with the changes the science of education is making in the theory and practice of our elementary schools” (p. 86).

Few changes occurred to the programs of study during the 1940s and 1950s, although one major shift was in the amount of student teaching required for both elementary and secondary education majors. Each program included three experiences in addition to early observation in the laboratory school. The first student teaching was comprised of one course for four credit hours, where students were in a school for two hours per day. The second experience was a bit different for elementary and secondary. Elementary majors received eight credit hours for spending five hours per day in the school, while secondary majors earned eight credit hours for working four daily hours in the school as well as completing a weekly two-hour seminar in teaching. Finally, elementary student teachers earned 12 credits for full-time student teaching, and secondary student teachers earned 16 credits for full-time student teaching, two two-hour

seminar meeting and school-community relations (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955, p. 77).

1960-1989. During the 1960s, both elementary and secondary education programs of study included much of the same professional education coursework. Education foundations courses were: “An Introduction to American Education,” “Human Growth and Learning,” “Guidance and Adjustment in the Elementary (or Secondary) School,” and “Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary (or Secondary) School” (George Peabody College for Teachers, 1965, p. 65). Elementary education majors took two additional classes in which they participated in observations in the Peabody Demonstration School. Elementary and secondary student teachers took a curriculum course alongside their second internship to “utilize student teaching experiences to develop skills in coping with curriculum problems” (p. 66). Elementary education students completed methods courses in reading and the language arts and social studies, while secondary English education students earned credits for a methods course in teaching English.

While there were few changes in the education programs of study during the 1970s, a recession in that decade led to a merger with Vanderbilt University. In 1979, Peabody College of Vanderbilt University became Vanderbilt’s ninth school (The Tennessee Historical Society, 2002). In its first decade as part of Vanderbilt University, Peabody College continued to offer many of the same experiences it had in the past. Students in elementary and secondary education programs carried on with participation in real world settings at increasing levels of responsibility throughout their programs. Reading seemed to take on greater importance, as the elementary program of study divided the methods course in reading and language arts into two separate

courses. Furthermore, the secondary program of study added a course entitled “Reading in the Secondary Content Fields” in addition to “Teaching English in the Secondary Schools” (Peabody College, 1985, p. 118).

A new requirement in the 1980s for both elementary and secondary education majors was “Research in Education,” which was an “individual program of research in various education fields” (p. 122). This represented an opportunity, in addition to the internship, for students to take control of their own learning.

Computers became more affordable and accessible to schools in the 1980s. Computer electives were introduced at Peabody College in the 1980s, with such courses available to students as “Application of Computer Based Systems to Educational Settings” (p. 117) and “Basic Computer Technologies” (p. 119).

1990-2007. The 1990s brought increased rigor and requirements to Peabody College. A scanned image of the 1995 major program requirements for elementary education and English education was included in Appendix B, along with course descriptions from the Department of Teaching and Learning. Students of elementary and secondary education were required to have a second, non-education major in the College of Arts and Science. According to the Peabody College Web site, “Through this non-education major, students are expected to develop in-depth knowledge in an academic subject.”

In this era of increased subject area content coursework, the elementary program of study contained 19 credit hours of pedagogical coursework. These included subject area teaching methods courses as well as one course in classroom management. Nine credit hours of education

foundations were included in the elementary program of study along with three practica, a student teaching seminar, and a full-time student teaching experience (Peabody College, 2005).

The secondary education program of study included 12 credit hours in education foundations coursework and nine credit hours in pedagogical coursework. It also incorporated three practica, one student teaching seminar and one full-time internship. As in the past, students aspiring to teach secondary English completed the subject area content study requirements for the English major.

Ball State University

Region of the United States: Midwest

Extra Large National Universities (U.S. News & World Report, 2007)

Background

The Eastern Indiana Normal School was established in 1899 on the site of the future Ball State University Administration building in Muncie, Indiana. Due to a lack of funding, the school was closed in 1901, but reopened a year later because of a donation of \$100,000 by Francis Palmer, a retired Indiana banker. The school was renamed Palmer University.

In 1905, the school again changed its name to Indiana Normal College and had two divisions: the Normal School and the College of Applied Sciences. Again, due to lack of funding and a decreasing enrollment, the school closed in 1907 and sat vacant until 1912.

Teacher Preparation Program Content: Ball State University

Programs of study were obtained beginning in 1912 through 2007. A circle map defining the major highlights within the programs of study is available in Appendix A. A flow map sequencing the highlights and changes is shown in Figure 7.

1912-1929. The school reopened for the 1912-1913 school year with a mortgage from the Muncie Trust Company. The Muncie Normal Institute's Department of Pedagogy included courses in Psychology, Principles and Methods of Teaching, School Organization and Administration, History of Education, School Economics, and Special Primary Work (Muncie Normal Institute, 1912). The course catalog stated, "These subjects are known as 'professional' subjects" (p. 42). The Principles and Methods of Teaching consisted of two courses entitled "Method (1)" and "Method (2)" of which content was broad. A portion of the Method (2) description read, "This course is concerned with special method or the application of method to the different branches of study" (p. 42).

Two courses were also required under the topic "History of Education"—one dealt with "the meaning of education...the characteristic features of the education and educational ideals of different people" and the other covered the history of education in Indiana (p. 43). The Special Primary Work portion of the program of study included three components: "Story Telling," "Regular Observation," and "Manual Training and Busy Work" (p. 43-44). According to the course description, "Busy work is a necessity in primary grades and teachers who adequately fortify themselves along these lines increase their efficiency many fold" (p. 44).

Ball State University
Teacher Preparation Program Content
1912-2007

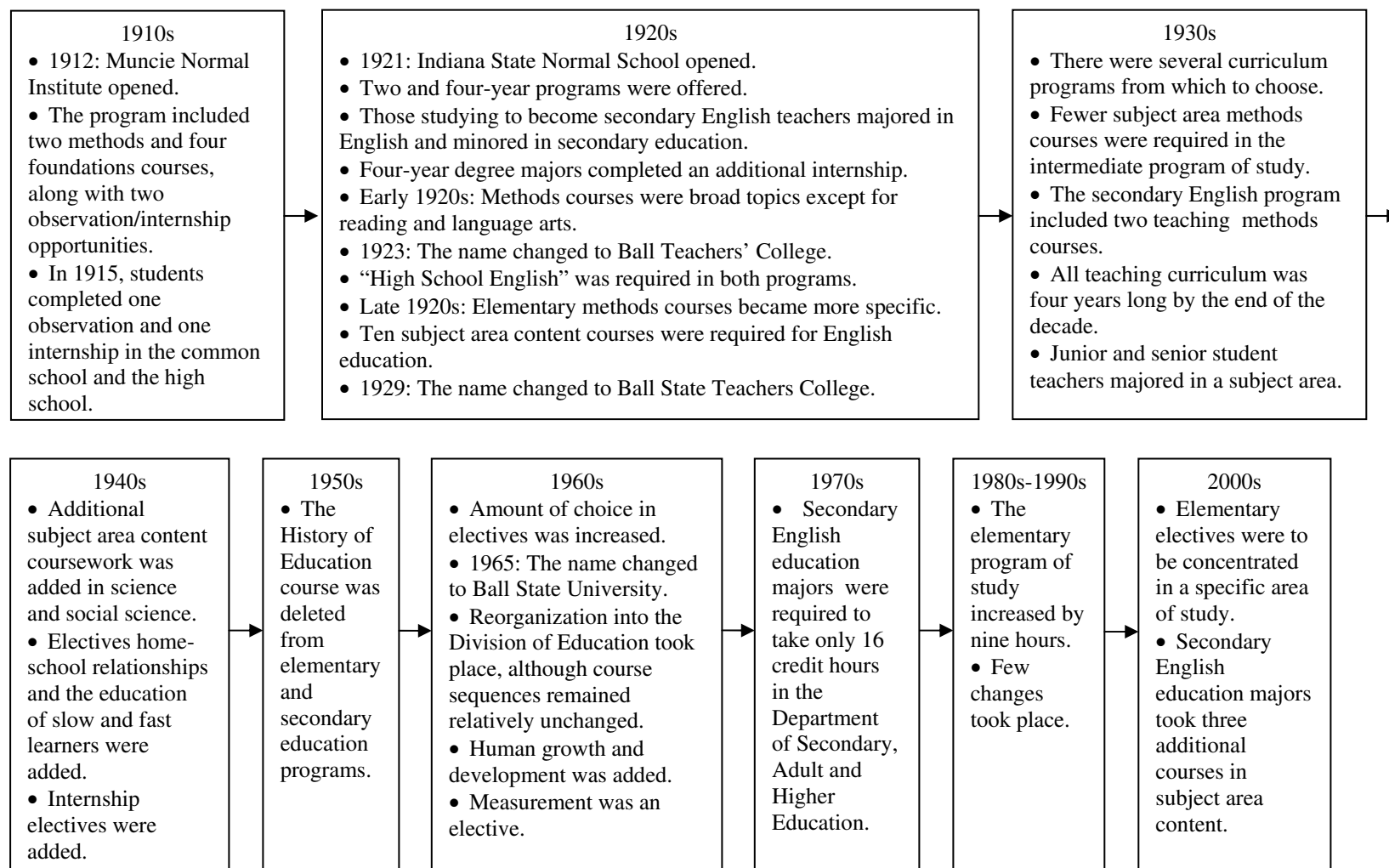


Figure 7: Ball State University Flow Map

Muncie Normal Institute was “equipped with a graded and country training school” (p. 43). In one of two observation courses, students observed teachers in charge of the training schools. The class met “to discuss the lessons observed and the principles of teaching involved in them” (p. 43). In the second observation course, students taught under the direction of the trained teacher as well as observed other classmates practicing teaching.

During the school year of 1915-1916, Muncie Normal Institute became known as Muncie National Institute (Muncie National Institute, 1915). The largest change to the program of study was that one observation course was dedicated to the common school and the other to the high school. Practice teaching, or internship, underwent the same change with one internship devoted to each school level.

The school again faced financial trouble in 1917 when foreclosure proceedings began. However, the Ball brothers, founders of the Ball Corporation, bought the Muncie National Institute. Less than a year later, they gifted the school and surrounding land to the state in hopes of keeping it out of financial strain. The state granted operating control to the Indiana State Normal School out of Terre Haute, Indiana, and the Muncie Normal Institute became Indiana State Normal School, Eastern Division.

The Indiana State Normal School offered a two-year normal course of study and a four-year program to earn a collegiate degree. The course catalog from 1921 listed the purpose of the new Department of “Principles of Education, Observation, and Supervised Teaching” as dealing with “both the theoretical and the practical phases of the process of education. The work involves a study of the principles and methods of instruction as set forth in the best current literature on the subject and the application of such principles and methods in the training

schools” (p. 83). The first of six education foundations courses in the program of study was “Introduction to Education,” which included some study of classroom management. Two teaching methods courses were also required.

Those students wishing to earn the four-year degree were expected to complete a major area of study. One such area was English, and those preparing to teach secondary English completed “Special Methods for High School Teachers” (p. 89). Additionally, those obtaining the four-year degree completed two supervised teaching experiences instead of just one.

Because of the generosity of the Ball brothers, the Indiana legislature renamed the college yet again to Ball Teachers’ College in 1922, although it remained part of the Indiana State Normal School. Coursework in teaching methods became separate and specific. Methods courses were required in arithmetic, geometry, handwork, reading, and storytelling (Ball Teachers’ College, 1924). While elementary education majors completed many teaching methods courses, students majoring in English education took approximately 10 subject area content courses and one teaching methods course. However, whether studying elementary or secondary education, students took “Principles of Teaching and Classroom Management” (p.70). All students completed two internships as well.

During the regular Indiana legislative session of 1929, the Indiana State Normal School campuses of Terre Haute and Muncie were officially separated. The Indiana State Teachers College Board of Trustees was given governing duties, and the Muncie campus was officially renamed Ball State Teachers College.

1930-1959. The Department of Education at Ball State Teachers College offered several programs of study in 1930. The elementary curricula choices were the four-year kindergarten-

primary, the two-year intermediate-grammar, and the four-year intermediate-grammar. The secondary choices were the three-year junior high and the four-year curricula for regular and special high school teachers.

Although the education foundations courses were still required for elementary and secondary education students, the majority of subject area methods courses were included only in the four-year kindergarten-primary curriculum. However, the two and four-year intermediate grammar programs contained methods of teaching reading and methods of teaching grammar and language. The four-year high school program included methods in high school English and methods in high school literature (Ball State Teachers College, 1930).

By 1931, all elementary and high school programs of study were four years long, while the junior high program was three years in length (Ball State Teachers College, 1931). In order to teach in a junior high or high school, pre-service teachers majored in a subject area in addition to completing the program of study for teaching.

During the 1940s, additional subject area content courses in science and social sciences were added to the professional education program of study for elementary education. Electives were added in home-school relationships and the education of slow and fast learners (Ball State Teachers College, 1945). Students could elect additional student teaching coursework “for the student who wishes to have experiences in additional and different phases of teaching” (p.112). Ninety-six credit hours were required for elementary teachers with 24 of them being electives. Secondary education majors took a total of 64 hours in general requirements in addition to 36 hours in English.

The junior high school language was eliminated from the course catalog in the 1950s. Coursework was available in elementary and secondary education. Two internships were still a requirement of both programs of study. The student teaching experience of the secondary education student teacher was explained more specifically in the 1953 course catalog than in those that preceded it. It described the student taking two student teaching courses concurrently. “In the half day which the student will spend in the laboratory school he will teach one course in each of his two concentration areas or two courses in his special subject. Also, he will be assigned by the principal to extra-class activities in addition to the regular classroom participation” (Ball State Teachers College, 1953, p. 42).

1960-1989. In the early 1960s, a complete description of the “Curriculum for the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers” was included in the Ball State Teachers College undergraduate course catalog. It was explained that the “curriculum, with opportunity for elective as well as required courses, fully meets the latest minimum certification requirements...as established by the Indiana Teacher Training and Licensing Commission, which specifies the curriculum content as follows: social studies, 22 ½ quarter hours; science and mathematics, 30 quarter hours; language arts, 22 ½ quarter hours; arts, 15 quarter hours; human growth and development, 15 quarter hours; professional education, 45 quarter hours; and elective courses to build the total of quarter hours for the degree to 186” (p. 56). The greatest difference between this program of study and those of previous years was in the amount of elective choice given to the student.

In 1965, Ball State Teachers College became known as Ball State University (Ball State Teachers College, 1965). The Department of Education, Psychology, and Special Education was

reorganized, and those studying teaching took their professional coursework from the Division of Education in the Departments of Elementary Education and Psychology.

By the 1970s, programs in elementary education were much the same as those of the 1960s. Professional education requirements of education foundations, teaching methods, and internships totaled 48 hours, and subject area content, which included psychology in the course catalog totaled 107 hours. Twenty-two credit hours of electives were also required. Professional education requirements of secondary education majors were a minimum of 16 semester hours in the Department of Secondary, Adult, and Higher Education as well as two psychology courses and a teaching methods course. In addition, they earned a teaching major in English with 60 credit hours of subject area content coursework (Ball State University, 1972).

In the early 1980s, the elementary education professional requirements again included psychology coursework alongside teaching methods, education foundations and internships for a total of 58 hours. One hundred six credit hours were required in subject area content courses as well as 22 in electives. The total number of credits needed for the elementary teaching degree increased by nine in the early part of the decade (Ball State University, 1984).

1990-2007. In the last decade of the twentieth century and the beginning of the new millennium, few changes were made to the teaching curriculum at Ball State University. Those studying secondary English education took three additional courses in subject area content. These three particular classes provided time for students to work on case studies and individual projects.

The elementary program of study remained consistent with the preceding few decades. One notable change was that the electives were to be concentrated on a specific area such as

English as a Second Language, Home/School/Community Relations, or Wellness (Ball State University, 2007). The elementary program continued to require students to complete field studies and observation in the first major area course and provided opportunities throughout the program for participation in the real world setting (Ball State University, 1996).

Analysis of Teacher Preparation Program Content in Colleges and Universities Which Originated as Teacher Normal Schools

A flow map was created which combined information from the three teacher preparation programs selected for this research which originated as teacher normal schools. The flow map was used for the following analysis and was included in the appendix.

Of the teacher preparation programs which contributed to this study, Framingham State College was established over 35 years prior to any other. In the era between its establishment in 1839 and Peabody College's establishment in 1875, Framingham was dedicated to preparing female teachers for the common schools, but this was not accomplished without scrutiny from the public and the state legislature. In 1840, the Massachusetts Committee on Education announced that everyone who had been through school must understand the art of teaching, which was the focus of the normal school; therefore they nearly closed the school because they did not see a reason for teacher education. This was evidence that as long as teacher education has existed, its necessity and effectiveness have been questioned. It could also be deemed proof that there has always been a disbelief that the art of teaching is a subject that is teachable rather than skills acquired over time.

During its first 35 years, the majority of the teacher preparation program content at Framingham included a review of common school subjects. Governor Edward Everett was one

who believed that the art of teaching was an important and teachable subject, so the aim of Principal Cyrus Peirce was to instill in his students how to best instruct others. From 1839 through the 1850s, the principal's lectures about his experiences in teaching and schoolkeeping and a course in moral philosophy were included in the program of study for teachers. Students practiced teaching lessons and were critiqued by their classmates, and they had opportunities to observe and practice teaching in the model school. In the 1860s, the moral philosophy course became one of mental and moral philosophy, and a course in the theory and art of teaching was added. Overall, this time period focused on a review of common school subject area content, education foundations and practice teaching.

Upon opening in 1875, Peabody College offered males and females programs of study for both elementary and secondary education. Both Framingham and Peabody required a review of the common school studies, although Peabody's course catalog specified that the students were responsible for the obtaining common school knowledge prior to enrolling at Peabody and theirs would be a quick review. The catalog at Peabody also explained, "All studies, from the beginning to the end of course, will be taught with special reference to teaching them" (State Normal College, 1875, p. 13). There seemed to be more emphasis on teaching methods at Peabody College, while Framingham included more common school subject review.

By 1879, Framingham also included in their catalog a statement as to the importance of teaching methods. Both colleges required students to practice teaching and critique their peers throughout the course of study, as well as spend the final year in a full-time internship with complete responsibility for a class of students. Both colleges offered courses in school law, moral science, and theory and art of teaching. By the end of the 1870s, both colleges placed

major importance on teaching methods and practice. However, Peabody's course of study included additional subject area content beyond the common school subjects and was three years in length, while Framingham's two-year program concentrated on the common school subjects.

Throughout the 1880s and 1890s, psychology coursework became more prevalent in both colleges' programs of study. Framingham included more education foundations coursework in their program of study until, in the 1890s, Peabody added coursework on the history of education and the science of education. Peabody's "Lectures on Pedagogy" could be compared to Framingham's "Art of Teaching."

Both teacher preparation programs' course catalogs during the 1880s and 1890s acknowledged in some way that their work did not fully prepare teachers for the schools. Framingham's course catalog deemed their programs "imperfect preparation" while Peabody noted that "no person's ability...can be properly tested" until he actually takes responsibility for the classroom. This was an early indication of teacher knowledge voids during their first years in the classroom; however, specific areas in which teachers felt deficient were unclear. An indication that classroom management was a problem area was the addition of a course including discipline methods at Framingham during the 1890s. These two frontrunners in teacher education blatantly stated their opinion of what would become a highly publicized argument in the late twentieth century—Are traditional teacher education programs effective? Furthermore, doubts about the quality of American teacher education programs and their abilities to staff the nation's schools led states to devise alternative certification programs. According to Legler (2002), such programs emerged in the mid-1980s. However, Framingham, America's first college for teacher education, may have truly founded alternative certification. In the 1890s,

graduates of colleges, universities or select high schools who possessed certain qualities could elect to complete an accelerated course of study to receive a teaching certificate. This mirrored many of the contemporary alternative certification programs which were in their first years of existence over 100 years later.

Changes occurred in the early 1900s when Framingham began to emphasize subject area teaching methods and discarded their general course on the art of teaching. Peabody generalized their methods coursework into classes such as “Primary Education,” which offered instruction in teaching methods of various subjects within one course. However, by 1915, Peabody had again specified subject area teaching methods courses. Both colleges included the history and principles of education in their foundations coursework. However, because Peabody’s program of study was four years as opposed to Framingham’s two years, it continued to offer a wider range of liberal studies and a bachelor’s degree.

The third normal school selected for this research, now Ball State University, opened in 1912. The teaching methods coursework was combined into two general methods courses, similar to how Framingham and Peabody had once included this content, but different from them at the time. Observation and a teaching internship were required in the program of study as they were in the two other colleges’ programs studied.

A rise in the cost of living and a decrease in the value of the teacher’s salary took place as the United States fought in World War I from 1914 to 1918 (Learned & Bagley, 1919). Teachers reportedly left the profession, and Learned and Bagley (1919) wrote “the whole problem of the service of the schools themselves hangs absolutely upon the ability to obtain the requisite supply of devoted, able, and well-prepared teachers” (p. xviii). This sentiment would be echoed time

and again throughout American teacher preparation history. Furthermore, Learned and Bagley explained, “Before all else we must have in our minds a clear knowledge of what good teaching is, of the methods by which teachers may be fitted for their calling, and under what supervision and organization the schools shall be conducted in order that the intellectual, social, and spiritual aspirations of teachers may be realized for the common good” (p. xviii). Changes began to occur in teacher preparation programs which exemplified the never-ending quest to exert the professional status. Learned and Bagley (1919) reported that “Education has been much, and on the whole reverently, on our lips, but...the sole factor which can give it reality and meaning, namely, the teacher, is grossly ill-equipped, ill-rewarded, and lacking in distinction” (p. 8). This sentiment has repeated itself time and again throughout history.

Following World War I and entering the Great Depression, the quest for building a stronger education system and thus, a democracy, was paramount. Learned and Bagley (1919) warned that teacher preparation, as it had existed, needed to change if democracy was to survive. Throughout the 1920s all three colleges began requiring additional subject area teaching methods courses of their elementary and secondary education pre-service teachers. Programs of study were extended, and by the end of the 1930s four-year college degrees were offered at each school. The first two years of the four-year programs were dedicated to liberal studies. In each of the programs, observation in the model or laboratory schools was required in the early semesters within the major, usually during the third year of study. This was paired with a seminar or coursework to study and discuss the observations. Framingham and Ball State required 12 hours of practice teaching along with time for conferencing and discussion. Framingham students took “Problems of Teaching and Management” concurrently to assist in

connecting theory to practice in the classroom. Peabody students completed 16 hours of practice teaching alongside a practicum for studying problems in the classroom. Ball State offered electives in practice teaching during the 1940s for those who wished to obtain additional classroom experiences.

In the 1940s and 1950s Framingham, Peabody and Ball State began to distinguish themselves from each other as an array of electives were offered and various credit hours were required. Framingham and Ball State both began offering courses dealing with home-school relationships and the education of slow and fast learners, although neither required these courses within the program of study. Subject area teaching methods which were required in the elementary programs of study for the three colleges were arithmetic, social sciences, reading, language arts and physical education. All three also required secondary English teaching majors to take a teaching methods course in their subject area. Peabody College required only the aforementioned teaching methods courses. Framingham and Ball State also required a general teaching methods course as well as classes in teaching penmanship and science. Furthermore, Framingham required a music methods course as well as educational tests and measurements. The measurement course was an elective at Peabody and Ball State during the 1950s. Framingham and Ball State required coursework in classroom management, while Peabody did not include this in their program of study. Peabody did, however, increase the amount of time students dedicated to practice teaching and observation.

Possibly instigated by the “Space Race,” or the competition between America and the Soviet Union to successfully launch the first spacecraft, more rigorous coursework was added to teacher education programs. The behavioral sciences became more prevalent in the 1960s at

Framingham, Peabody and Ball State. In addition to the typical general psychology and educational psychology courses which had previously been required, Framingham students continued to take coursework in tests and measurements while adding a class in child development. At Peabody, tests and measurements became mandatory, along with human growth and learning and guidance and adjustment. Ball State pre-service teachers took human growth and development; however, tests and measurements continued to be an elective.

During the 1970s, the colleges began to differ even more. Framingham's program of study decreased education foundations requirements to include only one course paired with a field study, one psychology of learning and development course, and one professional preparation and practicum. Teaching methods courses were limited to reading and language arts, music, and mathematics, although the practicum included methods of teaching other subjects. Secondary English education students had no teaching methods coursework in their program of study. Two eight-week internships with no concurrent courses were required for elementary education students and one internship was required of secondary education students. Peabody College and Ball State continued to provide the same education foundations courses and an additional short field experience early in the major area of study. However, Peabody continued to require only one full-time internship. More specific subject area methods courses remained in the elementary and secondary programs of study at Peabody and Ball State, unlike Framingham.

The 1980s were a decade in which states were prompted by the national government to increase standards for teacher education. *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) warned, "Our society and its educational institutions seem to have lost sight of the basic purposes of schooling, and of the high expectations and disciplined effort needed to

attain them.” The National Commission on Excellence in Education reported that countries such as Japan, Korea and Germany were overtaking the United States in education and industry. The Commission also predicted that those people who could not or did not possess “skill, literacy, and training essential to this new era will be effectively disenfranchised, not simply from the material rewards that accompany competent performance, but also from the chance to participate fully in our national life.” While there was increased nationwide scrutiny of the American education system brought about by *A Nation at Risk*, few changes took place in any of the three programs studied. It was thought possible that the colleges were analyzing their programs and preparing to make changes in the future.

Changes in program requirements were apparent at Framingham and Peabody, where students of elementary education were required to earn a coordinate major in the liberal arts and sciences. Field studies were paired with three courses, one of which was education foundations and two teaching methods of reading and mathematics. Two full-time internships were also required. Secondary education students at Framingham majored in the content area and minored in secondary education. They completed one field study with a methods course and one with a foundations course. They also took part in two internships. Secondary education students at Peabody completed two majors, which included three practica, one student teaching seminar and one full-time internship.

Although Ball State University did not require students studying elementary education to earn a second major or minor, electives were to be concentrated on a specific area such as English as a Second Language or Wellness. Those preparing to become teachers at the secondary level majored in their chosen subject area and minored in education.

After undergoing much change in the 1990s, none of the three colleges and universities chosen for this research made further significant adjustments in the 2000s. Throughout their history, these three schools which began as normal schools dedicated solely to teacher education had similarities and differences. A persistent common thread in each program was practice teaching, although it was approached from a different angle based upon the college or university.

Colleges and Universities Which Did Not Originate as Teacher Normal Schools

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Region of the United States: North

Extra Large National Universities (U.S. News & World Report, 2007)

Background

The University of Massachusetts Amherst was established in 1863 as a land grant agricultural college known as the Massachusetts Agricultural College. The curriculum at that time consisted of farming, science, technical courses, and liberal arts (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2008). In 1906, the Massachusetts legislature enacted a law supporting agricultural teaching in the Commonwealth schools, and in 1907, the Department of Agricultural Education opened at the Massachusetts Agricultural College. At that time, the department's program of study included an education foundations course entitled "Meaning of Education," and two teaching methods courses called "Methods in Agricultural Education" and "Seminar in Pedagogy" (Massachusetts Agricultural College, 1907, pp. 34-35). Students took part in two "Seminars in Education" in which "topics that may be taken up for rather exhaustive study are: legislation and agricultural education, the place and value of agricultural science in school

courses, etc.” (p. 37). Although elementary and secondary teacher education coursework would not be offered for several years, agricultural teaching was the foundation for the Department of Education at the University of Massachusetts Amherst.

Teacher Preparation Program Content: University of Massachusetts Amherst

Programs of study were obtained beginning in 1907 through 2007. Because the Department of Education was not founded until 1932, this is where the analysis of programs of study began. A circle map defining the major highlights within the programs of study is available in Appendix C. A flow map sequencing the highlights and changes is shown in Figure 8.

1931-1959. In 1931, the Massachusetts Agricultural College became known as Massachusetts State College. By 1932, the Board of Trustees had changed the name of the Department of Agricultural Education to the Department of Education. The mission of the department was “to be of maximum service to those students who plan to engage in some form of educational work and whose ability, personality, and attitude indicate that they are suitable candidates” (Massachusetts State College, 1933, p. 31). This was the beginning of the certification of secondary teachers for teaching courses other than agriculture.

The 1941 *Catalogue of the College* included a description of the two-year plan and the one-semester plan for meeting the minimum professional requirements for secondary school teaching in Massachusetts, which totaled 16 course credits. A maximum of six credit hours were allowed from psychology.

University of Massachusetts Amherst
Teacher Preparation Program Content
1931-2007

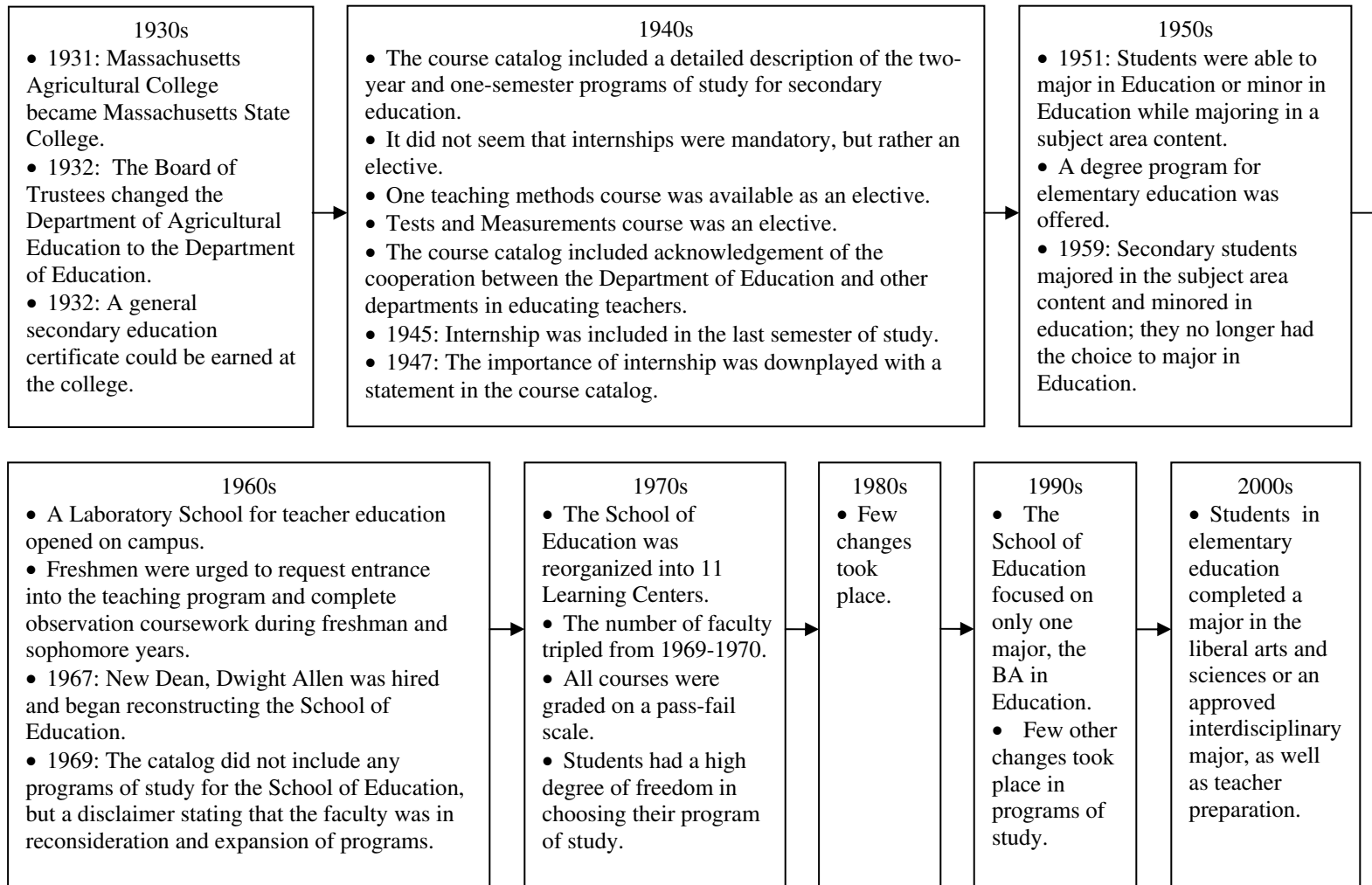


Figure 8: University of Massachusetts Amherst Flow Map

Students were to choose two of the following education foundations courses: “Secondary School Management,” “Principles of Secondary Education,” or “Secondary School Curriculum” (pp. 90-91). They could choose from four remaining electives, including “Educational Tests and Measurements,” “Principles and Methods of Teaching,” “History of Education,” or “Observation and Practice Teaching” (pp. 89-91). The practice teaching did not seem to be mandatory, according to the course catalog.

The 1945 course catalog mentioned that the secondary program was a partnership between the Department of Education and “various subject-matter departments of the College” (Massachusetts State College, 1945, p. 83). Furthermore, “the prospective teacher undertakes all of his professional training in one semester of his senior year. Class work and practice-teaching are scheduled in alternate weeks of that semester in such a way as to insure seven full weeks of practice in neighboring schools” (p. 83).

Two years later in 1947, the importance of practice teaching was downplayed. As explained in the course catalog, “opportunity for a small amount of practice teaching will be available...if the student’s schedule permits. While this plan does not offer the continuity of instruction nor the coordination of theory and practice...it has been considered adequate by many superintendents in the past so far as preliminary training for prospective teachers is concerned” (p. 90). A scanned image of the 1947 course catalog was included in Appendix D.

In 1948, University President Ralph Van Meter called on the Department of Education to create a program which would meet the current and future needs of the citizens of Massachusetts. A special committee was organized to “analyze the advisability of creating a school of education that could respond to the drastic need for new teachers in Massachusetts in the post-war years”

(University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2002, p. 2). The committee proposed an expansion of the teacher education program.

Beginning in the 1950s, students interested in secondary education had two choices: majoring or minoring in Education. They also majored in the subject area content to be taught (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1951). The major in Education was designed for students who wished to teach more than one subject, who wanted a more diverse program than was possible under a subject area major, or who wanted a greater opportunity for more practice teaching.

In 1953, the University of Massachusetts opened a degree program for elementary education. Students chose to either major or minor in elementary education. Those who opted for the major took general education coursework during their first two years of study. They were instructed to develop a minor of at least 15 hours in a general education field during their junior and senior years. In addition to this, they completed a psychology course, four education foundations courses, and a “concentrated Elementary Block” (p. 105) of three teaching methods courses and an internship.

By 1959, secondary education students no longer had the choice to major or minor in education. The course catalog clarified, “All candidates for secondary school teaching will major in the subject field to be taught and minor in education. A maximum of eighteen hours should be taken in this minor” (p. 107). The minor in education included two required education foundations courses and one required general teaching methods course.

1960-1989. The 1960s brought additional opportunities for observation and participation in the real world setting for students at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. Students who

requested permission for entrance into the elementary education program during their freshman year were urged to take directed observation courses during their first two years of study. These courses were conducted in the new Laboratory School, which opened in 1961 (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1961).

Few changes occurred throughout the remainder of the decade until 1967. A new Dean, Dwight Allen, was hired and enacted large-scale change. “The curriculum, departmental structure, and governance processes of the school were modified” (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2002, p. 3). In fact, the course catalog of the university for 1969 listed no programs of study for the School of Education. A brief explanation was, “As the content of all programs is under review, the offerings of the School of Education for the academic year 1969-1970 cannot be specified precisely at this time. The School of Education Faculty is engaged in a total reconsideration and expansion of the current programs” (p. 91). The paragraph ended with instructions for those students interested in applying to the School to call in late spring to obtain programs of study.

The reorganization brought about extreme change to the School of Education. Eleven learning centers, ranging from “Aesthetics in Education, Humanistic Education, and International Education, through the spectrum to Urban Education” (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1970, p. 86) were created. The number of faculty actually tripled from the previous year. One aim of this new approach was to draw students from other schools within the university and other nearby universities. Another was to encourage students to direct their own learning while focusing on “problems and areas which have a high degree of social relevance” (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1971, p. 82). The new policy was to “give the student a

high degree of freedom and alternatives to choose courses with respect to his individual and professional interests” (p. 82). Grading was provided on a pass-fail basis for all courses.

The elementary education program of study continued to include a professional sequence of four subject area teaching methods courses, two education foundations courses, a pre-student teaching practicum, and one student teaching opportunity (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1971).

By the middle of the 1970s, the School of Education was again reorganized, this time into clusters. Those were: “Division of Humanistic Applications of Social and Behavioral Sciences in Education, Transdisciplinary Education, Designs for Effective Learning, Educational Planning and Management, and Educational Policy Studies” (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1974, p. 126). More opportunities for choice were provided with “flexible curriculum, based on the philosophy that alternative instructional formats provide an improved potential in the effectiveness and responsiveness of a total curricular program (p.126). Throughout the changes during the 1970s, the core elements of the elementary education program of study remained the same while electives and organization of courses were rearranged.

In the 1980s, the School of Education was organized into three divisions, and offered the Bachelor of Arts in Education and the Bachelor of Science in Human Development (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1987). This School continued to provide the major coursework for elementary education. Secondary education majors continued to take their major area coursework in their subject area content and minor in education.

1990-2007. Few changes occurred in programs of study throughout the 1980s and 1990s; however, the School of Education narrowed its focus to offer just one undergraduate major, the Bachelor of Arts in Education (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 1999).

In the new millennium, the Massachusetts regulations for the licensure of education began requiring that candidates for initial licensure have completed a degree in the liberal arts and sciences as well as a program of study for educator preparation. Therefore, the Department of Education no longer offered a major degree program. A minor in Education was available; however, completion of only the minor without a subject area major was not enough for education certification. The minor in education required completion of 18 credits, at least three each in education foundations, teaching methods, social justice in education and human development. A student teaching experience culminated the program of study (University of Massachusetts Amherst, 2007).

Indiana University

Region of the United States: Midwest

Extra Large National Universities (U.S. News & World Report, 2007)

Background

Indiana University was established in 1820 as State Seminary and accepted its first class of 10 men in 1824 before the first building was complete (Chronology of Indiana University History, 2007). In 1828, State Seminary became known as Indiana College, and the name changed once more to Indiana University in 1838. The School of Education was established in 1908.

Teacher Preparation Program Content: Indiana University

Programs of study were obtained beginning in 1915 through 2007. Those from 1908 to 1914 were too fragile to scan or copy. A circle map defining the major highlights within the programs of study is available in Appendix C. A flow map sequencing the highlights and changes is shown in Figure 9.

Although the School of Education was founded in 1908, programs of study beginning in 1915 were obtained for this research of which a copy was included in Appendix D. At that time, a two-year program for an elementary teaching certificate and four-year bachelor's degrees for elementary or secondary education were offered.

Education foundations courses such as Principles of Education and Secondary Education were included in the program of study. While the content of the Secondary Education course focused mostly on adolescent psychology, it also contained general high school teaching methodology. A specific subject area teaching methods course was also required of secondary teacher education students. The course catalog read, "A student making a certain subject his major should take the course in the teaching of that subject at the end of his junior year" (Indiana University, 1915, p. 209). Students also took one observation course and one internship. By 1916, a measurement and evaluation course was added and in 1917, psychology was a separate course from Secondary Education, indicating a shift toward focusing programs of study on behavioral sciences (Indiana University, 1916-1917).

Indiana University
Teacher Preparation Program Content
1908-2007

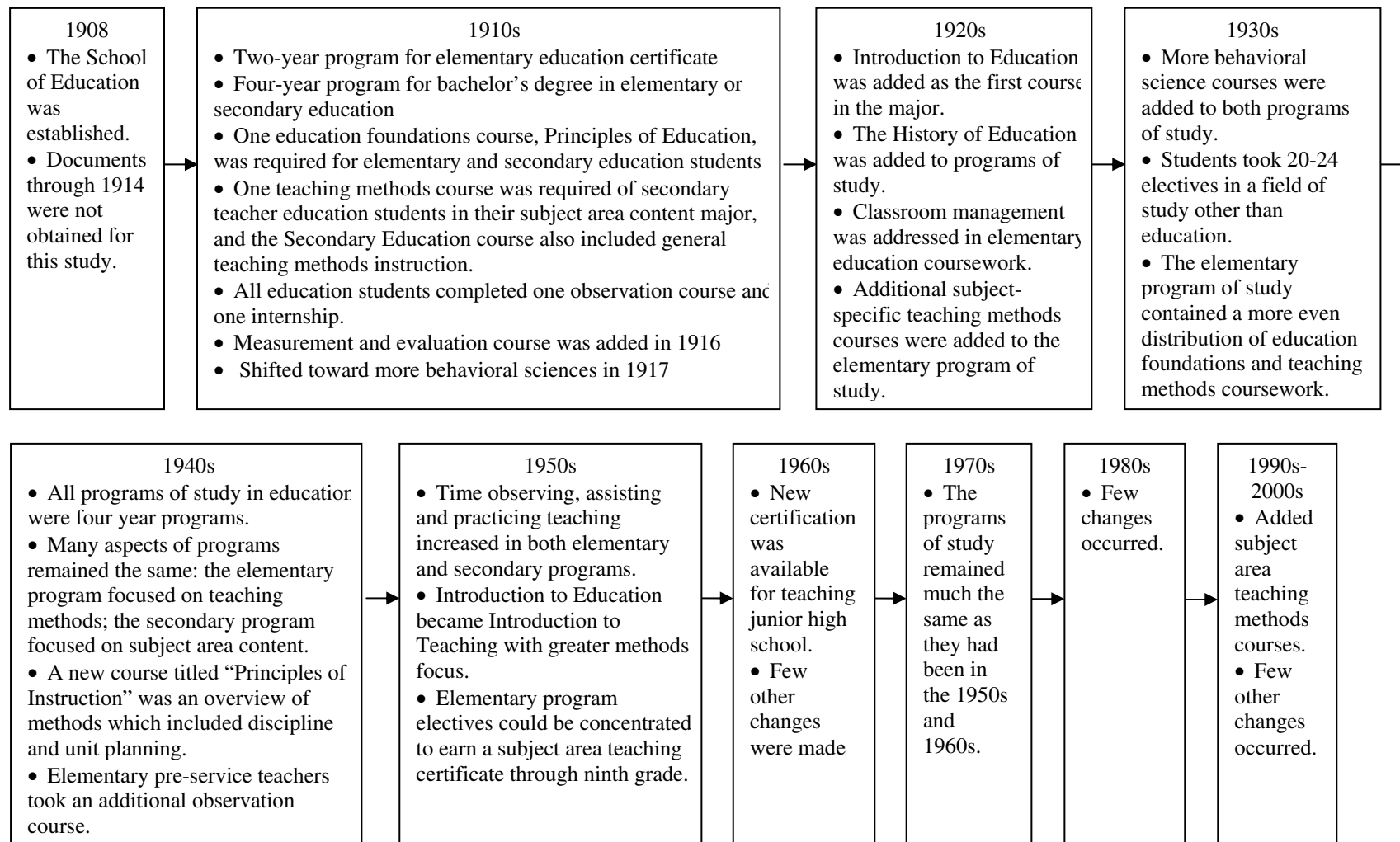


Figure 9: Indiana University Flow Map

During the 1920s, Indiana University continued to add required courses such as “Introduction to Education” and “History of Education” and electives such as Methods in Drawing and Art (Indiana University, 1924). Classroom management was addressed in elementary methods coursework, but was not found in secondary courses. Character education was added in 1928 along with more subject-specific elementary methods courses (Indiana University, 1928).

Early in the 1930s, those studying elementary education continued to take specific content area teaching methods coursework, and those who were studying to become secondary educators continued to take one teaching methods course related to their specific subject area. A course titled “Reading and Phonics” was added to the elementary teacher education curriculum. As there was no course description, it was difficult to discern whether this was a subject area content and/or methods course (Indiana University, 1932). Evidence of the course catalog pages received from the 1930s for this research was included in Appendix D. Later in the decade, a teaching methods class called “Methods and Study of Work” and “Laboratory in Methods of Study” appeared in the program of study (Indiana University, 1935). Behavioral sciences became even more prevalent as evidenced by courses such as “Theory and Application of Mental Measurements” and “Experimental Psychology Applied to Learning.” Students were required to take 20 to 24 electives in a field of study other than education. The programs of study at the elementary level contained a more even distribution of education foundations and teaching methods, while the secondary level continued to focus mainly on subject area content.

Beginning in the 1940s, all education programs of study spanned four years. Psychology courses were still required of students studying elementary and secondary education. Other

education foundations courses remained in the program of study. “Introduction to Education” was still the first major course, as it had been since the 1920s. Elementary pre-service teachers remained focused on teaching methods of specific subjects. Secondary pre-service teachers continued their focus on subject area content knowledge. Whereas “Principles of Education” was mainly an education foundations course in the 1920s, the new “Principles of Instruction” course focused on topics such as “approved contemporary practices in teaching, discipline, unit planning, examinations, records, and reports” (Indiana University, 1945, p. 283). The elementary program of study included an observation course for two credits and an internship for three credits, while the secondary program included an internship for three to six credits.

New rules governing teaching certification for Indiana public schools were adopted by the Teacher Training and Licensing Commission of the Indiana State Board of Education in 1946 (Indiana University, 1952). The first two years of the four-year degree program for elementary or secondary became solely dedicated to coursework in liberal studies with the exception of “Introduction to Teaching” (p. 26). This course was similar to “Introduction to Education,” which had been an educational foundations course throughout previous years. The junior year of the elementary program was comprised of nine subject area teaching methods courses, observation and internship. The senior year included mainly electives. Electives could be used to satisfy student interests or, if concentrated in one subject area, could qualify the student to teach that subject through ninth grade.

In the 1950s and 1960s, the amount of time that students were required to spend observing, assisting and practicing teaching in schools increased. Elementary and secondary pre-service teachers spent up to 12 hours in such activities (Indiana University, 1960). New

certificates were available for teaching junior high school. A scanned image of the 1957 course catalog was included in Appendix D. With the exception of adding choice via electives for students and subject area teaching methods coursework, the Indiana University program of study remained similar throughout the remainder of the millennium.

University of Southern California

Region of the United States: West

Extra Large National Universities (U.S. News & World Report, 2007)

Background

The University of Southern California (USC) was established as a liberal arts college in 1880. Judge Robert Widney formed a board of trustees and secured a donation of 308 lots of land from three philanthropists. The gift provided not only the land, but also a source of endowment for the college. Courses in education first appeared in the College of Liberal Arts in 1906. Four education foundations classes were offered (University of Southern California, 1906). By 1909, the Department of Education was established.

Teacher Preparation Program Content: University of Southern California

Programs of study were obtained beginning in 1910 through 2007. A circle map defining the major highlights within the programs of study is available in Appendix C. A flow map sequencing the highlights and changes is shown in Figure 10.

University of Southern California
Teacher Preparation Program Content
1909-2007

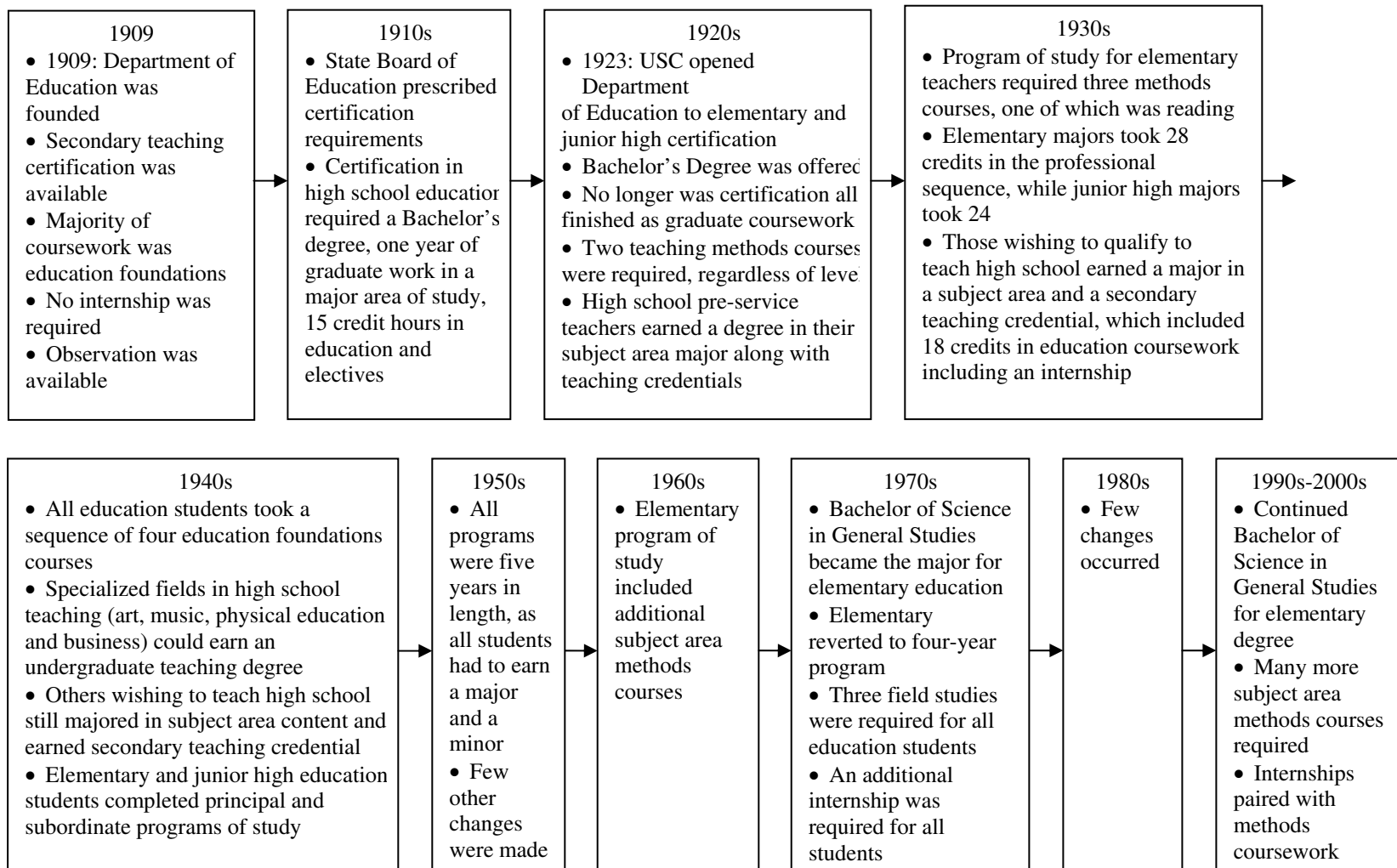


Figure 10: University of Southern California Flow Map

1909-1929. The Department of Education opened in 1909, and it offered a high school teaching certificate. Foundational psychology was required, along with nine other education foundations courses. Two teaching methods courses were included in the program of study as well as opportunities for observation in the schools of Los Angeles (University of Southern California, 1910).

By 1915, the California State Board of Education began prescribing rules under which high school teaching certificates could be awarded. The rules, together with the requirements of USC, were a bachelor's degree, one year of graduate work including a full year's course in a major subject area, 15 credits in education including school management, secondary education, practice teaching, subject area teaching methods, and electives (University of Southern California, 1915). These requirements remained in effect until 1923.

In 1923, students who had attained junior standing at USC could be admitted to the Department of Education to earn a Bachelor of Science in Education. This included certificates for elementary and junior high school. Coursework included two teaching methods classes and practice teaching, along with a majority of credits in education foundations. High school pre-service teachers earned a subject area major and a certification for teaching (University of Southern California, 1923).

1930-1959. In the early part of the 1930s, USC began to differentiate between coursework in elementary education and junior high school education. A scanned image of the course catalog from 1930 was included in Appendix D. Those working toward a bachelor's degree in elementary education were required to take 28 education credits, and nine of those credits were in teaching methods courses. One specific subject area methods course for reading

was in the program of study. The remainder was taken in education foundations and one internship. Students earning the bachelor's degree with junior high school credentials took 24 credits in education courses, which included one teaching methods class, one internship, and the remainder in education foundations (University of Southern California, 1930).

Those wishing to teach high school completed a major in a subject area content as well as 18 credits in education. While most of those credits were in education foundations, they also included one teaching methods course and one internship.

Reorganization of the curriculum occurred in the early 1940s, as all students entering the School of Education, regardless of program level, were required to complete a series of four courses: "The Teacher and the School," "The Learner," "The Learning Process," and "The School and Society" (University of Southern California, 1940, p. 79). The University of Southern California organized the education courses into principal and subordinate groups in the 1940s. Principal and subordinate course groups were organized by subject area and included only content and background. In order to earn a Bachelor of Science in Education with the elementary credential, students completed one principal and one subordinate group of courses, which increased the time required to earn the elementary teaching credentials to five years. To earn the degree with a junior high school credential, students had the option of completing a teaching major and minor or a principal and subordinate course group, also increasing the time required to five years. Those studying to become high school teachers were still required to complete a bachelor's degree in order to gain admission into the postgraduate year of work for the education minor (University of Southern California, 1944). However, a new option for those students who wished to teach secondary art, business, music or physical education allowed them

to earn an undergraduate degree in those specialized fields (University of Southern California, 1940).

The principal and subordinate course group semantics were changed to become majors and minors in the early 1950s. A major in education and a minor in either elementary education or a subject area content were required in order to earn elementary credentials. The minor included additional teaching methods courses in art, music and physical education (University of Southern California, 1952).

1960-1989. The 1960s included more required teaching methods courses for those studying elementary education. Subject area methods courses included social studies, language arts, and mathematics (University of Southern California, 1964).

Much of the curriculum remained unchanged throughout the remainder of the 1960s and 1970s; however, in the late 1970s the State of California required a diversified major for those preparing to teach at the elementary level. Therefore, a Bachelor of Science in General Studies was offered as the major for meeting this requirement, and it could be obtained in four years. Students were also able to earn a subject area bachelor's degree and pass an examination to earn the diversified major requirement. The general studies major was basically a liberal arts major consisting of several courses in English, mathematics, social sciences, science and humanities. A scanned image of the 1974 course catalog pages detailing the General Studies requirements was included in Appendix D.

The professional preparation for the teaching credentials included three initial courses, "The Teacher, the School, and Society," "Learning, Evaluation, and Development," and "Methods and Materials of Teaching Reading in Elementary and Secondary Schools"

(University of Southern California, 1978, p. 69) all of which included field work. An additional internship was added for a total of two. These opportunities for working in the real world setting were a marked increase over the past.

1990-2007. In the latter part of the 1990s and into the 2000s, the School of Education continued to offer the Bachelor of Science in General Studies, which included core teaching courses. The professional requirement consisted of three education foundations courses and eight stand-alone teaching methods courses. Two internships paired with teaching methods courses were also included in the program of study.

For those preparing to teach secondary school, a content area major continued to be required along with a minor in education. The minor included three education foundations courses and three teaching methods courses in addition to two internships paired with methods courses (University of Southern California, 2007).

Analysis of Teacher Preparation Program Content in Universities Which Did Not Originate as Teacher Normal Schools

Three universities which did not originate as teacher normal schools contributed programs of study and documents to this research: Indiana University (IU), the University of Massachusetts Amherst (UMass) and the University of Southern California (USC). Indiana University established its Department of Education in 1908 and the University of Southern California followed suit in 1909. The University of Massachusetts Amherst converted the Department of Agricultural Education to the Department of Education in 1932.

Although IU and USC founded departments of education within one year of each other, their program offerings were very different. IU had a two-year program for elementary

education certification and a four-year program for a bachelor's degree in elementary or secondary education. USC offered only a secondary education program for high school certification, which required a bachelor's degree, one year of graduate work in a major area of study, and 15 credit hours in education foundations and other electives. While students at IU completed one observation course and one internship, USC offered observation hours but no internship.

It was not until the 1920s that USC expanded its Department of Education to include an elementary education program. During this decade, earning the bachelor's degree was again a four-year endeavor instead of five. IU continued to offer its two-year elementary certification program until the 1940s when all programs of study became four-year commitments. Although USC's programs took four years, the majority of courses were in the liberal arts. Students, regardless of elementary or secondary concentration, took two general teaching methods courses. However, at IU elementary education majors took several subject-specific teaching methods courses. The IU course catalog also noted the study of classroom management.

When the University of Massachusetts opened its Department of Education in 1932, it offered only a two-year program of study for secondary education certification. Both IU and USC were building their elementary and secondary programs, adding more behavioral science courses like Measurement and Evaluation. IU required students in the four-year degree program to concentrate 20 to 24 electives in one area outside of education. USC's students who wished to become secondary teachers earned a major in a subject area and a secondary teaching credential, which consisted of 18 credits of education coursework and an internship.

In its first full decade of existence, UMass secondary education students had the option to complete an internship, although it was not mandatory until 1945. At IU and USC, time in the real world classroom setting observing, assisting, and practicing increased. IU elementary education students completed one more internship than secondary education students.

The 1950s were a decade in which the three universities researched offered education students program choices so they could concentrate on a specific subject area. The University of Massachusetts began offering an elementary education degree in the 1950s, when students had the option of majoring in education, or minoring in education with a major in a subject area content. At IU, electives could be concentrated on one subject area to earn a teaching certificate in that subject through ninth grade. USC extended all education programs to five years, in which all students chose a either a subject area or education major and vice versa for the minor.

The University of Massachusetts underwent major reorganization in the 1960s and 1970s. A new Dean, Dwight Allen, tripled the number of faculty and added many new electives. A laboratory school opened on campus for observation and practice teaching. Eleven learning centers based on different facets of education were created, and students were given a high degree of freedom in constructing their own programs of study. All courses were graded on a pass-fail basis. However, this would all change by the 1980s, when the school would again offer a more traditional four-year program with the first two years being liberal arts courses and the next two years filled with professional education studies.

By the 1980s, USC's programs reverted to four-year courses of study and the Bachelor of Science in General Studies was earned by elementary education students. Three field studies and two internships were required within the program. Internships were paired with teaching

methods courses in the attempt to provide a connection between theory and practice. Few other changes occurred in any of the programs throughout the 1980s.

Throughout the 1990s and 2000s much of the professional education program content remained the same at each university. UMass began requiring elementary education students to complete a major in the liberal arts and sciences or an approved interdisciplinary major while completing teacher preparation content. Although USC continued to require elementary education students to complete the Bachelor of Science in General Studies, additional subject area teaching methods courses were infused into the education program of study.

Presentation of School District-Based Alternative Teacher Certification Program Data

Three school district alternative certification programs (ACPs) in Florida, which represented typical types of such programs throughout the United States, were chosen for this study. Administrators or persons overseeing the ACPs were contacted via electronic mail and telephone to obtain information.

All three of these district-based ACPs were designed in accordance with Florida Statute 1012.56(7), which stated:

By July 1, 2002, the Department of Education shall develop and each school district must provide a cohesive competency-based preparation program by which members of the school district's instructional staff may satisfy the mastery of professional preparation and education competence requirements specified in rules of the State Board of Education. Participants must hold a state-issued temporary certificate (Florida Department of Education, 2002).

Each school district had flexibility in designing their program as long as it met the following requirements:

- [1.] Survival training prior to assuming responsibilities of teacher of record

- [2.] Pre-assessment of entry level skills
- [3.] Individualized training plan
- [4.] Support from peer mentors and building administrators
- [5.] Opportunities for collaborative assistance from higher education partners
- [6.] Training curriculum that targets the Florida Educator Accomplished Practices
- [7.] Summative assessment that documents mastery of the Florida Educator Accomplished Practices
- [8.] Florida Professional Education Certification Test (Florida Department of Education, 2002).

The 12 Florida Educator Accomplished Practices targeted in these ACPs were:

- 1. Assessment
- 2. Communication
- 3. Continuous Improvement
- 4. Critical Thinking
- 5. Diversity
- 6. Ethics
- 7. Human Development & Learning
- 8. Knowledge of Subject Matter
- 9. Learning Environments
- 10. Planning
- 11. Role of the Teacher
- 12. Technology

Successful integration of these requirements led to the acceptance of the district-based ACP by the State of Florida.

Brevard County Public Schools

The Brevard County Public Schools' (BCPS) alternative certification program utilized the acronym, ACHIEVE, which stood for Alternative Certification Helping Individuals to Embrace and Value Education (Brevard County Public Schools, 2007). Those who did not earn a degree in education and who were teaching with a temporary certificate based on a degree in another subject area were able to participate in the program. The BCPS ACP consisted of coursework, field work, mentoring and independent study.

A three-day New Teacher Academy was offered prior to the beginning of school. The academy contained "survival skills" to assist new teachers in preparing for and enduring the first weeks of school. The survival skills training included an explanation of Florida's Code of Ethics; study of Harry Wong's *The First Days of School*, which highlighted classroom management strategies; and study of Ruby Payne's *A Framework for Understanding Poverty*, which provided new teachers with strategies for working with students from different socioeconomic backgrounds.

A six-hour meeting was held during the first month of school to review classroom management strategies including procedures and routines for the beginning of the year. An additional six-hour course on classroom management was offered late in the first semester or early in the second semester. A 12-hour course on building relationships with students and dealing with challenging students in the classroom was required of ACP participants. An additional six hours, adding parent relationships to the course content, was a component in the BCPS ACP.

In order to learn instructional strategies for differentiation, brain-based learning, multiple intelligences and subject area content, participants took part in the following training: 12 hours of Thinking Maps[®] visual tools for organizing information and encouraging metacognition, 12 hours of CRISS[™] (CReating Independence through Student-owned Strategies) training for thinking skills, 12 hours of Kagan Cooperative Learning training, 60 hours of ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) training, and 60 hours of Reading in the Content Area training.

New teachers in the Brevard County ACP learned about assessing students in two separate trainings for a total of 15 hours. They also acquired strategies for integrating technology into teaching and learning in a 12-hour course.

In order to follow up on all of the aforementioned topics, two three-hour meetings were required of the ACP participants. In addition, a four-day summer institute provided time for additional follow-up training and assisting new teachers transition into the profession (Brevard County Public Schools, 2007).

Hillsborough County Public Schools

The Hillsborough County Public Schools' (HCPS) alternative certification program contained courses designed to “assist participants in gaining the knowledge, skills and abilities required to successfully demonstrate each of the twelve Accomplished Practices” (Hillsborough County Public Schools). Throughout the program, the participants were supported by trained administrators and peer teachers.

New teachers in the ACP completed courses to learn about procedures and strategies for success in the classroom. The 18-hour teacher induction course was based on Wong's *First Days of School* and included practice in setting up classroom routines and planning for

instruction. The “Professionalism through Integrity” course was three hours long, and teachers learned about the Code of Ethics for Florida educators.

“Transition into Teaching,” a 24-hour component of the ACP, taught participants about human growth and development, learning styles, and the role of the teacher. In addition, teachers had the opportunity to delve into the Sunshine State Standards, or Florida’s curriculum, and discuss how to craft the best possible lessons while keeping the end goal in mind. The “Effective Teaching Strategies” course, 18 hours long, continued to focus the teachers on instructional planning and delivery, communication, classroom management and subject area content knowledge. Furthermore, the “Reading to Learn” 60-hour course enabled teachers to take away research-based strategies for improving students’ reading skills at all grade levels. An 18-hour technology integration component gave participants hands-on learning opportunities to learn how technology may be woven into their daily lessons.

Classroom management was the focus for a 24-hour course. The goal was “to increase the effectiveness of educators in creating a classroom environment in which learning and teaching can take place” (Hillsborough County Public Schools). A district-wide diversity training was included in the ACP, as well as training in crisis prevention and intervention.

Hillsborough County Public Schools’ ACP participants completed an on-line portfolio with evidence that they achieved an acceptable level of success on the 12 Accomplished Practices. Documents which would assist new teachers with ideas for portfolio evidence and how to organized the portfolio were posted on the district Web site along with contact phone numbers for questions and assistance.

Orange County Public Schools

The mission of the Orange County Public Schools' (OCPS) alternative certification program (ACP) is “to expand the pool of educators to include non-education majors committed to making a positive impact on student achievement and providing quality educational opportunities” (Orange County Public Schools, 2007, p. 1). The circle map in Appendix E defined important aspects of this alternative certification program. Specific qualifications as follows were necessary in order to enter the OCPS ACP:

- [1.] Be a paid instructional employee of OCPS with a teaching assignment that does not vary from day-to-day
- [2.] Hold or be eligible for a three-year temporary certificate from the Florida Department of Education
- [3.] Hold at least a bachelor's degree, meet the subject area requirements for which a professional certificate may be issued or pass the state subject area exam, and be certified for the teaching assignment
- [4.] Obtain the signature of the hiring principal on the ACP application as agreement to host the program on site
- [5.] Sign the ACP application as agreement to participate
- [6.] Obtain a passing score on all four parts of the General Knowledge examination (p. 1)

The length of the alternative certification program is a minimum of 360 days plus pre-planning and post-planning participation. This must be accomplished under the supervision of a trained administrator and ACP mentor.

Participants in the Orange County ACP participated in Great Beginnings, which was a twelve-hour training conducted prior to pre-planning that included information regarding classroom management based on Harry Wong's book, *The First Days of School*. Participants reviewed research and practiced skills to prepare them for classroom effectiveness. They also became familiar with the Code of Ethics and the ethical issues that relate to teaching in Florida.

To follow up on this training, they took a course entitled “Role of the Teacher” in which they learned about the laws regarding child abuse and their obligations in such situations.

Teachers in the OCPS alternative certification program completed 12 hours of cooperative learning training for successful classroom management. They completed a management plan for immediate use and committed to using a cooperative learning structure in their classroom.

Participants worked with a content mentor for at least six hours to develop a resource file of lesson plans for use in their classroom. They took a Web-based course entitled *Reading to Learn*, a 60-hour learning opportunity about scientifically based reading research and its implementation in the classroom. In addition, they received a three-hour overview and workshop about integrating curriculum and writing integrated lesson plans.

Another 60-hour course, *English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) Strategies*, provided ESOL awareness for participants and equipped them with effective instructional strategies. In a six-hour diversity course, they learned how to plan with diverse learners in mind. A 15-hour course about critical thinking and multiple intelligences also gave them strategies for teaching diverse learners. Teachers in the ACP also learned about human development and the brain in a nine-hour course, and were asked to implement and reflect upon their use of brain-based strategies in the classroom. They completed a six-hour course on multiple measures of assessment. Finally, they learned how to utilize technology in the classroom in a 12-hour class which culminated in the upload of their personal classroom Web site (Orange County Public Schools, 2007).

In addition to time spent in the coursework, OCPS ACP participants completed a virtual portfolio based on the Florida Educator Accomplished Practices. Forty-one assignments were completed by participants and scored by district assessors. One example of an assignment based on the communication competency is as follows:

The teacher videotapes two 20-30 minute lessons, evaluates her/his performance, and obtains an evaluation from the ACP mentor. The teacher writes a summary of strengths and weaknesses, including improvements made (Orange County Public Schools, 2007).

All assignments were listed on the OCPS ACP Web site, and a link to a complete explanation of the task was available along with a link to the assessor's electronic mail in case of questions. Once the assessor completed scoring on individual task assignments, they posted the score on the "Tracking System" designed especially for Florida's alternative certification program. Scores were "Demonstrated," "Partially Demonstrated," or "Not Demonstrated" for each task. The assessor could also write comments and feedback on the tracking system. When all tasks were completed, the tracking system calculated whether or not the ACP participant had successfully demonstrated all 12 Florida Educator Accomplished Practices (Orange County Public Schools, 2007).

Analysis of School District-Based Alternative Certification Programs

The school district-based alternative certification programs included in this research were located in Florida, a state which provided a choice of following the state's program model or creating unique programs based on a set of guidelines. The three school districts in this research chose to incorporate unique training elements into their programs while using the state guidelines.

Content of these alternative certification programs related to Florida's 12 Educator Accomplished Practices, most of which were based on pedagogy. Examples of training which included teaching methods were classroom management, teaching strategies for diverse learners such as English Language Learners and students from various socio-economic backgrounds, and cooperative learning. Other pedagogical coursework provided by the school district-based programs was integration of technology and assessment.

One of the accomplished practices, Knowledge of Subject Matter, was satisfied through passing the state subject area examination and the General Knowledge examination. Typically, subject matter coursework was completed with the participant's prior degree program.

The alternative certification programs were completed while participants were teaching. This gave them the opportunity to immediately apply what was learned and dialogue with other professionals at their schools or peers in their ACP classes about successes and challenges. The new teachers were also paired with trained mentors who provided assistance throughout their learning process.

Research Questions

Research Question 1 sought to determine how American teacher education evolved since the inception of formal public teacher preparation programs. In order to seek and find answers to this question, the flow maps of individual teacher preparation programs were combined into one flow map, (Appendix E), which served as a timeline organized in increments to show the additions and changes to content over time.

The first schools dedicated to educating teachers in America opened in the mid-1800s and were patterned after the normal schools of Europe. They were established as an avenue

toward staffing the common schools, which were tax-supported public elementary schools. Since common schools had opened and enrollment in them rapidly expanded, the private colleges and high schools that had previously trained elementary teachers could not meet the demand. Normal schools often offered their students free tuition in exchange for their agreement to teach in the local common schools upon completion of the teacher preparation program.

Normal schools provided a review of common school subjects and methods of teaching them. They included practice teaching opportunities in “model schools” for students to gain real-world experience under the supervision of a trained teacher before taking the classroom responsibility on themselves. The first programs of study for teacher certification took approximately one and a half years to complete, although many students left for various reasons before finishing. Some received teaching job offers, meaning that they were not fully trained for the responsibilities of the classrooms they accepted.

Normal school educators claimed to instill in their students the “art of teaching,” while striving to progress teaching as a profession. They struggled for acceptance in higher education from their inception. Normal school principals proclaimed teaching was a profession based on the science of education at their first annual normal school convention in 1859. Soon thereafter, Framingham State College declared psychology “the foundation for all true teaching.” Psychology and the behavioral sciences began appearing in elementary and secondary education programs of study. This was evidenced by “Theory and Art of Teaching” being replaced by “Psychology” at Peabody College in the 1880s and the addition of “Measurement and Evaluation” at Indiana University in 1916.

In further efforts to become competitive with the more expensive colleges and universities, normal schools began to expand their course offerings in the late 1800s. The expansion eventually led them to change their names to teachers colleges. Some programs, like those offered at Peabody College for Teachers, were four years in length. Framingham added a program for the preparation of high school teachers. In the early 1900s, students in secondary English education at Ball Teachers' College took ten subject area content courses. Programs increased time in real-world classroom teaching experiences through observations, field studies, and internships in varying requirements.

Interestingly, both Framingham and Peabody stated in their course catalogs that they did not fully prepare teachers for all that they would encounter in the classroom. Therefore, history showed that even as American teacher education was in its earliest stages, the issue of its insufficiency was present. This correlated to the problem associated with the research that teachers were often critical of their preparation programs for not fully preparing them for the classroom. Although they completed teacher education programs of study, they were left with knowledge voids upon entering the classroom. History indicated that this problem was ever-present in teacher education.

The issue of supply and demand was also evident from the very beginning of teacher education. In fact, it was the foundation upon which teacher preparation was built. America needed teachers for the common schools, so right away the demand was greater than the supply. In the 1980s, alternative certification programs moved to the forefront of teacher education as states created other avenues besides four-year colleges and universities for preparing teachers. However, again the research indicated that historically this was already accomplished.

Framingham may have created the first alternative certification program in the late 1800s when it provided an accelerated teaching program for graduates of other colleges or universities who met criteria.

During the early 1900s, Ball State University, Indiana University and the University of Southern California were established. Of the five colleges and universities researched from that time period, education foundations, teaching methods and subject area content coursework requirements varied from year-to-year. One consistency among all five colleges and universities during the early 1900s was that the “art of teaching” language disappeared from course catalogs. This may have been a result of teacher educators making the assertion that teaching is a science. The prominence of subject area teaching methods coursework in programs of study was clear in some, yet not in others. Additionally, while some programs concentrated many credit hours on subject area teaching methods in one year, they may have had a different concentration in subsequent years.

In the 1930s, some of the researched programs increased rigor and required teacher education students to earn an additional major or minor. Examples of this occurred at the University of Southern California, where all students of education earned both a major and a minor. At the University of Massachusetts Amherst, elementary education students were able to either major in elementary education or minor in elementary education while majoring in a subject area content.

While all colleges and universities included classroom observation and internships by the 1950s, the University of Massachusetts was the last to make internships mandatory. They were offered as an elective until that point. By the 1950s, all colleges and universities which began as

teacher normal schools in the study required students to take coursework, discussion hours, or conference hours alongside their internships. This may have been an effort to connect theory and practice.

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, several colleges and universities restructured their teacher education programs. As teacher educators had always struggled for acceptance within the larger university context, these changes pointed to efforts in gaining such. At the University of Southern California, elementary education students earned a Bachelor of Science in General Studies. The University of Massachusetts Amherst gave their education students much more autonomy in choosing from 11 major areas of study in education. The number of education faculty tripled during these two decades; therefore, course choice also increased. Students were essentially able to build their own programs of study. This did not last long, however. UMass Amherst reverted to a four-year program of study by the 1990s, when students of elementary education earned a bachelor's degree in liberal studies.

Colleges and universities which began as teacher normal schools remained focused on traditional four-year programs of teacher preparation. They underwent few changes from the 1970s through 2007. The typical program took four years, in which the first two years were courses in liberal arts and sciences. The following two years for elementary education students were courses in education foundations, teaching methods, and subject area content. For students aspiring to become secondary educators, the following two years consisted mainly of subject area content coursework along with one or two teaching methods courses and a few in education foundations. All colleges and universities included observation, field study and/or internships in their programs of education. Although components of these programs were consistent on a

broad scale, they were inconsistent in course title, content, and amount of classes in each category.

Research Question 2 focused on how American teacher education, as well as the metaphorical view of teaching as an art or a science, was affected by historical events, politics, and other outside influences.

Supply and Demand

The very existence of American teacher education was based on a demand for teachers. In the cause-and-effect map in Figure 11, it was obvious that once a system of free, public education was established by opening common schools, the demand for teachers was suddenly much greater than the supply.

The demand caused towns to hire teachers who were not fully prepared for the responsibilities they would face in the classroom. This practice continued over a century later, especially in hard-to-staff areas where minority and low-income students were served disproportionately with under-qualified teachers than their middle to upper class peers (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1997). History showed that this problem associated with recent growth and diversity in America was actually present from the very beginning of teacher education.

The demand for teachers lingered throughout history, although it was sometimes greater than others or concentrated in specific regions of the United States. The teacher shortage made the most memorable headlines beginning in the 1980s and continued throughout the new millennium.

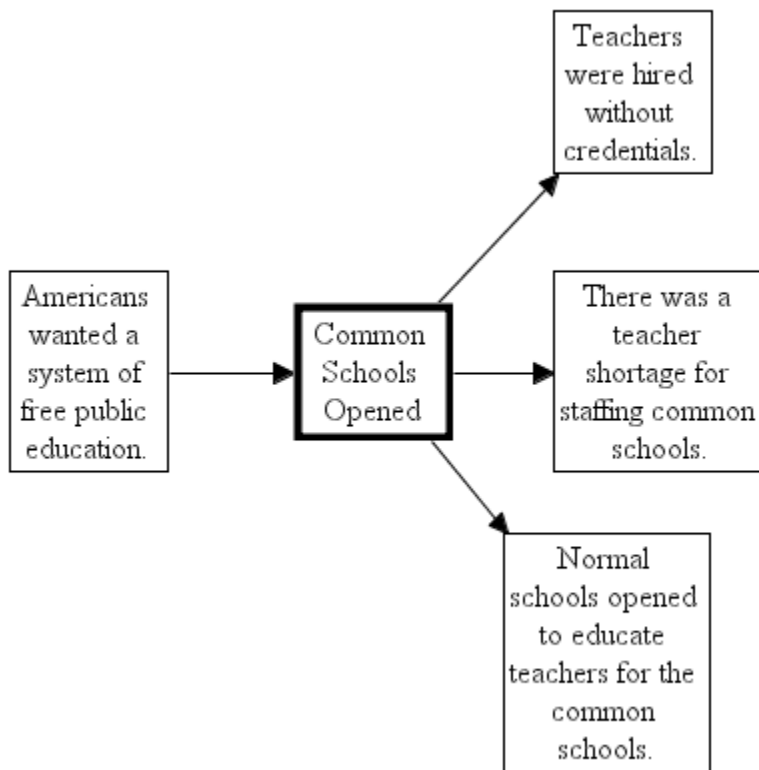


Figure 11: Cause and Effects of Common Schools

Alternative certification programs reportedly came into existence in 1984, with the establishment of the first of such programs in Texas. However, through this research it was found that Framingham State College, the first teacher education school in America, actually created the first alternative certification program in the 1800s. What was generally touted in the 1980s and beyond as an inventive avenue toward solving the teacher shortage had been invented over 100 years prior. Figure 12 shows some causes and effects of alternative certification programs. These programs provided quicker routes to teacher certification for those who held a degree in another field. This helped school districts to fill positions, typically with more diverse

individuals including minorities and males. These programs were also an avenue to filling positions in critical shortage subject areas such as mathematics and science.

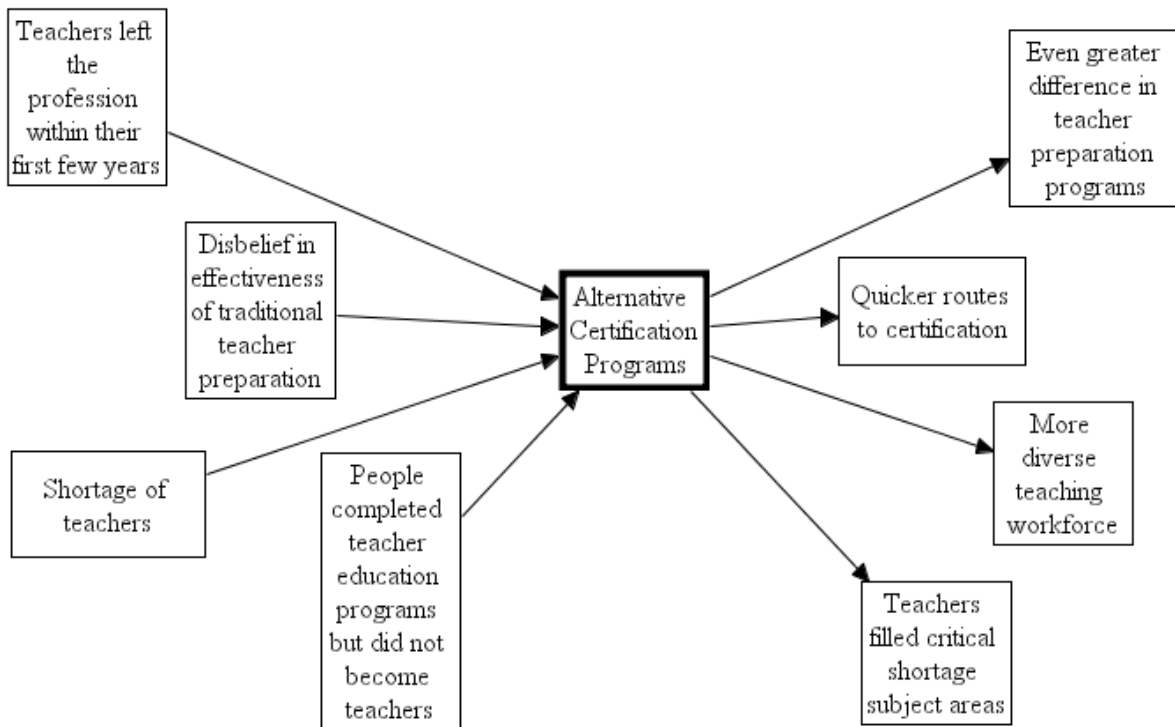


Figure 12: Causes and Effects of Alternative Certification Programs

The Struggle for Acceptance

Throughout the early years of teacher normal schools, teacher educators felt a disconnect from the professional ranks of doctors and lawyers, although they believed they deserved a place in the professional hierarchy. During the 1850s, the normal school principals gathered for their annual conference and together declared “teaching is a profession based on the science of education.” Subsequently, though not quickly, behavioral sciences entered programs of study.

In the 1870s, Framingham State College called psychology “the foundation for all true teaching.” Scholars John Dewey and Edward Thorndike contributed findings regarding social neuroscience and cognitive organization theory. Teaching methods were said to be based on the behavior sciences and tried and true actions in the classroom. It was not until 1873 that the first permanent university chairman in education was established. Figure 13 depicts possible causes and effects of teacher education’s struggle for acceptance in higher education.

Colleges and universities initially focused on preparing high school teachers through the teaching of subject matter. With this focus, they secured their link with the schools, but not the low-status common schools. In the late 19th century, universities needed to increase enrollment, so they began adding colleges and departments of education to help alleviate this problem. In this way, they could appeal to women while confining them to one area of the campus. With the demand for space in colleges and universities brought about by the GI Bill at the end of World War II, increasing numbers of them opened teacher education programs. The University of Massachusetts Amherst was an example of this, expanding its agricultural programs to include secondary education in the 1930s and elementary education in the 1950s. Opening additional programs and seats was simpler than building new colleges and universities. Although this sequence of events opened doors to teacher education, the struggle for acceptance within those doors would continue into 2007.

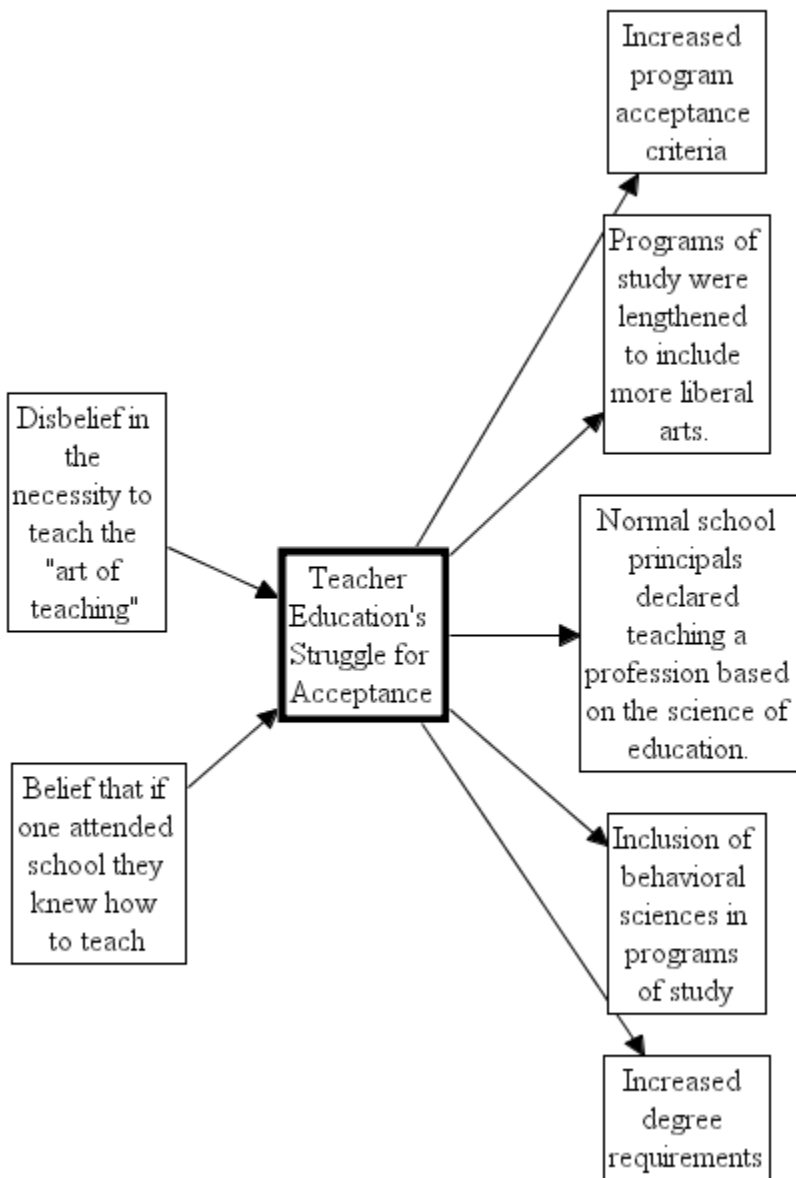


Figure 13: Teacher Education's Struggle for Acceptance in Higher Education

Continuing Criticism

The national government's 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk*, was prompted by a fear that other nations were surpassing America in terms of education. It recommended increasing

admission requirements for teacher education programs, preparing students in an academic discipline with less emphasis on education foundations and teaching methods courses, and raising teacher salaries to attract top candidates. Figure 14 shows some possible causes and effects of *A Nation at Risk*.

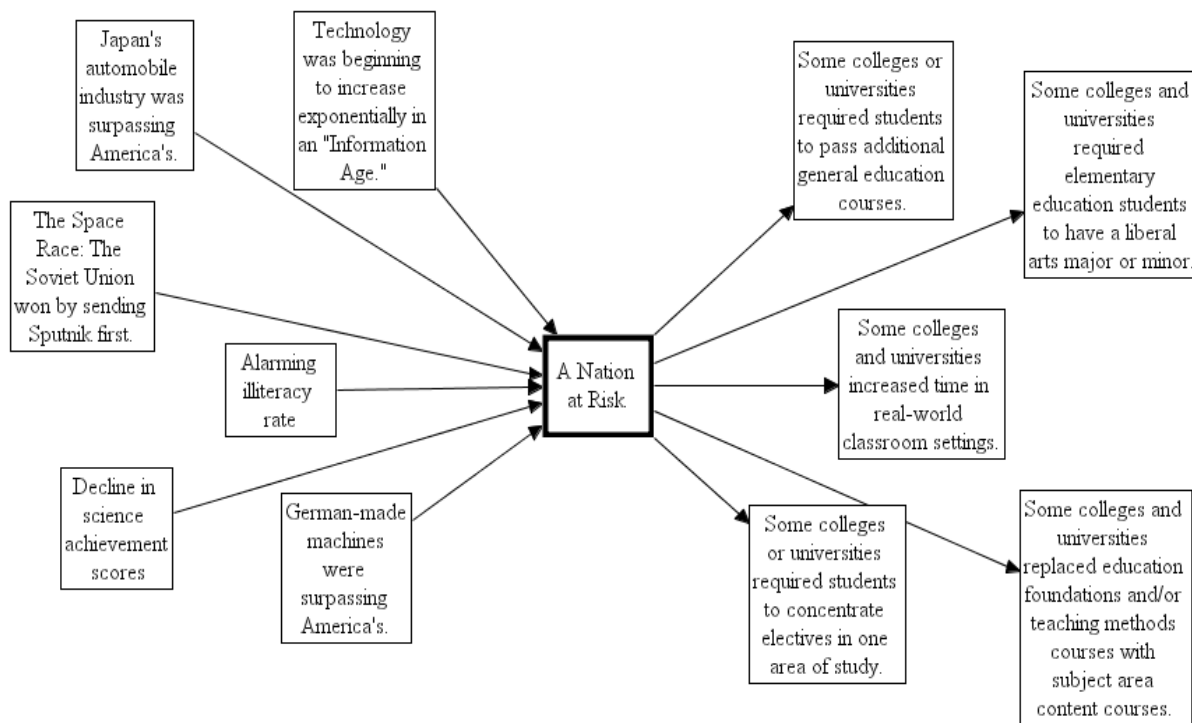


Figure 14: Causes and Effects of *A Nation at Risk*

Throughout this research, it was interesting to find that of the colleges and universities studied, few changes were made to their teacher education programs. The 1980s brought the fewest changes of any decade to the programs overall. The 1990s were the era in which possible effects of the national government's widely-publicized report were most evident. Framingham State College, Peabody College, and the University of Southern California increased time in the

real-world setting for both elementary and secondary education programs of study. In the 2000s, the Massachusetts legislature passed a law requiring teacher education candidates to pass specific general education courses in order to receive their certification. This affected Framingham State College and the University of Massachusetts Amherst.

Many of the colleges and universities studied began requiring different degrees or areas of concentration in the 1990s and 2000s. Ball State University's elementary education teacher preparation program asked that students concentrate their electives on a specific area of study. At the University of Massachusetts Amherst, students of elementary education earned a bachelor's degree in the liberal arts and sciences or an approved interdisciplinary major. The University of Southern California had begun requiring elementary education students to earn a Bachelor of Science in General Studies in the 1970s, and this continued through 2007. It seemed that by 2007, fewer courses concentrated on education foundations and teaching methods, while more time was devoted to liberal arts coursework and field study or internships.

Research Question 3 had the purpose of determining which program requirements specific to education foundations such as the history and philosophies of education, teaching methods such as instructional design and student behavior management, and subject area content were included in traditional and alternative elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs from 1839 to 2007.

Figure 15 depicts the three broad areas of study in teacher education throughout 1839 to 2007 and lists many of the common courses by which they were represented.

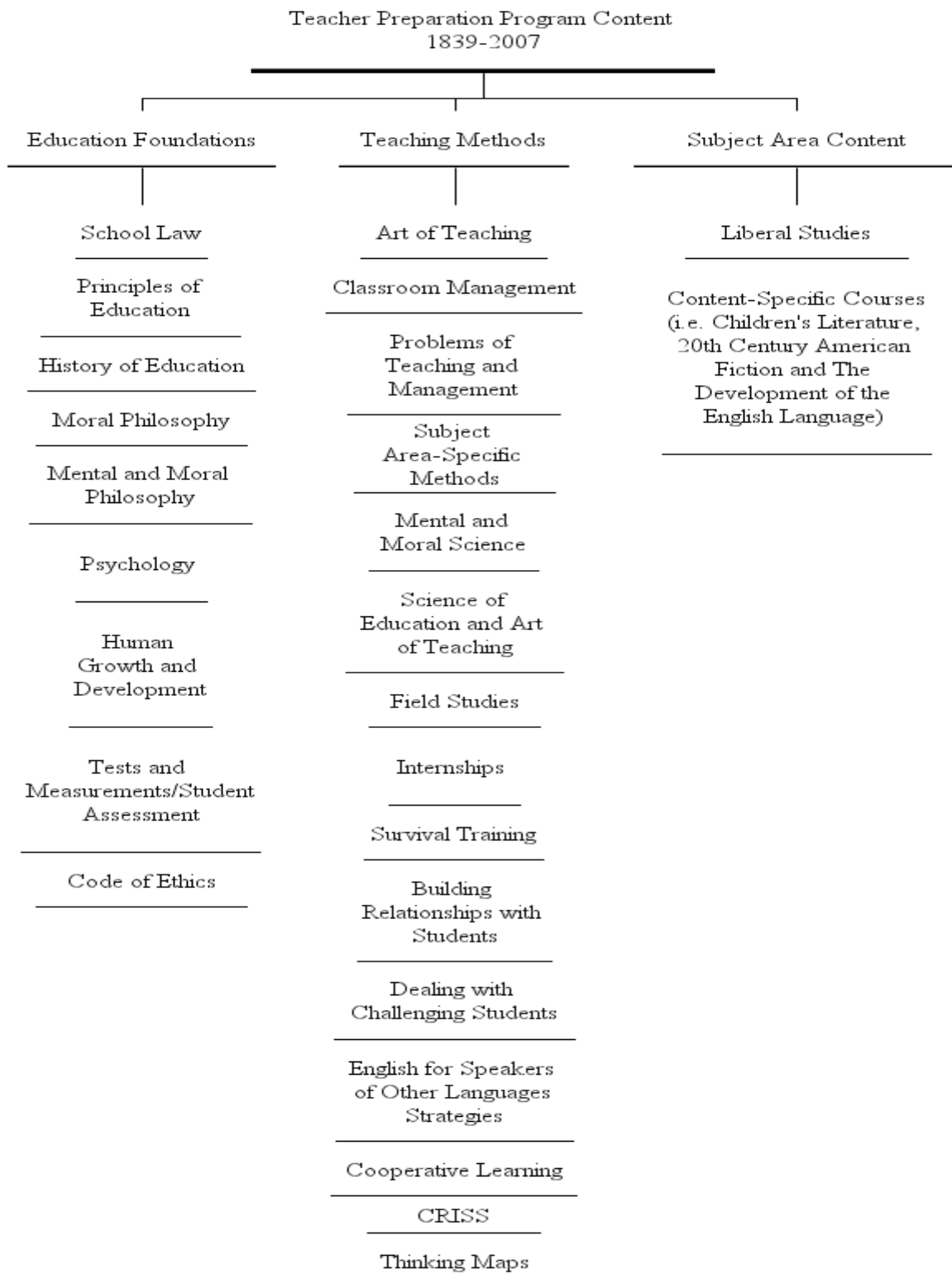


Figure 15: Teacher Preparation Program Content, 1839-2007

Course titles toward the top of the tree map were those typically found in earlier course catalogs. “Art of Teaching” was the earliest form of teaching methods course, and it was found in Framingham and Peabody’s course catalogs. References within course descriptions were also found in Ball State University’s course catalog. Interestingly, these three institutions were those from this study which began as teacher normal schools.

“School Law,” “Principles of Education,” and “History of Education,” were found throughout the time period studied in every college or university. However, they appeared at different times and had different course descriptions.

Research Question 4 sought answers to how American teacher education program requirements throughout history aligned with commonly cited teacher knowledge voids such as student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students’ needs. Figure 16 shows these areas in which teachers felt they were ill-prepared in the classroom and content found within the research that would support them.

It was simple to see that areas reported by new teachers as problematic were not well-represented within teacher preparation programs. However, it was not as clear to pinpoint which courses might have included these topics somewhere in their study even though they were not in the catalog description. Student behavior management and meeting individual students’ needs were possibly the best represented; however, there were no courses in traditional teacher preparation programs which were completely devoted to these topics.

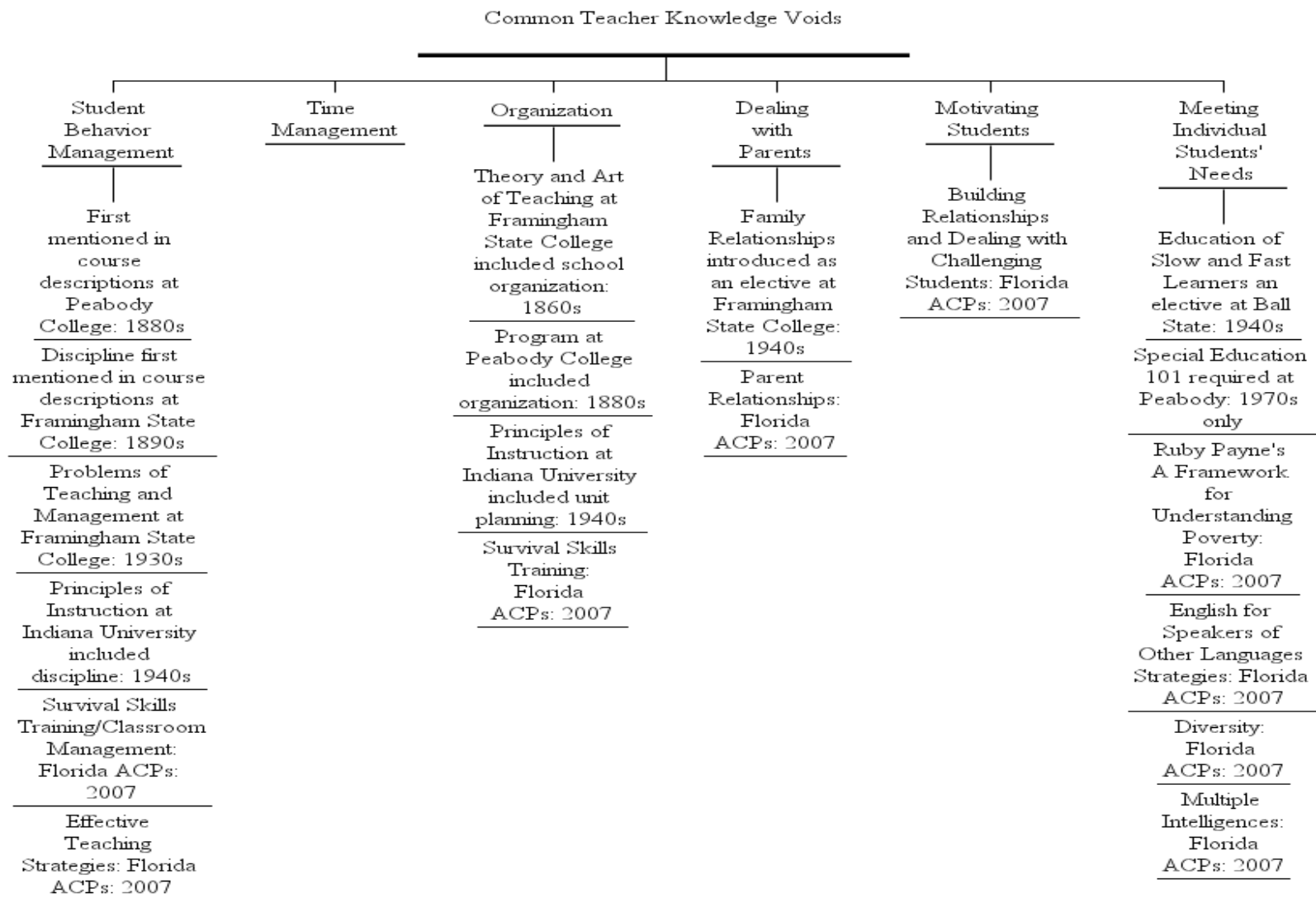


Figure 16: Common Teacher Knowledge Voids and Supporting Course Content

Discipline and classroom management were included in course descriptions for classes titled “Problems of Teaching and Management” at Framingham State College in the 1930s and “Principles of Instruction” at Indiana University in the 1940s, but these topics were only part of what was covered in those classes. Florida’s alternative certification programs perhaps had the most specific coverage of student behavior management techniques, although courses in ACPs were much shorter than the typical college course. Therefore, the topic did not receive the attention it would need to assist teachers in feeling more competent in the classroom.

Meeting individual students’ needs was a broad topic, and through the research it was noted that colleges and universities began to touch upon it around the 1940s. Ball State University offered an elective titled “Education of Slow and Fast Learners.” Later in the 1970s, “Special Education 101” was required of all students of education at Peabody College. These were examples of specific references found in the research of traditional teacher preparation programs that would support this knowledge void. Florida’s alternative certification programs included more specific coursework pertaining to meeting individual students’ needs as evidenced by the English for Speakers of Other Languages Strategies course and the study of Ruby Payne’s *A Framework for Understanding Poverty*. However, these courses were much more condensed than a college class would be.

Organization was somewhat represented in catalog descriptions, although the topic was so broad that it was difficult to pinpoint with which aspect of organization teachers felt uncomfortable. The evidence of organization found within the research was of classroom organization and unit planning. In order to address this issue for teachers, one would have to drill down to their true needs regarding organization.

The other three areas, time management, dealing with parents, and motivating students, were barely touched upon, if at all, in traditional and alternative certification programs. As these specific teacher knowledge voids were those from studies conducted in the 1980s and 1990s, and they were still not being fully addressed in 2007, it was assumed that they continued to remain the same.

A summary of the analysis of data for this study revealed the following findings:

1. American teacher preparation programs began in 1839 with elements of teaching methods, subject area content and education foundations which remained the common elements in 2007. Furthermore, the ratio of each element in teacher preparation programs fluctuated throughout history, often influenced by politics such as government groups like the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.
2. The dissent over teaching as an art or a science was evident in the early years of teacher normal schools, and the argument continued in 2007. A major effect on the debate was the absence of a clear definition of teaching as an art or a science. An example was the Art of Teaching course, in which the content was based on teaching methods that were science driven.
3. Early teacher normal schools admitted that teacher education programs were "imperfect preparation" for the classroom, and teacher knowledge voids remained an issue in 2007.
4. From the inception of common schools in America, there was a shortage of teachers to fill them, and the teacher shortage continued in 2007.

5. Alternative routes to teacher certification were sought and enacted in the 1800s, and alternative certification programs were widely used in 2007.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study traced and examined elements of American teacher education programs which may have affected teachers' feelings of unpreparedness for the classroom. Possible causes or links to the teacher knowledge voids reported by Veenman (1984) and Gratch (1998) based on their studies of new teachers were researched. These knowledge voids were: student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs. The study also researched and traced the viewpoints of teaching as an art or a science by examining coursework in education foundations, teaching methods, or subject area content coursework throughout selected programs. Programs selected for this research were traditional teacher preparation programs from colleges and universities which began as teacher normal schools and from those that did not, as well as alternative teacher certification programs.

Summary

A sample of the three types of teacher preparation programs was selected, and archive librarians or program assistants of those colleges, universities, or school districts were contacted from March 2007 through January 2008 in order to gather information. Primary source documents, including undergraduate catalogs and program descriptions from the teacher preparation programs dating from 1839 to 2007, were obtained and analyzed with the following research questions in mind:

1. How has American teacher education evolved since the inception of formal public teacher preparation programs?

2. How has American teacher education, as well as the metaphorical view of teaching as an art or a science, been affected by historical events, politics, and other outside influences?
3. What program requirements specific to education foundations such as the history and philosophies of education, behavioral sciences and teaching methods such as instructional design and student behavior management, and subject area content were included in traditional and alternative elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs from 1839 to 2007?
4. How did American teacher education program requirements throughout history align with commonly cited teacher knowledge voids such as student behavior management, time management, organization, dealing with parents, motivating students, and meeting individual students' needs?

Results from the qualitative research indicated that the three types of teacher preparation programs shared similarities and differences between and within themselves.

Research Question 1, regarding the evolution of teacher education in America, revealed that many of the problems facing teacher education in 2007 were present from the very beginning in 1839. For example, America continued to face a teacher shortage in certain areas of the country as well as specific subject areas in 2007. This was nothing new, as teacher education in normal schools was established due to the need to staff common schools. It seemed as though teacher education programs were constantly attempting to “catch up” by producing enough teachers alongside learning how they could best be prepared.

Normal school teacher preparation faced challenges to its existence from its establishment. This led normal school principals to declare teaching a profession based on the science of education. Normal schools expanded their curriculum to compete with high schools, and eventually they added liberal arts faculty and competed for enrollment with colleges and universities. Normal schools became known as teachers colleges and eventually assimilated into colleges or universities.

While normal schools originally taught pre-service teachers the art of teaching, soon thereafter their principals felt the need to be recognized as a profession just as were doctors and lawyers. Many who reported on this era in teacher education noted that they seemed to struggle to live up to this proclamation. The argument over “teaching as an art” or “teaching as a science” thus began in the 1850s and continued throughout history.

One major issue in researching the debate between the art and science of teaching became apparent during the review of literature. Neither the art nor science of teaching was clearly defined within the literature or the research, and thus contributed much confusion when attempting to interpret course definitions and content. Researchers such as Borrowman (1965) described the art of teaching in the sense of teaching methods, while others such as Payne referred methods the science of teaching. Furthermore, courses which were titled Art of Teaching were described as lessons in the methods of teaching.

The original normal schools in Massachusetts were charged by Horace Mann to instill a sense of calling in future teachers. W.C. Ruediger (cited in Borrowman, 1965) wrote that normal schools contributed to their students a “pride of craft” and an “indispensable spirit of the teaching profession” (p. 25). These extremely abstract concepts emerged from this research as

the greatest factors involved in the art of teaching, and therefore contributed to the difficulty with which it was defined. The art of teaching was ultimately defined by the researcher as the use of techniques highly influenced by individual personality traits, viewpoints, and background experiences, to enhance teaching methods. The question that arose based on this definition was whether or not the art of teaching could actually be taught to others. A more appropriate approach in teacher preparation was most likely to assist others in developing their individual style, or art. The art of teaching, then, would look and sound different based on the individual, and thus may be difficult to assess.

While teaching methods were sometimes deemed the art of teaching throughout the literature, they were based on the behavioral sciences of psychology and human growth and development. In fact, Framingham State College defined psychology as “the science of the soul” and “a foundation for all true teaching” in the 1870s. Therefore, the science of teaching was defined by this research as teaching methodology based on the foundation of behavioral sciences. Because teaching methods could be taught in a somewhat formulaic fashion, they were most often taught in pre-service courses separate from the real world setting. This led to the disconnect between theory and practice referred to by so many new teachers and possibly deepened the knowledge voids presented in the fourth research question.

Based on the early normal school principals’ hope to establish teaching as a profession equal to medicine and law, a parallel emerged from this research due in part to the confusion between art and science. Both doctors and lawyers certainly employ the sciences in their work; however, those doctors who have the best “bedside manner” and those lawyers who consistently craft believable cases become the most well-known and possibly the most successful. As with

teachers, doctors and lawyers have an element of art in their work based on personality and experiences which relates to Max Weber's theory of charismatic leadership. This theory and its application throughout these three professions should be further researched.

Although all programs researched were different, one consistency from the beginning in 1839 was the opportunity for practice in the real-world setting. Framingham State College opened with a model school where aspiring teachers observed, practiced teaching, and were critiqued by their peers. This type of practice continued in places of varying names such as laboratory schools and practice schools. While the element of practice was consistent, the amount of credit hours and types of concurrent coursework were vastly different across the six colleges and universities studied.

Another constant in all of the programs researched was education foundations and teaching methods coursework. However, again, colleges and universities required these courses in varying amounts, in different sequence and with different descriptions. It was not guaranteed that History of Education at one school was identical to the same course at another school, although they shared the same title.

The evolution of teacher education also brought alternative certification programs to light. Popular research said that these sorts of programs began in the 1980s in Texas and New Jersey. They offered an avenue to teacher certification for those who typically held a degree from a program other than education and who completed requirements such as additional coursework and passing a certification examination. Through this research, it was found that Framingham State College highlighted the same type of program in its course catalog in the 1800s.

Research Question 2 viewed outside factors which may have influenced teacher education throughout history. While the issues of supply and demand and alternative certification surfaced, several other events could have also made an impact. Teacher education's struggle for acceptance in higher education and the assertion that teaching was based on the science of education may have led to the addition of psychology and other behavioral science courses in programs of study. Some educators deemed pedagogy a science, while others said pedagogy was an art based on facts and ideas from the behavioral sciences. This debate between teaching as an art, a science, or both an art and a science continued throughout teacher education history.

Although colleges and universities did not believe that teacher education belonged in their institutions, the end of World War II and the GI Bill did much to effect change. Because servicemen were returning home and there were not enough jobs for them, the GI Bill gave them the opportunity to get an education. However, there were not enough seats in colleges and universities. Rather than build new ones, they opened other programs of study such as teacher education and in this way teacher education received a boost into the colleges and universities.

The Space Race between the Soviet Union and America to be the first country to successfully reach space also affected teacher education. This was one major impetus of *A Nation at Risk*, the national government's report about the dire status of education in America. Immediately following the report's release, change was not evident in the researched programs. However, throughout the 1990s and 2000s, colleges and universities began to require more liberal studies, concentrated electives, and additional practice teaching in attempts to better-prepare their students for classroom teaching.

Research Question 3 traced coursework in education foundations, teaching methods, and subject area content. Although it was found that all three types of coursework were in traditional programs that began as normal schools and those that did not, they were present in varying amounts and in different semesters throughout the programs. There were no specific programs that had disproportionate amounts of this coursework; however, courses with the same title had various descriptions. In all six traditional teacher preparation programs, secondary English education students took mainly subject area content courses, often majoring in English and minoring in education. The majority of elementary teacher education programs consisted of teaching methods coursework, although sometimes courses concentrated on a specific subject such as Methods of Teaching Reading, and other times the courses were general such as Art of Teaching.

Alternative certification programs in Florida in 2007 concentrated on teaching methods training. Subject area content was expected to have been learned in the student's degree program, as typically they earned a certification based on that subject. Alternative certification programs seemed to lend the most attention of the three types of programs studied to teacher knowledge voids. This was especially evident in classroom management and discipline and meeting individual students' needs.

Research Question 4 researched common teacher knowledge voids, and found that little coursework was dedicated to filling them. The two knowledge void topics most often found in the research on teacher preparation programs were student behavior management and meeting individual students' needs. Although these topics were touched upon sporadically in traditional teacher preparation course content, there were virtually no classes dedicated specifically to them.

Alternative certification programs seemed to be more in tune with new teachers' needs, as they touched upon almost every knowledge void; however, they offered condensed coursework which did not lend itself to in-depth study of any of the problem areas.

Conclusions

Trends and patterns in teacher education throughout history were ignored, according to Warren (1985). This was evident throughout this research as three continuing themes were found to be significant. First, teacher education was always driven by supply and demand. This led to the addition of alternative certification programs and increased the differences between teacher preparation programs in America. Next, other than the broad topics of education foundations, teaching methods and subject area content there was no consistency in teacher preparation program content across the United States. The debate over teaching as an art or a science continued, as well as the disagreement about how a teacher should best be trained for the classroom. Some colleges and universities began to require a liberal arts major, while others continued to require an education major. Finally, there was separation between learning in the teacher preparation program and application in the real world which led to teacher knowledge voids that were consistent problem areas from the 1800s through the 2000s.

It was clear that there was not enough measurable research to determine the effectiveness of teacher education programs. Additional research into the factors that overwhelm new teachers is necessary to reform pre-service teacher programs. If the most prominent strategy for achieving the nation's educational goals is to recruit, prepare and support excellent teachers for every school (Long & Riegle, 2002), then more research on the missing links between teacher education and practicing teachers' needs is required. Wilson and Floden (2003) described the

variables associated with teacher education program impact and effectiveness as teacher retention and attrition, teacher behavior and instructional practice, teacher knowledge and skill, and student achievement. They also reported that researchers have not yet found measures for these outcomes. Improved teacher preparation programs depend on systematic evaluation which involves time, funding, and effort.

Recommendations

Because teacher education is still driven by supply and demand and the United States will continue to face the overwhelming need for teachers to fill vacancies or new positions, teacher education should be streamlined across the country. Teacher education programs in colleges and universities should include the same coursework and requirements from one to the next. Alternative certification programs should include the same requirements from state to state. If teachers were to move, this would ensure that they did not have to backtrack and take additional credits due to differing programs of study. If certification requirements were consistent across America, teachers could move between states and immediately be ready for hiring. The country loses many teachers due to frustrations involved with these types of instances. If coursework were made consistent, the focus could be placed on improving the teaching of the courses through the collaboration of faculty across states instead of within one program.

Teacher education programs must focus not only on providing background knowledge and practical experience, but also on equipping teachers with the skills necessary for surviving their first years of teaching. In Florida's alternative certification programs, the first training is actually titled Survival Skills. Although it may be true that teacher education students can never learn all they need to know until the responsibility for the classroom lies solely with them, they

need more opportunity to gain those crucial skills than they currently receive. More field experiences over the duration of the undergraduate education would provide a wider range of exposure to different teaching styles, more classroom management techniques, and the differentiation of these from grade level to grade level. Students should be exposed to classroom experiences during every semester of the professional course of study.

Based on this research of teacher preparation programs and teacher knowledge voids throughout history, the following program of study which aligns with teacher needs is recommended for four-year colleges and universities. First, colleges and universities would greatly benefit from the reestablishment of laboratory schools. These on-campus schools should be an integral part of general education coursework. It is recommended that general education courses during the first two years of study remain similar to those currently required, such as English, mathematics and science. However, the study of psychology and sociology as it is currently practiced could be greatly enhanced with real-world experiences by incorporating the laboratory schools while giving students exposure to the K-12 setting. Interaction with students and teachers in the laboratory school would assist college students in making better-informed decisions about the major they wish to undertake and may decrease changes of major during later years. Most colleges and universities do not provide this type of school-based experience until students have declared a major or minor in education and taken associated coursework, which is usually during their third year of study. Under this model, only those who choose to study education are exposed to school settings from perspectives other than that of student. It is possible that freshmen or sophomores who were not planning to study education may realize they enjoy it and want to do so.

As a requirement for acceptance into a program of study in education, students should show proof of volunteering a minimum of 50 hours in three different capacities within a school. The laboratory school would accept any student enrolled at the college or university; however, students could volunteer at other schools if they wished. Volunteer tasks could include mentoring, coaching, reading to or with students, tutoring and much more. Volunteers would be required to obtain a simple evaluation of each task on a university-provided form to include with their program application.

Following completion of the general education and volunteer requirements, usually during the third year of study, students accepted into a program of study in education would take coursework in education foundations as well as subject area content and teaching methods. The History of Education, including progress and events in teaching and learning, should be the first course within the major area of study. Human Growth and Development, Tests and Measurements, and Advanced Psychology should also be included early in all education programs of study. Following these courses, content and teaching methods would be combined into courses based on subject. Elementary teachers would take courses to review or learn information and concepts necessary for effectively teaching reading, language arts including writing, mathematics, science and social studies. Within these subject area courses, teaching methods would be modeled and practiced. Secondary teachers would take subject area coursework based on their chosen area of study, and each course would include teaching methodology and practice. Each semester of the first year of the professional program would include part-time internships, in which students would observe master teachers and teach lessons and units. These internships would take place in a different class setting each semester to give

the students experience in multiple types of classrooms with teachers of varying styles. Internships would be paired with coursework directly related to common teacher knowledge voids, and use daily experiences as hooks for information and questions gleaned from their placement in the schools. A course in classroom management during this time would draw upon information and theories learned in psychology courses to process real-world events. A course in time management and organization for students aspiring to become teachers would assist students as they planned, organized, taught and reflected on lessons. As students assisted with record-keeping and paperwork in their internships, practical strategies would be discussed for managing the ancillary responsibilities of teaching.

During the fourth year of study, education students would complete two full time internships, meaning that they would work the teacher's hours in a real-world setting. They would complete work in one setting during one semester and a different setting the following semester. The student would spend one or two weeks in the beginning of each placement becoming familiar with the supervising teacher and students, and gradually assume the complete role of teacher with responsibility for all of the duties therein. Student-teachers would also take a concurrent seminar in education with those completing their internships, where professors would work through issues that have become common teacher knowledge voids, such as dealing with parents and dealing with individual students' needs. History, theory, content knowledge and teaching methods would be reviewed as they aligned with topics of discussion. This would be the most effective way of assisting student-teachers in tying theory to practice.

Implications for Further Research

Because producing and retaining highly qualified teachers is a dire need, it needs to be done efficiently and effectively. It is crucial to determine which teacher preparation programs prepare educators to positively impact student achievement, replicate those programs, and replace or modify existing ineffective programs. Due to limitations of this study, which included relying on college and university personnel to assist the researcher, only copies of undergraduate course catalog programs of study were obtained. Since specific syllabi and student samples were not included, it was difficult to discern actual content taught based upon course titles and descriptions. However, it was noted that descriptions of courses bearing the same name were often different. This was the primary reason why determining whether education foundations, teaching methods or subject area coursework was most effective in preparing teachers for the classroom was not achieved. Further research should be conducted comparing and contrasting courses of the same title and their content. This could then assist in determining which course components were most effective in filling teacher knowledge voids and therefore should be included in all teacher preparation programs. This type of research could also inform colleges and universities of the disconnect between courses of the same title across the country and should serve as a catalyst for planning greater consistency among programs.

To begin assisting with the issue of consistency across programs, definitions of the art and science of teaching were provided by this research. However, the question of whether the art of teaching could be taught to others, or rather developed in others, arose. If the art of teaching was based heavily on teachers' personalities and individual traits, this would relate to trait-based leadership theories such as Max Weber's charismatic leadership. Research which would apply

specific leadership theories to prospective teachers could assist in determining whether great teachers must be “born” or can be “made.” If further research regarding this inquiry were undertaken, the best approach to including the art of teaching in teacher preparation programs could be found and implemented. Another benefit could be a clearer connection to assessing aspects of the art of teaching in educators. Consistent and defined expectations would further result in reduced confusion and frustration for teacher educators, administrators and new teachers.

This research also shed light on differences in educating pre-service teachers about pedagogy, or teaching methods. Two main ideas that surfaced were that teaching methods courses should be separated by content area as in “Methods in High School Literature” (Ball State Teachers College, 1930) and that teaching methods courses should be interdisciplinary as in “Principles of Instruction” (Indiana University, 1945). Both types of teaching methods instruction were found across colleges and universities within any given year, and many of those researched shifted from one type of methods coursework to the other through the years. Further research should be conducted to determine which type of teaching methods coursework best meets teachers’ needs and fills gaps between what they learn in college and what they need for success in the classroom.

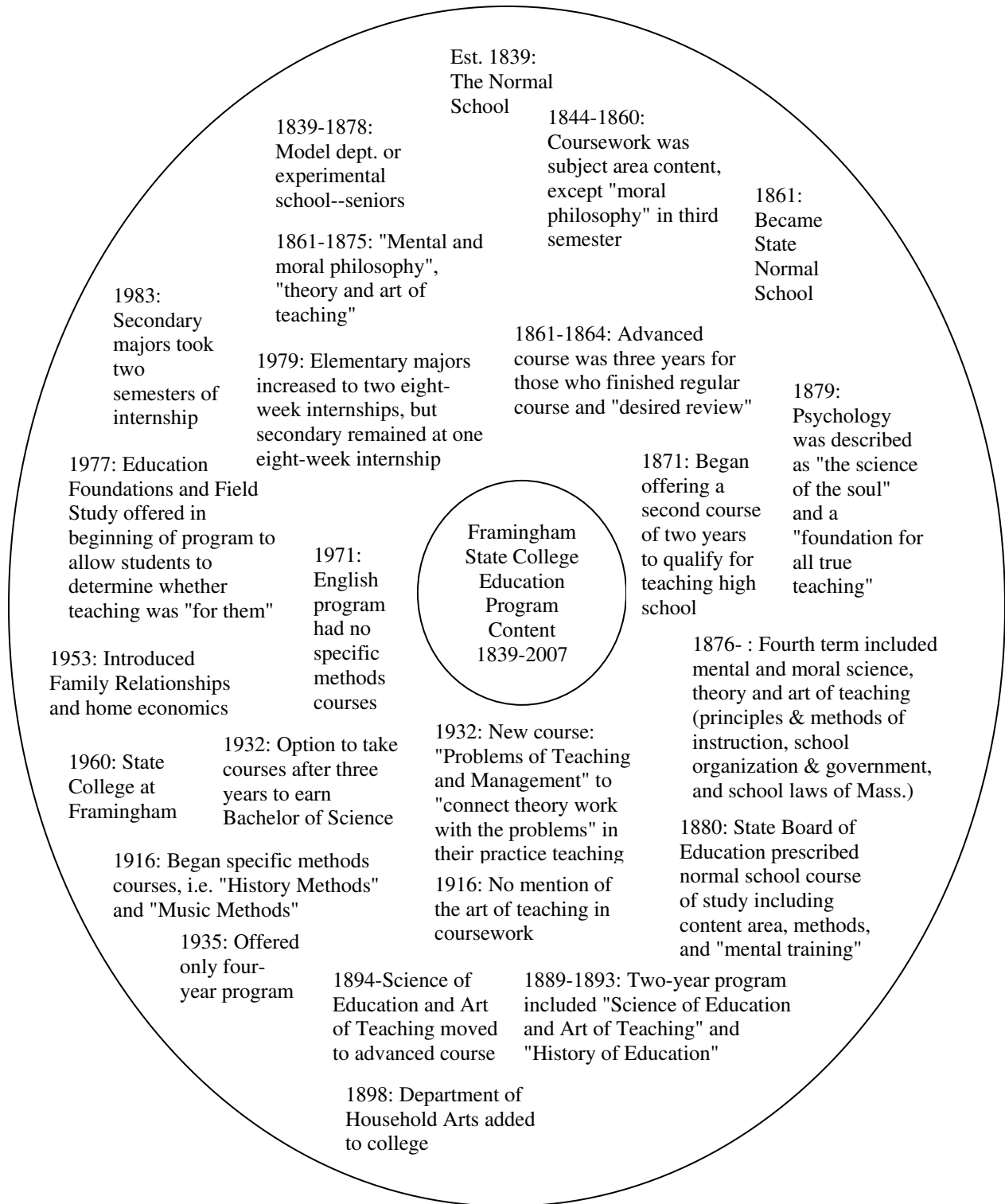
To continue researching teaching methods, the drawbacks and benefits of pairing coursework with internships or practice teaching experiences should be further studied. Various scenarios existed within this research, including several types of real world observation and practice. Some colleges and universities linked specific coursework with practice, while others required their students to take no coursework at the same time as internship. It should be

determined which of these scenarios were most effective in filling teacher knowledge voids and assisting them in learning or developing the art of teaching.

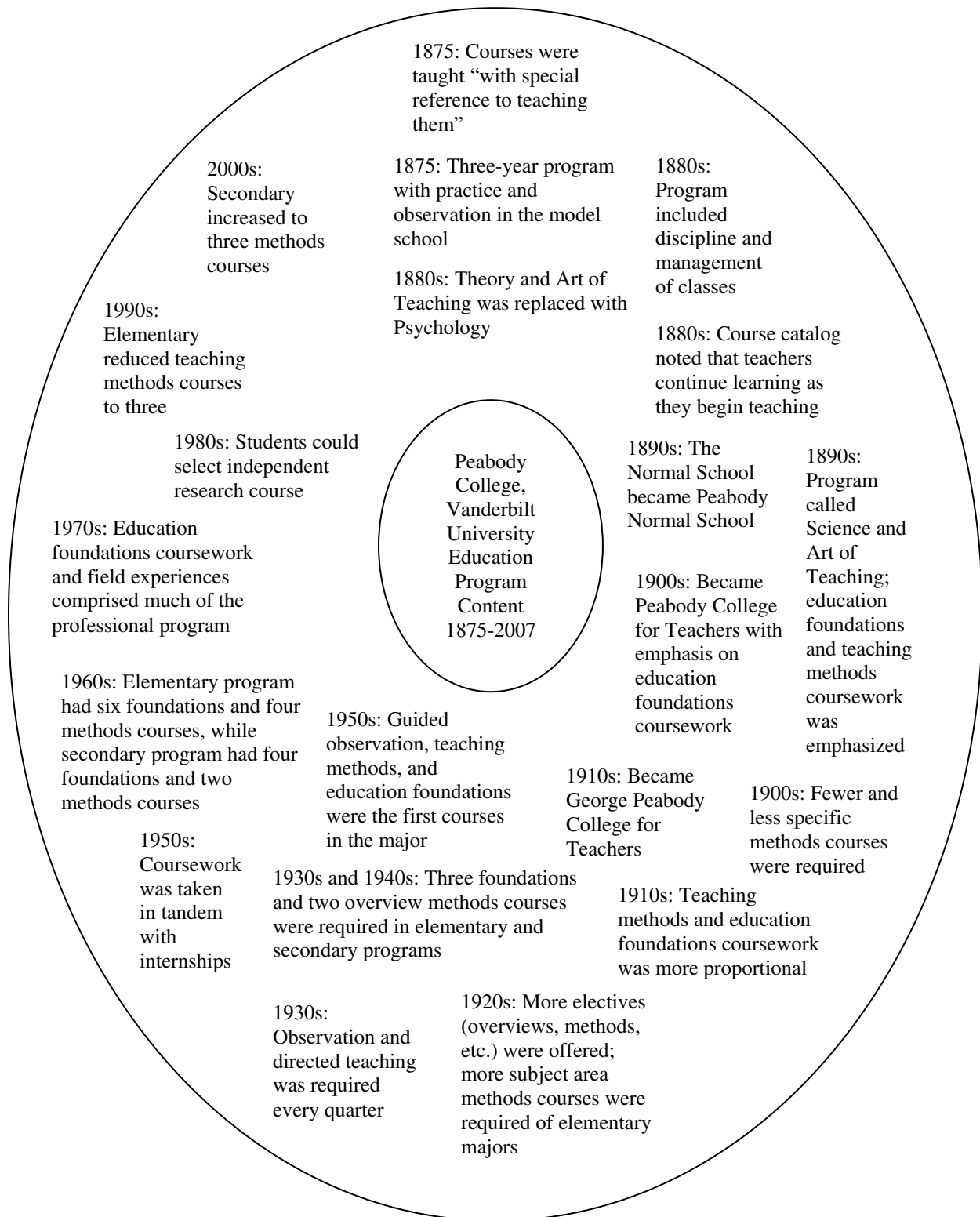
Once more research on teacher education is complete, it is imperative that findings be used to impart change. This may involve changing coursework, field experiences, the length of the pre-service program, or all of these elements to change the way teachers are prepared to enter the classroom. Surveys of new teacher needs must not have the same results in another ten years. With more information regarding the needs of beginning teachers, teacher educators can build better programs and better educators; therefore building a well-educated society.

**APPENDIX A: CIRCLE MAPS TO DEFINE TEACHER PREPARATION
PROGRAM CONTENT FROM 1839 TO 2007 IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
WHICH ORIGINATED AS TEACHER NORMAL SCHOOLS**

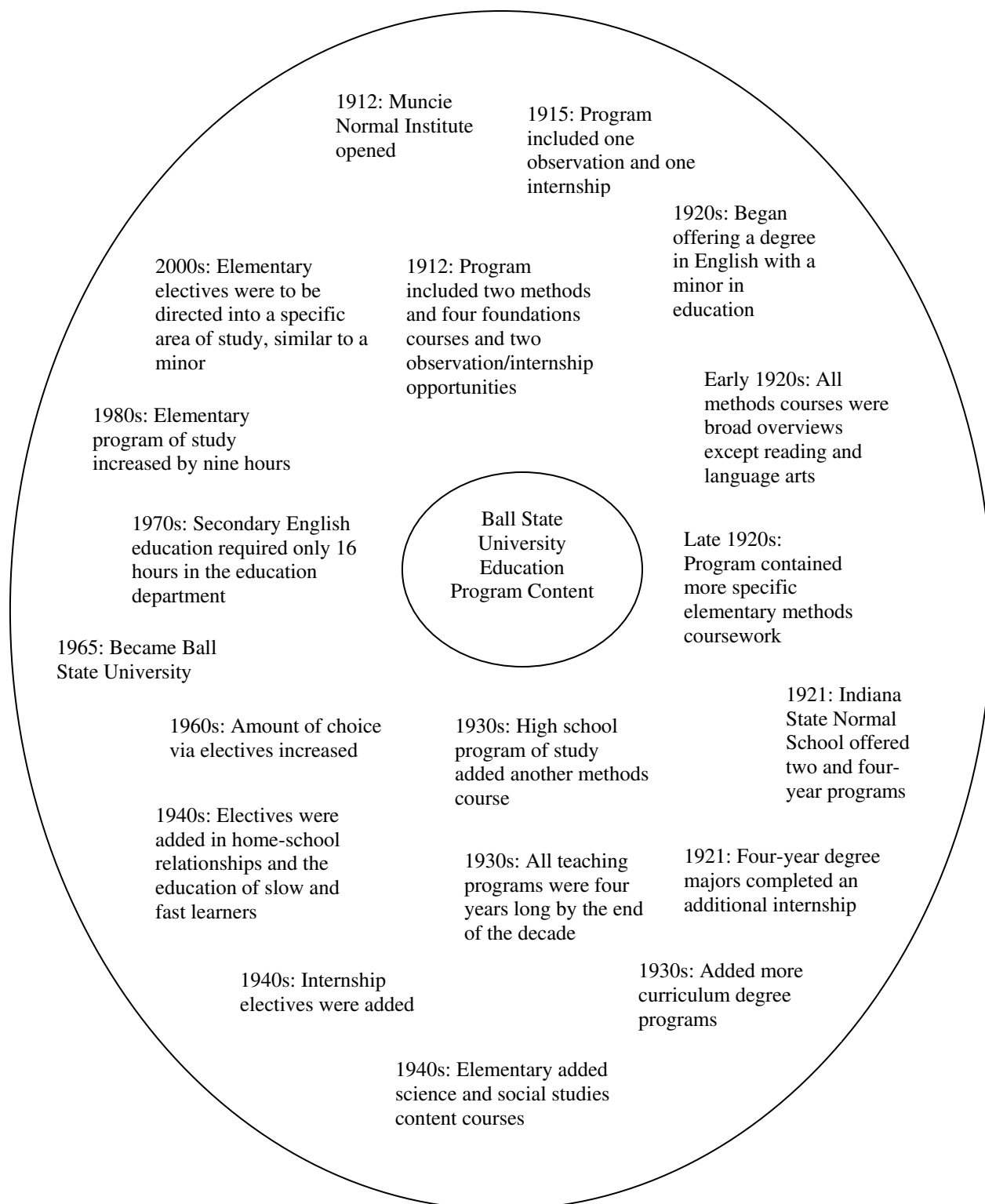
Framingham State College Circle Map



Peabody College, Vanderbilt University Circle Map



Ball State University Circle Map



**APPENDIX B: SELECTED EXCERPTS FROM UNDERGRADUATE COURSE
CATALOGS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHICH ORIGINATED AS
TEACHER NORMAL SCHOOLS**

Framingham State College, 1844
"The Normal School"

TERMS AND VACATIONS.

There are three terms in the year; one of 12, and the other two of 15 weeks each. The Winter term of 12 weeks, commences on the 2d Wednesday in January; the Summer term, of 15 weeks, commences on the 2d Wednesday in April; and the Autumn term, on the 2d Wednesday in September. Between the Summer and Autumn term, there is a vacation of 6 weeks; between each of the other terms, a vacation of 2 weeks. The pupils who live in the vicinity, have leave to go home on Saturday morning, and stay until Monday morning.

No session will be held either on Thanksgiving or Anniversary week, after Wednesday.

EXAMINATIONS.

The school is visited and examined by the *Visiting Committee* at the close of each term; and there is an annual public examination held at the end of the autumn term.

TUITION.

For those who live in the State, and purpose to keep public schools in the State, tuition is free,—for all others it is \$10 per term. At the beginning of each term, each pupil pays to the Principal \$1 25, to meet incidental expenses. The whole annual expense is about \$100.

BOARD.

Board may be had in good families for \$2 to \$2 25 per week, including fuel and washing. Some of the pupils take rooms, and board themselves at a lower rate.

LIBRARY AND APPARATUS.

A well selected library, consisting mostly of works on Education, has been procured. Also, a well assorted apparatus for the illustration of principles in Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, &c.

COURSE OF STUDY.

English branches only are taught in the School.

STUDIES.

JUNIORS.

1. Orthography—Worcester's Dictionary, and promiscuous selections, Fowle's Common School Speller and Companion to Spelling Books.
2. Enunciation and Reading—Russell's Orthophony, The Normal Chart, Bunstead's and Fowle's Tables.
3. Geography and Map Drawing—Fowle's and Morse's Geography, and various Outline Maps.
4. Writing—National Writing Book.
5. Arithmetic—Colburn's First Lessons and Sequel, Greenleaf's, &c.
6. Physiology—Combe's and Cutler's.
7. Punctuation—Rules from Wells's Grammar and examples.
8. Phonography.
9. Drawing—Fowle's "Eye and Hand."

MIDDLE CLASS.

1. Orthography.
2. Writing.
3. Reading.
4. Ancient Geography and Map Drawing—Worcester's Ancient Geography.
5. Arithmetic. } Selections from various authors.
6. Phonography. }
7. The Globes—Problems.
8. Algebra—Colburn's, Davies', and Sherwin's.
9. Geometry—Plane, Solid—Thomson's Legendre.
10. Grammar—De Sacy's, Fowle's, Wells's.
11. Scripture Reading.
12. History—Willson's U. S.

SENIORS.

1. Algebra—Sherwin's, Davies', Bourdon's.
2. Geometry—Davies'.
3. Reading, and Scripture Reading.
4. Orthography.
5. Natural Philosophy—Olmstead's.
6. Astronomy—Olmstead's.
7. Rhetoric—Newman's.
8. Constitution of U. S., Story's; Sullivan's Political Class Book.

9. Book-keeping—Thomas's or Winchester's, also by general lessons, and Comer's.
10. Moral Philosophy—Wayland's, Combe's.
11. Mental do.

EX-SENIORS.

- Some of the foregoing, together with—
1. Trigonometry—Davies'.
 2. Surveying—Davies'.
 3. Spherical Geometry—Davies'.

All the school attend to vocal music, drawing, and composition, during the entire year.

Moral Philosophy is taught to the whole school in remarks, or familiar lectures from the Principal, in connection with the opening exercises in the morning.

A general lesson, or lecture, is given to the whole school, immediately after the morning recess, each day. Subjects, miscellaneous, moral, scientific and historical.

On one day of the week, the school engage in a general teaching exercise, when the pupils choose their subjects, and teach before the whole school. Written questions, in various departments, are also occasionally given out for discussion or solution.

Connected with the school is a model department or experimental school, which is also intended to be a preparatory school to the Normal Department. In this, the pupils of the senior class of the Normal School teach in rotation, under the supervision of a permanent Principal.

For five days in the week, the school holds two sessions a day, of 3 to 3 1/2 hours each.

The pupils are expected to devote from 2 to 2 1/2 hours each day to study out of school.

Each term, the members of the lower classes are examined for advancement to higher classes.

GRADUATES.

Graduates of the School are requested to report themselves, their schools, &c. to the Principal, and thus enable him to assist them in procuring Schools.

From *Course Catalog*, The Normal School, 1844. Copyright 1844 by The Normal School. Reprinted courtesy of Henry Whittemore Library, Framingham State College.

Framingham State College, 1937
 "State Teachers College at Framingham"

8

the method stated below. Candidates will then be admitted in the order of their total scores until the capacity of the teachers college has been reached.

(a) Scholarship will be allowed 75 points for 15 units of work.

(b) Personality will be allowed 25 points.

As a basis of computing the total score from the scholarship record, as submitted by the high school principal, a mark of "A" will be given 5 points; "B" 4 points; "C" 3 points; "D" 2 points.

As a basis of computing the personality record, which includes ten characteristics exclusive of health, a mark of "Excellent" will be allowed 2½ points; "Good" 2 points; "Fair" 1½ points; "Poor" 1 point.

VII. Place, Time, and Division of Examination. Entrance examinations may be taken in June and September at any state teachers college (including the Massachusetts School of Art) at the convenience of the applicant. A candidate may take all the examinations at one time or divide them between June and September. It is to be understood, however, that the number of applicants admitted as a result of the September examinations is limited to the facilities of the teachers colleges. Permanent credit will be given for any units secured by examination or certification.

VIII. Admission as Advanced Students. A graduate of a normal school or a college may be admitted as a regular or advanced student, under conditions approved by the Department.

SCHEDULE OF ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS FOR 1937 and 1938

JUNE 3 AND SEPTEMBER 13, 1937

JUNE 2 AND SEPTEMBER 12, 1938

(Candidates are required to register one-half hour before their first examination)

8:30—10:30	English Literature and Composition.	
10:30—12:30	Latin; Commercial Subjects:	
	Latin	Commercial Geography
	Stenography (including Typewriting)	Commercial Law
	Bookkeeping	
1:30—4:30	Social Studies:	
	American History and Civics	Economics
	Medieval and Modern History	Problems of Democracy
	Community Civics	Ancient History
	History to about 1700	English History
	European History since 1700	
		JUNE 4 AND SEPTEMBER 14, 1937
		JUNE 3 AND SEPTEMBER 13, 1938
8:30—10:30	Mathematics:	
	Algebra	Geometry
	Arithmetic	College Review Mathematics
10:30—12:30	Modern Foreign Language:	
	French	German
	Spanish	Italian
1:30—3:30	Science:	
	General Science	Physical Geography
	Biology, Botany or Zoology	Physiology and Hygiene
	Chemistry	Astronomy
	Physics	Geology
3:30—5:00	Fine and Practical Arts:	
	Home Economics	Manual Training
	Drawing	Music

COLLEGE YEAR BEGINS

September 20, 1937

September 19, 1938

LENGTH OF COURSES AND DEGREE

All courses offered are four years in length and, with the exception of the diploma courses at the Massachusetts School of Art, lead to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education.

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DEPARTMENTS OF THE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE AT FRAMINGHAM

There are three departments in this institution to which the admission requirements are the same except as below indicated.

The **Elementary Department** offers a four-year curriculum leading to the degree Bachelor of Science in Education for students preparing to teach in the first six grades of the elementary schools. (At present, in addition to the six grades, opportunity is provided for observation and practice by a limited number in grades VII and VIII in some of the schools of nearby towns and cities.)

The **Department of Household Arts** offers a four-year curriculum leading to the degree Bachelor of Science in Education.

In this department a graduate of the former three-year course may return for a fourth year and on the satisfactory completion of this additional year's work receive the degree Bachelor of Science in Education.

The **Department of Vocational Household Arts** also offers a four-year curriculum leading to the same degree Bachelor of Science in Education, for students at least seventeen years of age, presenting

1. Satisfactory evidence of at least two years' actual experience with a large share of responsibility either as house daughter or wage earner in the work of the house, including cooking, sewing, marketing, and general management.
2. Graduation from a four-year course in High School as indicated on page 6 or an approved vocational school of senior high school grade with evidence of satisfactory scholarship and qualifications.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR THE ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT

In cooperation with the School Committee of Framingham, students of the Elementary Department are allowed opportunities for observation, for participation, and for practice teaching in the Jonathan Maynard School. This is a public school for all grades from one to eight, situated at Framingham Center, a short distance from the State Teachers College.

Here, early in the course, students under guidance study children at their work and play. Sometimes they participate in the simpler phases of the teaching. In these two ways the study in the Teachers College is connected with the work of the children and so is made meaningful.

Here also students do practice teaching under guidance of experienced and interested teachers.

Many towns in the vicinity of Framingham give similar opportunities for practice teaching in their schools. This work is carried on under the direction of the Supervisor of Teacher Training. These contacts with the field of service are very important in the education of the prospective teachers.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF HOUSEHOLD ARTS

The training work for this department is very broad in its scope. In the third year each student teaches independently classes in Foods and Clothing in Framingham or some of the neighboring cities and towns. These classes are made up from elementary and secondary schools. All of this practice teaching is done under careful supervision.

Such an arrangement for training affords the pupil teacher a rare opportunity to become acquainted with the problems of general school organization and management in both elementary and secondary schools. Being in a great measure responsible for the control of her classes in these centers, she learns some of the lessons of discipline for herself and for her pupils.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL HOUSEHOLD ARTS

Each student, with satisfactory record, serves as an apprentice teacher in Vocational, or other schools in various localities of the State during the third year for nine weeks, five days per week. She conducts classes in Foods, Clothing, and other homemaking and related subjects under the supervision of the local teacher and the head of the Vocational Household Arts Department at Framingham. An adjust-

Content of Course.—The program of study is planned to meet the particular needs of the individual in accordance with her previous trade or home experience. All students are required to take English, Psychology, Methods of Teaching, and one elementary course in Foods. Students majoring in Foods instruction must also demonstrate their practical ability by residence in the Vocational House for at least one quarter of the school year.

For information.—For general information concerning living expenses, tuition, books, intention to teach, etc., see page 10. For further information, see pages for the four-year vocational course, or write to Miss Lombard.

EXTENSION COURSES

In affiliation with the Division of University Extension of the State Department of Education, graduates of the three-year Household Arts course at Framingham are offered credit courses of collegiate grade to qualify for the Degree of Bachelor of Science in Education.

The required work of 30 semester hours is as follows:

	Semester Hours
I. Education (10 semester hours)	
Secondary Education	2
Advanced Educational Psychology	2
Test and Measurements	2
Educational Sociology	2
Elective (to make total of 10)	4
} Choice of three, totaling 6 semester hours	
II. Subject-matter Courses	
Technical	6
Elective	14

Graduates of the teachers college who wish to matriculate for the degree under the provisions of the University Extension courses should address their communications to Mr. Workman. Graduates of the former Elementary Department two years' course are required to return for one year in residence, or attend five successive summer sessions at Massachusetts Teachers Colleges, after which they may finish the requirements for the degree through the provisions of the Extension Courses.

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT

Candidates for the B. S. in Ed. degree are required to earn 120 semester credits. The term "semester credit" represents one scheduled hour of work per week for one semester (18 weeks). Two laboratory periods are rated as equal to one lecture or one recitation period. Preparation outside of class is required in all courses. In general, one hour of study is required for each class period. (See page 17.)

I. ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT

Designed for students preparing to teach in the elementary schools.
Each period is sixty minutes in length.

Name and Number of Course	Number of Weeks	Number of Periods Weekly	Semester Credit
FIRST YEAR			
Art 1. Introduction to Art	18	4	3
Education 1. Introduction to Education	18	3	3
Education 13. Orientation	18	1	4
English 1. Composition	18	2	4
English 2. Story-telling	18	1	1
English 3. Oral expression	18	1	1
English 4. Library Science	18	1	1½
English 11. Penmanship (I)	18	1	1
Geography 1. Human Geography and Methods	18	4	4½
History 1. History of Civilization	18	4	4
Music 1. Elementary Theory	18	2	2
Music 2. Chorus	36	1	1½
Physical Education 1. Games and Skills	36	2	2
Physical Education 2. Personal and Community Hygiene	18	2	2
Science 1. Biology	36	3	6
SECOND YEAR			
Art 2. Elementary Art—Methods	18	2	1½
Education 2. Educational Psychology and Observation	18	4	4
English 5. English Literature	18	3	3
English 6. American Literature	18	3	3
English 7. Reading Methods	18	2	2
English 12. Penmanship (II)	18	1	1½
Geography 2. Geography of North America	18	3	3
History 2. American History and Methods	18	3	3
Mathematics 1 and 2. Teaching of Arithmetic	18	3	3
Music 3. Problems in Teaching Music	18	2	2
Music 4. Music Appreciation	18	1	1
Physical Education 3. Elementary School Practices	36	2	2
Theory of School Practices	18	1	1
Science 2. Professionalized Elementary School Science	18	2	2
Science 3. Physical Science	18	2	2
Social Science 1. Sociology	18	3	3
THIRD YEAR			
Art 3. Art Appreciation	9	4	2
Education 3. Advanced Educational Psychology	18	4	4
Education 4. Problems of Teaching and Management (I) (1937-38)	9	3	1½
Education 5. Practice Teaching (I) (1937-38)	9	20	4
Education 6. Educational Measurements (1936-37)	9	4	2
Education 7. History of Education (1936-37)	9	4	2
Education 9. Problems of Teaching and Management (II) (1936-37)	9	3	1½
Education 10. Practice Teaching (II) (1936-37)	9	20	4
English 8. Literature	18	3	3
English 9. Intermediate-Grade Language	9	4	2
English 10. Reading Methods for Intermediate Grades (1936-37)	9	2	1
Geography 3. Geography of Europe	18	3	3
History 3. Citizenship	9	4	2
Mathematics 3. Survey Course	18	3	3
Music 5. Music Appreciation	9	2	1
Music 6. Chorus	18	1	1½
Physical Education 4. Advanced Physical Activities	27	2	1½
Physical Education 5. School Health Education	18	1	1
Science 3. Physical Science (1936-37)	9	4	2
Social Science 1. Sociology (1936-37)	9	4	2
FOURTH YEAR			
Education 11. Principles of Education	9	2	1
Education 12. Practice Teaching III	9	20	5
English 14. Modern Drama	9	4	2
English 15. Advanced English Composition	9	4	2
English 17. Modern Literature	18	3	3
Geography 4. See page 22	18	3	3
History 4. See page 22	18	3	3
Music 7. Music Appreciation	9	2	1
Physical Education 6. Recreation	27	2	1½
Social Science 2. Economics	18	3	3
Social Science 3. Educational Sociology	9	4	2
Science 4. See page 24	9	4	2
ELECTIVES			
Art 4. Blackboard Drawing and Industrial Art	18	4	2
Education 8. Psychology of Personality	18	3	3
English 13. Penmanship (III)—Lettering	18	1	1½
English 16. Dramatics	9	2	1
French 1. Survey of French Literature	9	2	1
French 2. Survey of French Literature	18	2	2
French 3. Literature	18	3	3
French 4. Literature	9	3	1½

COURSES IN CURRICULUM FOR ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT

ART

1. Introduction to Art. Miss Nietzold. First year. Eighteen weeks; four periods weekly. Three credits.

This is an introduction to the work in drawing. It includes simple problems in representation, color and design.

2. Elementary Art Methods. Miss Nietzold. Second year. Eighteen weeks; two periods weekly. One and one-half credits.

This course includes blackboard rendering, lettering, etc. Teaching methods are given in various phases of the school arts for the first six grades.

3. Art Appreciation. Mr. Ried and Miss Nietzold. Third year. Nine weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

This course presents a study of important phases in architecture, painting, sculpture, crafts and influence of art on modern commercial products.

4. Elective. Blackboard Drawing and Industrial Art. Miss Nietzold. Fourth year. Eighteen weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

This course aims to give the best specialized methods and devices in the teaching of design, color, and delineation for the elementary school. Blackboard drawing for illustrative purposes is taught. The course is taught in the regular classroom without special equipment.

EDUCATION

1. Introduction to Education. Miss Rochefort. First year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

This course is planned to help the student to gain some understanding of the part played by education in modern life—its objectives; its many agencies; their interrelations and respective fields. It is planned also to help the student to study opportunities for service; characteristics of child-activity at different age levels; qualifications required for teaching in the elementary schools of Massachusetts; lines of study needed in preparation for such work. About one-third of the time will be spent in observation in the Jonathan Maynard School. This experience will form the basis for much of the class discussion and reading.

2. Educational Psychology and Observation. Miss Armstrong. Second year. Eighteen weeks; four periods. Four credits.

A study of how the human mind reacts to its environment. The course includes a brief summary of the physiological basis of acting and thinking; instinctive behavior and how it is modified; specific emphasis on habit formation and economical ways of learning; interest and attention.

One period is devoted to observation in the Training School where the reactions of children can be noted and psychological principles of learning can be seen in operation.

3. Advanced Educational Psychology. Miss Armstrong. Third year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

A continuation of Introduction to Psychology. Topics such as transfer of training, selective thinking, mental efficiency, mental hygiene, individual differences and others not studied in Education 2 are considered in their relation to teaching. One-third of the time is given to a study of the development and characteristics of children of elementary school age. A study of an individual child is required of each student. Another third of the course is used for analyzing and applying the psychology underlying the principal school subjects and considering the results of experiments in this field.

4. Problems of Teaching and Management (I). Miss Rochefort. Third year. Nine weeks; three periods weekly. One and one-half credits. (Omitted in 1936-7.)

This course parallels the first course in Practice Teaching. It is a problem course based upon the experience of students in the classroom and is conducted in such manner as to connect their theory work with the problems.

5. Practice Teaching (I). Miss Rochefort. Third year. Nine weeks; four days weekly or twenty hours. Four credits.

This is a laboratory course in observation and teaching of children. In it the student-teacher studies, plans, and carries out the simpler phases of the work of a teacher under the guidance of the regular classroom teacher and the supervisor. This work is carried on in the Jonathan Maynard School and in schools of neighboring towns and cities. (Omitted in 1936-7.)

6. Educational Measurements. Miss Armstrong. Third year. Nine weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

In this course the fundamental aims in giving intelligence tests and standard educational tests are emphasized; group tests suitable for Grades I-VIII are examined and instruction given in administering them; an opportunity is given for correcting the papers of at least one standard test given to an elementary grade. The scores are tabulated, graphed and interpretations of the findings made.

7. History of Education. Miss Larned. Third year. Nine weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

The main object of this course is to interpret modern education in the light of historical development. It will familiarize the student with the most important names and movements in the evolution of education from the primitive to the present complex and highly organized form.

8. Elective. Psychology of Personality. Miss Armstrong. Fourth year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

The student analyzes her own personality paying particular attention to those qualities desirable in a teacher and the manner in which they may be acquired. The effects of one personality upon another and especially those of a teacher upon the pupils are considered. Some attention is given to disintegrating factors, what the common ones are, how they may be detected in children and how they can be overcome or avoided.

9. Problems of Teaching and Management (II). Miss Rochefort. Third year. Nine weeks; three periods weekly. One and one-half credits.

This course parallels the second course in Practice Teaching. It consists of more advanced units of study than are given in Practice Teaching (I), and includes a study of the ethics of the profession of teaching; conditions of advancement; opportunities for continued study and growth; and the general laws of Massachusetts relating to education.

10. Practice Teaching (II). Miss Rochefort. Third year. Nine weeks; four days weekly or twenty hours. Four credits.

This course is similar to Practice Teaching (I). Since it comes in the senior year it includes more advanced units of study. Much of this work is carried on in the schools of neighboring towns and cities, but under the guidance of the supervisor.

11. Principles of Education. Miss Rochefort. Fourth year. Nine weeks; two hours weekly. One credit.

This is an integrating course giving opportunity for summarizing and relating previous work in education. It parallels Practice Teaching III.

12. Practice Teaching (III). Miss Rochefort. Fourth year. Nine weeks; four days weekly. Five credits.

This course will give to advanced students an opportunity for greater responsibility in teaching. Members of the class will study intensively along lines of their special interests.

13. Freshman Orientation. Miss Savage. First year. Eighteen weeks; one period weekly.

The purpose of this course is to present subjects for discussion or study which will aid the student in becoming adjusted to her new environment and in developing her individual resources to the best advantage.

ENGLISH

1. Composition. Miss Gerritson. First year. Thirty-six weeks; two periods weekly. Four credits.

This course aims primarily to help the student improve her oral and written expression. It emphasizes the value of personal experience as a source for ideas, and utilizes literature for its power to suggest ideas and to illustrate form and style.

It includes the study of those language techniques and rhetorical principles of most value to the student.

2. Story-telling. Miss Carter. First year. Eighteen weeks; one period weekly. One credit.

This course gives the principles of story-telling, practice in story-telling, and sources for suitable stories to tell in the primary grades.

3. Oral Expression. Miss Kingman. First year. Eighteen weeks; one period weekly. One credit.

This course includes a study of the fundamentals of speech with training in voice, posture, and poise in relation to professional environment; exercises in oral reading with emphasis on phrasing, sympathetic inflection, and bodily control; exercises in parliamentary procedure and original speech. Text book.

4. Library Science. Miss Ritchie. First year. Eighteen weeks; one period weekly. One-half credit.

This course aims to acquaint the student with the efficient use of the resources of the library; the printed book; the card catalog; the decimal classification; and the most important reference books.

5. Nineteenth Century English Literature. Miss Gerritson. Second year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

A study of nineteenth century literature in England as the expression of the principal trends of its civilization. This course includes lectures, discussions, supplementary reading, oral reading, and occasional reports.

6. American Literature. Miss Carter. Second year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

This is a survey course in American literature with the main emphasis on the late eighteenth and the nineteenth century writers. The course consists of lectures, discussions, field trips, and special reports.

7. Reading Methods for Primary and Intermediate Grades. Miss Carter. Second year. Eighteen weeks; two periods weekly. Two credits.

The aim of this course is to prepare students to teach reading in the primary and intermediate grades. Emphasis is placed on types of reading, seat-work, check-ups, and remedial work.

8. Literature. Miss Gerritson. Third year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

This course is primarily a lecture course with supplementary readings. It is designed to give the student background—a general survey of the principal movements in the development of English literature. Students are responsible for reading, and discussing, as far as time allows, type material illustrating different movements.

9. Intermediate-Grade Language. Miss Gerritson. Third year. Nine weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

This course considers typical oral and written expression problems in the intermediate grades, and methods of solving these problems. It includes methods of teaching (1) the technical details of written expression, (2) appropriate grammatical facts, and (3) the use of the dictionary.

10. Reading Methods for Intermediate Grades. Miss Carter. Third year. Nine weeks; two periods weekly. One credit.

Problems of silent and oral reading in the intermediate grades. The course emphasizes silent reading, to be followed by various types of checks; and oral reading as needed in life situations.

11. Penmanship (I). Mr. Doner. First year. Eighteen weeks; one period weekly. One-half credit.

Skill, fluency and right habit formation in penmanship are developed through practice on drills, letters, words, sentences and paragraphs. Correlation with all other written subjects is an important aim.

12. Penmanship (II). Mr. Doner. Second year. Eighteen weeks; one period weekly. One-half credit.

The principles of teaching penmanship in all grades are made the basis of this course. Projects are worked out for correlation in the various school subjects.



HORACE MANN HALL — DORMITORY

Handwriting is studied as a language tool. Training is given in practice, teaching, grading, correcting and measuring handwriting. Class discussions of modern, present-day methods of teaching in the grades.

13. **Elective. Penmanship (III). Old English, German, and McGraw-Hill Text Lettering.** Mr. Doner. Fourth year. Eighteen weeks. One period weekly. One-half credit.

An elective course open to degree senior students.

14. **Modern Drama.** Miss Gerritson. Fourth year. Nine weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

This course emphasizes the relation between life and the drama. It considers types of modern drama; movements in modern drama; and the technique of modern drama. Required reading of many plays.

15. **Elective. Advanced English Composition.** Miss Carter. Fourth year. Nine weeks; four periods weekly. Two credits.

This course offers the student practice in creative writing, with emphasis upon material suitable for assembly programs in the elementary schools.

16. **Elective. Dramatics.** Miss Kingman. Fourth year. Nine weeks; two hours weekly. One credit.

Students electing this course may select from the following phases of dramatic work: a public performance of plays for experience in stage design, lighting, make-up, directing, acting and costuming; the production of a puppet show for puppet construction and manipulation; and a radio broadcast for study of radio speech and studio etiquette.

17. **Modern Literature.** Miss Carter. Fourth year. Eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

This course aims to introduce students to recent English and American novelists and poets representative of modern tendencies in literature. Through readings and discussions, the purpose and style of the author are stressed.

FRENCH

1. **Elective. French Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century.** Miss Larned. Third year. First semester; nine weeks; two periods weekly. One credit.

Open to those who have completed two or more years of French in an accredited high school.

2. **Elective. Victor Hugo and His Literary Contemporaries.** Miss Larned. Third year. Second semester; eighteen weeks; two periods weekly. Two credits.

Open to those who have completed French 1 or the equivalent.

3. **Elective. Introduction to the Study of Literature.** Miss Larned. Fourth year. First semester; eighteen weeks; three periods weekly. Three credits.

A study of French literature up to the French Revolution, with particular attention to writers of the classical period.

Open to those who have completed two or more years of French in an accredited High School.

4. **Elective. French Literature Since 1870.** Miss Larned. Fourth year. Second semester; nine weeks; three periods weekly. One and one-half credits.

Modern and contemporary literature with intensive study of selected works of several important authors.

Open to those who have successfully completed French 1, 2, or 3.

(Whenever special training in phonetics or methods seems advisable, French 3 will be shortened to release eight or ten hours for this work. The credits for the course will remain the same.)

GEOGRAPHY

1. **Human Geography and Problems in the Teaching of Geography.** Miss Ramsdell. First year. Eighteen weeks; four periods weekly. Four credits.

The subject matter deals with human adjustments to physical environments;

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Peabody College, Vanderbilt University, 1895
 "Peabody Normal College"

Course of Study.

GREEK—*Professor Huntington.*

Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Beginner's Course: Grammar, Translation, and Syntax. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, T, W, 11. Sec. II—M, Th, F, 10.

COURSE 3. Anabasis. Three hours a week. M, W, F, 4.

COURSE 5. Homer's Iliad. Three hours a week. M, T, Th, 9:15.

COURSE 7. Herodotus, Books III. or VII. Jebb's Primer of Greek Literature, with English collateral reading. Three hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Continuation of Course 1. Three hours a week. Sec. I—T, Th, F, 11. Sec. II—T, Th, F, 10.

COURSE 4. Continuation of Course 3. Three hours a week. M, W, F, 4.

COURSE 6. Continuation of Course 5. Jebb's Primer of Greek Literature. Three hours a week. M, T, Th, 9:15.

COURSE 8. Selections from Greek Tragedy. Three hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor.

LATIN—*Professor Lampson and Mr. Little.*

Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts; 1, 2, 3, 4, for Bachelor of Science; 1, 2, 3, 4, for Bachelor of Painting and for Licentiate of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Cæsar, Gallic War. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, F, 3. Sec. II—T, W, Th, 11. Sec. III—M, W, F, 4.

COURSE 3. Cicero, Orations. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, S; F, 12. Sec. II—T, Th, F, 8.

COURSE 5. Livy, Books XXI. and XXII. Three hours a week. T, W, Th, 12.

COURSE 7. Quintilian, Books X. and XII. Three hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor.

COURSE 11. Latin Writing, based on the work in Cæsar. One hour a week. Hour arranged by instructor.

COURSE 13. Latin Writing, based on work in Cicero. Preceded by Course 12. One hour a week. Hour arranged by instructor.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Cæsar, Gallic War. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, F, 3. Sec. II—T, W, Th, 11. Sec. III—M, W, F, 4.

COURSE 4. Cicero, Orations. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, F, 8. Sec. II—T, Th, 8; W, 12.

COURSE 4a. Vergil, Æneid. To be preceded by Courses 1, 2, 3. Three hours a week.

COURSE 6. Ovid, Selections from the Metamorphoses. Three hours a week. M, T, 12; F, 11.

COURSE 8. Horace, Selections from the Odes and Satires. Three hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor.

COURSE 12. Latin Writing, based on work in Cæsar. Preceded by Course 11. One hour a week. Hour arranged by instructor.

COURSE 14. Latin Writing, based on work in Cicero. One hour a week. Hour arranged by instructor.

COURSE 16. Greek and Roman Mythology. A study of Greek and Roman Myths, as illustrated in ancient sculptures and vase-paintings. Lectures and recitations, with versification. Open only to those who receive special permission. Two hours a week. T, Th, 5.

SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING.

Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, and Bachelor of Letters; 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, for Bachelor of Painting and Licentiate of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Page—Theory and Practice. Two hours a

week. Sec. I—M, W, 9:15. Sec. II—M, F, 11. Sec. III—M, Th, 10. *Professor Rose.*

COURSE 4. Science of Education—Lectures. Text-book Contributions to the Science of Education, Payne. Three hours a week. T, W, Th, 10. *The President.*

COURSE 7. Primary Methods—Lectures on Reading, Writing, Numbers, Form, and Color. Reports of observation of work in Model School upon these subjects are required. One hour a week. M, 2. *Miss Glover.*

COURSE 9. Goethe's Wilhelm Meister. Two hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor. *Professor Rose.*

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Payne—Outlines of Educational Doctrine. Two hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, 11. Sec. II—T, 8; F, 11. Sec. III—M, F, 9:15. *Professor Rose.*

COURSE 3. Compayré—Lectures on Pedagogy. Three hours a week. T, Th, 9:15; M, 12. *Professor Rose.*

COURSE 5. History of Education, Compayré. Lectures and Text-book. Three hours a week. M, W, F, 10. *Professor Rose.*

COURSE 6. School Supervision, Payne—Lectures, and Text-book. Two hours a week. M, W, 3. *The President.*

COURSE 8. Primary Method—Lectures on Language, Geography, History, and Elementary Natural Science. Reports required. One hour a week. M, 2. *Miss Glover.*

PHILOSOPHY—*Professor Rose.*

Courses 1, 2, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts; 1 for Bachelor of Science; 1, 2, for Bachelor of Letters; 1 for Bachelor of Painting and for Licentiate of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Psychology, Compayré. Three hours a week. Sec. I—W, F, 10; Th, 11. Sec. II—T, Th, F, 9:15.

COURSE 3. Logic. Text-book, Elements of Logic. Noah K. Davis. Two hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Psychology, a Critical Study. Text-book: Elements of Psychology, Noah K. Davis. Three hours a week. W, Th, F, 12.

COURSE 4. Ethics. Theory of Morals, Janet. Two hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor.

MATHEMATICS—*Miss Sears and Mr. Little.*

Courses 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts, and Bachelor of Science; 1, 3, 4, 5, for Bachelor of Letters; 1, 3, 5, for Bachelor of Painting and for Licentiate of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Algebra. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, F, 10. Sec. II—T, Th, F, 12. Sec. III—T, Th, F, 11. *Mr. Little.*

COURSE 4. Solid Geometry. Two hours a week. T, Th, 11:15. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 5. Plane Trigonometry. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, F, 9:15. Sec. II—T, W, 10; F, 11. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 7. Analytical Geometry. Three hours a week. M, F, 10; W, 8. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 9. Calculus. Two hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor. *Miss Sears.*

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 3. Plane Geometry completed, beginning with book III. Four hours a week. Sec. I—M, W, F, 9:15; T, 8. Sec. II—M, 11; T, Th, F, 9:15. Sec. III—M, W, F, 10; T, 11. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 6. Spherical Trigonometry. Two hours a week. Th, 8. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 8. Analytical Geometry. Continuation of Course 7. Two hours a week. T, Th, 10. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 10. Calculus. Continuation of Course 9. Two hours a week. Hours arranged by instructor. *Miss Sears.*

COURSE 11. Surveying.

Olney's Algebra, Wentworth's Geometry, and Taylor's Calculus are used.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE—*Professor Vance and Mr. Andrews.*

Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science; 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, for Bachelor of Letters; 1, 2, for Bachelor of Pedagogy and Licentiate of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Genuug: Outlines of Rhetoric. The sentence as a unit of style. Illustrative exercises, discussions, and criticisms. Three hours a week. Sec. I—T, W, F, 11. Sec. II—M, T, Th, 10. Sec. III—M, W, F, 9:15.

COURSE 4. Rhetorical Analysis. Baker's Specimens of Argumentation—briefs, debates, and themes. Preceded by Course 3. Two hours a week. W, F, 12.

COURSE 5. Anglo-Saxon. Cook's First Book in Old English, with exercises, and Sievers' Old English Grammar. The grammar and literary types of the West-Saxon idiom. Three hours a week. M, T, Th, 8.

COURSE 7. Beowulf—Studied as a literary masterpiece. The student's investigations to be embodied in a theme suggested by the Professor. Preceded by Course 6. One hour a week. Hour arranged by instructor.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Literary Invention. Wendell's English Composition, Baldwin's Specimens of Prose Description, and Brewster's Specimens of Narration—essays and criticisms. Three hours a week. Sec. I—T, Th, 10; W, 12. Sec. II—M, W, F, 10. Sec. III—M, 12; W, 9:15 F, 11.

COURSE 3. Smith's Reading and Speaking—class-room exercises. Preceded by Course 2. Two hours a week. W, Th, 11.

COURSE 6 a. Anglo-Saxon. Prose and Poetical Texts, Dialects. Literary and Political History. Two hours a week. T, Th, 8. b. Lounsbury's History of English. One hour a week. M, 8.

COURSE 8. Middle English. Skeat's Specimens of English Literature. A study of the development of English. Preceded by Course 6. One hour a week. Hour arranged by instructor.

ENGLISH LITERATURE—*Professor Bourland.*

Courses 1, 2, 4, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts; 1, 2, for Bachelor of Science; 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, for Bachelor of Letters; 1, 2, for Bachelor of Pedagogy and Licentiate of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. An Introduction to the Study of American Literature, Brander Matthews; Irving's Sketch Book, Selections, Eclectic English Classics; Hawthorne's Mosses from an Old Manse, Salem Edition; Emerson's American Scholar, Eclectic English Classics; Poe's Raven, and Other Poems, English Classic Series. Sec. I—T, Th, 9:15. Sec. II—M, W, 9:15.

COURSE 3. The Modern Period; Carlyle's Burns, English Classic Series; Coleridge's Principles of Criticism, George; The Rime of the Ancient Mariner, Eclectic English Classics; Wordsworth's Selected Poems, English Classic Series; Shelley's Prometheus Unbound, Scudder. Text-book for consultation: Saintsbury's Nineteenth Century Literature. Three hours a week. M, T, Th, 12.

COURSE 4. Masterpiece Course: Shakespeare and his Predecessors, Boas; Marlowe's Dr. Faustus, Wagner, London Series; Selected Plays of Shakespeare, Arden Edition. Prose: Bacon's Advancement of Learning, Book II. Selby; Hooker's Ecclesiastical Polity, Book I, Church. Three hours a week. W, Th, F, 11.

COURSE 6. Philosophy of English Literature, White; Sweet's Second Middle English Primer; Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, Selections; Langland's Vision of Piers the Plowman, Clarendon Press. Two hours a week. M, T, 11.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Painter's Introduction to English Literature; Select Essays of Addison, Thurber; Macaulay's Essay on

Roswell's Johnson; Tennyson's "The Coming of Arthur" and "The Passing of Arthur," English Classic Series. Sec. I—M, W, F, 9:15. Sec. II—M, W, 10; F, 12.

COURSE 5. The Eighteenth Century: Selections from Pope, Deighton, Bell's English Classics; Thomson's Season's, Winter, Bright; Gray's Poems, Storr, Longman's English School Classics; Eighteenth Century Fiction. Text-books: Longman's Handbook, Part IV; Gosse's Eighteenth Century. Three hours a week. M, T, W, 11.

COURSE 7. Specimens of English Literature from the "Ploughman's Crede" to the "Shepherd's Calendar," Skeat; The Philosophy of English Literature, concluded. Two hours a week. Th, F, 8.

HISTORY—Miss Bloomstein.

Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts; 2, 4, for Bachelor of Science; 1, 2, 3, 4, for Bachelor of Letters; 2, 4, for Bachelor of Painting and Librarianship of Instruction.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Roman History. Text-book: History of the Roman People, Allen. Two hours a week. Sec. I—T, Th, 9:15. Sec. II—M, W, 9:15. Sec. III—T, W, 10.

COURSE 3. Mediaeval and Modern European History, Myers. Preceded by Course 2. Two hours a week. W, F, 8.

COURSE 11. Constitutional History of England. Development of the English Constitution, based on Taswell-Langmead's English Constitutional History. Three hours a week. M, F, 10; T, 11.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Greek History. Text-book: The Eastern Nations and Greece, Myers. Two hours a week. M, T, 12.

COURSE 4. English History, Montgomery. Two hours a week. Sec. I—T, Th, 11. Sec. II—M, W, 9:15. Sec. III—T, Th, 9:15.

COURSE 12. History of the French Revolution, preceded by a brief history of the Institutions of France to the reign

of Louis XVI. Text-book: The French Revolution, Morris. Three hours a week. M, 11; T, Th, 10.

AMERICAN HISTORY—Professor Garrett.

Courses 5 and 6 are prescribed for Bachelor of Letters.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 5. Political History of the United States. Formation of the Union, Hart. Two hours a week. T, Th, 2.

COURSE 7. History of Tennessee. Phelan's School History and Caldwell's Studies in the Constitution of Tennessee. Two hours a week. W, F, 2.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 6. Political History of the United States. Continuation of Course 5. Division and Reunion, Woodrow Wilson. The South, Curry. Two hours a week. W, F, 2.

COURSE 8. Civil Government of the United States. Studies in Civics, McCleary. Two hours a week. T, Th, 2.

POLITICAL ECONOMY—Professor Huntington.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Introduction to Political Economy—Production, Consumption, Distribution, Exchange, Interest, Wages, Rent. Two hours a week. W, F, 2.

SECOND SEMESTER.

COURSE 2. Money—Taxes, Tariff, Tariff Legislation, and the "Labor Problem." Two hours a week. W, F, 2.

FRENCH—Miss Tozer.

Courses 1, 2 (or German 1, 2), are prescribed for Bachelor of Arts; 1, 2, 3, 4, for Bachelor of Science; 1, 2, 3, 4, for Bachelor of Letters, and Bachelor of Painting.

FIRST SEMESTER.

COURSE 1. Whitney's Practical French Grammar; Super's Reader. Three hours a week. Sec. I—M, T, F, 8. Sec. II—T, F, 3.

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Peabody College, Vanderbilt University, 1995

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VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY

A. HUMANISTIC DIMENSIONS OF EDUCATION

Ed 2920. Social and Philosophical Aspects of Education
Ed 3030. Sociology of the Classroom

B. BEHAVIORAL STUDIES

Ed 3110/Psy 334P. Psychological Foundations of Education
Psy 2600. Applied Child Development
Psy 360P. Developmental Psychology
SpEd 3000. Education and Psychology of Exceptional Learners

C. TEACHING STRATEGIES AND CURRICULUM

Ed 2050. Applications of Computer Based Systems to Educational Settings
Ed 2310. Teaching in Secondary Schools
Ed 2320. Reading in the Secondary Content Fields
Ed 2450. Reading in Secondary Schools
Ed 3210. Instructional Programs for Young Children
Ed 3611. Curriculum Foundation: Exploration of Educational Belief Systems and Learning Environments
Ed 3612. Curriculum Development: Designing and Constructing Responsive Curricula
Ed 3621. Curriculum Design for Elementary School Programs

D. ASSESSMENT AND RESEARCH TOOLS

Ed/Psy 2101. Introduction to Statistical Analysis
Ed/Psy 2102. Statistical Analysis
Ed 3170. Analysis of Teaching

Curriculum and Instructional Leadership

The program in Curriculum and Instructional Leadership is a multidisciplinary program.

MAJOR. 18 hours
Ed 3954

Courses from the following, or other courses with consent of adviser:
Ed 3080, 3220, 3230, 3611, 3612, 3630, 3641, 3650; EdLs 3530, 3570, 3671

ELECTIVES. 3 hours

Early Childhood Education Major

MAJOR. 18 hours
Ed 3200, 3210, and 3220

Major Electives: Ed 2200, 3230, 3240, 3390, 3931, 3941, 3951, 3961

Additional courses from one or more of these areas:

Curriculum and General Teaching Methods
Infant Development
Humanistic Education
Language Arts and Reading
Leadership in Education
Mathematics Education

Peabody College / Teaching and Learning

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Science Education
Social Studies Education
Special Education

ELECTIVES. 3 hours

Elementary Education Major

MAJOR. 15 hours

Curriculum and Instructional Design. 3 hours from: Ed 2050, 3300, 3500, 3621

FIELD WORK. 3 hours from: Ed 3430, 3941, 3942, 3943; EngEd 3940; MathEd 3940; SciEd 3940; SocStEd 3940; SoEd 3120

TEACHING METHODS. At least one course from three different areas:

Mathematics. MathEd 3250, 3910
Language Arts. Ed 3417; EngEd 2280, 2910
Reading. Ed 3370, 3390, 3400, 3415, 3420
Science. SciEd 3250, 3300
Social Studies. SocStEd 2250, 3460

ELECTIVES. 6 hours

English Education Major

MAJOR. 18 hours

6 hours in literature

One linguistics course, if previous study did not include such a course

EngEd 3020

One course in reading, if previous study did not include such a course (students preparing for secondary school teaching)

One course in adolescent literature, if previous study did not include such a course (students preparing for secondary school teaching)

Appropriate 200- and 300-level courses in English education and other areas

ELECTIVES. 3 hours

Mathematics Education Major

MAJOR. 18 hours

Mathematics courses numbered 230 or above, including at least two of the three fields of algebra, analysis, and geometry

MathEd courses selected from MathEd 3810, 3820, 3830, 3840, and 3850 or 3250

ELECTIVES. 3 hours

One course in reading if previous study did not include such a course (students preparing for work related to secondary education)

One course in adolescent literature if previous study did not include such a course (students preparing for work related to secondary education)

Appropriate 200- or 300-level courses

Note: Undergraduate and professional course work in the major should include a broad range of studies in literature, linguistics, composition and rhetoric, mass communications, speech and drama, and reading.

Curriculum and Practicum, 9–13 hours

EngEd 3020, 3930

Courses from the following: EngEd 3030, 3260, 3890, 3900, 3940

Note: EngEd 3910 is required for students preparing for positions at the junior college level.

Doctoral Dissertation (8 hours) EngEd 3990

Mathematics Education Major

MAJOR, 48 hours

Content, 21–27 hours including: Math 261a–261b, 281a–281b, and 271

Curriculum and Practicum, 12–19 hours including at least four of the following: MathEd 3610, 3820, 3830, 3840, and 3850 or 3250

Courses from the following: MathEd 3890, 3900, 3930, 3940

Doctoral Dissertation (8 hours), MathEd 3990

Science Education Major

MAJOR, 48 hours

Content, 27–33 hours. A student's undergraduate (200-level or above) or professional courses must include the following:

One year in three of the four basic science disciplines: biology, chemistry, physics, earth science

Three years in one of the above

Two years in a second of the above

Graduate study in one of the above

A course in the history or philosophy of science

Curriculum and Practicum, 7–13 hours

SciEd 3300

Courses from the following: SciEd 3890, 3900, 3930, 3940

Doctoral Dissertation (8 hours), SciEd 3990

Social Studies Education Major

MAJOR, 48 hours

Content, 27–33 hours. Undergraduate or professional course work in the major should include some depth in one or more of the following disciplines, plus a breadth of study across most of the fields: anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, social psychology, sociology. The following distribution is required:

12 hours (200- or 300-level) in three of the above disciplines is required in the student's combined undergraduate and professional program

Curriculum and Practicum, SocStEd 3450 and 3480 or 3490

Courses from the following: SocStEd 3890, 3900, 3930, 3940

Doctoral Dissertation (8 hours) SocStEd 3990

Graduate Degrees

Master of Science and Doctor of Philosophy

The Graduate School through the department administers graduate programs leading to the M.S. and Ph.D. in education and human development with a specialization in teaching and learning. Students make application for admission to the Graduate School (see Graduate Degree Programs, Chapter 3).

Teaching and Learning Courses

Education

1020. Society, the School, and the Teacher. Introduces the relationship between society's goals and those of the school. Studies the community setting and the school; the social, political, and instructional organization of a school; and the roles and values of a teacher. Field experience. [3]

2040. Introduction to Classroom Technologies. An introduction to various technologies used in classrooms with emphasis on microcomputer-based systems. Meets licensure requirements for preservice teachers. [1]

2050. Application of Computer-Based Systems to Educational Settings. Examines the use of computer-based systems in educational settings. Consideration of educational basis, implementation, and evaluation of various methods; review of educational software; experience with microcomputers and other appropriate technology. No previous computer experience required. [3]

2070. Practicum in Early Childhood Education Language Arts. Observation, participation, and teaching in childhood education centers. May be repeated to provide experiences at different levels. [1]

2080. Practicum in Early Childhood Education Sciences. Observation, participation, and teaching in childhood education centers. May be repeated to provide experiences at different levels. [1]

2120. Parents and Their Developing Children. Examines the needs and characteristics of young children, birth through age eight, and the needs of parents and ways that parents can address their children's needs. Emphasis on observing children and analyzing their behavior and strategies for working with parents in educational settings. [3]

2130. Early Childhood Education: Programs, Curriculum, Teaching. Students become familiar with a variety of program models for young children and engage in curriculum development and instructional planning. [3]

2140. Infants and Toddlers: Programs, Curriculum, and Teaching. Examination of how out-of-home settings combine care and stimulation for infants and toddlers in developmentally appropriate settings. Focus is on quality programs that provide physical protection, emotional support, cognitive stimulation, and healthy environments with parental involvement. Policy, advocacy, disease prevention, and training uses are addressed. [3]

2150. Reading in Elementary Schools. Designed to develop knowledge of reading skills and developmental reading approaches. Students evaluate diagnostic information to plan and implement reading instruction in tutorial and classroom settings. Corequisite: 1 hour of Ed 2210. [3]

2170. Language Arts in Elementary Schools. Diagnostic procedures and pupil activities for listening, speaking, writing, handwriting, spelling, grammar, and usage. Corequisite: Ed 2150 and 1 hour of 2210. [3]

2200. Methods of Language Development and Beginning Reading in Early Childhood Education. Introduction to strategies and materials useful in developing receptive and productive language abilities and concepts in young children, using formal and informal assessment techniques. Prerequisite: Ed 2150 or equivalent. Corequisite: Ed 2070. [3]

2210. Practicum in Elementary Language Arts. Field experience in a variety of school, grade level, and instructional settings, designed to integrate and apply teaching skills developed in the elementary education degree program. Must be taken with the elementary education language arts methods courses block. May be repeated to a total of 3 hours. [1]

2220. Practicum in Elementary Sciences. Field experience in a variety of school, grade level, and instructional settings, designed to integrate and apply teaching skills developed in the elementary education degree program. Must be taken with the elementary education sciences methods courses block. May be repeated to a total of 3 hours. [1] 2270. Managing Instructional Settings. Examines several planning and management philosophies and a variety of practices for use with early childhood and/or elementary school students. [2]

2290. Student Teaching Seminar: Elementary. Seminar to accompany Ed 2701. [3]

2291. Student Teaching Seminar: Early Childhood. Seminar to accompany Ed 2702. [3]

2292. Student Teaching Seminar: Secondary. Seminar to accompany Ed 2703. [3]

2310. Teaching in Secondary Schools. Exploration of general skills and principles of teaching and learning in secondary schools, including curriculum organization and patterns, teaching methods, and professionalism of the secondary school teacher. A practicum in secondary schools is included. [3]

2320. Reading in the Secondary Content Fields. Introduction to reading and study skills for secondary school content teachers. Corequisite: Ed 2330. [2]

2330. Practicum in Secondary Education. Observation, participation, and teaching in a secondary school setting. Corequisite: 2320 and a secondary methods course. [1]

2430. Procedures in Remedial Reading. Introductory course involves remedial project with a child. Covers methods, techniques, and diagnostic materials. Prerequisite: Ed 2150 or equivalent. [3]

2690. Special Topics in Education. Exploration of special issues on topics related to education. May be repeated for credit with change of topic. [1-3]

2701. Student Teaching in the Elementary School. Observation and teaching experience in elementary schools. Undergraduate credit only. Prerequisite: admission to student teaching. [8-10]

2702. Student Teaching in Early Childhood Education. Observation and teaching experience for students seeking PreK-3 licensure. Undergraduate credit only. Prerequisite: admission to student teaching. [4-10]

2703. Student Teaching in the Secondary School. Observation and teaching experience in secondary schools. Undergraduate credit only. Prerequisite: admission to student teaching. [4-10]

2704. Student Teaching in Education and Special Education. (Also listed as SpEd 2901) Placement is dependent on licensure area and student interest. Undergraduate credit only. Prerequisite: admission to student teaching. [10]

2920. Social and Philosophical Aspects of Education. (Also listed as EdLs 2920) Exploration of the interaction between contemporary social problems and various philosophies in relation to educational theory, policy, and practice. [3]

2960. Individual Study in Education. Semi-independent study on selected topics in education. Consent of instructor required. May be repeated. [1-3]

3000. Internship in Teaching: Elementary. Observation, participation, and teaching in graduate intern centers and/or schools. Post-baccalaureate equivalent of student teaching. May be repeated to provide experiences at different levels. [6]

3001. Internship in Teaching: Early Childhood Education. Observation, participation, and teaching in graduate intern centers and/or schools. Post-baccalaureate equivalent of student teaching. May be repeated to provide experiences at different levels. [6]

3002. Internship in Teaching: Secondary. Observation, participation, and teaching in graduate intern centers and/or schools. Post-baccalaureate equivalent of student teaching. May be repeated to provide experiences at different levels. [6]

3005. Internship Seminar: Elementary. Seminar to accompany Ed 3000. [1]

3006. Internship Seminar: Early Childhood Education. Seminar to accompany Ed 3001. [1]

3007. Internship Seminar: Secondary. Seminar to accompany Ed 3002. [1]

3008. Internship/Induction Teaching. Observation, participation, and teaching in graduate intern centers and/or schools. For students in internship/induction program. Post-baccalaureate equivalent of student teaching. May be repeated. [2-6]

3009. Internship/Induction Seminar. Seminar to accompany Ed 3008. [1-2]

3030. Sociology of the Classroom. Examines sociological, cultural, and social psychological aspects of classroom settings, group processes, and influences of teaching and student learning. [3]

3110. Psychological Foundations of Education. (Also listed as Psy 334P) Emphasis on theories of human learning as they relate to design of instruction, educational practice, and human development at all age levels. [3]

3140. Seminar in Teaching and Learning. Seminar in theory and current practice in various content areas and at all levels of instruction, pre-school through college. Common seminar for graduate/professional students in the Department of Teaching and Learning. [3]

3170. Analysis of Teaching. Use of objective and unobtrusive evaluation procedures and methodologies in a variety of educational settings. Emphasis on theoretical base for qualitative and quantitative evaluation and methodologies. Experience given in collecting, processing, summarizing, and reporting data. [3]

3200. Foundations of Early Childhood Education. Examines historical, psychological, and social foundations in a broad survey of early childhood education. Analysis of current approaches and trends from the foundations perspective. [3]

3210. Instructional Programs for Young Children. Compares models of current interest in curriculum, materials, methods, and staff roles. Emphasis on curriculum design and the research base of program effectiveness. [3]

3220. Parents, the School, and the Community. (Also listed as EdLs 3270) Focuses on parent participation, parent education, and community involvement in school programs. Laboratory experiences in school settings will examine ecological influences and environmental transactions among the home, school, and community. [3]

3230. Administration and Supervision of Early Childhood Programs. Focus on the role of the administrator of programs for young children. Topics include selection, training, and supervision of staff; working with regulatory agencies, boards, funding sources, and parents; evaluation of program components; and exploration of administrative theory and practice related to early childhood programs. [3]

3240. Seminar in Early Childhood Education. Relevant research is identified, analyzed, evaluated, and used as the basis for formulating policies and program development guidelines. Prerequisite: two of the courses Ed 3080, 3210, 3220; or consent of instructor. May be repeated for credit with change of topic. [3]

3250. Advanced Seminar in Early Childhood Education. Provides opportunity for students to explore and review critically the state of early childhood education, emphasizing research, theory, and policy making that bear on current practice. Intended primarily for post-master's degree students. [3]

3270. Practicum in Elementary Language Arts. Field experience in a variety of school, grade level, and instructional settings. Designed to integrate and apply teaching skills developed in the elementary education degree program. Must be taken with the graduate elementary education language arts block. May be repeated to a total of 3 hours. [1]

3280. Practicum in Elementary Sciences. Field experience in a variety of school, grade level, and instructional settings. Designed to integrate and apply teaching skills developed

in the elementary education degree program. Must be taken with the graduate elementary education sciences methods block. May be repeated to a total of 3 hours. [1]

3300. Trends and Issues in Elementary Education. Advanced study of the major trends and current issues in elementary school practices, emphasizing the theory, research, and policy making effects. Opportunity provided for an in-depth study of issues of interest. [3]

3310. Review of Research and Related Literature in Elementary Education. Provides the opportunity for students to explore and critically review the research and related literature of school practices in elementary education. [3]

3370. Advanced Diagnostic Teaching Procedures in Language and Literacy. Study of issues on implementing diagnostic findings in reading K-12 and of alternative approaches in language and literacy instruction, emphasizing corrective instruction. Prerequisite: one course in developmental or remedial reading. [3]

3380. Seminar in Language and Literacy Education. Emphasis on current literacy research and topical issues. Designed to meet the needs of professional students with a major in language and literacy education. Prerequisite: Ed 3390 or 3420. [1-3]

3390. Literacy Development. Survey of theories and approaches to developing reading and writing in school-based settings. In-depth discussion of research in the development of literacy, with an emphasis on the reading process. [3]

3410. Guiding and Directing School Reading Programs. Study of program development issues in reading. Intended for school administrators, supervisors, reading specialists and teachers of reading in elementary and secondary schools. [3]

3415. Theory and Practice of Reading Education in Elementary Grades. Survey of research and theory in reading education with a focus on research-based instructional practice. Intended only for master degree candidates who are seeking initial licensure. Corequisite: Ed 3270. [3]

3417. Theory and Practice of Language Arts Education in Elementary Grades. Introduces curricular methods of teaching the language arts in elementary schools with emphasis on theoretical and research base for classroom practice. Intended for master degree candidates seeking initial licensure in elementary education or early childhood education. Corequisite: Ed 3270. [3]

3420. Literacy for Diverse and Special Needs Learners Emphasis on philosophies, principles, and procedures associated with approaches to literacy instruction for students experiencing problems with literacy development. Analysis of multiple factors and handicapping conditions contributing to literacy difficulties and how these affect diagnostic and instructional outcomes. Focus on methodologies for accommodating literacy problems in regular classrooms and special settings. [3]

3430. Remedial Reading Practicum. Students plan and conduct a remedial reading program for a student with serious reading problems. Pre- or corequisite: Ed 3420. [2-4]

3440. Issues and Trends in Reading Instruction. A survey of issues and trends in reading, including topics such as reading in a pluralistic society, early reading, intervention strategies, appraisal, and measurement. [3]

- 3450. Psycholinguistic Aspects of Language and Literacy.** Designed to provide a theoretical base for evaluating recent developments in the field of language and literacy from a psycholinguistic perspective. [3]
- 3460. Teaching and Learning the Language Arts: Theory and Research.** Provides in-depth study of theory and research on teaching and learning the language arts (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) and related literacies (e.g., art, drama). Special emphasis is given to writing development and the teaching of writing in the preschool and elementary years. [3]
- 3470. Social Aspects of Language and Literacy.** Introduces social and cultural theories of language and literacy learning and teaching, and the research questions and methods associated with them. Includes study of sociocultural, sociolinguistic, semiotic, anthropological, and critical theory approaches to the study of literacy learning and use. [3]
- 3500. Seminar on Teaching and Schools.** An Introduction to schools, classrooms, teaching, and the nature of students and learning. Intended for master's degree students who are in the early stages of preparing for licensure as early childhood, elementary, or secondary school teachers. [3]
- 3510. Advanced Teaching in Secondary Schools.** Exploration of teacher decision-making regarding classroom climate, curriculum, and classroom management in secondary schools. A practicum in secondary schools is included. [3]
- 3611. Curriculum Foundations: Exploration of Educational Belief Systems and Learning Environments.** Critical analysis of educational belief systems and decision-making processes, practices found in schools and other learning environments, and creation of a curricular frame of reference. [3]
- 3612. Curriculum Development: Designing and Constructing Responsive Curricula.** Examining and creating outstanding curriculum practices. Emphasis on understanding processes for development. [3]
- 3621. Curriculum Design for Elementary School Programs.** Examines various programs with focus on processes, concepts, and components that foster effective program development. Clinical experiences. [3]
- 3623. Curriculum Design for Secondary School Programs.** Examines various programs with focus on processes, concepts, and components that foster effective program development. Clinical experiences. [3]
- 3630. Exploration, Analysis, and Appraisal of Curriculum Theory, Research, and Experimentation.** Emphasis on assumptions, implications, impact, and assessment as related to curricular change and teacher/learner practices at all educational levels. [3]
- 3641. Curriculum Strategies for Supervision, Staff Development, and Educational Change.** Processes, structures, and procedures that facilitate inservice instructional improvement. Designed for teachers, administrators, counselors, supervisors, curricular directors, agency leadership personnel, and other members of the helping professions. [3]
- 3650. Administrative and Supervisory Roles in Curriculum Design and Implementation.** Explores the purpose of administration, the supervisory process, the role of the administrator in designing programs, and strategies for curriculum design and implementation. [3]
- 3850. Seminar on Instructional Technology.** Examines advanced uses of technology for instruction. Computer based systems as well as video and hypermedia will be topics for

- discussion and project development. Previous microcomputer experience required. Prerequisite: Ed 2050 or consent of instructor. [3]
- 3890. Individual Study in Education.** Semi-independent study on selected topics in education. May be repeated. Consent of instructor required. [1-3]
- 3900. Special Topics in Education.** Explores special issues or topics related to education. May be repeated. [1-6]
- 3911. Methods of Educational Research: Quantitative.** Develops understandings of skills, principles, and techniques used in quantitative educational research. Approaches these topics under three headings: (1) identifying "good" research questions, (2) planning and designing a study to answer those questions, and (3) analyzing, interpreting, and presenting the results in a manner that contributes to knowledge and practice in education. [3]
- 3912. Methods of Educational Research: Qualitative.** Covers issues and strategies involved in collection and analysis of qualitative data. Focuses on the assumptions and related research techniques of qualitative research, framed by the post positivist paradigm (i.e., naturalistic inquiry, ethnography). [3]
- 3930-3934. Research in Education.** Individual programs of research in various education fields. Consent of faculty supervisor required. May be repeated. [1-6]
3930. Research in Education.
3931. Research in Early Childhood Education.
3932. Research in Elementary Education.
3933. Research in Language and Literacy Education.
3934. Research in Curriculum Development.
- 3940-3944. Field Experiences in Education.** Individual or group opportunities for observation or other activities in a field setting, arranged by the student and the supervising professor with a local school system or other educational agency. Consent of faculty supervisor required. May be repeated. [1-6]
3940. Field Experiences in Education.
3941. Field Experiences in Early Childhood Education.
3942. Field Experiences in Elementary Education.
3943. Field Experiences in Reading Education.
3944. Field Experiences in Curriculum Development.
- 3950-3954. Practicum in Education.** Individual or group practicum in a school or other social institution. Consent of faculty supervisor required. May be repeated. [1-6]
3950. Practicum in Education.
3951. Practicum in Early Childhood Education.
3952. Practicum in Elementary Education.
3953. Practicum in Reading Education.
3954. Practicum in Curriculum Development.
- 3960-3964. Internship in Education.** Supervised on-site experience in a professional role. Interns serve as teachers, counselors, research associates, administrative aides, or other members of professional teams. Consent of major professor required. [1-12]
3960. Internship in Education.
3961. Internship in Early Childhood Education.
3962. Internship in Elementary Education.

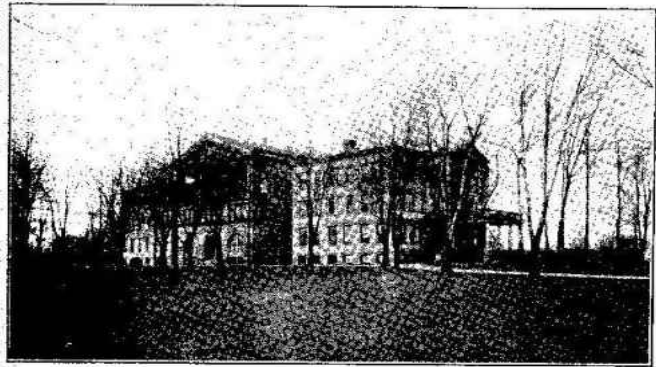
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SUMMER QUARTER, JUNE 18-AUGUST 25, 1923



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Psychology E7A.—Social. This course embraces a consideration of the bearings of modern psychology upon the methods of social evolution and organization. Among the topics considered are those interests, impulses, instincts and emotions which result in social phenomena in school and in society.

Psychology E7B.—Social. The topics considered in this course are: suggestibility, fashion, conventionality, custom imitation, conflict, discussion, and public opinion.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Education 1.—Principles of Teaching for Primary Grades. This course deals with the organization and correlation of subject matter and aims to give an understanding of the relative importance and value psychologically of the various lines of work given in the primary grades. The principles underlying methods of maintaining discipline, interest, the motivation of school work, the conduct of the recitation, and use of devices will be taught. The course includes plan writing of the types of lesson and one observation a week in the training school. Prerequisite: One term of psychology.

Education 2.—Arithmetic 1-4. 2 hours credit. This course, through class discussion of references studied and present day practice, will evaluate and summarize the need, value, and scope of the number work to be given in the primary grades. How the child's practical needs involving numbers are correlated with the various activities of the kindergarten and first grade, will be worked out, followed by development of the formal work in the second, third, and fourth grades, as outlined in the State Course of Study.

Education 3.—Geography 1-4. 2 hours credit. This course will deal largely with method of teaching orientation and localization in the child's immediate environment and then gradually extending his knowledge to a few of the broader facts so that he can understand the setting of the region in which he lives by knowing its relation to the larger world or earth as a whole.

Some study will be given to man's use of raw materials in providing food, clothing, and shelter. This will lead up to an outline for the third grade geography, which will give the

children some definite preparation for the taking up of the text book in the fourth grade.

Education 4.—Handwork A. 2 hours credit. In this course will be given projects in clay, paper, and cardboard as well as others related to the various subjects of the grades and the observance of holidays. It will consist of paper-folding, free hand cutting and tearing; illustrating with crayols or by mounting cut-outs; simple models in furniture and baskets, based on the sixteen-square fold, including both paste and pasteless construction. (Materials used up will approximate one dollar per student.)

Education 5.—Handwork B. 2 hours credit. This course will consist of work with textiles such as the weaving of mats, rugs, caps, hammocks, etc.; making several kinds of posters; pricking and then sewing designs on cards; making domino sets for number work and charts or cards for various drills, etc. (Materials used up will approximate one dollar per student.)

Work in both courses is arranged for the four lower grades.

Education 6.—Reading 1-4. The aim of this course is to lead students to recognize the importance of and difficulties attached to the teaching of reading in the primary grades; to have them trace the history and development of reading methods up to the present time and acquaint them with the best materials and methods now in use, based on child psychology and good pedagogy. The value of phonics and development of silent reading will be stressed.

Education 7.—Story and Story Telling. This course consists of practice in story telling and dramatization of fairy tales, folk tales, Bible stories, nature stories, and realistic stories. There will also be gems of literature suited to the primary child and the use that can be made of jingles, rhymes, etc. This course aims primarily to give the teacher a basis for the appreciation, selection, and presentation of suitable materials for the primary grades, along with a working knowledge of the fundamental principles of story telling and the schoolroom uses of the story.

Education 8.—Plays and Games. This course includes both schoolroom and playground methods and materials and con-

sists of story plays, brief relaxation exercises, rhythmic plays, singing games, running and chasing games, etc. The social, intellectual, and moral values of plays and games, as well as their physical value, will be given attention.

Extension Courses. The following two-hour courses are suitable for extension work in connection with teachers' institutes:

Arithmetic 1-4
Geography 1-4
Handwork A
Handwork B

The following four-hour courses may be taken in connection with teachers' institutes or otherwise:

Stories and Story-telling
Reading 1-4

RURAL EDUCATION

The courses in Rural Education fall into two distinct groups. The first is a study of the social and economic life of communities and the second is an application of these findings to the school work. Both the theory and the actual work of teaching are given the student in an endeavor to show the prospective teacher the fundamental significance of rural life and the responsibility our educational system bears to its betterment.

Education 30.—Community Civics. An elementary course in the study of group life, especially as the problems pertain to the changing conditions in country life and welfare. The inter-relations of the individual, the family, the school, the church, farmers' organizations, chambers of commerce, and all other civic organizations are analyzed and applied to school work. The relation of farming, manufacturing, transportation, jobbing, and retailing are studied in the field. An analysis of taxation is made showing its bearing on cost of all materials and community improvement. Government and politics are studied from the practical standpoint of how we govern ourselves. The aim of this course is to aid the student in discovering the community problems all about him and assist him in solving them to the best of his ability.

Education 31.—Secondary Education (High School Problems). An advanced course in the study of society and its social groups, the forces in society that make for progress or retrogression and the relation of education to the social and economic welfare of communities and the nation. The functions of the various high school subjects are discussed relative to their value to community life. Problems of civic, commercial, scholastic, and religious organizations are secured first hand, and their relations to school life analyzed. It is the intent of this course to prepare prospective teachers in such a fashion that they can make the best possible contacts with the communities in which they go to teach, will know how to find the local problems, can readily become acceptable and efficient leaders in the various activities of their communities, and will be prepared to base the organization and administration of their high school on the conditions they find prevailing in their respective communities.

Education 32.—The American Rural School and Its Management. A general study of rural school problems. It includes: a history of country schools, their organization and administration, their support, training of teachers, buildings and grounds, courses and texts adapted to this work, and rural supervision. Especial attention is given to consolidation and centralization of rural schools for efficiency of work and economy in tax moneys and yet retaining the opportunity for individual freedom and development.

Education 33.—A Comparative Study of Rural Schools. An advanced course in the study of rural schools of some of the foremost civilized nations. Especial attention is given to the schools of Denmark. In this country the rural school is given unlimited credit for the continuous and equitable prosperity and contentment of all classes. The aim of this course is to bring to our rural school problems any and all assistance possible to secure from any part of the world. This course is open to all students who have in mind rural and agricultural welfare and expect to devote much or all their time to this type of work.

Education 34.—Observation and Teaching in Rural Schools. This course is devoted to actual observation, planning, and teaching. One room and consolidated schools are easily

reached from the Normal School and actual teaching experience under supervision is made practicable; administrative, teaching, disciplinary, health, social, and all the various problems of the rural teachers are presented here in the actual work.

Education 35.—*School Budgets, Accounting and Indiana School Law.* A study of the financial management of school systems as provided in our state laws; how the means are provided by special levying of taxes, how they are distributed for various uses, and what reports are required by law to be kept and made to the civil authorities. The basic text for this study is a compilation of the educational laws of our state.

METHODS

Education 15.—*Elementary Education.* The object of this course is to give the beginning teacher a general view of the practical problems of elementary education. It will include a study of approved methods for the management and instruction of pupils in classes together with such study of both rural and city school systems as will enable the students to work intelligently therein. A part of the work will consist of the actual inspection of typical elementary school units and directed observation of the management and instruction of classes. Four hours.

Education 16.—*Principles of Teaching and Classroom Management.* (Elementary.) A course of lectures, readings and conferences setting forth the principles and conditions under which all learning must proceed. It includes, too, a study of the general theory of method and classroom management and its application in teaching in both rural and city schools, together with the study of the school as an institution for the realization of the purposes of education. Four hours.

Education 17.—*Principals of Teaching and Classroom Management.* (High School.) This course deals with the more advanced phases of the work in their application to teaching in junior and senior high schools. It involves a somewhat careful study of the specific aims and processes of departmental and high school work, principles involved therein and methods of instruction and management adapted thereto. Four hours.

Education 18.—*School Supervision.* Open to students taking courses for special supervision or who are preparing for positions as supervisors of instruction and management. The course will include a study of the function of supervision, the formation of courses of study, the selection of material of instruction and methods used in the supervision of instruction and management in elementary and high schools. Four hours.

Education 20.—*Directed Observation and Supervised Teaching.* (Elementary.) In this course students are required to observe and teach under supervision in some or all of the elementary grades. The aim is to give the student skill in organizing and interpreting lessons and in presenting them to pupils at different stages of their development. In addition to directed observation and conferences, students are required to do actual teaching in the training schools. Four hours.

Education 21.—*Directed Observation and Supervised Teaching.* (Elementary.) In so far as possible students taking this course will do their directed observation and supervised teaching in the grades or subjects which they are especially preparing to teach. Such students will be expected to assume larger responsibility in the work and will be required to manage and instruct classes with the minimum amount of direction and suggestion from the training teacher. Four hours.

Education 22.—*Directed Observation and Supervised Teaching.* (High School.) The work in this course is done only in high school departments and with high school classes. Unless otherwise arranged, students are expected to do the supervised teaching in their major or minor subjects. The plan is to give opportunity to study theoretically and to do practically under supervision all work required in a well organized high school or department. Four hours.

Education 23.—*Directed Observation and Supervised Teaching.* (High School.) Students in this course will be required to take full charge of the management and instruction of classes of high school students. The work will be done with the minimum amount of direction and suggestion from training teachers. In addition to the observation and teaching it will include the testing of results of classroom work, the recording of same and the making of necessary reports to principal or head of department. Four hours.

NOTES. Approximately one-half the time in each course in directed observation and supervised teaching will be devoted to observation of class room work and conferences.

Students in each of the courses in supervised teaching should reserve the hour from 3:30 to 4:30 on Tuesday and Thursday afternoons of each week for conferences.

Supervised Teaching can not be taken during the Summer Quarter. Substitutions for courses in Supervised Teaching may be made only where students have had forty-five months of certified successful experience in teaching.

Education 25.—Public School Administration. This course deals with such problems as arise in the administration and supervision of rural, town and city schools. It comprehends a study of school organization, school finances, buildings and equipment, selection, employment and assignment of teachers, selection and oversight of janitors, classification and assignment of pupils, the course of study, text and reference books, school reports and records, Indiana school law, and other problems connected with school administration. Four hours.

Education 26.—Elementary and High School Administration. This course deals with the more specific phases of school administration as applied to elementary and high schools. It will include a thorough study of current methods of elementary and high school organization and supervision, a discussion of the work of principals, special supervisors, departmental heads and teachers, their relation to each other and to patrons and pupils. An important feature of the work will be the actual inspection of statistics and reports required of teachers and supervisors in such schools, the estimating of the work of teachers and pupils, and the classification and assignment of pupils. Data will be secured from the best current literature, school laws of Indiana, from inspection of schools, and from conferences with those actually engaged in the work. Four hours.

ENGLISH

ERLE ELSWORTH CLIPPINGER, Professor.
MARY CHRISTINE PAVEY, Assistant Professor.
MAY AUGUSTA KLIPPLE, Assistant Professor.

English 1, 22, and 41 are required for completion of the Two-Year Primary Course. English 1, 25, 41, and 51 are required for completion of the Two-Year Intermediate Course or the Two-Year Grammar Grade Course. English 5 and 25 are required on all high school license courses. English 5, 6, 7, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 45, and 55 are required for the first grade license to teach English. English 5, 6, 7, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 45, and 55 are required for the second grade license to teach English. Requirements in grammar for both first and second grade licenses to teach English are met in the composition courses required.

English 1.—Grammar and Composition. General Academic. Required on all Two-Year Elementary Courses. About half of the time is given to English grammar and half to elementary composition with theme writing.

English 5.—Composition. General Academic. Required on all high school license courses. The work is designed to teach neatness and conformity to good usage as well as readiness and effectiveness in oral and written composition. It is not open to students who have had grammar and composition on one of the two-year courses.

English 6.—Composition. General Academic. Required for high school license to teach English. The work is primarily oral and written composition of an expository nature. Some attention is given to journalistic writing. Prerequisite, English 5.

English 7.—Composition. General Academic. Required for high school license to teach English. The work is primarily oral and written discourse of an argumentative nature. Some attention is given to preliminary usage in connection with the work with oral debate. Prerequisite, English 5.

English 8.—Composition. General Academic. Short story writing. An elective for students preparing to teach high school English. Prerequisites, English 5 and 6 or 7.

English 10.—*Grammar for High School Teachers. General Academic.* An elective for students preparing to teach English in high schools. Prerequisites, English 5 and 6 or 7.

English 22.—*Children's Literature. Academic.* Required on Two-Year Primary Course. The purpose is to familiarize students with literature suitable for the grades and to consider the presentation of this literature in the grades.

English 25.—*Introduction to Literature. General Academic.* Required on all high school license courses. The work will deal primarily with a few literary masterpieces.

English 26.—*English Literature. General Academic.* Required for high school license to teach English. A survey of English literature to about 1830, based on selections from numerous authors. Prerequisite, English 25.

English 27.—*English Literature. General Academic.* Required for high school license to teach English. English literature from 1830 to 1900, based on selections from numerous authors. Prerequisite, English 25.

English 28.—*American Literature. General Academic.* Required for high school license to teach English. A survey of American literature, based on selections from numerous authors. Prerequisite, English 25.

English 29.—*High School Literature. General Academic.* Required for high school license to teach English. The work will be based on literature taught in the high school. Prerequisites, English 25, 26, and 28.

English 30.—*Present Day Literature. General Academic.* Required for first grade license to teach English. The work will deal with recent prose and poetry by English and American authors. Prerequisites, English 25, 26, and 28.

English 31.—*Fiction. General Academic.* An elective for students preparing to teach high school English. Several English and American novels of different types and periods will be studied. Prerequisites, English 25, 26, and 28.

English 32.—*Drama. General Academic.* An elective for students preparing to teach high school English. Dramas,

including some by Shakespeare, will be read and discussed. Prerequisites, English 25, 26, and 28.

English 41.—*Reading and Phonics. General Academic.* Required on all Two-Year Elementary Courses. Especial attention is given to articulation, accent, inflection, phrasing, and phonics as aids to literary interpretation and appreciation.

English 45.—*Oral Expression. General Academic.* Required for high school license to teach English. A course in reading, public speaking, and dramatization. Prerequisite, English 5.

English 51.—*Reading, Grades 4-8. Professional Academic.* Required for license to teach in intermediate or grammar grades. The subject matter is literature for grades 4-8 and methods of presenting it in the grades. Prerequisite, English 41.

English 55.—*High School English. Professional Academic.* Required for high school license to teach English. Courses of study in high schools and methods of teaching English in high schools will be considered. Prerequisites, English 5, 6 or 7, 25, 26, and 28.

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thinking upon which those conclusions are founded. Especially designed to serve the needs and interests of the general education student. Not open to the student who has credit in ECON 201.

200. Elements of Economics. (4) A survey of the major institutions, of the theoretical explanations for fluctuations in general business conditions, of money and banking, and a brief introduction to the market determination of output and prices. Public policy relating to each area is explained and evaluated. Prerequisite: sophomore standing or credit in ECON 116.

201. Elements of Economics. (4) Intensive study of the theory of price determination in various kinds of markets. The theory of wages, rent, interest, and profits. The principles of international trade and comparative economic organization. Prerequisite: ECON 200.

279. Economic and Political Problems of Emerging Nations. (4) A survey of historical and contemporary problems of the less-developed nations. Factors related to economic, political, and social change. Problems of economic development policies and programs within the institutional structure. Internal and external pressures that influence patterns of development. Not open to the student who has credit in POLS 281.

300. National Income Analysis. (4) The substance of the course is macro-economic theory. Major stress will be on the meaning and measurement of national income, output and employment, the Keynesian system, inflation, and the theory of investment. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

301. The Price System and Resource Allocation. (4) Investigation of the ways in which economic units direct resources into production. Involved are analyses of product pricing and output and resource pricing and employment in the various market structures. Graphic techniques are developed without recourse to higher mathematics. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

320. Quantitative Methods in Economics. (4) The development of mathematical concepts and tools, including a brief treatment of the calculus, most useful in economics. At each stage the concepts developed are applied to problems in economic theory. Designed to provide preparation for ECON 421 and 521 for students who lack the necessary background in mathematics. Prerequisite: ECON 201. Not open to the student who has credit in MATH 171.

356. Economic Policies and Problems of Agriculture. (4) Examination of the special economic conditions of demand and supply pertaining to agriculture and of problems created by changing national and international situa-

tions. Analysis of agricultural policy programs and implications of farm policy for consumers. Prerequisite recommended: ECON 200 or 201.

380 (280). Economic Growth. (4) An analysis of the causes, mechanisms, and patterns of economic growth. Growth rates of various countries will be compared and analyzed. Prerequisite: ECON 200 and 201.

410. Economic History of the United States. (4) Survey of our commercial, financial, agricultural, and industrial history. Prerequisites: ECON 200 and 201, or a combination of ECON 200 and 4 hours of credit in United States history, or 8 hours of credit in United States history. Not open to the student who has credit in HIST 436.

416. History of Economic Doctrines. (4) The history of how man has looked at his economic life. Surveys the changing ways economists have rationalized, articulated, and criticized economic organization from Biblical times to the present. The successive reformulations place a major emphasis on the economic doctrines of the recent past and the present. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

421. Mathematical Economics. (4) Utilization of mathematics in the development of selected economic theories. Survey of input-output analysis and examination of the application of linear programming and the theory of games to selected economic problems. Prerequisite: ECON 201. Prerequisite or parallel: MATH 270.

431. Labor Economics. (4) Economic problems of the wage-earner; growth, structure, and policies of labor organization; and the employer and governmental policies toward labor. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

432. Labor Law. (4) Origins and status of the major aspects of law as the law concerns the relations of unions and management. Major emphasis is on federal law as derived from the Management Labor Relations Act of 1947 and its interpretation by the National Labor Relations Board.

433. Economics and Practice of Collective Bargaining. (4) Analysis of the interaction of the trade union, the employer, and the government. The legal, economic, and social framework of collective bargaining, negotiation, administration, and enforcement of the labor agreement. Prerequisite: ECON 431.

441. The Theory of Monetary Policy. (4) A theoretical presentation of how the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System modifies the economic climate within which the institutions of the nation operate, and of the problems of government finance as they relate to the Board's goal of general economic stability. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

445. The Economics of Government Budgets.

(4) Analysis of economic theory behind alternative methods of financing government budgets and debt management. Emphasis on economic consequences of budgets by examining incidence, shifting, and incentives as regards provision of public services and alleviation of economic insecurity. Inflation as tax considered. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

451. International Economics. (4) International trade, finance, and commercial policy. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

452. Economic Cycles and Forecasting. (4) Techniques for forecasting the trend of activity for the entire economy are presented. Institutional factors of the society are viewed as the determinants of total spending within the theoretical framework. This is followed by a seminar exercise and forecast for one sector of the economy. Prerequisite: ECON 200.

461. Comparative Economic Systems. (4) Historical and comparative study of economic theories and systems. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

464. Economics of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. (4) Evaluation of economic growth and efficiency of the Soviet economy and its pattern of evolution from 1917 to the present. Planning mechanism in industry as well as contributions and problems of agriculture investigated. Examination of Soviet significance for other nations. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

481. Industrial Organization. (4) Monopolistic, oligopolistic, and competitive market structures. Unsettled issues concerning structure and conduct of industry: concentration, vertical integration, and problems of economic regulation by government. Prerequisite: ECON 200 and 201.

482. Economic Development in Latin America. (4) The evaluation of theories of economic development. Sources and consequences of the economic growth and development process in Latin America analyzed in the context of economic theory. Attention to Common Market possibilities, monetary-fiscal factors, and trade and exchange. Examination of current national and international programs as promoters of development.

485. Urban Economics. (4) The systematic economic structure of cities and the component parts of that structure. Attention is given to the ways in which the economic structure of cities and regions obstruct or facilitate the attainment of the goals of the community. Prerequisite: ECON 201.

492. Readings and Directed Study in Economics. (4) Each student will pursue his interest in a specialized economics subject under the direction of a member of the economics staff. Subjects studied will differ from or be studied in greater depth than subjects treated in other economics courses. Prerequisites: 8 hours of credit in economics. A total of 8 hours of credit may be earned in this course.

Department of English

Renner, *Chairman*; Adams, Adrian, Andrews, Brown, Clifton, Cox, Eastman, D. Eddy, Evans, Fifield, Fink, Foster, Gadziola, Gale, Grafflin, Haave, Hayashi, Hoilman, Holder, Houck, Hozeski, Jennings, Kearney, Kirkham, Koontz, Lindblad, Liston, MacDougall, MacGibbon, Mammola, Miller, Mood, Morsey, Nesbitt, Newcomb, Nixon, Porter, Poulakidas, Purifoy, Rippy, Ross, Satterwhite, Schulte, Schumacher, Smith, Stewart, Sutton, Taylor, Thornburg, Trimmer, Whitworth

The discipline of English comprises three interdependent areas of study: literature, language, and composition. In each of these areas the English Department has definite responsibilities not only to its own majors and minors but also to all other Ball State University students.

Literature provides a perspective gained only through intimacy with the thoughts and feelings of writers of all times and all cultures. To help students gain this perspective, the English Department offers a wide variety of courses in American, British, and world literature.

There are at least two good reasons for becoming better acquainted with how one's own language works. One is that a knowledge

of the various patterns of language should contribute to a facility in writing and speaking. Equally important, however, is the fact that the history and structure of our language are important parts of our cultural heritage.

Realizing the increasing necessity for successful college graduates to express themselves clearly in writing, the English Department requires all students to develop skill in expository writing. This is a primary purpose of both the general education classes and the classes in advanced composition. For students interested in creative writing, special courses are provided on both the undergraduate and graduate levels. These students are also encouraged to contribute to the department's literary magazine, *Stet*, and to compete for annual awards made possible through the Royalty Memorial Fund and Lambda Iota Tau, the English honorary fraternity.

The student will be guided by the curricular statements (see *Curricula*) and by the area requirements given below.

The Qualifying Test in English Grammar is a requirement for the student whose major or minor is English. All students with areas in English must pass the Qualifying Test in English Grammar prior to being approved to pursue any curricula.

A student receiving credit for ENG 103 and/or ENG 104 based upon the scores on the CEEB English Composition Achievement Test and/or the verbal score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test will be notified by his curricular adviser and will begin his sequence with the proper course.

Honors students with concentration areas in English may substitute ENG 201, 202, and 203 for ENG 206.

Teaching major in English, 60 hours*	
ENG 206, 306, 321, 322; SPCH 210; JOURN 111.....	24 hrs.
From ENG 260, 270, 280.....	8 hrs.
Either the third course from ENG 260, 270, 280 or a course dealing with the period omitted and taken from ENG 368, 376, 378, 386, 388, 396, 461, 462, 471, 472, 473, 481, 482, 491†.....	
ENG 240, 340.....	8 hrs.
ENG 464 or 465.....	4 hrs.
From ENG 346, 347, 348, 349, 368, 376, 378, 386, 388, 396, 412, 420, 441, 442, 443, 461, 462, 464, 465, 471, 472, 473, 481, 482, 491, 497.....	12-13 hrs.
Teaching minor in English, 36 hours	
ENG 206, 306, 321.....	12 hrs.
From ENG 260, 270, 280.....	8 hrs.
ENG 240, 340.....	8 hrs.

From ENG 346, 347, 348, 349, 368, 376, 378, 386, 388, 396, 412, 420, 441, 442, 443, 461, 462, 464, 465, 471, 472, 473, 481, 482, 491, 497.....	8 hrs.
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Departmental major in English, option 1, 60 hours

This major provides a solid foundation for those students who plan to enter upon graduate study and, probably, college teaching of English. These students will qualify for the Bachelor of Arts degree, with French or German recommended as the language for the degree.

ENG 206, 240, 260, 270, 280, 306, 321, 322, 340, 464, 465.....	44 hrs.
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Electives in English language and literature at the 200 level or above to total 60 hours.

In addition each student with a departmental major in English, option 1, will earn 4 hours of credit from HIST 475 or 476; 4 hours of credit in LAT 217; and 4 hours of credit in PHIL 100.

Departmental major in English, option 2, 48 hours

For the students desiring a foundation in English and a broad education but not graduate or teaching careers, this option is provided.

ENG 206, 306, 322, 240 or 340, 464 or 465.....	20 hrs.
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From ENG 260, 270, 280..... 8 hrs.

Electives in English language and literature at the 200 level or above to total 48 hours.

In addition each student with a departmental major in English, option 2, will earn 4 hours of credit from HIST 475 or 476; 4 hours of credit in LAT 217; and 4 hours of credit in PHIL 100.

Departmental minor in English, 28 hours

ENG 206, 306.....	8 hrs.
ENG 240 or 340.....	4 hrs.
From ENG 260, 270, 280.....	8 hrs.
ENG 464 or 465.....	4 hrs.
ENG 322.....	4 hrs.

ENGLISH (ENG)

100. English as a Foreign Language. (5) Stress on sounds, structure, and vocabulary of the English language in order to increase the student's facility in use of the English language. Cannot be counted toward general education requirements in English.

101. Literature and Composition for Foreign Students. (5) Written and oral composition through reading, discussion, and interpreta-

*The methods course in professional requirements for the teaching major in English is ENG 410.
†If ENG 260 is not taken, 368, 461, or 462 is required; if 270 is not taken, 376, 378, 471, 472, or 473 is required; if 280 is not taken, 386, 388, 396, 491, 492, or 493 is required.

tion of selected pieces of literature. Continued attention to the problems of syntax, pronunciation, and vocabulary which are difficult for foreign students. (This course is the equivalent of ENG 103 for foreign students.) Prerequisite: ENG 100 or satisfactory score on proficiency test in English as a foreign language.

102. Literature and Composition for Foreign Students. (3) Guided exploration in the various forms of literature. Oral and written interpretation and analysis. Continued attention to the problems of English which are difficult for foreign students. (This course is the equivalent of ENG 104 for foreign students.) Prerequisite: ENG 101 or satisfactory score on proficiency test in English as a foreign language.

103. Literature and Composition. (4) English composition stressing the sentence, the paragraph, and the organization of the various types of expression through reading, discussion, and interpretation of selected pieces of literature.

104. Literature and Composition. (4) Guided exploration in the various forms of literature. Also, oral and written interpretation and analysis by individuals and groups. Prerequisite: ENG 103.

201. Humanities 1: Western Thought from Homer to Dante. (4) Some major texts in the literature, philosophy, history, and general thought of the Greek, Roman, and Christian civilizations through the Middle Ages.

202. Humanities 2: Western Thought from Montaigne to Rousseau. (4) Some major texts in the literature, philosophy, history, and science during the Renaissance and through the eighteenth century.

203. Humanities 3: Western Thought from Dostoyevsky to Sartre. (4) Some major writing in literature, philosophy, and science from 1800 until the present.

205. World Literature. (4) Introduction to selected pieces of world literature for class and individual oral and written interpretation and evaluation for those who are not English majors or minors. Prerequisite: ENG 104. Not open to the student who has credit in ENG 206.

206. Survey of World Literature. (4) A survey of the literature of western civilization, exclusive of English and American literature for students who are majors or minors in English. Prerequisite: ENG 103 and 104. Not open to the student who has credit in ENG 205.

207. American Literature. (4) Introduction to selected pieces of American literature for class and individual oral and written interpretation and evaluation for those who are not English majors or minors. Prerequisite: ENG 104.

209. British Literature. (4) Introduction to selected pieces of British literature for class and individual oral and written interpretation and evaluation for those who are not English majors or minors. Prerequisite: ENG 104.

221. Grammar for Secondary School Teachers. (4) Basic course in traditional English grammar and usage. Not to be counted as part of the total hours in a major or minor program.

240. American Literature, 1607-1860. (4) A survey of American literature from its beginning through the middle nineteenth century. Prerequisite: ENG 205, 206, 207, or 209.

260. English Literature of the Middle Ages and Renaissance. (4) British literature of the Middle Ages and Renaissance emphasizing major works of a number of the literary figures in their historical and philosophical contexts. Prerequisite: ENG 205, 206, 207, or 209.

270. English Literature of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. (4) An extensive study of English literature of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, or from 1600 to 1780, with attention to the social, historical, and philosophical backgrounds of the periods. A close reading of the works of major writers is emphasized, but not to the exclusion of the works of minor writers. Prerequisite: ENG 205, 206, 207, or 209.

280. English Literature of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries. (4) British literature of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries emphasizing major works of a number of the literary figures in their historical and philosophical contexts. Prerequisite: ENG 205, 206, 207, or 209.

305. Advanced Composition and Literature. (3) An intensive study of contemporary exposition, problems of English usage, techniques of composition for advanced college and professional work, and prose fiction as a type of world literature. Required of exemptees from ENG 103 who are not English majors or minors.

306. Advanced Composition. (4) Instruction in writing techniques beyond that provided for the general student. Introduction to literary research and criticism. Open only to English majors and minors. Prerequisite: ENG 205, 206, 207, or 209.

310. The Teaching of Language Arts in the Upper Elementary Grades. (3) Modern viewpoints and approaches in teaching language attitudes, habits, and skills. Consideration of written and oral expression, language usage, spelling, writing, and reading.

321. The English Language. (4) The study of modern English with emphasis upon the application of the methods of descriptive linguistics to an understanding of modern vocabulary, usage, grammar, and phonology. Prerequisite: ENG 104.

Department of Secondary, Adult, and Higher Education

Jones, *Chairman*; Bell, Berridge, Bishop, Blaser, Burnell, Colclesser, Collier, Craddock, Elsmere, Fisher, Hauptman, Jones, Kunkel, Lawhead, Lawler, Lucas, Marine, C. McClure, J. McClure, McElhinney, McEwin, Michael, Morsey, Pogue, Prettyman, Rawlings, Reak, Redburn, Richardson, Rowray, Shively, Spencer, Strouse, Struve, Trenfield, Van Voorhees

The Department of Secondary, Adult, and Higher Education provides courses and programs in a variety of areas. Although professional preparation of secondary teachers is a major responsibility of this department, other departments and divisions of the University cooperate in providing methods work in subject matter fields.

All students preparing to be secondary school teachers must take EDPSY 250 and 300 and a methods course in the area of their major. In addition, such students enroll in EDSEC 360, 420, 460, and 462 for a total minimum of 16 quarter hours in the Department of Secondary, Adult, and Higher Education.

Students will be guided by the curricular statements (see *Curricula*) and by the area requirements given below. All programs qualify graduates for provisional certification to teach in their areas of preparation.

In addition to assuming major responsibility for professional preparation of junior high school and high school teachers, the Department offers the following special programs at the undergraduate level:

Endorsement for teaching in the junior high school, to be added to the secondary school teacher certificate, provisional grade, 15 hrs.	
EDPSY 351, EDRDG 400.	
EDSEC 412	11 hrs.
Student teaching in junior high school	4 hrs.

CORE TEACHING PREPARATION

Core teachers deal with programs known as Core, Social Living, Correlated Studies, Block Programs, and the like. Such programs utilize

a large block of time, such as two periods or more, in dealing with broad problems or units of work which cut across subject lines. Usually such programs are planned to provide integrative experiences primarily from the areas of language arts and social sciences.

To prepare for core teaching, the student will meet requirements of the Teacher Education Curriculum with professional education courses specialized for secondary teaching. The teaching major and the teaching minor will be in the fields of English and social science (if the major is in one field, the minor must be in the other), and the certification will be for the major and minor, EDCUR 430. Teaching in the Core Program, is a required course. Student teaching will be done in a core program in a secondary school.

BOYS' CLUB PERSONNEL PREPARATION

Because of the increasing need for adequately prepared directors and other personnel of the numerous branches of Boys' Clubs of America, officials of the University have worked with the officials of the national organization of Boys' Clubs of America to evolve a pattern for preparation of such personnel. Boys' Clubs of America will provide some four-year scholarships for selected students. Those who do not receive scholarships will proceed at their own expense.

Boys' Clubs, like the public schools, are civic enterprises and are actively involved in the community. Often a staff member of a Boys' Club may also be a part-time teacher in the local secondary school. Because of this likely and desirable relationship and because the preparation for teaching is good preparation for Boys' Club work, this program has been so planned that each student who completes it satisfactorily will meet requirements for recommendation for a certificate to teach in an Indiana secondary school.

For Boys' Club personnel preparation the student will meet the requirements of the Teacher Education Curriculum with professional education courses specialized for secondary education.

A student on this program must limit his choice of concentration areas to one teaching major and one teaching minor or departmental minor and must select a combination of the two areas that can be completed in four years.

Because certain concentration areas provide education especially desirable for the personnel of Boys' Clubs, the student is advised to select a teaching major from the following group: art, business education (option B), English, physical education and health, and social science. The minor area may be any one in the total group offered by the University.

During his four years on this program the student will be given experiences in Boys' Club work, some of it in Boys' Clubs in the Muncie area. The Autumn Quarter of the senior year requires Boys' Club orientation and field work outside the Muncie area, some of it under the direction of New York University with specified credit earned in that university transferred to Ball State University for 16 quarter hours of credit.

EDUCATION: ADULT AND COMMUNITY (EDAC)

No courses at the undergraduate level.

EDUCATION: CURRICULUM (EDCUR)

400. *Curriculum Construction*. (4) Principles to be used in determining the nature and content of the learner's experiences in the public school. The issue of essentialism and progressivism, teacher-pupil planning, the larger use of group action in the solution of problems, and betterment of relation between problem solving and principles operative in these problems.

430. *Teaching in the Core Program*. (4) This course is designed to help develop the competencies required of a teacher in the core program of the public schools. It deals with the philosophy and psychology underlying core programs, the possibilities for preplanning the curricular experiences, and the techniques of working cooperatively with core classes.

EDUCATION: HIGHER (EDHI)

400. *Introduction to Personnel Services in Residence Halls*. (1) Principles involved in understanding and working with individuals and student groups in residence halls, social forces affecting college students, and the relationship of the residence hall program to the total university. Prerequisite: permission of the department chairman. A total of 4 hours of credit may be earned in this course with a maximum of 1 credit hour per quarter.

EDUCATION: SECONDARY (EDSEC)

300. *Laboratory Experience in Secondary Education*. (2) Provides direct experiences in working with students, teachers, para-professionals, community agencies, and other appropriate assignments for undergraduate students who plan to enter secondary school teaching. A total of 6 hours of credit may be earned in this course, but no more than 4 hours may be taken in one quarter.

310. *American Education: A Critical Examination*. (4) The complex educational system and alternatives to the traditional system, featuring an individualized, issue-oriented instructional approach. Designed for students who do not plan to teach but open to those in teacher education.

360. *Principles of Teaching and Classroom Management: Secondary School*. (3) The purpose of the course is to induct the student into the teaching act. Prerequisites: GKPSY 100, EDPSY 250, and approval to pursue a teaching curriculum. Prerequisite or parallel: EDPSY 300.

412 (312). *The Junior High School*. (4) Development of the junior high school idea, its special function, and problems of counseling and guidance in the light of the study of the nature of the junior high school child.

420. *Social Foundations of Secondary Education*. (3) Education as an institution in society and its relationship to the individual and American culture from the perspective of the sociological, philosophical, historical, economic, political, and anthropological foundations of secondary education. Contemporary issues such as cultural values, social class, ethnic groups, political pressures, and the role of the teacher will be stressed. Prerequisite: third quarter junior or later.

460. *Student Teaching: Secondary School*. (5)

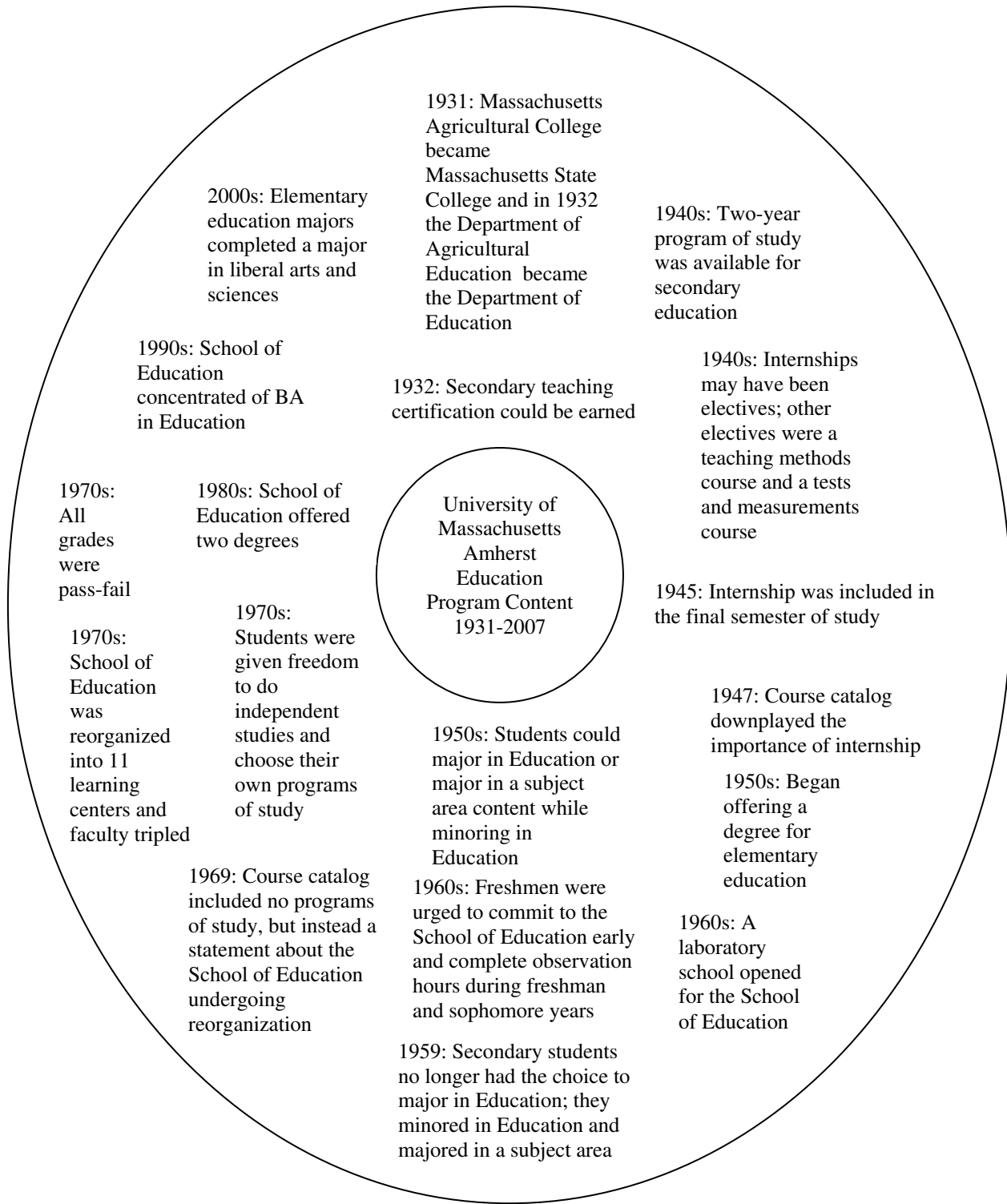
462. *Student Teaching: Secondary School*. (5)

490. *Practicum in Boys' Club Administration*. (9) Offered in cooperation with Boys' Clubs of America. The student is assigned to Boys' Clubs where he is given an opportunity in all phases of program and administration with certain responsibilities for advanced problems in each of these areas. The course is largely under the direction of a visiting professor representing Boys' Clubs of America. Prerequisite: permission of the department chairman.

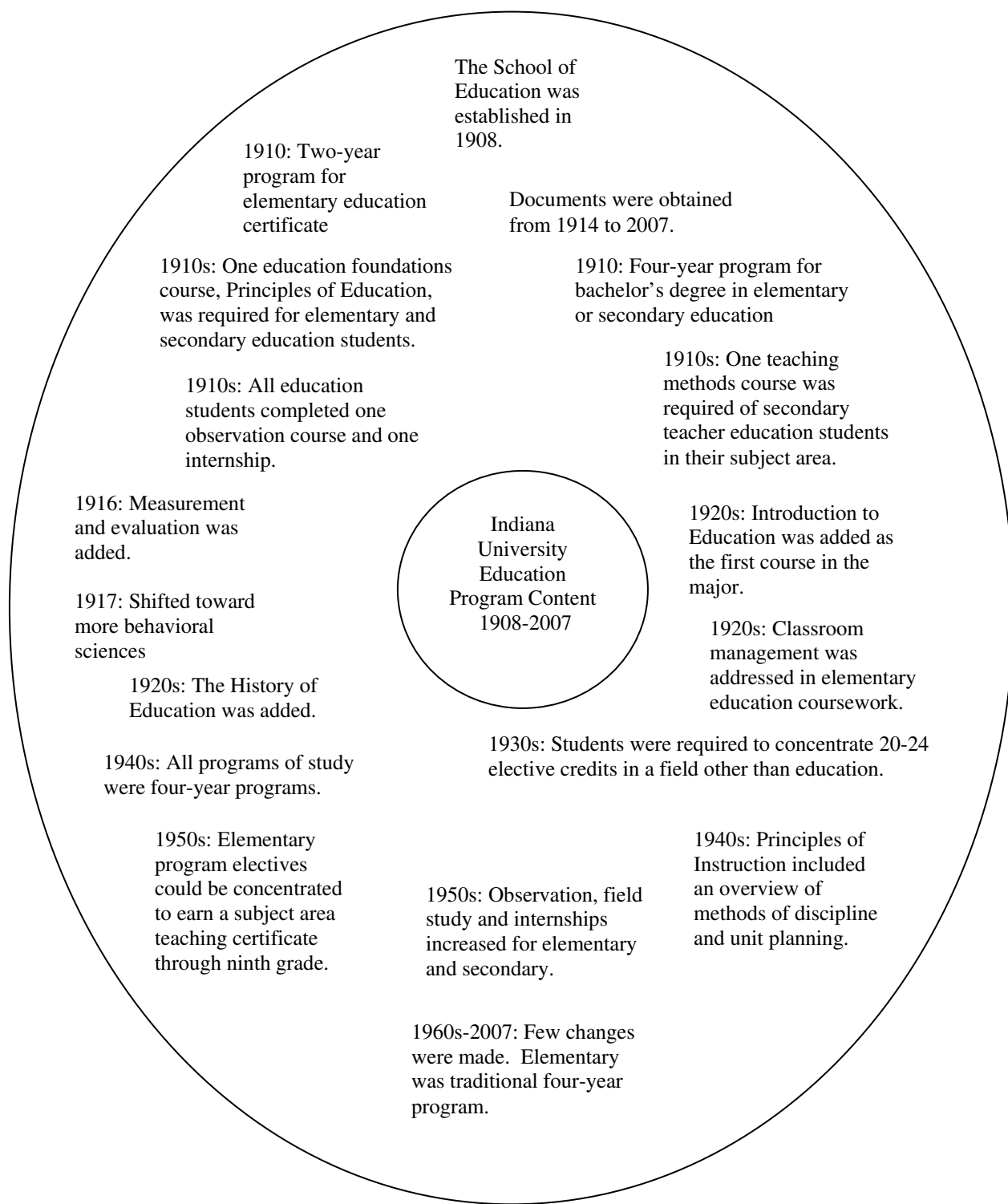
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**APPENDIX C: CIRCLE MAPS TO DEFINE TEACHER PREPARATION
PROGRAM CONTENT FROM 1908 TO 2007 IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
WHICH DID NOT ORIGINATE AS TEACHER NORMAL SCHOOLS**

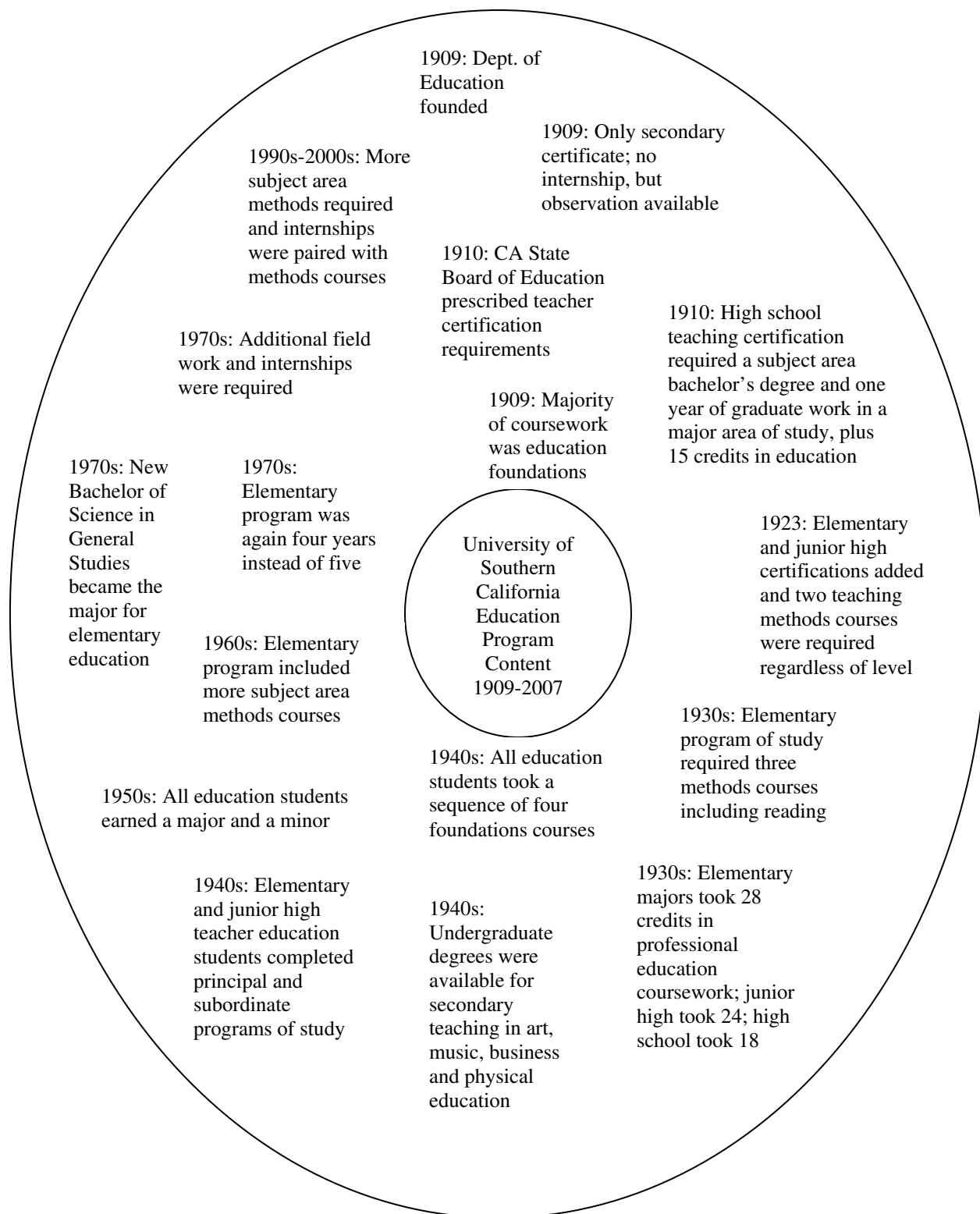
University of Massachusetts Amherst Circle Map



Indiana University Circle Map



University of Southern California Circle Map



**APPENDIX D: SELECTED EXCERPTS FROM UNDERGRADUATE COURSE
CATALOGS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHICH DID NOT ORIGINATE AS
TEACHER NORMAL SCHOOLS**

University of Massachusetts, Amherst, 1947
"Massachusetts State College"

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P.D. 31

FRESHMAN YEAR			
1st Semester	Credits	2d Semester	Credits
English 1, Composition	3	English 2, Composition	3
¹ Mathematics 1, Algebra	3	Mathematics 2, Trigonometry	3
² Biology or Chemistry	3	Biology or Chemistry	3
³ Foreign Language	3	Foreign Language	3
⁴ History 5 or Orientation 1	3	History 6	3
Physical Education 7 (women)	2	Physical Education 8 (women)	2
Military 1 (men)	3	Military 2 (men)	2
Physical Education 3 (men)	1	Physical Education 4 (men)	1
		Hygiene (women)	1

¹ Students who are prepared and wish to take Calculus as sophomores should elect Mathematics 3 and 4.
² Those who elect Biology take one semester of Botany and one of Zoology.
³ Language to be selected from French 1, 5, or 7; German 1 or 2; or Spanish 25 in the first semester; French 2, 6, or 8; German 2 or 26; or Spanish 26 in the second.
⁴ Students qualifying for the A.B. degree should take History 5.

SOPHOMORE YEAR			
1st Semester	Credits	2d Semester	Credits
English 25, Survey of Lit.	2	English 26, Survey of Lit.	2
Speech 29	1	Speech 30	1
¹ Economics 25	3	Psychology 26	3
Military 25 (men)	2	Military 26 (men)	2
Physical Education 27 (women)	2	Physical Education 28 (women)	2

One of the following Sciences each semester:

Bacteriology 31, 31A	4	Physiology 32	3
Botany 25	3	Botany 26	3
Chemistry 29	4	Chemistry 30	4
Chemistry 31	3	Chemistry 32	3
Geology 27	3	Geology 28	3
Mathematics 29	3	Mathematics 30	3
Physics 25	4	Physics 26	4
Zoology 25	3	Entomology 26	3

Two electives from the following each semester:

French 7, 29, or 31	3	French 8, 30, or 32	3
German 25	3	German 26	3
History 25	3	Economics 26	3
History 31	3	Economics 28	3
Spanish 25	3	Spanish 26	3
		History 32	3
		Sociology 28	3

¹ If Economics is taken in the first semester, Psychology will be elected in the second and vice versa.

JUNIOR-SENIOR CURRICULA IN LIBERAL ARTS

Major work is available in the following departments during the last two years.

ECONOMICS

The Department offers curricula in both Economics and Political Science.

ECONOMICS

P. L. GAMBLE, *Adviser*

In Economics the aims are twofold: (1) to give the student an understanding of economic theory and of the application of economics to the organization of society; (2) to provide students with the elementary training necessary for vocations in business administration.

PART. II.

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The Department recommends that a minimum of 24 hours of junior and senior work be taken within the Department by every major, and, for some careers, the maximum of 30 hours of junior and senior credit. Students are urged to select courses in the Humanities, and especially in the allied fields of History, Philosophy, and Psychology. Those intending to major in Economics should elect Economics 26 in the sophomore year.

For the majors in the Economics Department, there are offered courses which may be combined to serve as preparation toward a number of different careers. These include existing opportunities as well as those likely to be available in the postwar period. Among others, possible careers in the following fields are open:

Accounting	Marketing
Banking and Finance	Public Utilities
Government Service	Social Security
International Trade	Statistics

Labor and Personnel Relations, Transportation and Communication.
 All majors irrespective of the career selected are required to take the following courses: Economics 52, 53, 79, 81, also Agricultural Economics 79 or Mathematics 62.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

V. L. FERWERDA, *Adviser*

The work in Political Science aims to give the student an understanding of the principles of Government and their application to the organization of society; and to provide him with elementary training necessary for positions in government service.

Careers are open to students of Political Science and Public Administration in law, in many types of government service, and in organizations related to these fields.

Students intending to follow this curriculum should elect History 25 and Economics 28 in the sophomore year and the following in the junior-senior years: Economics 61, 62, 63, 64, 78, 93, and 94.

EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

The Department offers two curricula, one in Education and another in Psychology.

EDUCATION

A. W. PURVIS, *Adviser*

The courses in Education are planned (1) to prepare students to meet the minimum professional standards for teachers in secondary schools, (2) to prepare students who desire to teach Vocational Agriculture and related subjects, or students desiring specific training courses for other purposes such as Extension Work or Social Work, and (3) to provide cultural and information courses for the layman.

Teacher Training in Academic Fields. The student who desires to meet the minimum professional standards (16 credits) and to be recom-

mended for secondary school teaching should register in the Department as early as possible in his freshman or sophomore year. To meet the standards, two plans are currently in operation, as follows:

The One-Semester Plan. Opportunity is afforded to a relatively small but highly select group of seniors each fall semester to complete all of their professional requirements in one semester. Selection in this group is based on scholarship (a college average of 80 or more is desired), personality, and the recommendation of the major department. Class work and practice teaching are scheduled in alternate weeks of that semester in such a way as to insure seven full weeks of practice in neighboring schools. Participants in this plan are chosen early in the junior year but the registration of each candidate should be in the files of the Department early in the sophomore year if possible. This plan is strongly recommended by the Department and highly favored by superintendents, and the placement of students trained under this plan is, therefore, greatly facilitated. Students selected for this opportunity will register for Education 90, 91, 92, 93 and 94 in the first semester of their senior year.

The Two-Year Plan. For students who desire to teach and who were not selected for the One-Semester Plan, or whose senior schedule in major work does not permit of that plan, a further opportunity is provided. Courses in the Department are available during the student's junior and senior years which will enable him to accumulate sufficient credits to meet the standards. Six courses should be undertaken of which two, upon arrangement beforehand with the Education adviser, may be in Psychology. In Education the student should schedule Courses 51 and 83 as basic courses and in Psychology Course 55 is preferred. Opportunity for a small amount of practice teaching will be available under Education 85 if the student's schedule permits (Tuesday and Thursday should be free for this work). While this plan does not offer the continuity of instruction nor the coordination of theory and practice which characterize the One-Semester Plan, it has been considered adequate by many superintendents in the past so far as preliminary training for prospective teachers is concerned.

Teacher-Training in Agriculture. By a cooperative agreement with the State Division of Vocational Education, persons otherwise qualified may prepare to teach Vocational Agriculture by the satisfactory completion of Education 72, 73, and 75. Education 51 is also recommended. To insure a desirable range of preparation, students who contemplate vocational teaching should consult early (in the freshman year, if possible) the Head of the Department and the State Supervisor of Agricultural Teacher-Training. A vocational teacher-training certificate is awarded by the Vocational Division to those who fully qualify.

Other Service Courses. Students preparing for Extension Work, Social Work and such opportunities will find Education 51, 52, and 53 of value.

Information and Cultural Courses. For students with a general interest in the program of Education in this and other countries as it now is and as it has developed from earlier times, Education 80, 81, 83, and 88 will be of considerable interest.

PSYCHOLOGY

C. C. NEET, *Adviser*

The courses in Psychology are intended (1) to impart an understanding of human behavior and the application of this knowledge to problems of human adjustment; (2) to give preparation for professional work in Psychology and related fields; (3) to aid in the training of school teachers.

Careers open to Psychology majors include: Psychological Teaching and Research, Vocational Guidance, Psychometrics, Personnel Work, Child Welfare, Abnormal and Clinical Psychology, and Government Service. Additional graduate training is required for certain of these careers.

In the junior and senior years majors are required to take a minimum of 21 credits in Psychology. Courses 51 and 89 are required. As broad a cultural background is advised as major programs will permit. Majors planning careers primarily in Experimental and Physiological Psychology should plan to take one or more courses during their four years in Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics, Physiology, Statistics, and Zoology. Those planning careers in Abnormal and Clinical Psychology, and in Child Welfare, should obtain a background in Education, Home Economics, Physiology, Sociology, Statistics, and Zoology; while those planning careers in Psychometrics, Vocational Guidance, Personnel Work, and Government Service should be well informed in Education, Economics, Political Science, Sociology, and Statistics.

HISTORY AND SOCIOLOGY

Curricula in History, Sociology and pre-professional Social Work are offered.

HISTORY

A. A. MACKIMMIE, *Adviser*

The courses in History are intended to impart an understanding of the people of the world and their problems through an analysis of man's development in the past. A major in this field should provide the student with a broad cultural background and a basis for good citizenship. History may have special value for the following groups:

- (1) Those who plan to teach History or the Social Studies.
- (2) Those who plan careers in which considerable knowledge of History is desirable. These might be in fields such as Law, Government Service, Journalism, and Library Work.

Students who wish to major in this Department are expected to conform to the institutional and divisional requirements of the freshman and sophomore years, including History 5 and 6. In choosing sophomore Liberal Arts electives they should include two semester courses in History.

In addition to the above courses, students are expected to take a minimum of 24 credits in the elective junior and senior courses. History 25 should be elected in the junior year if not taken as a sophomore elective. History 59 and 60, American History, and History 91 and 92, Historical Bibliography are required.

65. (I) CONSTITUTIONAL LAW (1947-48).—A study of the fundamental rights and guarantees under the American Constitution as interpreted by decisions of the Supreme Court. Given in alternate years. 3 class hours. Credit, 3.
8:00-8:50 Tu. Th. S. Assistant Professor FERWERDA.

93. (I) 94. (II) SEMINAR IN POLITICAL SCIENCE.—A study of special problems in the field of political science. Credit, 3.
1 or 2 2-hour periods. Assistant Professor FERWERDA.

EDUCATION

Professor PURVIS, Assistant Professor OLIVER, Mr. TAFT¹, Mr. CARPENTER

51. (I) PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF TEACHING.—By means of discussion, case studies, and current educational literature, teaching ideals and procedures are set up. Application of the general principles are made in the major fields represented by the class. Credit, 3.
3 class hours. 11:00-11:50 M. W. F.

Professor PURVIS and Assistant Professor OLIVER.

52. (II) METHODS OF EXTENSION TEACHING.—For juniors and seniors specializing in the divisions of agriculture, horticulture, and home economics. The course considers duties and objectives of extension workers; development of extension programs to meet community and regional problems from a national, state, and local point of view; the evaluation of results; use and development of leaders; and methods used in extension work. Credit, 3.

2 class hours; 12-hour laboratory period. 10:00-10:50 M. F.; laboratory hours by arrangement.
Mr. CARPENTER and EXTENSION STAFF.

53. (I) EDUCATIONAL TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS.—The most serviceable tests and scales for measuring achievement are considered; test construction, administration, scoring, and interpretation of results are studied and practiced. Considerable attention is given to preparation of informal tests for diagnostic and grading purposes. Credit, 3.
2 class hours; 1 2-hour laboratory period. 9:00-9:50 Tu. Th.; 1:00-2:50 Th. Professor PURVIS

72. (II) VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE.—The course demands certain prerequisites of experience and a definite objective on the part of the student to enter the field of vocational agricultural teaching which makes it necessary for the student to seek permission to enter the course. It is the first of the series of special courses (72, 73, 75) required of candidates for the vocational agricultural teacher-training certificate. A survey of vocational education and an introduction to teaching of vocational agriculture at the secondary school level is the

¹ State Supervisor for Agricultural Teacher-Training representing the State Department of Education in the administration of vocational agriculture acts.

basis of the course. Certain information and observations in preparation for the apprenticeship course are offered. Credit, 3.
3 class hours. 10:00-10:50 M. W. F.

Assistant Professor OLIVER and VOCATIONAL DIVISION
of STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

73. (I) and (II) APPRENTICE TEACHING IN AGRICULTURE.—For a limited number of qualified candidates in vocational education. A full year in absentia normally following the junior year in college, teaching agriculture, horticulture, and related subjects. Candidates should have completed the course in Education 72, and in Education 51 if possible, and must apply early to the instructor of the course. Maximum credit, 6.

Assistant Professor OLIVER and VOCATIONAL DIVISION
of STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

75. (I) TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE.—By arrangement with the instructor. Preferably this course should follow Courses 72 and 73. It covers the materials, methods, policies, and special requirements of Massachusetts for teaching agriculture and related subjects in high schools and special country schools. This is one of three courses required of candidates for the agricultural teacher-training certificates. Credit, 3.

3 class hours. 9:00-9:50 M. W. F.
Assistant Professor OLIVER and VOCATIONAL DIVISION
of STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

80. (II) HISTORY OF EDUCATION.—This course opens a long vista in the development of one very important human endeavor—the passing on to succeeding generations of the accumulated social heritage of the race. Social, cultural, and educational movements are traced from early Greece to the present with the aim of better understanding of modern education. Credit, 3.
3 class hours. 10:00-10:50 M. W. F. Professor PURVIS

81. (I) COMPARATIVE EDUCATION.—A course of general cultural and citizenship value in which educational history, philosophy, system, administration, and finance of at least six foreign countries will be compared step by step with the same items in the United States. Credit, 3.
3 class hours. 11:00-11:50 M. W. F. Professor ———.

83. (I) THE PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.—This course presents a picture of the secondary school as a social agency, its relation to elementary and collegiate education, its aims, organizations, administration, curriculum procedures, and such other phases as are necessary to acquaint the layman with this predominant level of our educational ladder. Credit, 3.
3 class hours. 10:00-10:50 M. W. F. Professor PURVIS.

85. (I) and (II) OBSERVATION and PRACTICE TEACHING.—An opportunity to do regular teaching in cooperating high schools within commuting distance of the College. The student works under the supervision of a teacher with frequent visits from some member of the staff.

Credit, 3.

Hours by arrangement

THE DEPARTMENT.

88. (II) THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM (1946-47).—This course discusses the curriculum of schools of this country from the point of view of the general social philosophy which created it. It seeks to make clear to the layman the various controversial issues regarding such concepts as progressive education, the core-curriculum, the experience curriculum, projects, etc., and to present a common-sense method of analysis of such controversies and of evaluation in the light of their stated philosophy. Given in alternate years.

3 class hours.
10:00-10:50 M. W. F.

Credit, 3.

Professor PURVIS.

90. (I) EVALUATION OF LEARNING.—Only for seniors taking the One-Semester Plan. Tests and scales for measuring ability and achievement; standard tests and interpretation of results; construction of informal tests for diagnostic and grading purposes.

3 2-hour periods the first and each alternate week.

Credit, 3.

Professor PURVIS.

91. (I) SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM.—Only for seniors taking the One-Semester Plan. A consideration of learning material and its organization in the subjects which these students are teaching and the preparation of detailed courses of study in those fields in the light of accepted educational practice. Attention will be given to the best measures for evaluating the outcome of instruction in those fields.

3 2-hour periods the first and each alternate week

Credit, 3.

Professor PURVIS.

92. (I) METHODS AND MANAGEMENT.—Only for seniors taking the One-Semester Plan. The basic principles underlying all teaching and the procedure in the most approved methods will be discussed and illustrated. The aim of the course is to provide the trainee with a solid pedagogical basis for his own experimental efforts at teaching so that he may note the things that are important for effective class handling and instruction.

3 2-hour periods the first and each alternate week.

Credit, 3.

Professor PURVIS and Assistant Professor OLIVER.

93. (I) THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.—Only for seniors taking the One-Semester Plan. Practical problems concerning the school as a social agency, its aims, characteristics of pupil population, program of study, guidance, extra curriculum, social pressure, etc., from the point of view of situations met by teachers.

3 2-hour periods the first and each alternate week.

Credit, 3.

Professor PURVIS.

94. (I) PRACTICE TEACHING.—Only for seniors taking the One-Semester Plan. Five school days of teaching each alternate week in neighboring secondary schools under supervision of competent teachers and members of the staff.

The second and each alternate week.

Credit, 5.

THE DEPARTMENT.

AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING

Professor GUNNESS, Associate Professor MARKUSON, Assistant Professor TAGUE, Mr. PUSHEE, Mr. NEWLON

54. (II) MECHANICAL FARM EQUIPMENT.—A study of farm machinery, the gasoline engine as applied to stationary power plants, automobiles, trucks and tractors; field and other farm machines; and the use of electricity on the farm. Practice in repair of equipment including welding and general shop practice.

1 class hour; 2 2-hour laboratory periods.

Credits, 3.

Assistant Professor TAGUE and Mr. NEWLON.

60. (II) HOUSEHOLD EQUIPMENT AND TECHNIQUES.—Selection, care and operation of household equipment and the mechanical principles involved. Practical demonstrations in home wiring, home lighting, home refrigeration, ranges, and small electrical appliances will be given. Hereafter to be offered as Home Economics 60.

2 class hours; 1 2-hour laboratory period.

Credit 3.

Assistant Professors TAGUE and LANGFORD.

72. (II) DRAINAGE AND IRRIGATION ENGINEERING.—The course covers the engineering phase of drainage and irrigation. The various systems are studied and practice is given in the design of drainage and irrigation systems. Field work gives practice in surveying for drains, platting, locating drains, erecting batter-boards, and laying tile. Practice is given assembling equipment for spray irrigation, and the flow of water through nozzles is studied by means of laboratory tests.

1 class hour; 1 2-hour laboratory period.

Credit, 2.

Associate Professor MARKUSON.

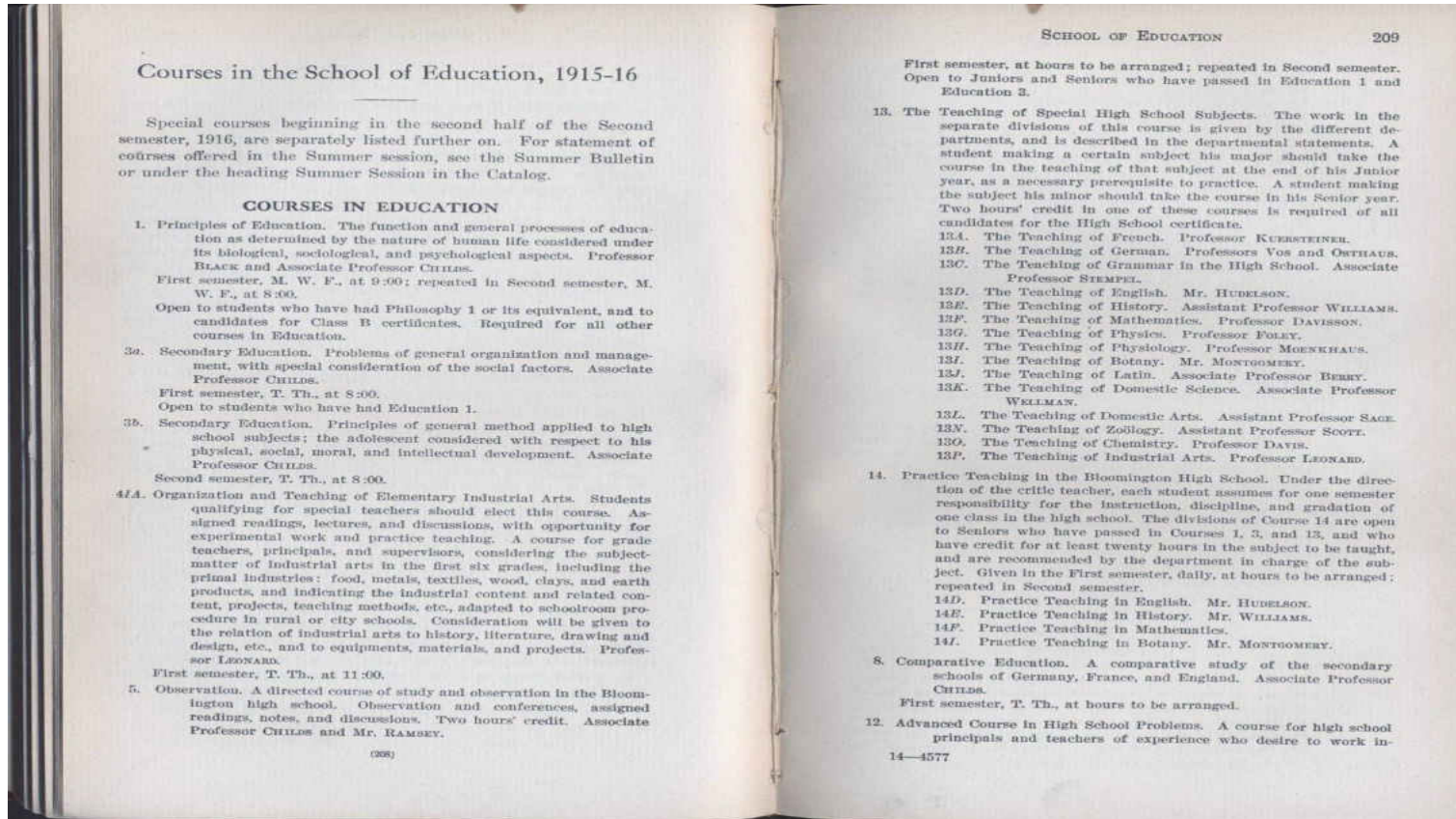
74. (II) FARM STRUCTURES.—A study of the strength and durability of concrete, wood, stone, and clay products, and of the mechanical principles underlying their use in farm construction. The design of various farm buildings, such as the general purpose barn, dairy stable, hog house, sheep barn, milk house, fruit storage, etc., is studied. In the drafting room, details of construction will be worked out, a study of the mechanics of simple roof trusses will be made, and a complete design of some major farm building will be finished in all essential details. Blue prints of the finished design will be made.

1 class hour; 2 2-hour laboratory periods.

Credit, 3.

10:00-10:50 Tu.; 1:00-2:50 M. F. Associate Professor MARKUSON.

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Indiana University, 1933

Courses in the School of Education

2. In the following announcement of courses the Roman numerals I and II indicate whether a course is given in the first or second semester, respectively. The letters a and b used in a course number indicate which half (or semester) of the year's work is being announced if the course is one which is given throught the University year. University credit is reckoned in semester hours, indicated in parentheses by the abbreviation "cr."

COURSES IN EDUCATION

101. Introduction to Teaching. I. M.W.F., at 10. (3 cr.) Repeated II. M.W.F., at 8, 10. Miss PETERS.
111. Elementary Educational Psychology. I. M.W.F., at 8, 10. (3 cr.) Repeated II. M.W.F., at 10. Mr. HOLMSTEDT.
- 122Ar. Methods in Arithmetic. I. T.Th., at 1. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. MARTZ.
- 122M.G. Methods in Public School Music in the Intermediate Grades. I. T.Th., at 11. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. BIRGE (School of Music).
- 122M.P. Methods in Public School Music in the Primary Grades. I. M.W., at 10. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. BIRGE (School of Music).
- 122M.R. Methods in Rural School Music. I. M.W., at 11. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. BIRGE (School of Music).
- 122Re. Reading and Phonics. I. T.Th., at 2, 3. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Miss PETERS.
201. Rural Education. II. T.Th., at 2. (2 cr.) Mr. LEWIS.
211. Advanced Educational Psychology. Prerequisite, Psychology 101 or Education 111 or the equivalent of either of them. I. M.W.F., at 8, 9, 2. (3 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. BOOK (Department of Psychology), Mr. SOMERS.
221. Principles of Instruction and Management in the Elementary Schools. I. M.W., at 9, 10. (2 cr.) Repeated II. M.W., at 10. Mr. WRIGHT.
- 222Dr. Methods of Teaching Drawing and Art in the Elementary Schools. II. M.W.F., 3-5. (3 cr.) Miss FOULDS.
- 222La. Methods in the Language Arts in the Elementary Schools. I. M.W., at 11, 1. (2 cr.) Repeated II. M.W., at 1. Miss PETERS.
- 222S.S. Methods in the Social Sciences in the Elementary Schools. I. T.Th., at 11, 1. (2 cr.) Repeated II. T.Th., at 1. Miss PETERS.

- 322Dr. The Teaching of Drawing and Art in the High School. I. T.Th., 3-5. (2 cr.) Miss FOULDS.
- 322En. The Teaching of High School English. Students who have not made a grade of C or higher in Freshman English Composition are required to take a course in Advanced Composition before taking this course. I. T.Th., at 8. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Miss WELLONS.
- 322Fr. The Teaching of High School French. I. T.Th., at 11. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. MORRIS (Department of Romance Languages), Miss BLACKMAN.
- 322Ge. The Teaching of High School German. I. T.Th., at an afternoon hour. (2 cr.) Mr. WOOLLEY (Department of German).
- 322H.C. The Teaching of High School Social Science: History and Civics. I. T.Th., at 8. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. WILLIAMS.
- 322H.E. The Teaching of Home Economics. I. T.Th., 8-10. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Miss WELLMAN (Department of Home Economics).
- 322Lt. The Teaching of High School Latin. I. T.Th., at 8. (2 cr.) Repeated II and summer session. Miss ALEXANDER.
- 322M. Methods in the Teaching of High School Music. I. T.Th., at 9. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. BIRGE (School of Music).
- 322M.B. A Survey of School Music Literature. Prerequisites for music supervisors, Education 122M.P., 122M.G. I. Hours to be appointed. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. BIRGE (School of Music).
- 322Ma. The Teaching of High School Mathematics. I. T.Th., at 8. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. McCAGHAN.
- 322P.Ed. The Teaching of Physical Education in the High School. For men. II. T.Th., at 8. (2 cr.) Mr. BOOKWALTER.
- 322P.Ed. The Teaching of Physical Education in the High School. For women. II. T.Th., at 8. (2 cr.) Miss PURDY.
- 322Ph. The Teaching of High School Physics. I. M.W.F., at 1. (3 cr.) Mr. HAZEL.
- 322P.He. The Teaching of High School Physiology and Health (Hygiene). I. M.W., at 1. (2 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. PATTY.
- 322S. The Teaching of High School Speech. II. Days and hours to be appointed. (2 cr.) Mr. NORVELLE (Department of English).

- 322Sp. The Teaching of High School Spanish. II. T.Th., at 11. (2 cr.) Mr. REY (Department of Romance Languages).
- 322St. The Teaching of Stenography. I. M.W., at 10. (2 cr.) Miss WESTENHAVER (School of Business).
- 322Ty. The Teaching of Typewriting. I. F., at 10. (1 cr.) Miss WESTENHAVER (School of Business).
- 322Zo. The Teaching of Zoology. I. T.Th., at 1. (2 cr.) Mr. SCOTT (Department of Zoology).
326. Supervised Teaching in the Junior High School. Will be arranged if there is sufficient demand. I. (3 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. SMITH.
404. History of Education in the United States. II. M.W.F., at 11. (3 cr.) Mr. FOSTER.
413. Diagnostic Teaching. I. T.Th., at hours to be arranged. (1 cr.) Repeated II. Mr. LOUITT (Department of Psychology).
- 422H.E. Problems in Teaching Home Economics. To be taken parallel with Education 426H.E. I. Hours to be arranged. (1 cr.) Repeated II. Miss WELLMAN.
426. Supervised Teaching and Observation. Under the direction of the critic teacher, each student assumes, for one semester, a portion of the responsibility for the instruction, discipline, and grading of one class in the Bloomington high school. The divisions of Education 426 are open to Seniors who have made a grade of C in Education 321 (Principles of Instruction in the High School) and in Education 322 (the special methods course in which the teaching is to be done). These students must have an average grade of C in the subject in which supervised teaching is to be done and also in all Education courses taken prior to supervised teaching. All such students must have credit for at least 20 hours in the subject to be taught and be recommended by the department in charge of the subject. Given in the first semester at hours to be arranged; repeated in the second semester. Students who take Education 321 the first semester of their Junior year should take Education 322 in their major teaching subject the second semester of their Junior year and make their applications in April of their Junior year for Education 426 to be taken the first semester of their Senior year. Students who take Education 321 the second semester of their Junior year should take Education 322 in their major teaching subject the first semester of their Senior year and make their applications in November of their Senior year for Education 426 to be taken the second semester of their Senior year.

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Student Teaching. In the course in student teaching, the student assumes all or a part of the responsibility for teaching one elementary school class in some elementary school where a student teaching program is conducted by the School of Education. Education M425, Student Teaching in the Elementary Schools, may be taken in either the first or the second semester of the senior year. A student who wishes to obtain a kindergarten certificate must do a part of the work in Education M425 on the kindergarten level.

Application to take student teaching must be filed in the Office of the Director of Elementary Student Teaching at least one full semester or 130 calendar days prior to the beginning of the semester in which student teaching is to be taken. The student must file this application in person.

To be accepted for student teaching, a student must:

1. Have at least first-semester senior class standing in the University.
2. Have an average grade of C or above in all University work taken, in all education courses taken, and in all courses taken outside of education.
3. Have a grade of C or above in each special methods course taken.
4. Show a proficiency in written and spoken English.
5. Have a personality that the faculty of the School of Education considers will contribute to success in the profession of teaching.
6. Be physically able to do successful classroom teaching, as evidenced by a thorough physical examination given by the University physician.

The faculty of the School of Education, or such persons as may be designated by it, will be the sole judge as to whether the student has met these provisions.

A special fee of \$7 additional is charged for each credit hour of work taken in student teaching.

Exemption from student teaching required for a provisional elementary certificate may be granted to a student who has had twenty-four months of successful teaching experience. Other approved professional courses, however, must be substituted for the student teaching.

Required Courses. Required courses in the four-year curriculum leading to this certificate and the degree Bachelor of Science in Education at Indiana University are as follows:

In planning his program, the student should plan his courses so that he will have a well-balanced program each semester. That is, he should have a balance between reading courses, laboratory courses and activity courses. There are seventeen or more semester hours provided for electives, and the student should include some of these in each semester. It is sometimes advisable to choose one's electives from one field of interest.

Courses numbered from 100 to 199 are primarily for freshmen, 200 to 299 for sophomores, 300 to 399 for juniors, and 400 to 499 for seniors. A course may not be taken before, but may always be taken after, the year indicated.

A description of the education courses may be found on pages 66 to 76 of this *Bulletin*, and descriptions of all other courses may be found in the bulletins of the various schools on the campus. These bulletins may be obtained from the Office of Records and Admissions in the Administration Building or from the Information Desk in the Education Building.

In order that the student may plan his program of studies more effectively, all the courses which are required for the provisional general elementary certificate are listed below:

	Semester hours
Biology B100, Man and the Biological World	5
Biology B214, Nature Study	3
Education E100, Introduction to Teaching	2*
Education P100, Introduction to Educational Psychology	3*
Education P200, Child Development	3*
Education M323, The Teaching of Music in the Elementary Schools.....	2
Education M333, Art Experiences for the Elementary Teacher	2
English W101-W102, Elementary Composition I-II	4†
English L101-L102, Freshman Literature I-II	6
English L390, Children's Literature	3
Fine Arts H100, Art Appreciation	2
Fine Arts S255, Crafts and Design I	2
Geography G101, Elements of Geography I	3
Geography G200, World Geography	2
Geography G335, Conservation of Natural Resources	3
Government G103, Introduction to American Government I	3
History H103, History of Western European Civilization I	3‡
History H104, History of Western European Civilization II	3‡
History H105, American History: General Course I	3‡
History H106, American History: General Course II	3‡
Home Economics H206, Nutrition	2
HPER H170, Nature and Practice of Play	2
Mathematics M104, General Mathematics for Elementary Teachers ...	3
Music E241, Introduction to Music Fundamentals	2
Music M174, Appreciation of Music I	2
Physics P100, Physics in the Modern World	5
Sociology S161, Principles of Sociology	3
Sociology S163, Social Problems	3
Speech S160, Speech Correction for Classroom Teaching	3

The following courses must be taken during the second semester of the junior year or the first semester of the senior year:

Education E325, Social Studies in the Elementary Schools	4
Education E335, Language Arts in the Elementary Schools	4
Education E343, Arithmetic for the Elementary Schools	3
Education M324, Observation and Participation in the Elementary Schools	2
Electives	2 or 3

15 or 16
remaining required courses.

* Must be taken before the methods courses and student teaching are taken.

† Especially qualified students may substitute English W111 and English W112, Elementary Composition, Special Program, I-II.

‡ At least two of these four courses in history must be taken.

The following courses must be taken during the first or second semester of the senior year:

	Semester hours
Education M425, Student Teaching in the Elementary Schools	12
Education E495, Workshop in Elementary Education	4
	16

Specialization. Students may use their hours of electives in this curriculum to meet their individual needs and interests, subject to the guidance of their counselors. If they have a total of eighteen hours of approved courses in one of the following fields of specialization, they will be qualified to teach that subject also in the ninth grade:

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1. Arts and crafts | 5. Kindergarten |
| 2. Health, physical education, and recreation | 6. Library science |
| 3. Home economics | 7. Music |
| 4. Junior high school subjects* | 8. Special education |
| | 9. Speech and hearing therapy |

Students specializing in kindergarten teaching should complete the requirements for the provisional general elementary certificate, should take a part of their student teaching on the kindergarten level, and should complete the following courses:

Education E113, Piano Class Instruction	2
Education E315, Education of Young Children	3
Home Economics H323, Modern Problems of the Family	3

Students specializing in special education (teaching mentally retarded children) should complete the requirements for the provisional elementary certificate, should take part of their teaching in a special class for the mentally retarded, and should complete the following courses:

Education K310, Allied Arts for Exceptional Children	3
Education K340, Evaluation and Guidance Practices for Teachers of Exceptional Children	4
Education K380, Teaching Mentally Retarded Children	5
Education P300, Psychology of Exceptional Children	3
HPER H364, Health Problems of Exceptional Children	3

CURRICULUM FOR UNDERGRADUATE ELEMENTARY TEACHERS WHO HOLD A LIFE CERTIFICATE

The student who already holds a permanent general elementary certificate based upon two years of work, and who wishes to earn the degree Bachelor of Science in Education without qualifying for an additional certificate, should complete satisfactorily the following requirements:

1. All the general requirements for the degree Bachelor of Science in Education (see pages 20 to 24).

* In general, the requirements in each of these areas would be similar to those required for the conditional certificate in the secondary area. The student should consult his counselor concerning these requirements.

2. The designated minimum number of semester hours in each of the following six subject fields:

	Minimum number of semester hours
Social studies (anthropology, economics, government, history, sociology)	15
Natural and biological sciences (botany, geography, physical sciences, zoology)	15
English (English composition, journalism, literature, speech)	15
Music	2
Art	2
Health and nutrition	2

3. At least one major of not fewer than 20 semester hours in one of the six subject fields listed above.
4. Ten additional hours of approved junior and senior courses in education.
5. A sufficient number of additional hours of approved elective academic courses to bring the total number up to 120 semester hours.

A student desiring to work for the degree Bachelor of Science in Education under the above pattern must have been regularly admitted to the University, and must have all his credits, including credits from other institutions, University Centers, correspondence courses, etc., on file in the Office of the School of Education, before advice can be given by the School of Education concerning the specific additional requirements he must meet.

CERTIFICATES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

According to the rules of the Indiana Teacher Training and Licensing Commission, a candidate for a provisional secondary certificate must complete the requirements for the bachelor's degree in a standard or approved university or college and must have taken, as a part of his requirements for graduation, a designated number of semester hours of general education, professional education, and teaching subject-matter courses. When the candidate has completed these requirements he should obtain from the licensing clerk in the Office of Records and Admissions an "Application for Teacher's Certificate."

Validity. The provisional secondary certificate is good for teaching subjects in the comprehensive, restricted, and conditional areas in grades 7 through 12 in any public school in Indiana and for teaching these subjects in any departmentalized elementary school. The provisional secondary certificate with a special or vocational teaching area is good for teaching and supervising in that area in all grades. The provisional secondary certificate is valid for a period of five years and may be renewed for five years, but it expires at the end of the second five-year period unless a master's degree or its equivalent in prescribed courses has been earned in the meantime.

In case a secondary teacher under the above certification plan does not teach for a period of five years or longer, the Indiana Teacher Training and Licensing Commission may require him to take six semester hours of additional work to revalidate his certificate.

Undergraduate Courses in the School of Education, 1957-58

Courses are numbered according to a system effective in September, 1950. The letter introducing the number of each of the courses in education indicates the field of education in which that course falls. The letters used and their meanings are given below:

A—school administration*	L—library science
B—business education	M—methods
C—college and university education*	N—nursing education
D—adult education*	P—educational psychology
E—elementary education	R—audio-visual materials and radio and television education
F—foundations of education	S—secondary education
G—guidance*	T—techniques and methods of research
H—history and theory of education	V—vocational education
K—special education	X—clinical methods in reading

Business Education

- B474. Principles of Business Education. (2 cr.)
Mr. ENTERLINE (School of Business).
For advanced undergraduates planning to teach business subjects. Objectives, principles, leading practices, and major problems encountered in business education in secondary schools. Technical and social-business subjects. Curricular problems. Distributive education. Guidance and placement of students.
- B490. Research in Business Education. (Credit arranged.)
Mr. ENTERLINE (School of Business).
Guided individual and group study of educational problems.

Elementary Education

- E113-E114. Piano Class Instruction I-II. (2-2 cr.)
An elementary course in piano playing designed to give the lay student an opportunity to express himself at the keyboard, with emphasis on having a playing and reading knowledge of the piano and application of primary chords in harmonization. Open only to students in elementary education.
- E308. Practical Construction Activities for the Elementary Teacher. Staff. (2 cr.)
Designed to help teachers in the construction of wood and metal projects suitable for the elementary classroom. Emphasis will be placed upon practical mechanics methods in elementary teaching situations. Information concerning equipment, supplies, materials and project-planning for an integrated elementary program will be stressed.

* Courses offered on the graduate level only.

- E315. Education of Young Children. (3 cr.) Mrs. MERCILLE.
A study of the education of young children from two to six years of age. The course deals with education and guidance in the home, nursery school, and kindergarten. There will be observation, reading, and discussion.
- E316. Equipment and Play Materials. (3 cr.)
Designed to help teachers of preschool and elementary children learn to use the materials and equipment found in a modern school.
- E325. Social Studies in the Elementary Schools. (4 cr.)
Miss DUNFEE, Miss SAGL.
A professional course which explores the sociological backgrounds of education and surveys subject matter, materials, and methods in the content areas of the elementary school.
- E326-E327. Social Studies and Science for the Elementary Teacher I-II. (2-2 cr.)
A professional course which explores the sociological backgrounds of education and surveys subject matter, materials, and methods in the content areas of the elementary school. Offered only in University Centers.
- E335. Language Arts in the Elementary Schools. (4 cr.)
Miss STRICKLAND, Mr. FAY.
Provides intensive study of the development of language in the young child, the development of oral and written language in the elementary school, creative language, dramatics, handwriting, and spelling.
- E336-E337. Language Arts for the Elementary Teacher I-II. (2-2 cr.)
Provides intensive study of the development of language in the young child, the development of oral and written language in the elementary school, creative language, dramatics, handwriting, and spelling. The second semester is concerned with the teaching of reading in the elementary school. Offered only in University Centers.
- E343. Arithmetic for the Elementary Schools. (3 cr.)
Miss DUNFEE.
A professional course which emphasizes the developmental nature of the arithmetic process and its place as an effective tool in the experiences of the elementary school child.
- E490. Research in Elementary Education. (Credit arranged.) Staff.
Individual research on a problem in the field of elementary education.
- E495. Workshop in Elementary Education. (Credit arranged.) Staff.
A workshop course for elementary school teachers. One credit hour is offered for each week of full-time work in the course.

Foundations of Education

- F100. Introduction to Teaching. (2 cr.) Mr. RICHEY and Staff.
A combined lecture-laboratory course giving a brief introduction to the function of public education in society and of teaching as a profession. Major emphasis is placed upon assisting each student in studying the desired competencies in teaching, evaluating his own capacities, interests, and abilities, and planning his professional career.
- F427. Education Through Travel. (Credit arranged.) Mr. EATON.
A travel course for undergraduates similar to F627 for graduate students.

History and Theory of Education

H423. Development of Modern Education. (3 cr.)

Mr. BALLINGER.
This course presents the history of educational theories and practices from primitive man to the present time. This study throws light upon and furnishes background for present-day movements and problems. Philosophical and sociological implications are inherent and emphasized.

H424. Development of American Education. (3 cr.)

Mr. BALLINGER.
A study of education in the United States, giving attention to such environmental influences as the frontier, changing social and economic conditions, and points of view represented in philosophy, religion, and modern realism, as these affected the development.

Special Education

K310. Allied Arts for Exceptional Children. (3 cr.) Mr. EICHORN.

Includes activities which will aid the student in teaching children some knowledge and appreciation of materials, tools, and processes essential to better life adjustment. Experience will be provided in woods, metals, plastics, etc., as well as in the food and clothing areas.

K340. Evaluation and Guidance Practices for Teachers of Exceptional Children. (4 cr.) Mr. EICHORN.

Emphasizes materials and methods used by classroom teachers in the educational and vocational guidance of exceptional children. Included is a consideration of the tools used by educational and clinical psychologists, so that teachers may better appreciate recommendations made on the basis of their findings.

K360. Teaching Mentally Retarded Children. (5 cr.)

Mr. EICHORN.
Designed to aid students in planning and conducting educational programs that will provide for optimum growth and development of mentally retarded children. Includes study and observation of curriculum content and organization of special schools and classes as well as of methods and materials used in teaching the mentally retarded.

K490. Research in Special Education. (Credit arranged.)

Mr. EICHORN.
Individual research on a problem in the field of special education.

Library Science*

L200. Introduction to Books and Libraries. (2 cr.) Mrs. WALTHER.

Open to sophomores and juniors. The purpose and function of the modern American library as a social, educational, and cultural institution, with emphasis on the various types of services performed by library personnel in school, public, university, and college libraries. Introduces students to the broad field of librarianship.

L320. Bibliography and Reference Materials. (2 cr.)

Mrs. WALTHER, Mr. McMULLEN.
A study of the content and use of basic reference works, such as encyclopedias, dictionaries, periodical indexes, atlases, yearbooks, directories, and handbooks. Open to juniors and seniors.

* Related courses, Education R405 (3 hours) and English L390 (3 hours), are considered the equivalent of library science.

L423. Selection and Use of Library Materials. (3 cr.)

Miss O'MELIA.
Study and evaluation of books and other media of communication in broad subject fields. Principles of selection, use of selection aids, practice in oral and written evaluation of materials, and the utilization of these media in libraries.

L456. Library Organization and Administration. (3 cr.)

Miss RUFVOLD, Mrs. WALTHER.
Prerequisites, L320, L423, and L483. The organization, housing, and maintenance of the materials collection; the library budget; the duties and services of the library staff; and the relation of the library to the community.

L483. Library Cataloging and Classification. (3 cr.) Miss BAKER.

Classification, by the Dewey Decimal System, and the principles of cataloging books, films, filmstrips, slides, phonorecords, and maps. Procedure for ordering and using Library of Congress and Wilson cards.

L494. Library Practice Work. (Credit arranged.)

Miss O'MELIA, Miss GRIFFIN.
Prerequisites, L320, L423, L456, and L483. Supervised practice activities in the University School Library, or in a college, university, or public library approved by the Director of the Division of Library Science. Applications to take this course must be made one semester before enrolling. Additional fee: \$7 for each credit hour.

Methods

M323. The Teaching of Music in the Elementary Schools. (2 cr.)

Miss KELLEY.
For elementary school teachers; not open to music majors. Fundamental procedures of teaching music in the elementary schools, with much consideration given to music material suitable for the first six grades.

M324. Observation and Participation in the Elementary Schools. (2 cr.)

Prerequisite: September field experience (see page 27). Includes free and directed observation of school activities, beginning with nursery school and continuing through grade 6; participation in these activities; and preparation for the practical phases of industrial arts, home economics, and visual education as they are related to elementary school teaching.

M333. Art Experiences for the Elementary Teacher. (2 cr.)

Fundamental problems in the selection, organization, guidance, and evaluation of art activities, individual as well as group. Actual laboratory experiences with materials and methods of presenting projects are included.

M335. Music Education in the Elementary Schools. (2 cr.)

Miss KELLEY.
For music majors only. A consideration of the fundamental principles and procedures of teaching music in the elementary schools.

M357. The Teaching of Distributive Education Subjects. (1 cr.)

M358. The Teaching of Health and Safety. (2 cr.)

Mr. RASH (School of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation).

M425. Student Teaching in the Elementary Schools. (3 to 12 cr.)

Mr. RICHEY and Staff.
Consists of classroom teaching and other activities associated with the work of the full-time elementary classroom teacher. Classroom responsibilities are developed as the student shows ability to handle the school work. Additional fee: \$7 for each credit hour.

M426. Problems in Elementary School Education. (2 or 3 cr.)
Staff.

The study of elementary school problems growing out of the teaching experience of students. Utilizes the techniques of group investigation and discussion.

M433. Elementary Methods for the Art Teacher. (2 cr.)

This course for art students is planned to develop a better understanding of the place of art in general education at the elementary level.

M434. Student Teaching of Art in the Elementary Schools. (3 to 5 cr.)
Mr. RICHEY and Staff.

Designed to give the student, through observation, participation, and classroom teaching, experience in the teaching of art in the elementary school. Classroom responsibilities are developed as the student shows ability to handle the school work. Additional fee: \$7 for each credit hour.

M435. Advanced Methods of Teaching Music in the Elementary Schools. (2 cr.)
Miss KELLEY.

For music majors only. Prerequisite, M335 or approval of the instructor. A development of the music curriculum in the elementary school, with much emphasis on good teaching materials.

M436. Student Teaching of Music in the Elementary Schools. (3 to 5 cr.)
Mr. RICHEY and Staff.

Prerequisite, M335. Designed to give the student, through observation, participation, and classroom teaching, experience in the teaching of music in the elementary school. Classroom responsibilities are developed as the student shows ability to handle the school work. Additional fee: \$7 for each credit hour.

M437. Student Teaching of Health and Safety in the Elementary Schools. (3 to 5 cr.)
Mr. RICHEY and Staff.

Designed to give the student, through observation, participation, and classroom teaching, experience in the teaching of health and safety in the elementary school. Classroom responsibilities are developed as the student shows ability to handle the school work. Additional fee: \$7 for each credit hour.

M438. Student Teaching of Physical Education in the Elementary Schools. (3 to 5 cr.)
Mr. RICHEY and Staff.

Designed to give the student, through observation, participation, and classroom teaching, experience in the teaching of physical education in the elementary school. Classroom responsibilities are developed as the student shows ability to handle the school work. Additional fee: \$7 for each credit hour.

M439. Methods and Practice Work in Supervision of Art. (3 cr.)

A study of problems confronting the supervisor of art. Attention will be given to modern concepts of supervision, problems of organization and budgeting, the relation of the art supervisor to other school personnel, and to methods of improving instruction with special reference to in-service training of teachers. The students work together in curriculum planning.

M440-M479. Methods of Teaching High School Subjects.

Prerequisites: (1) sixty semester hours of credit or full junior standing; (2) twenty semester hours in the subject in which the methods course is to be taken if in the major field, fifteen semester hours if in the minor field; (3) Education P100, and either Psychology P101 or Education P100, and Education P240. These courses are taught by specialists in each of the fields in which Indiana University offers training for secondary teacher's certificates. In general, each course consists of a study of the problems of teaching the subject indicated, including the methods, procedures, devices, materials, and outstanding research in the field.

M443. Methods of Teaching High School Social Studies. (5 cr.)
Mr. ENGLE.

M444. Methods of Teaching Business Subjects. (5 cr.)
Miss HENDERSON, Mr. ENTERLINE (School of Business).

M445. Methods of Teaching Modern Languages. (5 cr.)
Miss KRUSE.

Required of students who plan to teach French, German, or Spanish.

M446. Methods of Teaching Latin. (5 cr.)

M447. Methods of Teaching High School English. (5 cr.)
Miss STROM.

M448. Methods of Teaching High School Mathematics. (5 cr.)
Mr. PEAK.

M449. Methods of Teaching High School Science. (5 cr.)
Mr. WHITAKER.

Required of students who plan to teach biology, chemistry, earth science, general science, or physics.

M453. Methods of Teaching High School Art. (5 cr.) Mr. MILLS.

M454. Methods of Teaching High School Music (5 cr.)
Mr. LONG (School of Music).

Prerequisite, ability to read, at sight, music of the difficulty commonly encountered in high school chorus books and octavo.

M455. Methods of Teaching Home Economics. (5 cr.)
Miss HUNTING (Department of Home Economics).

M456. Methods of Teaching Physical Education: For Men. (5 cr.)
Mr. SCHOOLER.

M457. Methods of Teaching Physical Education: For Women. (5 cr.)
Miss LACKEY.

M458. Methods of Teaching Health and Safety. (5 cr.) Mr. LUDWIG (School of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation).

M463. Methods in Speech and Hearing Therapy. (5 cr.)
Miss ROE.

M473. Art Experiences for the Teacher of Adolescent Pupils. (2 cr.)
Not open to art majors. A study of art activities at the secondary level, with emphasis upon planning, techniques, and methods of teaching.

M475. Problems in Teaching Home Economics. (2 cr.)
Miss HUNTING (Department of Home Economics).

Deals with problems suggested by present student teaching experiences, individual interests, and probable future needs. Emphasis is given to evaluation, teaching techniques, adult classes, choice of equipment and teaching materials, and management of other specific curricular and extracurricular activities, including the school lunch. To be taken with M480.

M476. Methods of Teaching Shorthand. (1 cr.) Miss HENDERSON.

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refund made after the middle of the semester. Any rebate allowed will be contingent upon the reason given in the application and will be computed in conformity with the schedule on file at the Business Office. This scale takes into consideration the fact that there is absolutely no refund after the middle of the semester and is figured accordingly.

The University reserves the right to change without notice any of the rates or discounts printed in this Bulletin.

UNIVERSITY RESIDENCES

Room and board are provided in the Women's Residence Hall and the Men's Residence Hall at the lowest reasonable cost. Rooms are engaged for the year and cannot be vacated within that time. Fees are payable by the semester, according to the following plan of payments:

Women's Hall

Room and board, 3 meals per day, per student, per semester	\$200.00
Payable at registration	\$87.00
Payable one month after registration	57.75
Payable 2½ months after registration	57.75
*Breakage deposit (payable once each year)	

Men's Hall

Room and board, 3 meals per day, except Sunday, per student, per semester	\$100.00
Payable at registration	\$100.00
Payable one month after registration	50.00
Payable 2½ months after registration	45.00
*Breakage deposit (payable once each year)	

Women's Graduate Lodge

Room, per student, per semester:	
Single room	\$10.00
Double room	

A deposit of \$10.00 (not refundable) should accompany application for rooms. This deposit is included in the amount payable at registration.

All inquiries concerning accommodations at the Residence Halls, and all requests for reservations, should be addressed to the Business Office, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

All undergraduate students not living in their own homes in fraternity or sorority houses are required to live in the Residence Halls. If the halls are fully occupied, approved housing in the neighborhood will be designated.

*Students residing in the dormitories must pay a breakage deposit of \$10.00. After the cost of damages is deducted, the balance is returned at the end of the year.

ADMISSION, REGISTRATION, AND DEGREES

UNDERGRADUATE WORK

Admission. Students who have attained junior standing in the University of Southern California, or in an institution of equal rank, and graduates of a two-year normal school course, based on graduation from a four-year high school course, may be admitted to the School of Education. The amount of advanced standing granted to normal school graduates, and the additional prerequisite work to be taken, will be determined by the Committee on Admission and Credentials of the University.

Each candidate for admission is required to present a statement from the Office of Admissions or the Office of the Registrar summarizing the work completed and standing attained, and to fill out an enrollment record in the office of the School of Education on a blank provided for the purpose.

Registration. Every student is required to register through the Office of the University Registrar at the beginning of each semester for the courses to be taken during that semester.

Enrollment in the School of Education. Each candidate for the Bachelor of Science degree in Education, including all candidates for elementary, junior high school, and special credentials, is required to enroll in the School of Education and make out his study-program in consultation with an adviser assigned by the Dean.

Undergraduate students enrolling in the School of Education should plan their work for the junior and senior years at the beginning of the junior year and should distribute the professional training and other requirements about equally over the two years.

Part-Time Students. Teachers in or near Los Angeles, who are able to pursue regular work in the School of Education, but are unable to devote only a portion of their time to such work, may register as candidates for a degree and credential. Such students are expected to comply with all the regulations regarding entrance requirements, registration, attendance, and efficiency established for students carrying full residence work, but will be limited in the amount of work that may be carried and will be listed as part-time students.

English Requirement for Foreign Students. All undergraduate students of a foreign nationality, including those taking special courses only, shall be required to register each semester in English lab or in one of the sub-Freshman courses in English, according to their preparation, until they have successfully completed English lab or its equivalent.

Amount of Work. Fifteen units per semester constitute a full program for regular undergraduate students. The maximum number of units for which a student may register without special permission of the Scholarship Committee is sixteen. Teachers and others engaged in full time work outside the University are not permitted to carry more than six units per semester towards a degree in the School of Education.

Residence Work. The last 28 semester units of the work towards the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education must be earned at the University of Southern California. University College is a campus college, so that all work completed there gives residence credit.

Requirements for Graduation. Students who, in addition to two years of lower division work, satisfactorily complete six semester units, with as many grade points as units taken in work for the degree, making a minimum total of 124 semester units and a minimum total of 124 grade points on the units so presented may receive the recommendation of the School of Education for graduation, provided:

1. The two years of lower division pre-professional work include:

- a. Orientation, one unit.
- b. English lab, six units.
- c. A laboratory science, eight or ten units. (If one year biological science was completed in high school a year physical sciences should be taken, and vice versa.)
- d. Foreign language. Two years; sixteen units. The language may be Latin, German, French, Spanish, or Italian. If the language offered for entrance is continued the requirement may be reduced to six units.*

*A student who has taken a foreign language in preparatory school and failed to secure a recommended grade or had a lapse of two years or more since the work was taken and has completed work in that foreign language elsewhere, shall be classified by a Department Classification Test before continuing that foreign language in college. Such student who takes work in college to prepare him to continue the point attained in preparatory school shall receive college credit for only the last semester of such work.

Mature and experienced students, candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, are allowed to substitute a program of lower division academic work in excess of all course requirements in lieu of the balance of foreign language usually required for the bachelor's degree. To be eligible for this substitute program, the candidate should verify with the office of the Dean of the School of Education, that: (a) He has completed 60 units of pre-professional work, including courses prescribed by the faculty of the School of Education; (b) Five or more years, beginning since high school graduation; (c) He has had two or more years of teaching or other successful experience; (d) The substitute program is chosen from a list of courses approved by the faculty of the School of Education for this purpose. (Application blanks and the list of courses and the alternative program should be secured at the office of the Dean of the School of Education.)

- e. Health Education and Physical Education, six units.†
 - f. Psychology, three units.
 - g. United States Constitutional History, two or three units.
 - h. Lower division courses in Principal and Subordinate Groups.
2. The two years of upper division work in the School of Education include:
- a. Education, twenty-four units, completed in residence, either at the University of Southern California or at some other approved college or university.
 - b. Satisfactory completion of one approved sequence or group. At least twenty-four of the units comprising a principal sequence or group must be completed in residence, either at the University of Southern California or at some other approved college or university.
 - c. Satisfactory completion of one approved subordinate sequence or group, ordinarily 14 units.
 - d. Electives sufficient to make a total of sixty units, thirty-six of which must be upper division or graduate units.

Degree. Students who have fulfilled all requirements for graduation from the School of Education may be recommended by the faculty for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education.

GRADUATE PROFESSIONAL CURRICULA

Admission. Graduates of the School of Education and holders of non-professional degrees from the University of Southern California, or from other accredited institutions, who have completed a minimum of twelve units in Education in undergraduate study (in special cases significant experience and individual study may be accepted in lieu of six of the twelve units) may be regularly admitted to the graduate professional curricula in the School of Education and to the Graduate School for work leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) with Education as a principal field. Graduates of institutions not on the accredited list and the holders of non-professional degrees will be granted provisional enrollment in graduate professional work in the School of Education by the Office of Admissions, but it will be necessary for these candidates to complete such additional work as may be prescribed by the Office of Admissions before they will be recommended for state teachers' credentials and to candidacy for graduate professional degrees.

A student who is thirty years of age, or more, may be excused from Physical Education 1ab, 2ab, and 9, total 6 units, and allowed to substitute 6 units in other subjects.

Course Number	Title	Units
120.	Classroom Methods and Management in Elementary Schools	3
125.	Elementary School Curriculum	2
126.	Methods and Supervision in Primary Grades	2
129.	Psychology and Methods in Reading	2
131.	Growth and Development of the Child	2
132.	Mental Differences and Educational Adjustments ..	2
133.	Educational Guidance and Counseling in Elementary Schools	2
134.	Psychology of Elementary School Subjects	2
135.	Pre-School Education	2
219ab.	Seminar in Supervision	4
220ab.	Seminar in Curricula and Methods	4
SUPERVISION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS		
156.	Classroom Methods and Management in Secondary Schools	2
219ab.	Seminar in Supervision	4
220ab.	Seminar in Curricula and Methods	4
233.	Educational Guidance and Counseling in Secondary Schools	2
234.	Psychology of High School Subjects	2
250.	Advanced Course in Secondary Education	3
251ab.	Seminar in Secondary Education	4
252.	Problems in Departmental Organization and Supervision in Secondary Schools	2
253.	Junior High School	2
254.	Curriculum Making in Secondary Schools	2
255.	Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools ..	2
256.	Methods in Directed Study	2
258.	Administration of Secondary Schools	4

TEACHERS' CREDENTIALS AND CERTIFICATES

Definitions of Terms. A credential is a document issued by the State Board of Education authorizing the county superintendent to grant a certificate to the holder thereof. A certificate is the legal authorization of the holder to engage in the professional activities specified in the certificate, and is issued by the county superintendent on the presentation of a state credential. A credential does not authorize the holder to teach or engage in any other professional activity.

Division of Teacher Training and Certification. Credentials on which teachers' certificates are granted are issued by the Division of Teacher Training and Certification, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California, on the recommendation of the School of Education. The state department also maintains an office in Los Angeles in the Associated Realty Building, Room 1126, corner of Sixth and Olive, where information regarding requirements for credentials is given.

Recommendation for Credentials. The School of Education of the University has been accredited for the training of teachers, and has been authorized to issue recommendations to students who comply with the general requirements of the State Board of Education, for the following credentials: 1, Elementary; 2, Junior High School; 3, General Secondary; 4, Junior College; 5, Special Secondary in Commerce, Music, Physical Education, and Speech Arts (Oral and Dramatic Expression); 6, School Administration; 7, School Supervision; 8, Educational Research.

Applications for Credentials. Students who wish credentials upon the completion of work in progress should fill out an application blank, and submit all data requested to the Credential Secretary in the office of the School of Education at the opening of the semester or summer session. Upon fulfillment of all requirements, including satisfactory completion of all work in progress, the recommendation will be issued to the applicant. This recommendation, accompanied by the credential fee, should be forwarded by the applicant to the Division of Teacher Training and Certification, State Board of Education, Sacramento, for signature and registration. The recommendation, when countersigned, becomes an official state credential on which county certificates are issued.

THE ELEMENTARY CREDENTIAL

The Elementary School Credential authorizes the holder to teach any or all subjects in all grades of an elementary school in California. It is issued for a period of two years and may be renewed thereafter for periods of five years upon

verification of at least five months of successful teaching experience in the public schools of California.

Applicants presenting satisfactory evidence of physical and mental fitness will be granted a recommendation by the School of Education for the Elementary Credential upon completion of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, including:

- a. Principal and subordinate groups selected from departments or fields which bear directly on the work of the elementary schools.
- b. A course on the Constitution of the United States. (Hist. 172ab or 177, Pol. Sci. 130ab or 200ab.)
- c. Education, 28 units, including the following courses, which should be taken in about the order listed:
 - Introduction to Education (100).
 - Public Education in the United States (103), or Fundamentals in Education (102).
 - Elementary Education (101).
 - Educational Psychology, Introductory (130).
 - Education for Citizenship (142).
 - Classroom Methods and Management in Elementary Schools (120).
 - Methods and Supervision in Primary Grades (126).
 - Directed Teaching in Elementary Schools (123ab).
 - Electives in the following to total 28 units:
 - School Organization and Administration (116).
 - Elementary School Curriculum (125).
 - Psychology and Methods in Reading (129).
 - Growth and Development of the Child (131).
 - Psychology of Elementary School Subjects (134).
 - Educational Tests and Measurements (138).
- d. Six units from the following:
 - Organization of Physical Education in Elementary and Junior High School (Phys. Ed. 105).
 - Art Appreciation (Arch. 146ab).
 - Music Appreciation (Music 60).
 - Story Telling (Speech 4ab), or The Use of the Story (Rel. 161).

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CREDENTIAL

The Junior High School credential authorizes the holder to teach any subject in the junior high schools of California. If the applicant's program includes the requirements for the elementary credential, a junior high school and elementary

school credential will be issued which authorizes the holder to teach any subject in either an elementary or a junior high school. These credentials are issued for a period of two years and may be renewed thereafter for periods of five years upon verification of at least five months of successful teaching experience in the public schools of California.

Inexperienced applicants presenting satisfactory evidence of physical and mental fitness will be granted a recommendation by the School of Education for the junior high school credential upon completion of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, including:

- a. Principal and subordinate groups in subjects taught in a junior high school.
- b. A course on the Constitution of the United States. (Hist. 172ab or 177, Pol. Sci. 130ab or 200ab.)
- c. A minimum of twenty-four units in Education including the following courses:
 - Public Education in the United States (103), or Fundamentals in Education (102).
 - School Organization and Administration (116).
 - Secondary Education (including the Junior High School) (150).
 - Educational Psychology, Introductory (130).
 - Education for Citizenship (142).
 - Classroom Methods and Management (120) or (156).
 - Directed Teaching in Junior High School and in Special Subjects (157).
 - Electives—
 - Elementary Education (101).
 - Departmental Teachers' Courses.
 - Educational Tests and Measurements (138).
 - Other courses approved by adviser.

NOTE.—Until September 15, 1930, the junior high school credential may be granted to California teachers with two years of successful experience in teaching, who fall short one-half year of the bachelor's degree. Under this regulation, eighteen semester hours of work in education must be completed.

THE GENERAL SECONDARY CREDENTIAL

The General Secondary credential authorizes the holder to teach any or all subjects (with the exception of classes organized under the provisions of the Federal and State Vocational Acts) in all grades of any junior college, senior high school, four-year high school, junior high school, or elementary school. It is issued for a period of two years and may be renewed thereafter for periods of five years upon verifica-

- (d) Advanced Educational Psychology (3 units).
4. Additional courses in the following subjects:
- (a) Health Education (Growth and Development of the Child) (2 units).
- (b) Applied Ethics or Applied Sociology (Education for Citizenship) (3 units).
- (c) Political Science or Economics (3 units).

Washington:

State Teacher's Certificate to those who submit evidence of having had:

1. The A.B. degree from an accredited institution.
2. Same Major and Minor requirements as in California.
3. A Teacher's Course in the Major subject.
4. A course in Psychology (3 units).
5. Twelve semester units of work in Education, selected from the following:
 - (a) Principles or Science of Education (3 units).
 - (b) Secondary Education (2 units).
 - (c) Educational Sociology (2 units).
 - (d) Methods and Practice Teaching (6 units).
 - (e) History of Education.
6. An examination on the Washington State Manual (School System of the State and School Law, State Constitution, and State Geography).

COURSES OF INSTRUCTION

Students not desiring a degree in Education or a recommendation for a teacher's credential but electing work in Education as a part of their programs, may choose from courses 102, 103, 109, 130, 131, 141, 142, 147, 200ab, 201ab, 203, 204, and 230ab. Psychology 1 and two of the following courses, Education 100, 102, and 103, are prerequisites to other courses in Education.

100. Introduction to Education. A course based on observations, readings, and discussions of some of the different aspects of school and classroom work which will give students some understanding of the principles of education and the problems of school work, and the preparation needed to meet them.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

Adams

101. Elementary Education. The place of the elementary school in the public school system, historical development, underlying principles, objectives, organization, and curriculum, are considered. Required of all candidates for the Elementary Teacher's Credential.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

Adams

102. Fundamentals in Education. An introduction to the philosophy of Education, including some of the basic concepts in educational thought and practice. This course gives background for an intensive study of educational problems.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

Bacon

103. Public Education in the United States. A foundation course to give a better understanding of professional practice and trends in education today, through a historical study of the beginnings and evolution of the educational principles, organizations, curricula, and methods used in the United States.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

Scholtz

109. Current Literature in Education. An informal consideration of current topics in Education. Open to seniors and graduates who have had, or are registered for, eight or more units in Education.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

Hull

204. School Organization and Administration. A course dealing with the principles of educational organization and administration in state, county, and city systems of public education, in which a study is made of a number of problems

of constructive organization and the improvement of school management. *Prerequisite:* 103 or equivalent.
Three units; first semester, repeated second.

118. **Organization and Administration of Elementary Education.** A practical course dealing with the duties and activities of the elementary principal and supervisors, the types of elementary school organization, pupil classification and promotional policies, curriculum revision, the improvement of instruction, and problems of personnel management.
Two units; first semester.

119. **Supervision of Instruction.** A study of the principles underlying the organization and supervision of classroom instruction, the art and technique of schoolroom supervision, the supervision of instruction in the different school subjects, the means for improving teaching technique and the estimation of teaching efficiency.
Two units; second semester.

120. **Classroom Methods and Management in Elementary Schools.** The more recent general methods, such as supervised study, socialized recitations, and the project method. Major emphasis on specific methods and devices in the principal elementary school subjects. *Prerequisites:* 100, 101, or 131.

Three units; first semester, repeated second.

*123ab. **Directed Teaching in Elementary Schools.** Observation and experience in teaching under supervision for at least five hours per week for two semesters in the principal elementary schools of the city. *Prerequisites:* Acceptable content programs, recommendations, and eighteen semester hours in Education or acceptable equivalent work, including Education 120.

Four units each semester; both 123a and 123b offered each semester.

125. **Elementary School Curriculum.** A general review of the recent movements in curriculum revision in the United States with emphasis on the general problems involved and the scientific methods employed in making new curricula of study. The results, with reference to each of the principal elementary school subjects, are summarized.
Two units; second semester.

126. **Methods and Supervision in Primary Grade.** A study in primary supervision and teaching designed to give a thorough survey of the work of the first three grades as a field

*Applications for practice teaching must be submitted to and approved by the Dean of the School of Education the session preceding that in which practice teaching is to be taken.

by modern educational theory, by recent experiments, and by special studies in subject matter and materials appropriate to the school period indicated.
Two units; first semester.

129. **Psychology and Methods in Reading.** A study of the results of important investigations and psychological research in reading, with the practical problems of reading method, material, and instruction.
Two units; first semester, repeated second.

130. **Educational Psychology, Introductory.** An introductory course, designed for students who have had no previous training in educational psychology. The course gives a general survey of the elements of educational psychology.
Three units; first semester, repeated second.

131. **Growth and Development of the Child.** Eugenics and the principles governing the mental and physical development of the school child. Principles and methods of preventive hygiene. Educational organization and practice in the promotion of the physical and mental health of the child.
Two units; first semester, repeated second.

132. **Mental Differences and Educational Adjustments.** An analysis of the causes of maladjustment, followed by suggestions on methods of educational adjustments. Diagnosis of the child through the use of individual and group tests. Methods developed in adjustment and opportunity rooms. Analysis of differentiated courses of study. *Prerequisites:* 130 and 138.
Two units; first semester.

133. **Educational Guidance and Counseling in Elementary Schools.** Successful methods of analyzing and evaluating mental endowment, educational effort, and school achievement; best practices in meeting needs of the individual child. *Prerequisites:* 132 or equivalent work.
Three quarter units. University College only.

134. **Psychology of Elementary School Subjects.** Psychology of learning in the case of the principal elementary school subjects, language, arts, arithmetic, handwriting, drawing, followed by a study of the most reliable tests that have been developed for these subjects; interpretation of test results.
Two units; first semester.

135. **Pre-School Education.** An introductory study of the child from two to six years; factors of his environment; his mental and physical characteristics; standards of growth; physical and nutritional tests; health; mental hygiene; habit

formation and character training. Summary of movement organization, and techniques of the nursery school. Three quarter units. University College only.

136. Education for Parenthood. Relation of environment and child behavior; technics of successful parenthood; problems of mental and physical health; the significance of play in the training of the individual; time budget of the mother and family.

Three quarter units. University College only.

137. Introduction to Statistical Methods. Statistical figures and devices most commonly used in connection with educational work. Data will be taken from typical school conditions. Opportunity will be given to obtain practice in the use of adding machines and other aids of computation. *Prerequisite:* 138 or equivalent.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

138. Educational Tests and Measurements. The use and interpretation of educational tests and scales in the administration and supervision of instruction, simple statistical and graphical methods, the interpretation and diagnostic value of results obtained.

Two units; first semester, repeated second.

141. Social Aspects of Education. A study of the basis of certain sociological concepts on educational theory and practice, the place desirable aspects of group life have in the work of the school and the interrelation of the school and community.

Two units; second semester.

142. Education for Citizenship. An analysis of the characteristics and habits essential for good citizenship, followed by a study of the part which each school subject and activity has in its development. *Prerequisites:* Senior standing and eight units in Education. To alternate with Education 242.

Two units; first semester.

143. Organization and Administration of Vocational Education. The purpose, history, organization, and principles of vocational education, and its articulation with the general school system and with industry. Special attention given to the Smith-Hughes Law and other federal and state enactments bearing on this problem.

Two units; first semester.

144. Vocational Guidance. A study of the historical principles of vocational guidance, followed by an analysis of the psychological and educational factors, on the way

and the social and economic factors on the other, involved in assisting boys and girls of high school age in determining their own capacities and in choosing a life career.

Two units; second semester.

Bennett

147. Progressive Education for the Adult. History, aims, purposes, and methods in adult education; organization of adult support; business interests; and the social, vocational, and curricular aspects of adult education.

Three quarter units. University College only.

Bennett

148. The Organization and Administration of Commercial Education. Organization, administration, and content of commercial education in secondary schools. Special attention is given to problems of heads of departments, principals, and others responsible for commercial education.

Three quarter units. University College only.

Weersing

150. Secondary Education. The evolution, scope, and functions of secondary education, relation to elementary and higher education, student population, curricular and extra-curricular organization, problems and activities. Designed especially for students qualifying for the junior high school and special secondary credentials. *Prerequisites:* Six units in Education and Senior standing.

Three units; first semester, repeated second.

Weersing

156. Classroom Methods and Management in Secondary Schools. Types of lessons and conventional methods; more advanced experimental movements, such as supervised study, the individualized class, the project method. The discussion of principles will be supplemented by observation of actual classroom work. *Prerequisite:* 150 or 250.

Three units; first semester, repeated second.

Crawford, Thompson

157. Directed Teaching in Junior High School and in Special Subjects. Designed to give the prospective teacher a gradual introduction to actual classroom work under the guidance of a skilled critic teacher, culminating in full responsibility for the management of a class for a total of at least 40 periods. *Prerequisites:* Senior standing and twelve units in Education.

Two to four units; first semester, repeated second. (Maximum credit 4 units.)

Thompson and Critic Teachers

Applications for practice teaching must be submitted to and approved by the School of Education the session preceding that in which the teaching is to be taken.

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University of Southern California, 1974

through 1974, a total of 16 Shankland Awards, presented by the Education Industries Association through the American Association of School Administrators for distinguished achievement in the field of school administration. In 1974, the Shankland Award was presented for the first time in the history of the School of Education to a woman.

All credential and degree programs of the School of Education are recognized and accredited by state, regional, and national accrediting bodies. In 1970, the School of Education was reaccredited for all programs through the doctorate by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education for the period 1970-1980.

CURRENT DEGREE PROGRAMS

The School of Education offers curricula leading to the degrees of Bachelor of Science in General Studies, Master of Science in Education, Advanced Master of Education, Doctor of Philosophy with major in Education, Doctor of Education, and Doctor of Philosophy and other doctorates with minors in Education. Description and requirements for these degrees follow.

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE IN GENERAL STUDIES

The degree of Bachelor of Science in General Studies is conferred by the University of Southern California at the recommendation of the School of Education. Under present California regulations, this degree meets the requirements for the multiple subject instructorship credential, which is the credential required for elementary teachers. Students who wish to secure a credential to teach in the elementary grades should plan to enter the School of Education at the beginning of their junior year of college, and work toward the degree objective of Bachelor of Science in General Studies. Students who elect other degree programs but who wish to teach at the elementary grade level must pass the examination for the multiple subject instructorship credential, as set by the California Commission for Teacher Education and Licensing.

GENERAL REQUIREMENTS

LOWER DIVISION REQUIREMENTS Students are admitted to the School of Education for the degree of Bachelor of Science in General Studies and for the professional preparation program only after meeting the requirements for admission to the University, as outlined in the *Bulletin of the College of Letters, Arts, and Sciences*, and after completing two full years (60 units) of acceptable college work. The required lower-division work may be done at the University of Southern California or at other colleges and universities. Entering freshmen and sophomores should enroll in the College of Letters, Arts, and Sciences and plan their program to expedite their entry into the School of Education as juniors.

RESIDENCE The last 32 units for any bachelor's degree awarded by the University of Southern California must be earned while registered in regular standing at USC.

SCHOLARSHIP A scholarship average of at least 2.00 (C) is required in all courses attempted at USC, in all courses in the School of Education, and in all upper-division courses in the credential major.

LIMITATIONS WITHIN A DEPARTMENT Not more than 40 of the 128 units required for graduation may be in any one of the following departments: art, education, music, physical education.

GRADUATION WITH HONORS The minimum number of resident units for graduation with honors is 58. Average required for honors is as follows: for *cum laude* — 3.25; for *magna cum laude* — 3.60; for *summa cum laude* — 3.90.

COURSE REQUIREMENTS

Within the 128 units required by the University for a bachelor's degree, requirements for the Bachelor of Science degree in General Studies specify 84 units in the general studies major and 24 units in professional preparation.

Throughout the undergraduate program, the student should be enrolled in courses applicable to the major selected. For the degree of Bachelor of Science in General Studies, four areas are specified, as follows: Area I, English-speech; Area II, mathematics and the physical and life sciences; Area III, social sciences; and Area IV, the humanities and fine arts, including foreign languages. Both lower- and upper-division courses are included in these four areas. Generally, the four areas will include a minimum of 20 units in each of three areas and 24 units in a fourth area (20-20-20-24 division). However, a division of 18-18-24-24 units among the four areas is acceptable. One of the areas must include 16 upper-division units, and a second area must include 8 upper-division units.

In the following outline of courses in each of the four areas, certain courses are specified. They or their equivalent must be included. When no course number is given, any course in the departments listed may be completed. If, from time to time, it becomes necessary to add specific courses, counselors in the School of Education (Waite Phillips Hall, 1103) will supply the necessary information.

I. English-Speech

- English 101 Freshman Seminar I in Writing and Literature
- English 102 Freshman Seminar II in Writing and Literature or
- English 400 Advanced Expository Writing

One of the following literature courses

- English 260 English and American Literature since 1900
 - English 261 Major Writers of English Literature to 1800
 - English 262 Major Writers of English Literature since 1800
 - English 440, 441, 442 American Literature courses
 - Speech Communication 424 Cultural Dimensions of Speech Communication
- Electives may be chosen from the following departments:
English, Classics, Comparative Literature, Linguistics, Speech Communication

II. *Science-Mathematics*

Mathematics 200 Elementary Mathematics from an Advanced Standpoint

At least two science courses must be included. Recommendations are:

Astronomy 100 Elementary Astronomy

Biological Sciences 100, 101, 102 Topics in Biology

Biological Sciences 106*abl* General Biology

Chemistry 102*abl* Comprehensive Introductory Chemistry

Chemistry 105*abl* General Chemistry

Geological Sciences 105L Physical Geology

Geological Sciences 106L Historical Geology

Geological Sciences 107L Oceanography

Physics 100 Introduction to Physics

Physics 105*abl* General Physics

Colloquia, science "semesters," and mathematics may also be elected.

III. *Social Sciences*

History 200 The American Experience

Political Science 100 Theory and Practice of American Democracy

or

Political Science 300 Principles, Institutions, and Great Issues of American Democracy

Geography: Elective in geography; 300 Social Geography recommended

One course from any of the following departments:

Psychology

Anthropology

Sociology

Electives may be chosen from anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, psychology and sociology.

IV. *Humanities*

Art 361 Introduction to Art and a music course or

Music Education 330 Fundamentals of Music and an Art course

Foreign language: Optional if entrance requirement is met.

Electives to complete this area may be chosen from any department above or from Asian, Ethnic or Slavic Studies; or cinema, or drama, or philosophy, or religion.

Included in the program are two recommended areas of instruction to concentrate on current social issues, namely conservation (ecological studies) and ethnic studies. Selection of at least one course in each of the following two areas should be included in the program of studies and recommendations are listed:

Ecology and Conservation

Biology 102 Man and His Environment

Biology 300*abcd* Biology Semester

Biology 385 Colloquium: Biology

Geography 430 Conservation of Natural Resources

Geological Sciences 230 Natural Resources and Man

Ethnic Studies

Ethnic Studies 202 Minority Cultures in the United States

Ethnic Studies 250 Perspectives on Ethnic Studies

Anthropology 320*ab* Special Ethnic Studies in American Culture

Sociology 342 Race Relations

Anthropology 201 Introduction to Social Anthropology

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

For professional education requirements, see below, *Requirements for Specific Credentials, Multiple Subject Instructorship Credential*.

Four units of credit in physical education may be applied to the 128-unit total required for the degree.

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE IN GENERAL STUDIES —
TECHNICAL STUDIES (VOCATIONAL
SPECIALIZATION)

In order to meet a demand in American and foreign institutions for teachers and supervisors with vocational specialization, the University presents a degree curriculum which includes a sound liberal arts foundation, a relevant diversified academic major, and professional training. A student interested in this degree objective must plan his four-year program in his freshman year with counselors in Waite Phillips Hall, Room 1103. Foreign students will be directed in this program by the Center for International Education, Waite Phillips Hall.

ADVANCED DEGREES — GENERAL
REQUIREMENTS

The following general requirements pertain to award of the advanced degrees of Master of Science (M.S. in Ed.), Advanced Master of Education (Adv. M.Ed.), Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) with major in Education, Doctor of Education (Ed.D.), and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) and other doctorates with minor in Education.

ADMISSION Permission to register for courses in the School of Education does not in itself imply that the student is accepted for study leading to an advanced degree. Admission criteria are specified within each degree program.

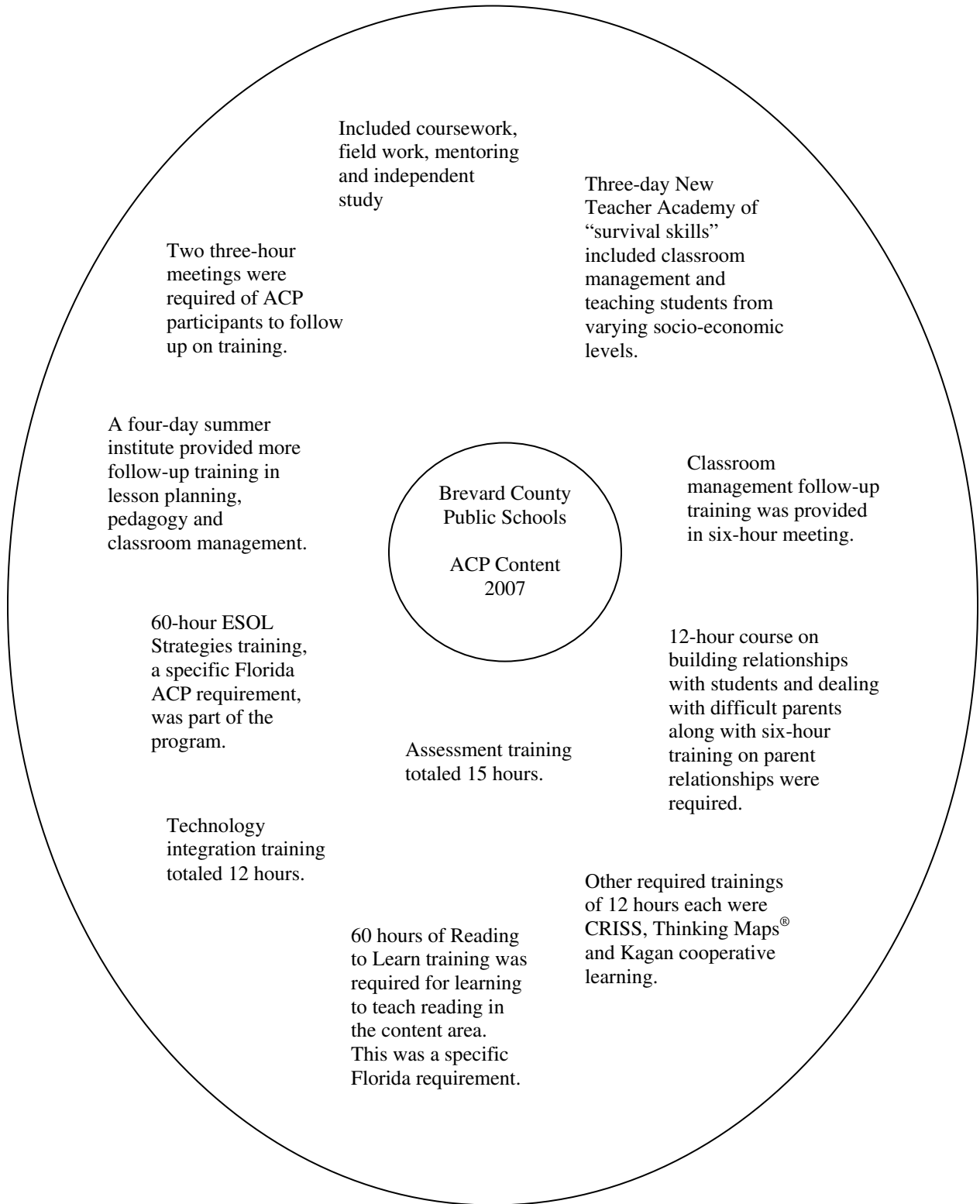
RE-ADMISSION Students who have not been in attendance for five or more years are required to submit an application for re-admission to graduate study with master's or doctoral degree objectives. Such application is made to the University Office of Admissions.

GRADUATE RECORD EXAMINATIONS The aptitude section of the Graduate Record Examinations (GRE) is required of all applicants for admission to all advanced degree

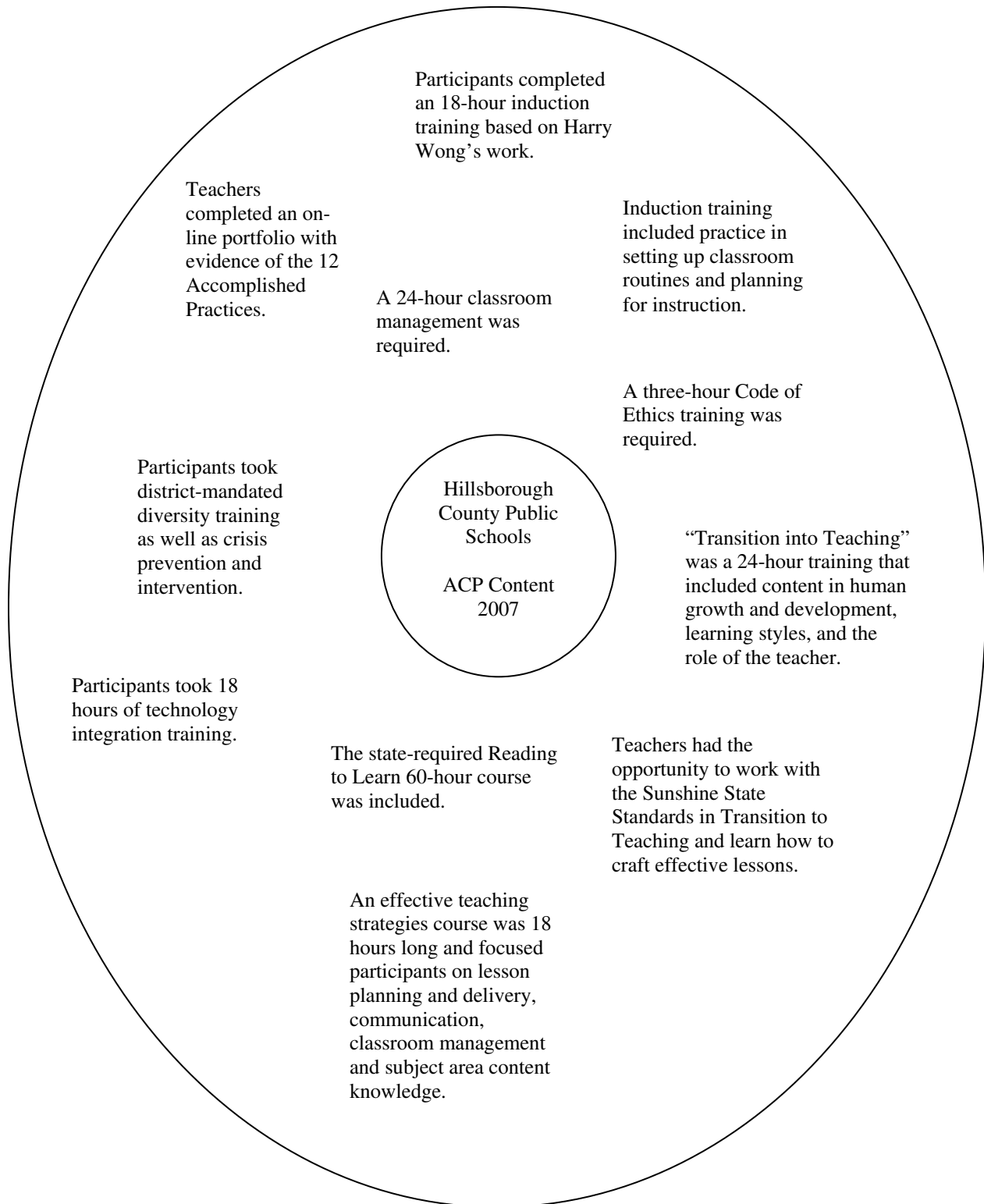
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**APPENDIX E: CIRCLE MAPS TO DEFINE FLORIDA SCHOOL DISTRICT-BASED
ALTERNATIVE CERTIFICATION PROGRAM CONTENT IN 2007**

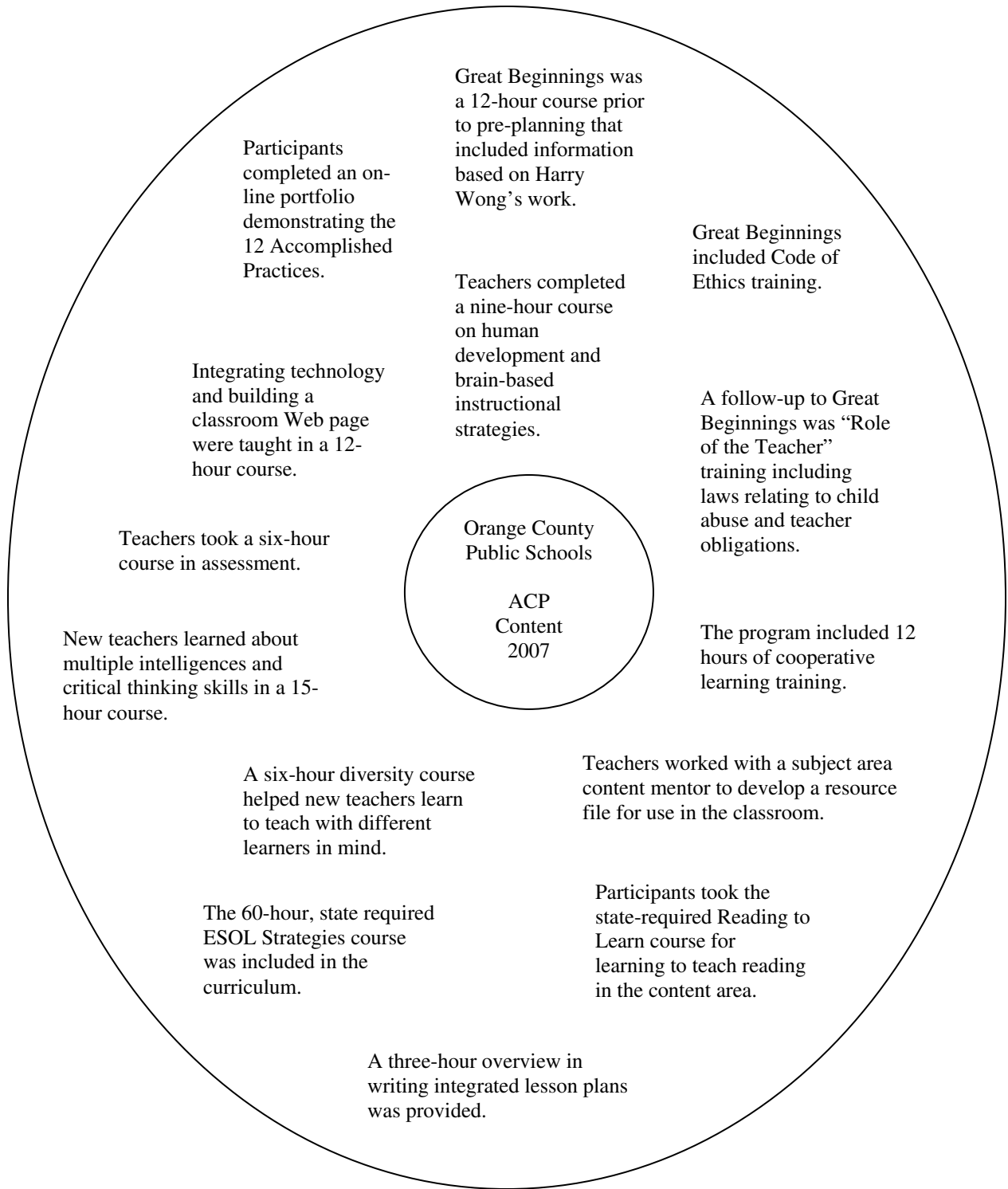
Brevard County Public Schools ACP Circle Map



Hillsborough County Public Schools ACP Circle Map



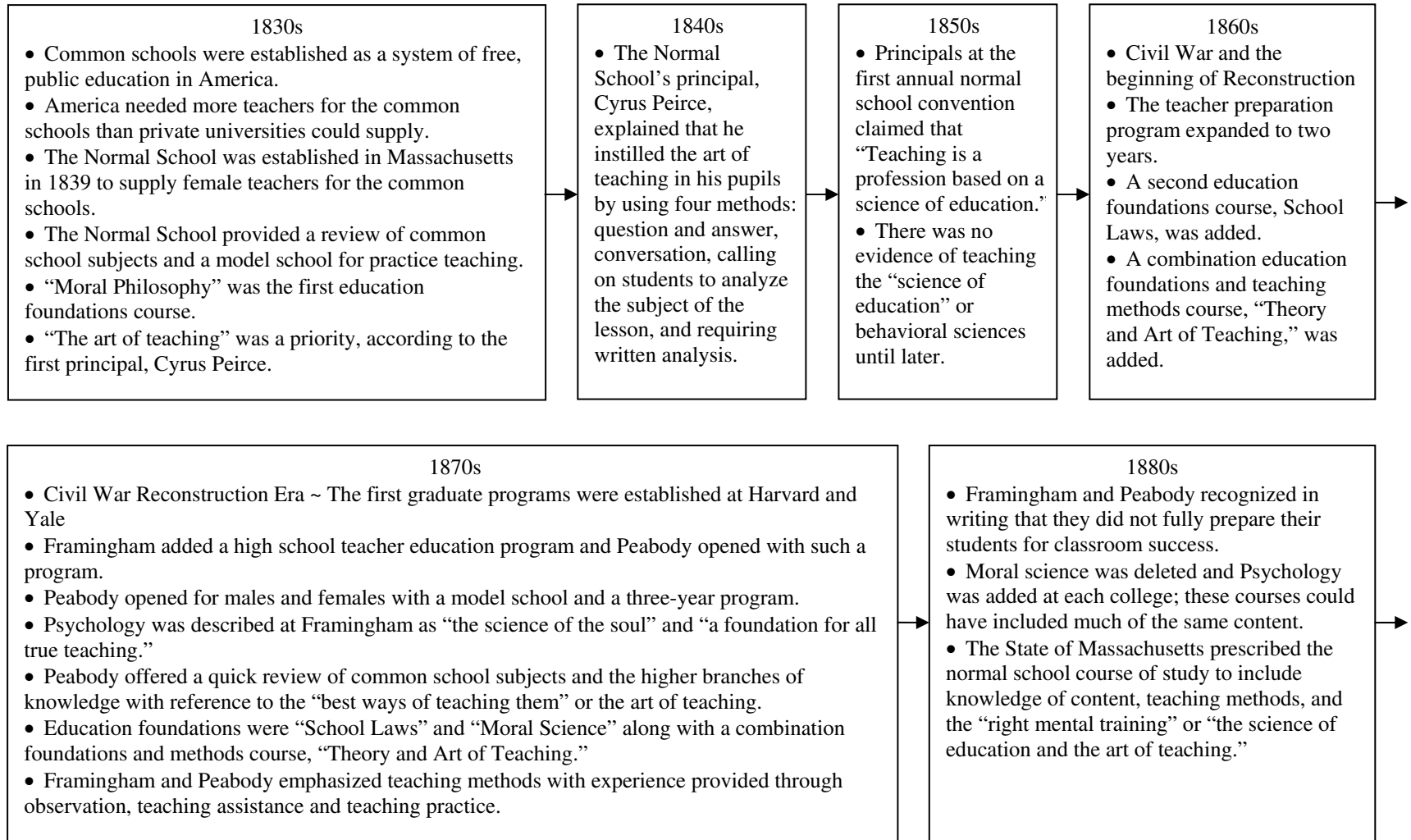
Orange County Public Schools ACP Circle Map

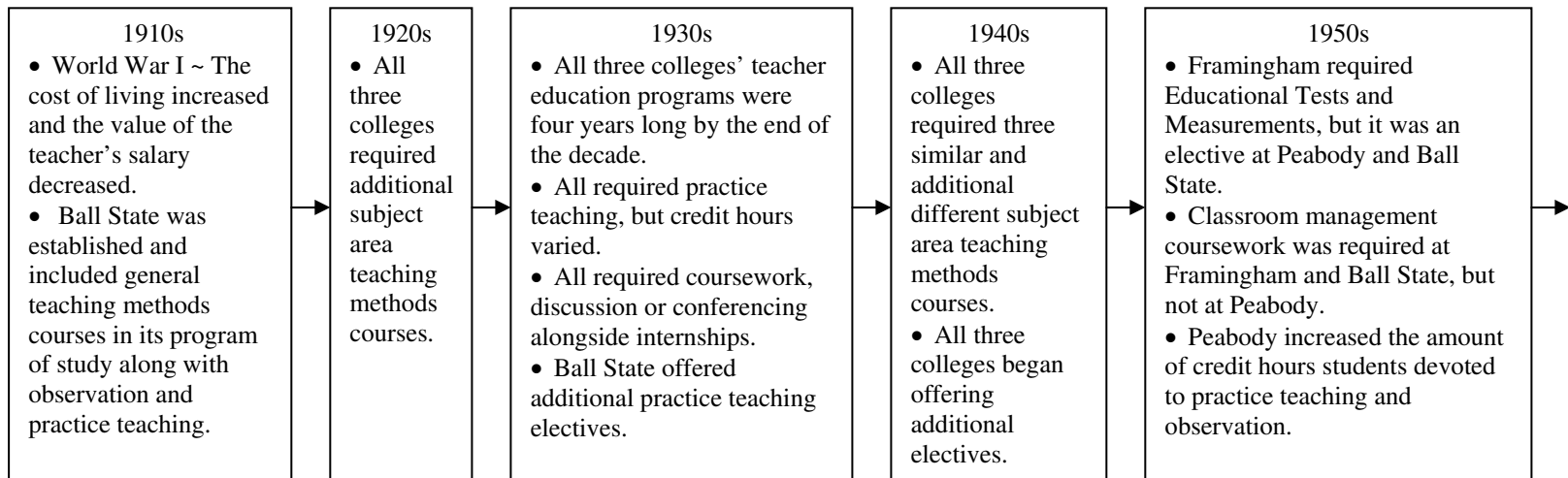
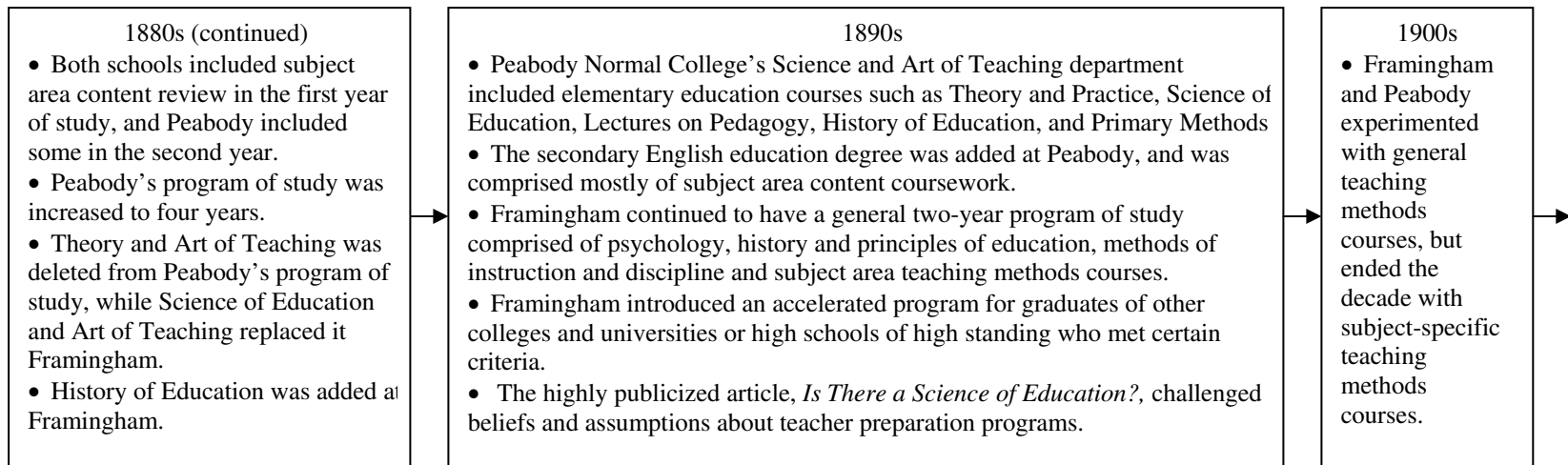


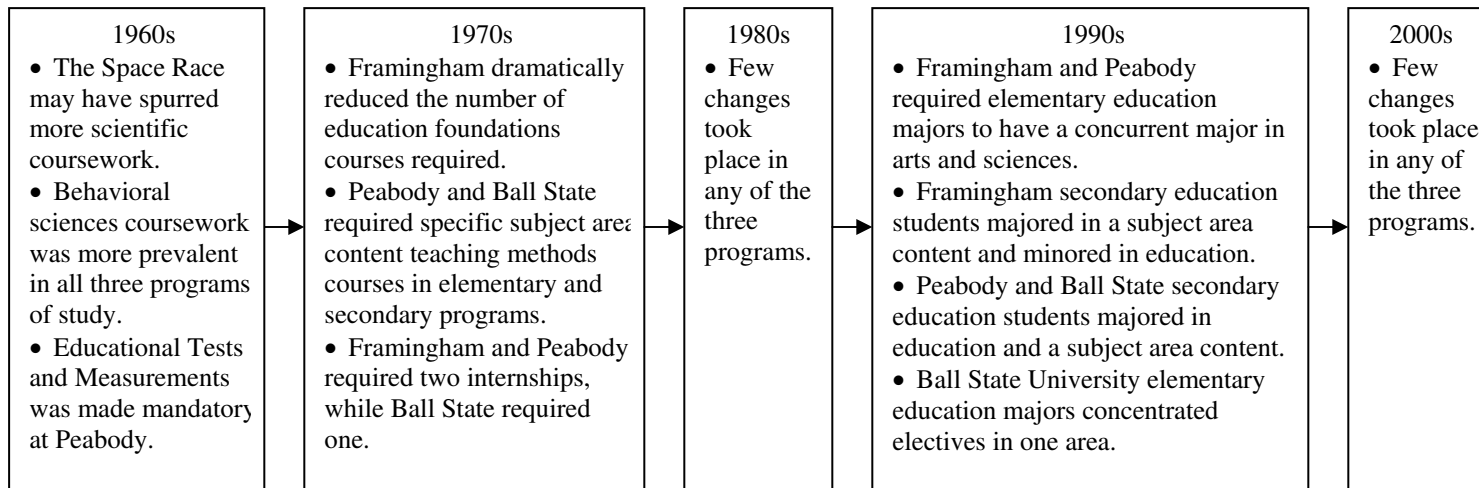
**APPENDIX F: FLOW MAP OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM CONTENT
FROM 1839 TO 2007 IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHICH ORIGINATED AS
TEACHER NORMAL SCHOOLS**

Colleges and Universities Which Originated as Teacher Normal Schools

Combined Flow Map



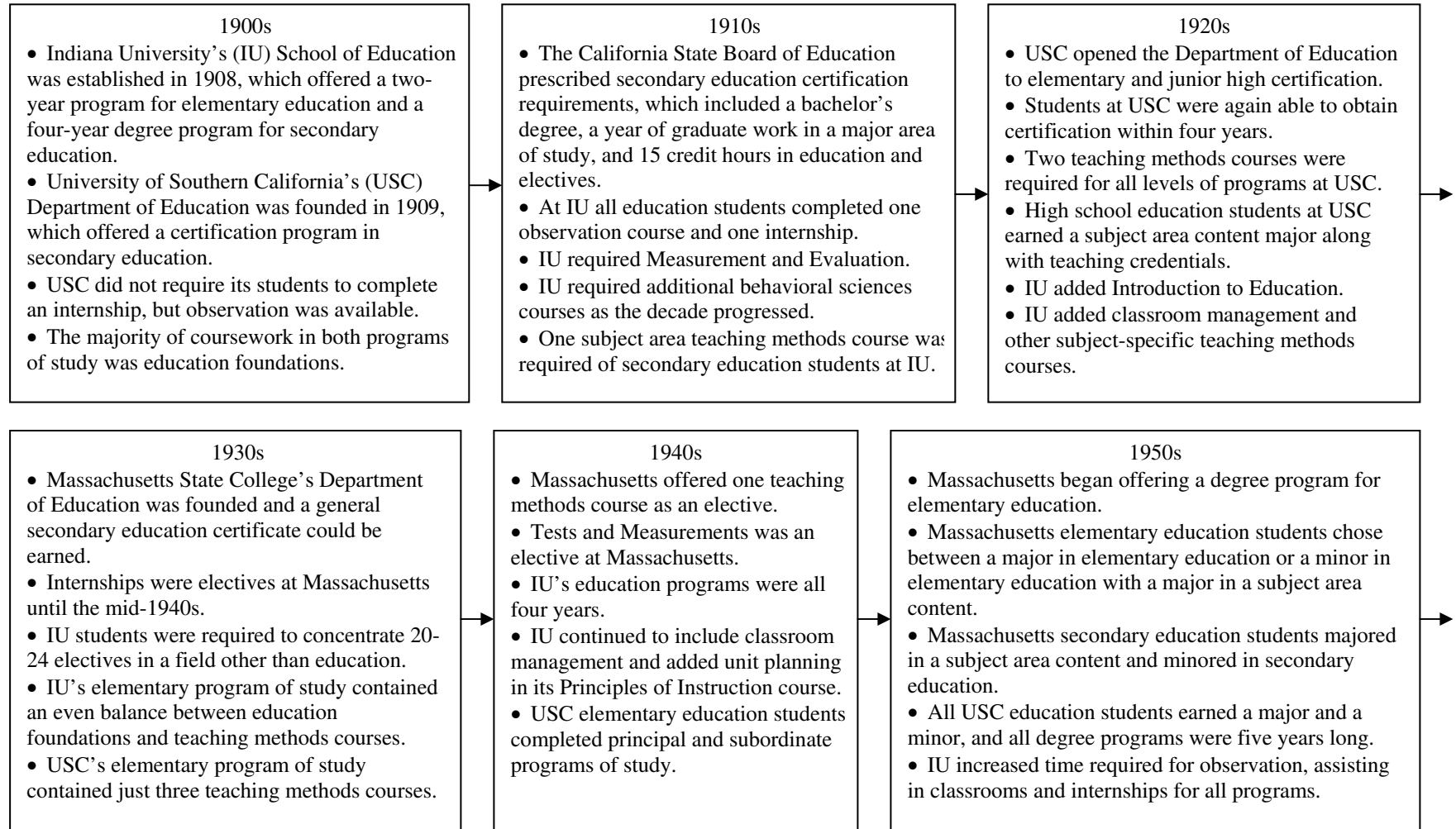


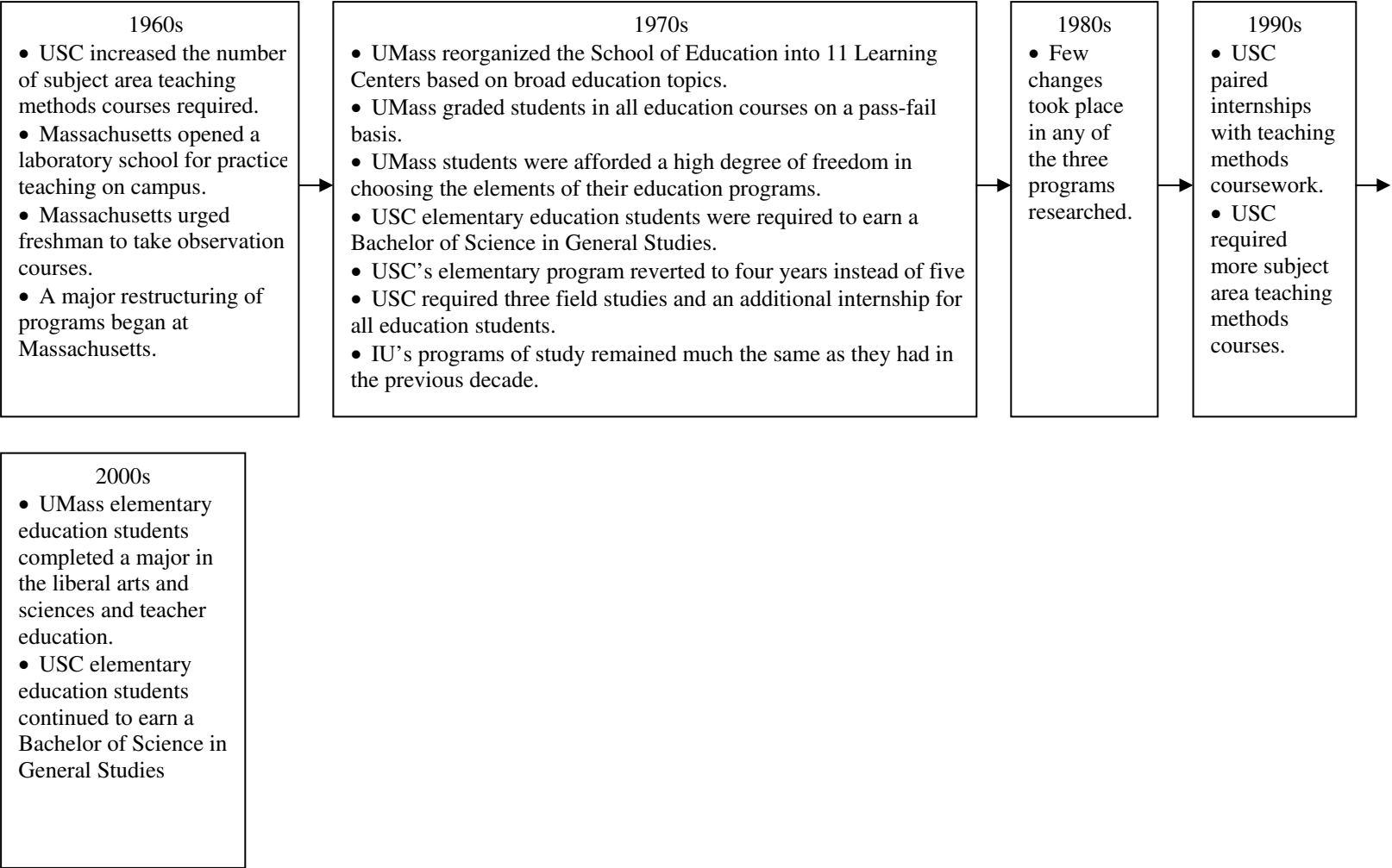


**APPENDIX G: FLOW MAP OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM CONTENT
FROM 1908 TO 2007 IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
WHICH DID NOT ORIGINATE AS TEACHER NORMAL SCHOOLS**

Colleges and Universities which Did Not Originate as Teacher Normal Schools

Combined Flow Map

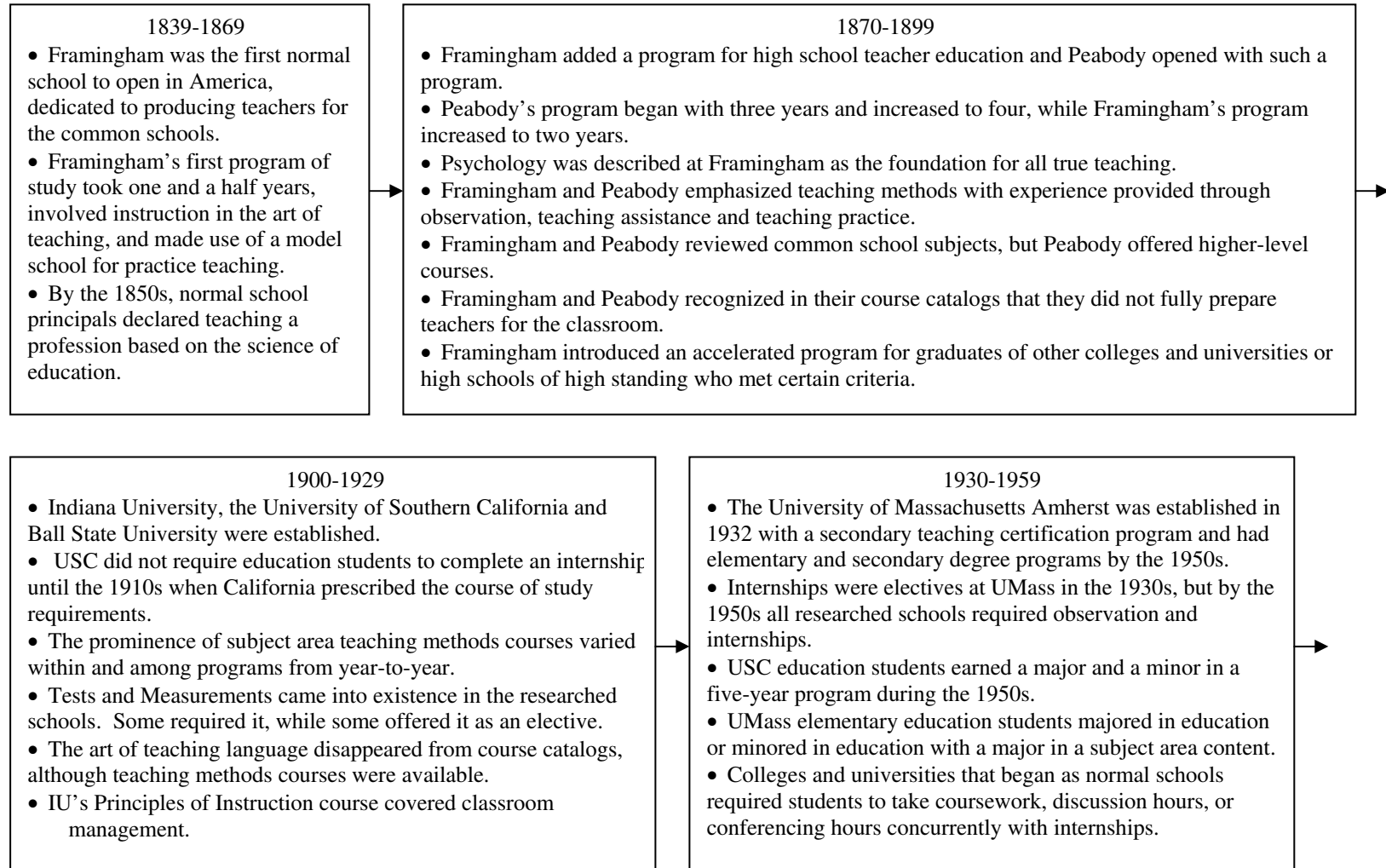




**APPENDIX H: FLOW MAP OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAM CONTENT
FROM 1839 TO 2007 IN SIX RESEARCHED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES**

All Researched Teacher Preparation Programs

Combined Flow Map



1960-1989

- UMass Department of Education underwent major reorganization in the 1960s and 1970s. Students were given more freedom to build their own program of study.
- USC education students earned a BS in General Studies.
- All programs researched involved either one or two internships.
- Some programs involved additional observation hours or assisting in classrooms.
- Few changes were made to any of the programs in the 1980s.

1990-2007

- USC elementary education students earned a BS in General Studies.
- UMass elementary education students earned a degree in liberal arts.
- Internships were paired with teaching methods courses at some schools which began as normal schools and some that did not.
- Alternative Certification Programs in Florida were based on a model with specific requirements.
- ACPs in Florida contained mainly teaching methods coursework, with heavy emphasis on classroom management, diversity and differentiation, and methods of teaching reading.

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