
The National Teacher Corps: A Study of Shifting Goals and Changing Assumptions

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Sarah Anne Eckert¹

Abstract

This article investigates the lasting legacy of the National Teacher Corps (NTC), which was created in 1965 by the U.S. federal government with two crucial assumptions: that teaching poor urban children required a very specific skill set and that teacher preparation programs were not providing adequate training in these skills. Analysis reveals that, though these assumptions still undergird many of today's current alternative certification programs, political and institutional issues prevented the NTC from realizing its full potential. Analysis also reveals that the NTC, because of changes, left a legacy of assumptions but never uncovered how to actually prepare teachers for urban schools.

Keywords

teacher education, urban, school reform

In a 1996 *New York Times* advertisement for Teach for America (TFA), Wendy Kopp explained that TFA, her brain child, began with a question: “Why doesn’t this country have a national teacher corps that inspires recent college graduates, of all different academic majors, to commit two years to

¹Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, USA

Corresponding Author:

Sarah Anne Eckert, 300 Rackley Building, University Park, PA 16801, USA
Email: sarah.eckert@gmail.com

teach in urban and rural public schools that have a need for teachers?” (“Display ad 26—No title,” 1996). Put simply, the answer to Wendy Kopp’s question is that we *had* a national teacher corps. Her question, however, is critical, because evidence indicates the National Teacher Corps program (NTC), created by the federal government in 1965, legally and politically set the stage for alternative certification programs like TFA. On the surface, TFA and NTC share a reliance on young people, a reference to a mainland Peace Corps, and crucially, a way to circumvent traditional certification (“Emergency Aid for Education,” 1965; Graham, 1970; Pomfret, 1965; Rogers, 2009; Transcript of Johnson’s Address to N.E.A. Here,” 1965). The connection between these two programs goes much deeper and is entrenched in the tumultuous history of NTC legislation. The legacy of NTC is not a direct result of the corps program, but rather, it is a legacy left by significant shifts in the mission of the NTC during the enactment and implementation of the legislation. It is these changes that are clearly represented both in programs like TFA and in teacher certification policy debates raging today around traditional¹ and alternative² routes to certification.

Why was the NTC created, and what were the initial aims of this program? How and why did these goals change during the implementation process? What are the lasting implications of the NTC legacy on teacher preparation and on teacher certification policy? To address these questions, I examine the NTC during its initial implementation, from roughly 1965 through 1969. I then reach into the present, using the controversy surrounding TFA as a contemporary example of the lasting policy implications. The initial period of study is crucial because it is the period during which significant changes occurred, though the program officially existed until 1981, when funding dissolved.³ To address these goals, I draw on secondary sources as recent as 2009 as well as a variety of primary sources, including an extensive collection of *New York Times* articles covering both the trajectory of the policy and public perception, multiple reports on individual NTC programs, and scholarly articles written during the implementation process.

Historical Background

In 1965, amid the barrage of federal policy known as “The Great Society,” the U.S. Congress established the NTC. The legislation creating the teacher corps, Title V of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HSA) (*President Lyndon B. Johnson’s Remarks at the University of Michigan May 22, 1964, 1965*), was like the great majority of “Great Society” reforms; at the heart of this bill was a focus on relieving poverty and ending racial oppression. This particular

program, engineered by Senators Edward M. Kennedy of Massachusetts and Gaylord Nelson of Wisconsin, entailed the use of federal funds to place both novice and expert teachers in poor urban and rural schools. The reformers aimed to place teachers in these “slums,” as the press generally referred to them at the time (“The University and Society,” 1965), and train them how to work with these disadvantaged populations of students. In theory, novice Teacher Corps teachers were enrolled in relevant university courses throughout the tenure of their 1-to 2-year school placements. However, the imagined program structure did not last long, as political and institutional pressure quickly caused crucial aspects of the program’s mission to dissolve.

The politicians orchestrating the Teacher Corps legislation had two main goals, one readily apparent, and the other often promoted as a secondary and minor aspect of the legislation. On its face, the NTC “aimed at improving the quality of teaching in city slums and areas of rural poverty by introducing a new population and different preparation patterns into the teaching profession” (Edelfelt, Corwin, & Hanna, 1974, p. 8). However, evidence reveals that, because the federal government realistically had little control concerning state-organized teacher certification, the NTC legislation also operated as a federal attempt to alter established methods of teacher preparation and teacher certification (Fraser, 2007). In examining these initial goals of the NTC, two crucial assumptions surrounding the poor quality and preparation of teachers of the urban and rural poor became salient: First, it was assumed that teaching “slum children” in “slum schools” was an entirely different practice from teaching middle-class children in well-resourced schools (Hechinger, 1966a; Strom & Larimore, 1970). Second, it was assumed that the accepted university-based teacher certification process was ineffectively preparing teachers for underserved communities (Fraser, 2007).

As a result of political and economic complications and an already entrenched local and professional system of teacher certification, the goals of the NTC shifted as the program became more localized. Most important, the subtle goals of altering or improving traditional teacher certification dissolved and, instead, lead to an established method of completely bypassing traditional certification and a heated debate over the efficacy of traditional and alternative programs. These complications were a direct result of attempts to alter an already institutionalized system using federal policy. I conjecture that the changes in the goals and assumptions of the NTC during the initial phases of implementation essentially developed some of the policy groundwork making programs like TFA possible. These changes can be interpreted as setting a precedent through which reformers often opt to solve perceived problems in traditional teacher certification by bypassing the system rather

than trying to alter the traditional framework (Festritzer, 2009). The growing trend of circumventing the traditional certification process has evolved into a policy debate between traditional and alternative certification advocates in which each party is focused on a strategy of outward defense at the expense of internal improvement.

The NTC: The Complicated Mission

The purpose of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HSA), best known for its efforts to create federal financial aid and loan programs, was to “to strengthen the educational resources of our colleges and universities and to provide financial assistance for students in postsecondary and higher education” (*President Lyndon B. Johnson’s Remarks at the University of Michigan May 22, 1964, 1965*). Although a personal favorite of President Johnson,⁴ the NTC section of the HSA faced a series of political and institutional challenges during the first few years of its life that not only stalled the policy from getting off the ground but also forced the mission of the corps to change significantly. At the time that HSA was enacted in both the House of Representatives and the Senate, the NTC was envisioned as a program to partner school districts with local universities in order to staff poor urban and rural schools with energetic, well-trained teachers.

As already noted, Senators Gaylord Nelson and Edward M. Kennedy were responsible for creating and promoting the initial legislation regarding the NTC, but President Johnson, who began his own teaching experience without a full credential in a low-income school (“President’s Talk in Higher Education,” 1965), provided extensive support for the legislation (*President Lyndon B. Johnson’s Remarks at the University of Michigan May 22, 1964, 1965*). Although Kennedy imagined a corps of highly experienced, expert teachers providing service in underresourced schools, and Nelson dreamt of teams of fresh college graduates,⁵ the final proposal combined the two approaches (Fraser, 2007; “National Teacher Corps Urged to Aid Children in Poor Areas,” 1965). As argued by its creators, corps members would be dispatched in teams consisting of one expert and four novice teachers to local school districts, at the request of the district. Corps members were to be paid the average salary of the district for a teacher with their experience, though encountering a reduced teaching load, but that salary was to be paid in full by the federal government. Furthermore, corps members were expected to do more than teach. NTC teachers were expected to attend summer training workshops, engage in community service in the district, and, more important, enroll in university courses with the aim of receiving a master of arts in teaching—and thus a valid teaching credential (Hechinger, 1966b).

Although specific details about the structure of the program are important, the purpose and meaning behind the NTC are essential to a study of its policy impact. Great Society programs, largely, had lofty, transformative goals. The overarching goal was not just to change education or welfare, but more important, to change society. In his speech at the University of Michigan in 1964, President Johnson explained, "The great society rests on abundance and liberty for all. It demands an end to poverty and racial injustice. . . . But that is just the beginning" (*President Lyndon B. Johnson's Remarks at the University of Michigan May 22, 1964*, 1965). Through this brief snippet, it becomes clear that the crucial element of analysis of the NTC is not simply the design of the program, but rather the mission of the reformers. In a summary of one extensive study of ten Teacher Corps programs in operation during the period 1969 to 1970, the researchers explain that the stated aims of the original legislation were

To strengthen educational opportunities for children in areas where low-income families were concentrated, to attract and prepare people to teach in such areas through coordinated work-study programs, and to encourage colleges and universities, schools, and state departments of education to work together to improve teacher education. (Edelfelt et al., 1974, p. 14)

Although this study examines an already altered version of the Teacher Corps, it provides an excellent account of the original goals and inherent assumptions of the reformers responsible for the NTC. The end goal was not simply to alter the lives of low-income children in individual districts but to dramatically alter the system of teacher education in a way that would have an enduring impact on the education of disadvantaged students.

To achieve this piece of the Great Society puzzle, the NTC operated with two goals: First, change the lives of low-income students by attracting teachers to disadvantaged areas and train them in how to instruct disadvantaged students, and second, create lasting change in the process of teacher education. The second goal, the goal of transforming teacher preparation, actually had primary significance in reformers' minds.⁶ It was this goal that had transformative power, and it was this goal that provoked fear of governmental control. There is a set of assumptions that illuminate the nature of the program and are necessary to fully contextualize the stated goals. The reformers, first and foremost, believed education was important in the process of overcoming poverty and racial oppression. Second, they believed providing well-trained teachers to disadvantaged students was an effective method to improve the educational outcome of these students. The program further assumed

teaching disadvantaged students, those defined as living “in areas where low-income families are concentrated” (Edelfelt et al., 1974, p. 17), required a specific knowledge base and a specific set of skills. Bethany Rogers explains that NTC training, in contrast to traditional teacher training, aimed “to sensitize teacher candidates to the culture of poverty and the communities of their disadvantaged students; help them develop new courses [and] special instructional methods. . . . to meet the needs of underserved children” (Rogers, 2009, p. 367). Inherent in the logic behind this new type of training was a perceived disconnect between the content of teacher training and the communities and schools serving disadvantaged students. Teacher corps training aimed to correct these gaps in knowledge through university coursework, apprenticeship, and community involvement.

Lastly, but critically, reformers assumed colleges and universities were responsible for the training–teaching gap because they were not providing the knowledge base, skills, or experiences needed to teach poor urban and rural children. A report on the operation of the Teacher Corps in Atlanta explains, “College students who complete prescribed teacher preparation programs are not ready to assume the full responsibilities of a classroom. They do not represent finished products, but need assistance and guidance in order to cope with the many problems which are not included in teacher preparation programs” (Dziuban et al., 1967, pp. ii-3). Furthermore, a similar report on the Teacher Corps programs in Chicago lists a series of assumptions behind the project. The third assumption states, “Teacher preparation programs can benefit greatly from the insights and skills of experienced teachers, principals and other personnel from schools” (Beck & Black, 1969, p. 2). Reformers believed that, through NTC legislation, they could provide and train teachers for the specific challenges of disadvantaged areas. However, they also believed that the NTC program was the key to institutional change to bridge the fatal disconnect between training and teaching. The Teacher Corps was imagined as a small program that would have a big impact outside of the individual schools being served.

For policy makers, the aim of altering teacher education was crucial. This explains why NTC was included in the HSA rather than in reforms directed at primary and secondary education or in a separate bill.⁷ The placement of NTC legislation in a bill aimed at colleges and universities sent the message that, first, teacher education *was* the responsibility of colleges and universities. Second, it carried the implication that colleges and universities needed to revise their practices, especially concerning the education of teachers for poor and minority students. A September 1965 article in the *New York Times* hints at the tension involved in communicating these messages. According to

the article, there was debate between the House and Senate over where to place NTC legislation (“Senate Panel Votes \$4.7 Million to Help Meet Colleges’ Needs,” 1965). Although it was eventually incorporated into both the Senate and House versions of HSA, the brief debate about the provision’s placement foreshadowed the complicated course that this program underwent during the legislative process, specifically the funding debates focused specifically on the NTC.

Critical Complications: What Changed the NTC?

Although the NTC faced numerous challenges during the legislative process and the initial phases of its implementation, it is critical to understand two specific obstacles that explain how and why the NTC was forced to alter in both form and function. These obstacles, one political and the other institutional, both relied heavily on a similar defensive rhetoric. Politically, the NTC was confronted by repeated attempts by the U.S. House of Representatives to stall the program from getting off the ground. The NTC was incorporated into an already entrenched system of teacher certification, so the program also faced resistance from the institutions it was intended to change. Both the dissenting members of the House and established university administrators and professors utilized arguments designed to combat federal control over locally and professionally managed education systems (Buder, 1965; Hunter, 1965b-c; Rogers, 2009), especially higher education. Although it is unclear whether federal control was the real concern of either group, both successfully argued that a program like the NTC was outside the acceptable realm of federal involvement.

The House begrudgingly passed legislation regarding the NTC in 1965. However, before NTC could officially begin, the program became embroiled in a battle for funding in both the House and the Senate. A September 1966 *New York Times* article explains that though the act authorized US\$64.2 million and Johnson asked for US\$31.4 million, the Senate only offered US\$7.5 million. The House allocated no funds to the NTC (“Slash in Teacher Corps Funds Scored by Morse as ‘Sad Thing,’” 1966). Senator Wayne Morse, an Oregon Democrat, fought hard for expanded funding, yet Republicans, such as Representative Albert Quie of Minnesota and many Southern Democrats, worked diligently to block funding for the program (Hechinger, 1966b; Hunter, 1965a-b; see Appendix A for a list of House members voting “no” on the bill). Meager allocations allowed the NTC to begin recruitment and training for only 1,600 of the planned 3,700 total teachers and interns, yet it was unclear whether funds would be made available to pay teachers salaries once

the school year began (“Undernourished Teacher Corps,” 1966). Finally receiving 9.7 million dollars, the NTC began with only 1,250 teachers. The funding battle was far from over. During the constant clashes in the House to allocate funding, the NTC underwent its first significant change. The federal government agreed to pay only 90% of teacher salaries, leaving the local district to make up the difference. The funding controversy lasted until 1968, when the Teacher Corps stood on “fiscally sound footing for the first time since the programs creation” (“Teacher Corps Bill Pushed,” 1968). This sound footing, however, was due to a process of political appeasement that changed the mission of the NTC.

This second, and more important change, brought about during political debate, required that the NTC remove the “National” from the program title. With the change in name to the “Teacher Corps,” the national focus of the program was effectively removed. Constant reminders that NTC services were truly local and needed to be requested by individual school districts did not appease dissenters in the House and Senate, who feared federal control over education and firmly believed that this bill had a purpose beyond simply aiding slum children, which it did.⁸ The federal government simultaneously decreased the amount of federal funding and placed the organizational control of the corps in the hands of individual states. This gradual process of administrative and financial release slowly eroded the national mission of the original reform.

Critically, the loss of national focus resulted in a number of structural changes for the program. For example, the burden of recruitment and program design now fell to the local school district, and teacher stipends were reduced (“Teacher Corps,” 1967). This shift calmed political fears of government control in education and allowed the program to continue with increased funding, yet the program never expanded to the size and scope desired by President Johnson, and Senators Kennedy, Nelson, and Morse⁹ (also see Appendix B). Without a national focus, the dream of a reforming the teacher certification process began to fade. Now truly “local,” the Teacher Corps programs had no way to establish a coherent mission and began to look drastically different in various locations.

It is also important to consider that the political debate was not the only reason for the dramatic changes in the mission of NTC. The ideological battles regarding the institution of teacher preparation being fought on college campuses between the Teacher Corps members, professors, and administrators also hastened the shift away from the goal of changing the established teacher preparation process. Much research has already examined the way in which corps members were received on university campuses. Although there

are tales of specific schools where passionate, reform-minded educators embraced corps members, their reception was often hostile and the coursework irrelevant as a result of competing institutional structures (Fraser, 2007). In a report on Chicago Teacher Corps programs, the summary of findings reported some positive institutional change in a few of the colleges involved (Chicago State College, Roosevelt University and Loyola University), yet the report also included several pages of comments from corps members that tend to tell a different story (Beck & Black, 1969). For example, corps members expressed the following thoughts on their experiences:

Courses don't tell the practical problems and solutions, such as the fact that children haven't eaten any breakfast

A typical opening statement of an instructor we have had is, "I've never taught a graduate-level course before, however . . ."

There is a bone of contention with the so-called "graduate programs" in the corps. Most interns were of the opinion, on entering the program, that they could choose any college or university where they could attend classes

The attitude of the professor in some classes we took was, "Why are you here; you're not black." (Beck & Black, 1969, Appendix A)

Although not all of the comments shared by corps members in this study are entirely negative, the comments above represent thematic responses. The voices of these teachers reveal two problems that eventually complicated the mission of federal policy engineers in the change of traditional teacher preparation in the United States: irrelevant coursework and irrelevant universities.

These complications are clearly articulated in a 1974 report commissioned by the National Education Association (NEA), one of the nation's largest teacher unions. In the text of the report, the authors highlight two fundamental problems with the implementation of the Teacher Corps program: First, "the fact that funds have been spread over so many different institutions, many of them among the poorest and least prestigious colleges, almost assures that the Teacher Corps will have no effect beyond the institutions involved" (Edelfelt et al., 1974, p. 19). In their opinion, the diffusion of federal funds and the poor choice of universities prevented the program from creating a national impact. The authors also point out that the program struggled with the "necessity of working within the existing structures of public and teacher education" (Edelfelt et al., 1974, p. 19), and, because of the already institutionalized system, they explain, "*college faculties generally didn't want basic change in their own institutions*, although they sometimes

wanted to see schools change” (Edelfelt et al., 1974, p. 27; emphasis in original). Professors and administrators, who saw themselves as the professional authority, dug in their heels and resisted change because the federal government was attempting to intervene in the established method of teacher preparation (Rogers, 2009).

Most important, because of the resistance of faculty and the highly political denationalization of the corps, the program was unable to create a cohesive impact. In the report on Chicago Consortium schools, the researchers made several policy recommendations, and, notably, they suggested, “Teacher Corps field representatives should endeavor to establish and develop cohesiveness in the corps project. Insufficient effort is made to promote unity among the participating groups” (Beck & Black, 1969, p. 14). This report, commissioned in 1969, just 1 year after the word “national” was removed from the program title, signals the implications of shifting focus. Although the program had a great impact on students, as reported in both the Atlanta and Chicago studies, the political shift and institutional resistance barred the program as a whole from having a large-scale impact on traditional teacher preparation.

The Modified Teacher Corps and Education Reform

As previously noted, during the adoption and implementation of the Teacher Corps the program was forced to drastically change course. Although the intended aim of the program was severely compromised, the Teacher Corps as implemented did have several lasting unintended consequences. In a 1970 *Phi Delta Kappan* article, Richard Graham, the head of Teacher Corps from 1965 through 1971, uses the Teacher Corps to examine the process of educational reform. He explains that reform necessarily involves “research, development, diffusion and adoption” (Graham, 1970, p. 305). In his analysis, he focuses on the aspect of diffusion, explaining that the Teacher Corps represents a form of diffusion known as “requested intervention.” This particular form of diffusion, he explains, is successful because it provides “educational reform by supporting change from within an existing organization” (Graham, 1970, p. 306). Although Graham concedes in the article that grand-scale change in teacher preparation had not yet occurred, he still predicts “metamorphic change . . . because a program of this kind introduces wanted change in the schools . . . [and] needed change in teacher education” (Graham, 1970, p. 308).¹⁰ The evidence provided from various reports conducted prior to this article, however, directly contradict this prediction. Although educational reform via the NTC was requested by school districts, it is clear

that massive (or even minor) reform of the institutionalized process of teacher credentialing at colleges and universities was not a generally requested intervention. Although Graham's article was written in support of the power of the Teacher Corps to, in his words, "promote change, then move on" (Graham, 1970), the framework he provides actually explains why the NTC, rather than promoting reform, created a hybrid, and then moved on.

The political and institutional complications involved in reforming teacher preparation noted earlier were a direct result of educational reformers attempting to work from the outside to create change within an already entrenched system. In *Tinkering Toward Utopia: A Century of Public School Reform*, David Tyack and Larry Cuban (1995)¹¹ explain the complicated process of educational change in that "Educational reformers may have wanted to wipe the institutional slate clean and start again, but that has rarely happened. Instead reforms have tended to layer, one on top of another" (p. 76). This process of layering adequately describes the legacy of the NTC. At the time, the established, "traditional" method of teacher preparation was still a relatively new process, but the reform had become institutionalized as part of what Tyack and Cuban refer to as the "grammar of schooling." The policy engineers behind NTC legislation were forced to layer NTC methods on top of existing policy, hoping the change would persist. The result—rather than an entirely new system of teacher preparation—was a hybridized dual system in which the traditional method was still standard, yet a small minority of teachers were permitted to obtain teaching credentials outside the system. Later, this hybridized system was both reproduced and expanded through the proliferation of alternative certification programs like TFA.

TFA: A Modern Teacher Corps?

One of the nation's most well-known alternative teacher certification programs is TFA, created by Wendy Kopp in 1989. This program is at the center of political debates over alternative and traditional methods of certification because it is a highly recognized brand. TFA is a nonprofit organization that aims to "build the movement to eliminate educational inequity by enlisting our nation's most promising future leaders in the effort" ("Teach for America: Our Mission and Approach," 2009). Like NTC, TFA recruits recent college graduates from various undergraduate majors to spend 2 years teaching in low-income urban and rural public schools. Unlike NTC, TFA provides all training and support "necessary to ensure their success as teachers" (Teach for America, 2009; Teach for America: Our Mission and Approach," 2009). TFA, like NTC, has a mission to improve educational experiences for

students in low-income schools, and it also shares the assumption that smart, energetic, specially trained young people are part of the solution to educational disparity. In other words, both programs have “aimed to recruit a ‘different breed’ of teacher” (Weiner, 2000) in order to end educational inequity. The remarkable difference between these programs concerns the mission that operates beyond the individual schools and communities. Whereas NTC sought to alter teacher training, TFA, believes “that the best hope for ending educational inequity is to build a massive force of leaders in all fields who have the perspective and conviction that come from teaching successfully in low-income communities” (“Teach for America: Our mission and Approach,” 2009). TFA operates under the same assumption that it might act as a change agent, but the change it seeks to promote is much more amorphous, using terminology like “building leaders,” as compared with the initial change promoted by the NTC.

To understand the different goals of the programs, the structure becomes an essential point of reference. On the surface, the main structural difference between these two programs concerns federal involvement and TFA’s lack of dependence on the university. However, the NTC was created and funded by the federal government, whereas TFA is a private organization run on a corporate model, funded largely by donations. Although in 2008 TFA became a federally sponsored Americorps program (Teach for America, 2009) the program is only partially funded by the federal government (Appendix C), a difference that gives TFA more autonomy and distance. The programmatic differences are partly a function of levels of federal government involvement. The differences also provide evidence of TFA founder Wendy Kopp’s awareness that outside forces have not been successful in attempts to change teacher preparation from within the university. Whereas NTC attempted to alter traditional teacher preparation, TFA completely ignores it. Both NTC and TFA are perceived as attempts to usurp professional educational authority (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001; Rogers, 2009), yet NTC depended on those professionals for the success of their programs and TFA does not. Because TFA operates almost completely outside the traditional system, it has been seen as an affront to professional authority, but this perception has yet to change the program in a significant way. Because the federal government ran the NTC, and required changes within traditional university programs, the perception that NTC was intrusive led to an altered mission. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, because TFA has managed to patch together a complex web of funding that includes private funds as well as federal, state, and local government funding (Appendix C), it has evaded the reputation of seizing local authority. Whereas the NTC needed to work inside the government in order to establish large-scale acceptance of alternatives to

teacher certification, TFA, by completely ignoring traditional teacher training approaches and operating outside the federal government, was able to avoid two of its predecessor's biggest pitfalls. However, without the Teacher Corps and its inadvertent support and establishment of outside routes to teacher certification, TFA would not have had the luxury of working successfully outside the political machine. TFA had to create an alternative route to teacher certification, but it did not have to create the concept of alternative teacher certification. NTC, furthermore, established a precedent in that teachers of the urban disadvantaged might need specific training, training they would not receive in traditional preparation programs.

Conclusions: The Legacy of the NTC

At the time that Senators Kennedy and Nelson created the legislation for the NTC, the program had three goals: to recruit young, energetic people to teach in urban schools, to train them how to teach urban students, and to renovate the traditional process of teacher training. However, because the program was layered on top of an existing, localized policy, the NTC was seen as appropriating local and professional control. Due to political and institutional pressure, the federal government quickly eased off and then dropped the goal to reform traditional teacher training. Without this goal as the driving force behind the NTC, the lasting institutional change desired by the program's designers became improbable. Rather than drastically altering the traditional process of training teachers, the changes in the NTC during the initial phases of implementation created a hybridized, dual system in which educational reformers were able to completely bypass the traditional, university-based, teacher certification system.

I conjecture that the legislation behind the NTC set the precedent that makes it possible for programs like TFA to exist on a large scale. The lasting impact of this dual system, however, goes beyond the creation of successful programs like TFA. The existence of this dual system has created an ideological battle, best understood as a turf war, between traditional and alternative certification (Zeichner & Conklin, 2008).¹² For example, a very recent article in *Education Week* highlights both the complexity and relevance of this debate. In the article, Fiestritzer defends alternative certification programs by extolling the virtues of providing teachers in underrepresented fields (math, science, and special education) and training them when schools need them and, thus, producing similar academic results in students. She further explains that these programs are growing, stating, "About one-third of new teachers hired in this country [come] through some 600 programs being implemented under the umbrella of 125 state alternate routes to certification" (Fiestritzer,

2009). Researchers such as Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Kim Fries (2001), and even more recently Linda Darling-Hammond (Darling-Hammond & Haselkorn, 2009), have found that the debate has seriously stalled change in either type of program because each program focuses on proving viability rather than seeking improvement.¹³ Neither the dual system nor the resulting ideological battle would have been possible without the change in mission that occurred during the first years of the NTC. The legacy of the unintended system created by the NTC, though embodied in TFA, has contributed to the complicated and volatile climate of teacher certification policy, a debate in which Arne Duncan, current U.S. Secretary of Education, refers to schools of education as “cash cows for universities” (Medina, 2009a-b).

Appendix A

Democrats voting “no” on the bill

| | |
|------------------|----------------|
| Thomas Abernathy | Mississippi |
| William Colmer | |
| Jamie Whitten | |
| John Williams | |
| Basil Whitener | North Carolina |
| David Henderson | |
| Alton Lennon | |
| John Flynt Jr. | Georgia |
| Maston O’Neal | |

Republicans voting “no” on the bill

| | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| John Byrnes | Wisconsin |
| Glenn Davis | |
| Howard Callaway | Georgia |
| James Quillen | Tennessee |
| Richard Poff | Virginia |
| Albert Watson | South Carolina |
| Paul Dague | Pennsylvania |
| John Saylor | |
| Donald Clancy | Ohio |
| Samuel Devine | |
| Paul Findley | |
| Dan Clausen | California |
| Charles Jonnas | North Carolina |

Source: Hunter, 1965a.

Appendix B

Teacher training programs (fiscal years: dollars in millions)

| Program | | 1967 actual | 1968 estimate | 1969 estimate |
|--|---|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| Office of Education | Obligations | \$193 | \$209 | \$291 |
| | Number of teachers trained | (60,918) | (63,539) | (89,584) |
| | Elementary and secondary | 45,036 | 43,482 | 62,628 |
| | Teacher Corps | 2,090 | 2,429 | 3,983 |
| | National Defense of Education Act fellowships for preparing college teachers | 14,792 | 15,328 | 15,328 |
| | Other college teacher training | 2,000 | 2,300 | 2,645 |
| National Science Foundation | Obligations | \$38 | \$39 | \$40 |
| | Number of teachers trained | (37,978) | (36,676) | (36,902) |
| | Elementary and secondary | 33,837 | 32,776 | 32,402 |
| | College | 4,141 | 3,900 | 4,500 |
| Total teachers trained | | 101,896 | 100,215 | |
| Note—includes full-year and short-term programs Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget | | | | |

Source: "Small Rise in Education Funds Is Set," 1968.

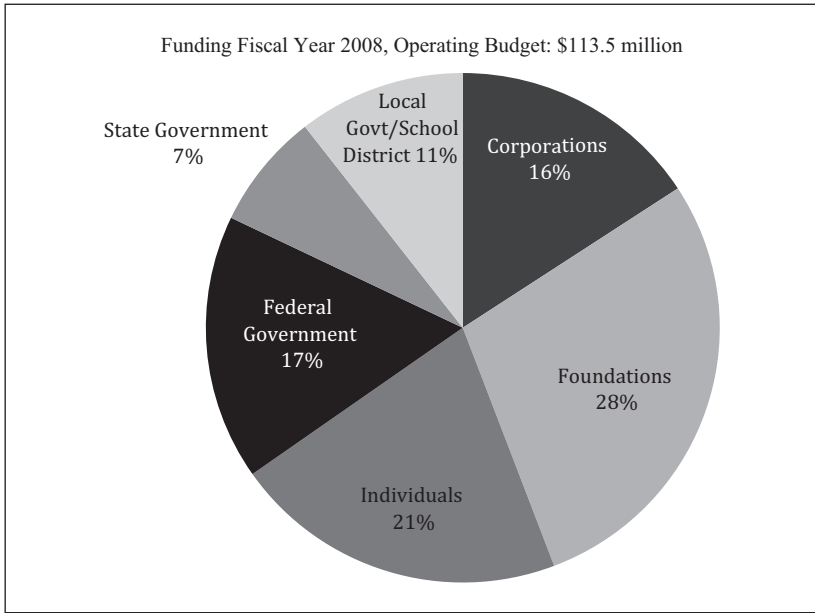
Appendix C

Teach For America Funding

Teach For America Secures local contributions from business, foundations, government organizations, and individuals in the regions where corpsmembers teach. In addition, we receive national funding from corporations and foundations, individuals, and the federal government. More than 70% of our revenue stream is regional, and the remainder is national. Teach for America's projected operating budget for the 2009 fiscal year is \$148 million. Corpsmembers are paid directly by the school district for which they work and generally receive the same salaries and benefits of other entry-level teachers.

(continued)

Appendix C (continued)



Source: Teach for America, Inc., 2009.

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Notes

1. There is much discussion on how to define the difference between traditional and alternative certification programs. Most teachers (according to (Levine, 2006) are certified through a traditional 4- or 5-year undergraduate program. Other researchers (Fraser, 2007; Labaree, 2004) point out that this tradition is relatively recent—schools of education fought hard to gain acceptance and viability

in the teacher credentialing process throughout the early 20th century. By 1960, however, Fraser notes that the few remaining states began requiring teacher certification. So, though it is hard to refer to this as “traditional teacher preparation” it is traditional teacher certification because postsecondary programs were the first to provide this option.

2. Alternative certification is defined by (Zeichner & Conklin, 2008), as “as any program other than a four or five year undergraduate program at a college or university” (p. 270). But they note that even this definition is problematic, since traditional masters of education are often more closely connected to the ideology of traditional programs.
3. Rogers (2009) explained that this was one of the casualties of the Reagan administration.
4. Proof of Johnson’s favor for this program comes first from his initial public support (previously mentioned) but also from the knowledge that Johnson continued to ask for funds for this program throughout the Vietnam War. *New York Times* articles reveal that, even when Johnson urged Congress to reduce aid to education, he still pushed for an increase in funds for the Teacher Corps. Fascinatingly, though it is unclear why, Congress continued to fund education but refused to add aid to the NTC (Hunter, 1966).
5. Nelson actually envisioned the NTC as serving a similar mission to the Cordozo Project in Washington, D.C., except relying on energetic recent graduates instead of Peace Corps returnees (“National Teacher Corps Urged to Aid Children in Poor Areas,” 1965). Rogers (2009) explains, Cordozo “put returning Peace Corps volunteers to work as teachers in Cardozo High School, which served disadvantaged students. . . . The Cordozo project operated on the theory that poor students of color left school because the teaching was unimaginative, the curriculum irrelevant, and the teachers unconnected to the realities of the students lives” (p. 356).
6. In an article by Richard Graham, head of the NTC from 1965-1971, he states, “But far more important is bringing about the introduction and adoption of improved systems of education” (Graham, 1970). This statement supports the finding that NTC was meant to transform a system and not individual schools.
7. Not only did members of Congress attempt to initially place the program under a separate bill (“Senate Panel Votes \$4.7 Million to Help Meet Colleges’ Needs,” 1965) but they also tried to remove it from the Higher Education Act at a later time (Herbers, 1967)
8. Although Edith Green (D. Oregon) was one of the few politicians against the bill because of the danger of deprofessionalizing teacher training (Hechinger, 1966b) Southern Democrats and Republicans feared the NTC as a form of

desegregation and many republicans believed that it committed the crime of usurping local control (Buder, 1965; Hunter, 1965b-c; Rogers, 2009).

9. *New York Times* articles tell the story of what was originally planned—more than 6,000 teachers per year (“Director Says Slash in Budget Would Cut Back Teacher Corps,” 1967; “Slash in Teacher Corps Funds Scored by Morse as ‘Sad Thing’,” 1966; Transcript of Johnson’s Address to N.E.A. Here,” 1965; Undernourished Teacher Corps,” 1966). Yet Weiner (1993) found “between 1965 and 1975, the Teacher Corps prepared about 11,000 to teach” (p. 25). Also, because the system eventually dissolved in 1981 (Rogers, 2009) the scope clearly did not reach the level wanted by reformers.
10. Although this article indicates that Graham clung to the goal of changing Teacher certification, he was removed from his position in 1971.
11. Larry Cuban was, notably, one of the founding members of the Cordoza Project in Washington, D.C. This program is one of the predecessors of NTC (Weiner, 1993).
12. Good coverage of this debate is found in Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001), who explain that advocates on both sides of the debate use a variety of warrants to justify the claim that they have to producing quality teachers, and Cohen-Vogel and Hunt (2007) examined how this policy debate plays out in the federal discourse. They find that the federal government uses soft language when referring alternative certification programs, and it is, therefore, thought of as “enabling rather than transforming” (p. 156). Linda Darling-Hammond, (Darling-Hammond & Haselkorn, 2009), an advocate of traditional programs, explains, “The answer is not to jettison teacher preparation, but to transform it, applying lessons from both traditional and alternative programs in new syntheses that substantially increase teachers’ knowledge and skills. Our goal should be to encourage a race to the top in teaching quality, as other high-achieving nations have done, rather than the race to the bottom we currently seem determined to win” (p. 36).
13. Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001) explained, “Advocates of opposing agendas try to capture ‘the linguistic high ground’ of common sense about reforming teacher education and improving teacher quality” (p. 12) They further explain, “Unless underlying ideals, ideologies, and values are debated along with and in relation to ‘the evidence’ about teacher quality, and unless we examine the discourse of teacher education policy reform, we will make little progress in understanding the politics of teacher education and the nuances and complexities of the various reform agendas that are currently in competition with one another” (p. 13). They find that reform advocates on each side rely heavily on discourse to debate the strengths of their agenda, and not evidence. This debate keeps them locked in competition leaving little room for improvement.

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Bio

Sarah Anne Eckert is a doctoral student at Penn State University in the Department of Educational Theory and Policy. Her scholarly interests include the preparation of teachers for urban environments, teacher efficacy, and education policy.