

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT TO WHICH
STUDENT TEACHERS CAN BE CONDITIONED TO
WORK WITH THE CULTURALLY
DISADVANTAGED

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PREFACE

Public school systems are currently playing a major role in projects designed to combat the problems created by the numbers of unemployed, unskilled, and poorly educated individuals living in the central areas of large American cities. Capable teachers are needed in order to improve the quality of education for these culturally-disadvantaged groups. Yet, the hesitancy of young teachers to accept positions in schools serving inner city districts has been a major obstacle in staffing schools serving the culturally disadvantaged. Special preparation for prospective teachers of the culturally deprived has been proposed. The purpose of the current study is to determine whether relationships exist between a special program designed to prepare students to teach culturally-disadvantaged children and student teachers' reactions to the behavior of culturally-deprived children.

The writer wishes to express her deepest gratitude to Dr. W. Ware Marsden for his expert guidance in bringing this study to completion. Indebtedness is also acknowledged to Dr. Bernard Belden, Dr. Clinton Keeler, Mrs. Della Thomas, and Dr. J. Paschal Twyman for their contributions as members of the advisory committee. The writer also acknowledges her indebtedness to the school administrators and teachers who contributed to the development of the questionnaire used in the study and to the student teachers who graciously cooperated in the study.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction to the Problem

The demands of twentieth century life have affected nearly every facet of American culture. Industrialization has created problems which threaten the economic growth and social stability of the nation.

The knowledge, technical abilities, skills, energy and diligence of a nation's labor force affect its economic growth, yet much of America's top talent has been lost each year as one-half of the "top" ten per cent of high school graduates have not gone on to college. Many talented students have been deterred from attending college by home backgrounds poor in intellectual stimulation and by inferior educational opportunities. Failure to utilize such talent represents a grievous loss to society. The continued growth of the economy depends upon meeting the need for workers with high-level skills and on providing for the unskilled workers who have been displaced through technological advances. The percentages of unemployed workers have reached disturbing proportions as the demand for unskilled laborers has decreased. The problems are most acute in metropolitan slum areas where as many as fifty per cent of the male youth are out of school and out of work (NEA Project on the Instructional Program of the Public Schools, 1963).

The problem of the inner city areas has been complicated by the large numbers of uneducated, unskilled people who have left the ties of the rural community and have migrated to the metropolitan centers. In spite of overcrowded conditions and deprivation, the in-migrants have remained in the cities. Failing to form new ties in the city, many have become displaced. The generally low level of formal schooling and different cultural values of the disadvantaged have deterred their assimilation into the social structure of the city. The increasing concentration of this low income group in relatively homogeneous neighborhoods has heightened the problem of assimilating them into the larger community. It has increased the tendency toward a retention, or possible increase, in social class differences and has contributed to the establishment of social rigidity. The lessening of the possibility of social mobility, with its subsequent effects on social solidarity, is a major domestic issue of contemporary society. Education and assimilation of the culturally different people living in the central city areas is necessary to preserve cohesion in our social structure.

No single agency could solve the complex problems of the inner city, yet the public school systems will perhaps bear the brunt of the burden. Attempts at urban renewal have involved the schools as a crucial factor in removing the inner city blight (Havighurst, 1961). The school is the agency designed for education and acculturation, and its facilities are already available to the community.

The school has an unmeasured potential for assimilating large groups of people into the society. Yet, hitherto, the school has failed to actualize the possibilities for closing the cultural gap for the inner

city children. Educators are currently seeking the most effective means of meeting the needs for the culturally deprived. Some organizational and curricular changes, modifications in teaching techniques and approaches, and utilization of newer educational media appear to open new educational opportunities for the neglected children of the central city.

Present innovations have been costly. Government aid, through the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, has been available for the public schools serving large numbers of the children of the culturally disadvantaged. Most of the funds allocated during the first year under the new law were earmarked for school districts serving large numbers of children of low-income families, i. e. those earning less than \$ 3, 000 annually.

While financial aid has been necessary for educational improvements in lower-income areas, the success of the new programs has been threatened by the lack of qualified personnel. An adequate supply of skilled and understanding teachers is necessary for the improvement of urban education.

Despite intensive recruitment efforts, urban center schools are difficult to staff. In addition, they are plagued by high transfer and dropout rates among the teachers who have been placed there. Teachers who transfer from inner city districts are often replaced by inexperienced teachers, the majority of whom come from middle-class backgrounds and who have done their student teaching in suburban schools. Many of these young teachers lack understanding of the cultural conditions of the inner city and have difficulty coping with problems of teaching children who come from an educationally-

disadvantaged environment. Consequently, many of them reject teaching positions in large city school systems for fear of placement in such districts (Goldberg, 1964; Rivlin, 1963).

General Background and Need for the Study

The belief in education for all is inherent in a democratic society which values the worth and dignity of the individual and which requires him to contribute actively to its progress. The ideal for American education has become equal opportunity for every individual to achieve his maximum development.

However, testimony before the Supreme Court of the United States indicated a lack of opportunity for children in segregated schools to understand and value students of dissimilar background; consequently the Supreme Court ruled that "separate" schools could not be equal (Della-Dora, 1962; Deutsch, 1963; Riessman, 1962; Tumin, 1963).

The lack of equal educational opportunities represents lessened opportunities for social and economic advancement as well as stunted intellectual growth for the individual. And, those who have suffered the greatest inequities through developing in a deprived community environment have also brooked the injustice of educational neglect in the public schools.

Whether practiced knowingly or unwittingly, educational discrimination favoring children from the middle- and upper-socio-economic classes seems to be widespread and to occur in many forms. Many discriminatory practices can be readily seen in the facilities and materials provided in lower-class neighborhoods (Riessman, 1962; Sexton, 1961). In addition to the overt, recognizable differences in the

educational opportunities offered to children of different social classes, more subtle forms of discrimination have also been noted in the quality of treatment received by pupils from different socio-economic classes. Data from several studies indicate that the quality of teacher contacts with pupils tends to favor the children of high status (Conant, 1961; Hoehn, 1954; Hollingshead, 1949; Warner, 1953). Abrahamson found, as did Sexton, that the child from the lower classes more often received punishing forms of treatment while his counterpart from the upper classes received more prizes and awards in school (Abrahamson, 1952; Sexton, 1961). Pupils in lower-class schools tend to achieve lower academic standards than those attending mixed- or upper-class schools, and they are at a disadvantage in terms of the quality of the educational opportunities provided for them.

Failure to provide adequate educational opportunities for the lower-class child has resulted in the loss of untapped intellectual potential (Ravitz, 1963). In 1960, one child out of every three in the fourteen largest cities of the United States was "culturally deprived." By 1970, their numbers may increase to one deprived child for every two enrolled in the schools of the largest cities (Riessman, 1962). The higher percentages of children in our society who are classified as culturally deprived represents increased losses in human resources. Means must be found to preserve, nurture, and utilize their talents. A progressive nation cannot afford to waste such potential.

In attempting to meet the demands for improved educational opportunities for the lower-class child, school systems have been limited by lack of facilities to house the mushrooming pupil population, by escalating costs coupled with demands to economize, and by increasing

teacher shortages (Schueler, 1965). The need for capable, qualified teachers is of prime concern in providing equal educational opportunities for the culturally-deprived child (Conant, 1961; Haubrich, 1963b; Passow, 1963; Ravitz, 1963).

Many teachers hesitate to enter culturally disadvantaged districts. In 1962, more than one-third of the new teachers appointed to Manhattan schools declined the appointment (Goldberg, 1964). The problem is complicated by the fact that teachers in inner city schools often transfer to other schools or leave the profession as soon as possible (Conant, 1961; Haubrich, 1963b; Noar, 1964; Passow, 1963; Rivlin, 1963; Sexton, 1961). Among reasons cited for rejecting or leaving teaching positions in the inner city are problems of transportation, parental disapproval, and the teachers' own ideas of school desirability. Two factors recur in teachers' statements concerning their desires to teach in middle- or upper-class districts. Young teachers are disturbed by (1) the conflict between the behavior of culturally-disadvantaged children and the middle-class standards of the teachers and (2) the feelings of inadequacy to handle such behavior (Haubrich, 1963; Ornstein, 1964; Rivlin, 1963; Sexton, 1961; Walker, 1965). Teachers seem to be unable to understand or to cope with the multiple problems of low achievement, language development, varying social norms and habits, and lack of interest and cooperation (Becker, 1952; Haubrich, 1963; Ornstein, 1965). It would be logical to suggest that incoming teachers be prepared for the cultural diversities of the culturally different children (Ravitz, 1963; Rivlin, 1963; Noar, 1964).

Statement of the Problem

In line with the recommendations for providing skilled and understanding teachers for inner city schools, the purpose of the present study is to explore the possibility of finding a means for better preparation of teachers who are to teach the culturally-deprived child.

The term "culturally deprived" will be used here, as Riessman uses it, "to refer to the members of the lower socio-economic groups who have had limited access to education" (Riessman, 1962). The terms "culturally deprived," "educationally deprived," and "culturally disadvantaged" will be used synonymously to avoid monotony for the reader. Such terms have been selected because they are commonly found in current literature and not because of their descriptive usefulness. The term "annoy" will be used to refer to the student's feeling of irritation or of being ill at ease.

Because of the relationship between teacher hesitancy to enter educationally-deprived school districts and children's behavior, the problem to be studied becomes twofold. Problems to be studied are: (1) will two similar groups of student teachers pursuing different programs express different attitudes toward the behavior of children in culturally-disadvantaged districts? and (2) will the students from the two programs express varying degrees of confidence in their ability to handle the problems encountered in teaching culturally-deprived children? The problems will be approached through a student teaching program designed to increase the students' understanding of the culturally-deprived child and to increase her teaching skills in meeting the unique problems he presents.

In keeping with the recommendations of preparing teachers for the cultural diversities of the culturally-different child, the next chapter is devoted primarily to a discussion of research findings on teachers' attitudes, on the effects of teacher's attitudes on the child's development, and on the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter includes a review of relevant literature and the theoretical framework for a study of student teachers' attitudes for working with the culturally-deprived child. Attention is given to programs which have been designed to prepare student teachers for entering inner-city school districts. Methods which have been used to assess relationships in attitude studies are discussed. Hypotheses are stated regarding relationships examined in this investigation.

Review of the Literature

The inferior quality of educational opportunities provided for the children living in lower-class school districts is the result of a complex of factors. A major barrier to equalizing learning opportunities for the inner-city children is the difficulty of recruiting and retaining capable teachers. Funds are available for providing adequate facilities and equipment. Educators are offering new programs, materials, and methods geared to the learning needs and patterns of the culturally-deprived child. But, if lasting and significant changes are to be made in the education of culturally-disadvantaged groups, the teachers must

be involved (Conant, 1961; Goldberg, 1964; Haubrich, 1963a; Ravitz, 1963; Passow, 1963; Noar, 1964; Rivlin, 1963).

The teacher is the key to improved educational opportunities for the disadvantaged child. It is she who interprets new programs and approaches to the child; it is she who organizes materials and activities into an ordered learning environment. The teacher is directly responsible for the intellectual growth of the child. She designs the learning experiences which stimulate or stifle thinking.

Equally important, though perhaps less recognized, is the teacher's role in setting the "feeling tone" or social-emotional climate of the classroom. As she guides the child's intellectual pursuits, she also influences his social and emotional development. Through the daily face-to-face contacts between the teacher and her pupils, a personal relationship is established. Research evidence indicates that this relationship is related to the pupils' feelings toward themselves, toward the teacher, and toward one another. Further evidence suggests that the teacher's personality and attitude are closely tied to this relationship.

In a 1960 study, Davidson and Lang found a significant positive relationship ($p < .001$) between children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings toward them and children's perceptions of themselves. An adjective checklist, The Checklist of Trait Names, was twice administered to children from ten classrooms in a New York City public school. The children were first asked to check the adjectives which described the teacher's feelings toward them and, on the second administration, to check the words they felt described themselves. The two indexes correlated .82 (product-moment). The children who had

a more favorable self-concept also perceived their teacher's feelings toward them more favorably (Davidson and Lang, 1960).

Evidence that children experiencing large amounts of teacher disapproval evaluate their worth and general social adjustment as being lower in status than that of their peers was noted by deGroat and Thompson (deGroat and Thompson, 1949).

The teacher's attitudes toward her students also seems related to their attitudes toward her. In establishing the validity of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, Leeds, Cook, and Callis found that students' ratings of their teachers was significantly related to the teachers' scores on the MTAI. Correlation coefficients between 300 teachers' MTAI scores and pupils' ratings were .46 ($p < .01$) in the first validity study (Cook and Leeds, 1947; Cook, Leeds, and Callis, 1949). Data from a second validity study revealed a coefficient of .31 ($p < .05$) between pupils' ratings of their teachers and teachers' MTAI scores (Leeds, 1952).

These results were supported by data from a study by Della Piana and Gage. They found that teachers' MTAI scores correlated positively ($p < .05$) with mean pupil ratings of teachers on the Leeds Inventory (Della Piana and Gage, 1955).

High school sophomores and seniors were asked to list the two subjects taken during the year which were taught by the teachers most-liked and the two subjects taught by the teachers least-liked. Significant differences ($p < .01$) existed between the mean MTAI scores of teachers liked best and teachers liked least by their pupils. The differences favored the best-liked teachers (Kearney and Rocchio, 1955).

While other studies were concerned with predicting the feeling

tone of the pupil for his teacher, Anderson and Brewer studied the effects of the personality of teachers on the classroom behavior of their children. In two rooms of second grade children, observers quantitatively recorded the reactions of individual pupils to contacts with teachers whose personalities and teaching methods were significantly different. Each child was observed for non-consecutive five-minute periods equalling two hours' total observation time. The child's behavior was recorded according to a predetermined code. The data collected revealed significant and consistent contrasts in the behavior of the children in the two rooms. Second grade pupils with a teacher who possessed a more integrative personality showed higher frequencies in categories of behavior representing social contributions than pupils with a more dominating teacher (Anderson and Brewer, 1946). A follow-up study was conducted the following year involving the same two teachers with new groups of second grade pupils and the same pupils with their new third grade teachers. The new evidence confirmed the measured differences in the two teachers' personalities and showed that certain behavior patterns in the teachers persisted even though the teachers were with different groups of children. However, the new groups of second graders exhibited the same patterns of behavior shown by Brewer's groups during the preceding year. The new children with the more dominating teacher showed lower frequencies in ten categories of behavior representing social contributions to others (Anderson, Brewer, and Reed, 1946). The evidence secured in these two studies suggests an apparent relationship between the behavior of the teacher and the relations of the pupils with one another.

The relationship between the social-emotional atmosphere of the

classroom and the social and emotional development of the child would seem to imply a need for teachers skilled in human relationships. The demonstrated relationship between the classroom climate and academic achievement lends added support to the recognition of such a need.

In a 1960 study, Washburne and Heil found evidence to indicate that the teacher's personality had a clear and measurable effect on the academic as well as the social and emotional growth of her students (Washburne and Heil, 1960).

After observing the classroom contacts of nineteen third grade teachers for a period of five hours over a two-day period, Hoehn noted a relationship between the quantity and quality of teacher behavior a child received and the child's level of achievement. Low achievers tended to receive more contacts, but high achievers tended to receive a better quality of contacts from the mental health standpoint (Hoehn, 1954).

Similar results were found by Davidson and Lang who asked the ten teachers included in their study to rate the academic achievement of their pupils on a four-point scale. They noted a significant positive relationship ($p < .01$) between favorable perception of teachers' feelings and academic achievement as rated by teachers (Davidson and Lang, 1960). Due to the verbal nature of the instrument used in the study, Davidson and Lang included only the better readers. The number and nature of contacts received by high and low achievers in Hoehn's study raises a question concerning the possible effects of including only the better readers.

Possible effects on academic achievement of the interplay between characteristics of pupils and teacher attitudes was studied by Della

Piana and Gage. They found the achievement of pupils with high affective values was more affected by teachers' attitudes than the achievement of pupils with high cognitive values. Pupils with high cognitive values were less affected by teachers' attitudes than any other group (Della Piana and Gage, 1955).

Among the educationally-deprived groups, Rosen noted lower achievement motivation ($p < .001$) and proportionately fewer persons with achievement-oriented values than among the middle classes (Rosen, 1956). In describing the disadvantaged child, Bloom noted his difficulty in learning for its own sake or in order to please an adult (Bloom, 1965).

The social-emotional climate created by the personality and attitudes of the teacher is a crucial factor in the educational development of the child. It affects his social, emotional, and intellectual growth. Because of the lack of background experiences and motivation among the disadvantaged groups, concern has been shown toward the great urgency in placing teachers with favorable attitudes in the inner-city schools (Schueler, 1965; Goldberg, 1964).

However, the lack of understanding evidenced by middle-class teachers for the values and behavior of children from a deprived environment has been a major area of concern in retarding the teacher turnover rate in city schools (Haubrich, 1963; Noar, 1964; Ravitz, 1963; Rich, 1960; Schueler, 1965; Walker, 1965).

Kaplan noted that middle-class teachers appeared to need help in understanding what constituted normal child behavior (Kaplan, 1952). The lack of teacher understanding of child behavior among the culturally-disadvantaged groups has been noted repeatedly (Haubrich,

1963b; Rivlin, 1963; Walker, 1965). This lack of understanding of child behavior coupled with the teachers' standards and expectancies of desirable classroom behavior have presented a major problem in placing and keeping effective teachers in schools serving disadvantaged areas (Haubrich, 1963b; Sexton, 1961).

Becker noted that teachers' satisfaction with their work was related to their expectations of the children with whom they worked. Among the sixty Chicago public school teachers included in the Becker study, the areas of greatest job dissatisfaction involved the failure of the children to meet the teachers' expectations. Conflict arose when the behavior of the lower-class children did not meet the teachers' expectations of interest, hard work, and training at home (Becker, 1952).

Responses of 294 teachers working in schools serving Negro or Mexican-American districts in Los Angeles follow a pattern similar to responses of Becker's Chicago teachers. Of the 294 teachers responding, forty per cent pointed to personal "peculiarities" of the children as the major source of job dissatisfaction (Groff, 1963).

Evidence appears to indicate that the feelings of teachers toward working in culturally-deprived neighborhoods tend to be negative. Studies in which the treatment of school children has been observed indicate that the lower-class child also receives less favorable treatment than his peers.

Abrahamson found that the lower-class child was more often punished while his counterpart from the upper classes received more prizes and awards in each of six reward-punishment categories: academic grades, extra-curricular activities, and prizes and awards made by the school (Abrahamson, 1952). A similar situation was noted

by Sexton in a later study in a large midwestern city (Sexton, 1961).

Hoehn observed the classroom contacts of nineteen middle-class women teaching both middle- and lower-class children. After observing each teacher for a total of five hours over a two-day period. Hoehn concluded that the data provided considerable support for the statement that the quality of teacher contacts with high-status pupils tended to be better from a mental health standpoint than those with low-status pupils (Hoehn, 1954).

If equal educational opportunity is to become a reality for the culturally-deprived child, effective teachers must be recruited and retained in lower-income school districts. Current literature suggests that effective teachers of culturally-disadvantaged children tend to possess certain unique teaching skills and personal characteristics. The need to identify these characteristics has been cited as a necessary prerequisite to preparation of teachers for the educationally deprived.

Goldberg suggests a reexamination of the processes of teacher selection and education for staffing disadvantaged area schools. In view of the findings of Washburne and Heil (1960) and of Della Piana and Gage (1955), Goldberg rejects the notion of the universally "good" teacher who is equally effective with all groups of students. Instead, she substitutes a conception of a variety of "good" teachers who are differentially suited by temperament and training to teaching different groups of students. From this position, she suggests that culturally-deprived pupils represent a describable group. She suggests that teachers who possess certain personal and educational characteristics will be more effective with disadvantaged pupils than will other teachers. Educators must, therefore, identify those qualities which

characterize the effective teacher of disadvantaged children. Through teacher education, prospective teachers of the deprived child can develop many of the desired characteristics of the effective teacher (Goldberg, 1964).

Further recognition of the need for special competencies among teachers in schools serving depressed urban areas is given by Haubrich and Kornberg (Haubrich, 1964; Kornberg, 1963).

Efforts to provide effective teachers for educationally-disadvantaged children have involved both in-service and pre-service teacher education programs. Yet, programs designed to stress the special skills and attitudes needed by teachers of the inner city have been few in number. Until recent years, universities and colleges responsible for educating teachers have assumed that preparing students to work effectively in suburban schools would prepare them to function effectively in any situation. As a result, instructional programs have been centered around the development, psychology, and culture of the average child and teaching methods used in "typical" schools. The majority of students pursuing a program in teacher education have been assigned to schools located in middle- and upper-class neighborhoods for their entire student teaching experience. In some instances, students have been assigned to model or demonstration schools for this experience where, again, their exposure has been to middle-class culture and mores (Lawrence, 1964; Ravitz, 1963; Schueler, 1965). The assumption underlying these practices has been that students could adapt knowledge gained in working in a middle-class teaching situation to any type of school setting.

The fallacy of such an assumption has been recognized by

Haubrich (1964) who finds that the educational psychology and methodology which relate to the middle-class child cannot be applied to children in the disadvantaged areas of big cities.

Support for specialized education for teachers dealing with special groups of children is given by Jones who compared general versus specialized education of student teachers. An analysis of the data indicated that specialized education might have worthwhile results in helping student teachers recognize problem behavior which would require action on their part, but general training in psychology, educational psychology, or child development did not appear to influence students' responses to a questionnaire consisting of descriptions of children's behavior (Jones, 1952).

Current teacher education programs designed to prepare teachers for the over-crowded centers of large cities reflect the expressed need for special training for teachers of disadvantaged groups. Advocates of such programs would emphasize the specific understandings and skills deemed necessary for working effectively with culturally-disadvantaged children. The characteristics which seem to be stressed in most programs might be placed in four categories: (1) the teacher's understanding of herself, her values, motivations, aspirations, and prejudices; (2) the teacher's understanding and attitudes toward the child, the child's background, aspirations, fears, talents, habits, and values; (3) the teacher's knowledge of specific ways of guiding the learning of the culturally-deprived child; (4) the skill of the teacher in handling human relations in the classroom (Goldberg, 1964; Haubrich, 1964; Noar, 1964; Ravitz, 1963; Schueler, 1965; Thompson, 1963).

Helping the student teachers to understand better the educationally-

deprived child and his behavior has been a primary objective of special programs; however the student teachers' image of the inner-city school as a "blackboard jungle" has been a major barrier in improving understanding. Fear of the behavior of culturally-disadvantaged children and a feeling of inadequacy to teach in an inner-city school appear to be decisive factors in teachers' objections to teaching in urban centers (Groff, 1963; Ornstein, 1964; Rivlin, 1963; Sexton, 1961; Walker, 1965). The possibility of modifying or altering this perception has received attention in many of the special programs (Knapp, 1965; Rivlin, 1963).

Informal follow-up studies of students who have participated in teacher education programs in culturally-deprived areas show some promise that the "blackboard jungle" image is being replaced with a more positive and realistic conception. Feedback suggests that such programs are producing more confident and competent teachers (Knapp, 1965). Informal evaluations of the programs seem to indicate a tendency for student teachers taking part in the special programs to accept employment in the schools in which they did their student teaching. Principals' evaluations of beginning teachers lend support to other findings that teachers who have participated in a student teaching experience in a culturally-disadvantaged school appear to operate successfully in the same schools (Fraser, 1961; Haubrich, 1963; Haubrich, 1964; Haubrich, 1965).

To date, projects in inner-city schools have tended to include only those students who volunteered for student teaching in "difficult" schools (Knapp, 1965). Preliminary studies of these students indicated that they were less authoritarian, less dogmatic, and more open than were non-volunteers (Haubrich, 1964; Haubrich, 1965). One of

the purposes of voluntary participation according to Haubrich "... amounts to loading the dice before the stake is put down" (Haubrich, 1963a). Since many non-volunteers may also be placed in inner-city schools, it would appear desirable to prepare them for these assignments. The present study will involve non-volunteers in an effort to evaluate the effects of a special program on an unselected group.

Evaluation of the projects appears to focus a great deal of attention on the willingness of student teachers to accept positions in the schools in which they did their student teaching and on principals' statements of the beginners' success during the first year of teaching. In keeping with the recommendations of Goldberg (1964), Haubrich (1964), and Kornberg (1963), evaluation of the students' special competencies for working with culturally-disadvantaged children would seem to merit more attention than it has received heretofore. The identification of competencies which appear necessary to effective teaching of culturally-deprived children would appear to provide a basis for such an evaluation. Among the competencies considered crucial to teacher effectiveness in the classroom is the teacher's attitude toward her children (Anderson and Brewer, 1946; Anderson, Brewer, 1946; Davidson and Lang, 1960; Goldberg, 1964; Kearney and Rocchio, 1955; Washburne and Heil, 1960).

While the teacher attitudes and abilities to influence human relations in the classroom affect all children, some would argue that a positive teacher influence is more needed among the disadvantaged than among any other group (Goldberg, 1964; Schueler, 1965). Unfortunately, the attitude of teachers toward the educationally-deprived child often appears to be negative (Becker, 1952; Berg, 1964; Groff,

1963). Consequently, in the present study an attempt has been made to determine if students involved in a program which stresses understanding of the culturally-deprived child will show any measurable differences in attitude toward the behavior of the children from students in a regular student teaching program at the same institution.

Previous studies of changes in teacher attitude following periods of training or experience show varying results. In preliminary studies of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, Callis compared MTAI scores of juniors, seniors, and beginning teachers with those of a control group. He concluded that most of the attitudes measured were rather well-formed by the time the student entered pre-professional training and the first one-half year of teaching; however the results showed a significant increase in MTAI scores during the first six months of the junior year ($p < .01$). When data for the beginning teachers was compared with that of the control group, a significant difference was shown ($p < .01$) (Callis, 1950). It would appear that the attitudes seemed to be fairly stable over a period of time but that some change had occurred during this period.

Possible differences in attitudes of students who had taken a course in mental hygiene and those who had not were studied by Rocchio and Kearney. Finding no difference in means for the upper one-fourth of the two groups on pre- and post-tests, they concluded that attitudes toward children's behavior were deep-seated and not changed by a course in mental hygiene. In comparing the total groups, however, they found significant differences ($p < .01$) between groups of students who had taken a course in mental hygiene and those who had not (Rocchio and Kearney, 1956).

Sandgren and Schmidt administered the MTAI to a group of student teachers at the beginning and end of the student teaching experience. Comparing pre- and post-test scores, they found a significant increase in every group of more than ten students (Sandgren and Schmidt, 1956).

In a 1958 study of teachers' attitudes toward a specific group of children, Haring, Stern, and Cruickshank attempted "(a) to determine the extent to which the attitudes of classroom teachers can be modified toward greater and more realistic acceptance of exceptional children and (b) to attempt to modify the initial attitudes of these teachers in this direction by the utilization of a workshop." Results of the investigation indicated that some attitudes could be modified and that certain attitudes could be modified more than others. The extent of modification seemed to be a function of the teacher's initial acceptance of the attitude and the number of experiences she had with exceptional children. They reported that the teachers became significantly more positive in their responses toward handicapped children (Haring, Stern, and Cruickshank, 1958).

Results of the preceding studies of teachers' attitudes appear to lend some support to the assumption that teachers' attitudes can be modified during certain experiences. In the present study, an attempt has been made to quantitatively measure the expressed attitudes of student teachers toward the behavior of culturally-deprived children. The students' verbal reactions will be analyzed in order to note possible differences which might occur between students participating in a program preparing them to teach the disadvantaged and those students not taking part in such a program.

Before proceeding to a discussion of the measurement of attitudes,

a brief review of the major assumptions underlying the present study will be presented:

- (1) Teachers' attitudes are closely related to pupil development. The relationship between these attitudes and the pupil's social and emotional development, his academic achievement, and his classroom behavior has been demonstrated in studies cited.
- (2) Effective teachers are essential if improved educational opportunities for the disadvantaged groups are to be provided.
- (3) Since volunteers and non-volunteers stand an equal chance of being placed in inner-city schools, both can profit from a special program designed to prepare teachers to guide the learning of the culturally-deprived child.
- (4) Attention must be given to the quality as well as the number of teachers placed in urban center communities. Evaluation of the degree to which students show the skills and attitudes considered characteristic of effective teachers is necessary in measuring the success of a program designed to assist in staffing inner-city schools.
- (5) In view of the need for developing more positive teacher attitudes toward the behavior of culturally-deprived children, the attitudes of two similar groups of student teachers toward the behavior of the deprived child would appear to offer one measure of the effectiveness of a special teacher-education program.
- (6) In view of teachers' expressed anxiety over their ability to handle the behavior of culturally-disadvantaged children, measurement of the students' feelings of confidence would seem to offer a second means of evaluating the success of the program.

The Measurement of Attitudes

"Attitudes," as defined by Nunnally, "are predispositions to react negatively or positively in some degree toward an object, institution, or class of persons" (Nunnally, 1959).

The object in attitude measurement is to locate an individual at some point on a continuum that ranges from "strongly positive"

through "neutral" to "strongly negative" (Nunnally, 1959). In other words, the purpose of measuring attitudes is to attempt to identify a respondent's characteristic reaction toward an object, institution, or class of people.

The measuring of attitudes has been complicated by the intangible nature of the attitude itself. Since an attitude deals with an inner reaction, the attitude itself cannot be measured. Consequently, in most attitude studies, certain attitudinal reactions are observed. The attitude is then implied from the reaction. The most widely studied attitudinal reactions are verbal in nature because of the ease of handling them in research investigations.

Several approaches to attitude measurement have been employed. Among approaches commonly used are observations, interview, specific performance of an individual, pictorial techniques, analysis of personal documents, and questionnaires (Horrocks, 1964). Of these, the questionnaire is probably most frequently used.

In a questionnaire approach, a scale is derived from a collection of statements showing varying degrees of positive or negative reaction to the phenomenon being studied. If all statements concern only one attitude, the scores on the items may be combined to give a more reliable location of the individual on the continuum (Nunnally, 1959).

The questionnaire form appears to have been used rather extensively in measuring teachers' attitudes toward children and their behavior. In an early study, Wickman employed the questionnaire in order to study teachers' attitudes toward problems in children's behavior (Wickman, 1928). In later studies, Stouffer and Schrupp and Gjerde followed Wickman's procedures in order to make comparisons

and to note possible changes in teachers' attitudes (Stouffer, G. A. W. Jr., 1952; Schrupp and Gjerde, 1953).

Cook, Leeds, and Callis used the questionnaire form in developing the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. They canvassed five sources to secure a more adequate sampling of attitudes and the recorded these attitudes in the form of simple positive or negative statements of attitudes toward children. The correlation coefficient between teachers' scores on the final questionnaire and ratings of teachers by a specialist observer, pupils, and principals was .60 ($p < .01$). The split-half coefficient (Spearman-Brown) was .91 (Cook, Leeds, and Callis, 1949; Cook and Leeds, 1947). Such results would appear to indicate that the use of the questionnaire form would provide a fairly reliable and valid measure of attitudes.

A modification of the usual questionnaire form has been developed by Rosander who used common situations with regard to a single issue and tried to scale the various degrees of response to these situations. The behavior-reaction situation represented an attempt to project the individual into a real-life situation and have him select the response he would make when placed in that situation. In using the behavior-reaction element in a study of attitude patterns toward the Negro, Rosander found correlation coefficients of .891, .812, .684, and .813 when comparing this scale to an opinion scale. He found significant differences between the mean scores of respondents known to have significantly different attitudes toward Negroes (Rosander, 1937).

Stouffer and Jackson employed a similar technique in their studies of individuals' reactions in morally conflicting situations. A behavioral situation involving a moral problem was presented in verbal

form. Respondents were asked to select one of a number of solutions arranged along a continuum. Using the Lazarsfeld latent-distance scale, Stouffer and Jackson found it possible to classify individuals as universalistic or particularistic on the basis of their predisposition to select one type of solution or another (S. A. Stouffer, 1949; S. A. Stouffer and Jackson, 1951).

Haring, Stern, and Cruickshank developed the Classroom Integration Inventory (CII) to measure teacher attitudes and possible modifications in attitudes toward exceptional children. In this instrument, a variety of problem cases, each describing a deviant child in behavioral terms, were presented. After considering the hypothetical behavior, teachers were asked to mark each item according to their feelings concerning the proper classroom placement of the child described. Possible responses were placed along a continuum ranging from "(a) a feeling of ability to handle such a student in your regular classroom without any fundamental changes in your present procedures" to "(e) a feeling that such a child could not be handled properly within the context of regular or special public education." The CII was scored first in relation to the respondents' acceptance of the behavior and a second time according to the realism of the placement of the child. The acceptance score yielded a split-half reliability of .84. Among the five specialists selected as judges for the realistic placement score, seventy-one per cent agreement was found (Haring, Stern, Cruickshank, 1958).

The problems to be explored in the present study involve the predisposition of certain students to select certain types of reactions toward children's behavior while other students select other types. A

questionnaire-type instrument, similar to those used in the studies cited above, employing a description of a culturally-deprived child in behavioral terms will be used.

The problem of locating an individual's attitude on a continuum has resulted in the development of a number of scaling techniques. In scaling responses to the present study, a question was raised as to whether students' responses toward various types of pupil behavior constituted a single positive or negative attitude or a many-faceted attitude varying in degree according to the nature of the behavior.

The Guttman method of scale construction was designed to determine if a single scale or continuum would underlie all the items on an attitude questionnaire (Guttman, 1944; Guttman, 1947; Nunnally, 1959). If student teachers' reactions to behavior commonly seen in culturally-deprived children form a single attitude, in terms of both direction and degree, a triangular pattern should emerge in scaling their responses. Using the Guttman technique, variance in either the direction or degree to which the attitude is held should appear. Hence, the scaling problems become: (1) Can the student teachers included in the study be ordered along a single scale as to the degree of their positive or negative reaction to the behavior of culturally-disadvantaged children? (2) Can they be ordered along a unidimensional scale as to the degree to which they express confidence in their ability to handle the behavior of culturally-deprived children?

Statement of Hypotheses

Hypotheses to be tested in the present study include:

- (1) Prior to student teaching, there will be a significant difference

($p < .05$) toward the annoyance with behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

(2) Following student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the annoyance with behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

(3) Prior to student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the feeling of adequacy to handle the behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

(4) Following student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the feeling of adequacy to handle the behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The primary objective of the present study was to determine whether differences in attitudes toward the behavior of culturally-deprived children existed between students who had taken part in a specialized teacher education program and those who had not. The study involved designing a special program, developing a measuring instrument, applying the instrument, and analyzing the data. Hence, the present chapter will be divided into four sections; (1) a description of the subjects included, (2) a description of the special program, (3) developing the questionnaire, and (4) analyzing the data.

Description of Population and Sample

Oklahoma State University students preparing for teaching careers in elementary schools were selected as the population for the present study. Because of differences in attitudes of elementary and secondary education majors noted by Cook, Leeds, and Callis (1949), the population was confined to elementary education majors only to limit the influence of factors affecting attitudes.

Sixty-four student teachers enrolled in the student teaching block during the fall semester of 1965 were originally included in the study.

Of this group, fourteen did not return to the campus for the post-test. The remaining fifty student teachers were the subjects for the study. Only students enrolled in all sixteen hours of block courses were included.

The student teaching block is an organizational plan which allows the student teacher to give her full time and attention to the classroom in which she does her student teaching. It involves a seven week block of time and is preceded by an eight week period of concentrated study in the areas of language arts, social studies, and science for elementary teachers. Five hours per week are devoted to preparing for student teaching activities. Since the university has no campus laboratory school, student teaching is done in the public schools of the university community and other nearby cities and communities. Students are encouraged to leave the campus for their student teaching and to participate fully in the activities of the school and community in which they are teaching; consequently a plan whereby students could complete some course work prior to leaving the campus was needed. A student teaching block filled this need.

In the student teaching block, certain courses which cover the content and methodology students will be observing and using as they participate in student teaching are offered during the first eight weeks of the semester. Class time for these courses is "blocked" or arranged in such a way that the required number of hours needed for nine hours credit by the university are met during an eight week period preceding student teaching. Students then leave the campus for a seven week period. During this time, they receive seven hours credit for participating in the complete daily schedule of activities followed by the

teachers with whom they work.

The student teachers included in the sample consisted of forty-nine seniors and one junior who lacked three semester hours of achieving senior standing. There were forty-nine women students and one man. Forty-eight of the fifty student teachers were majoring in elementary education in the College of Education; the remaining two were majoring in elementary education through the department of Family Relations and Child Development in the College of Home Economics.

The fifty students included in the study were randomly assigned to two groups. No effort was made to select or to identify volunteers. Officials of the school systems which cooperate with Oklahoma State University in providing the student teaching experience were asked to place student teachers in schools serving culturally-deprived areas in their systems. Approximately one-fourth of the student teachers were so placed. These became the experimental (E) group. The control (C) group was composed of the remaining thirty-seven students. These were assigned to the conventional middle-class schools.

The college transcript of each student was checked to note the degree of homogeneity in academic backgrounds. Every student included in the study had completed at least six hours of professional education courses; forty-four of the fifty had completed nine or more.

Standards for a degree in elementary education at Oklahoma State University are such that students' general education backgrounds are relatively similar. All elementary majors are required to complete fifteen hours in the language arts area, twelve hours each in the social studies and science areas, three to six hours of mathematics, seven

hours of physical education, and eight hours of fine arts including humanities. Since most of the students participating in the study were of senior standing, they had completed most of the general education requirements.

Requirements for admission to the student teaching program at Oklahoma State University would tend to make the group more homogeneous. In order to establish eligibility for enrollment in the student teaching block, each student must have successfully completed the STEP test, a speech proficiency examination, and an essay examination. In addition, students are required to maintain an over-all grade point of 2.3 and a grade point of 2.5 in the professional education courses (on a four-point grading scale).

The one criterion which would tend to broaden the heterogeneity of the group was the requirement that each student select a twenty-one hour minor in one of the general education areas. The record of students classified according to minor areas is shown in Table I. Students from each of the groups were fairly well distributed among all minor areas except the fine arts area. Any differences in reactions toward the children which might be attributed to additional courses in social studies would tend to favor the control group.

Officials of the cooperating school systems were asked to assist in identifying schools serving large numbers of disadvantaged children and in placing student teachers. Personnel of the school systems were better informed as to the nature of the school district populations than were university personnel. Since the student teachers were, for the most part, unacquainted with the public school officials, they could be placed without personal bias.

TABLE I
MINOR AREAS OF STUDENT TEACHERS

	Number of student teachers	Students in E group	Students in C group
Language Arts	12	5	7
Social Studies	8	0	8
Science	7	1	6
Fine Arts	4	0	0
Foreign Language	6	4	2
None declared	13	3	10
Total	50	13	37

Description of the Student Teaching Programs

All students participating in the study were enrolled in all of the courses included in the student teaching block at Oklahoma State University. This block of courses included nine semester hours of content and methods in specific subject-matter areas--reading and language arts, social studies, and science. The additional seven semester hours earned during the semester consisted of Observation and Participation in the Elementary Schools. This course is composed of a general methods seminar which meets on campus five hours a week for the eight weeks preceding student teaching plus seven weeks of full-time student teaching. The special program for the experimental group was introduced in the observation and participation course prior to student teaching.

Since some of the schools providing student teaching experience were organized on a semi-departmentalized basis and others employed the self-contained classroom pattern, students enrolled in the observation course were divided into two sections according to the city in which they planned to do their student teaching. Two days a week each section met for two hours. Students from the experimental group were pulled from the section in which they were regularly enrolled for two hours each week. During this time, they participated in a special program designed to ease the transition to teaching in a culturally-deprived school district. While all students spent approximately the same amount of time in class, the programs pursued by the experimental and control groups were somewhat different during the two hours in which they met separately. The two instructors alternated between the two control sections and the experimental group for these sessions. This was done to minimize variations due to teacher influence. The experimental group spent an additional five hours with two experts in the field of reading. Instructor A spent sixteen hours with section one and twelve hours with section two; instructor B spent twelve hours with section one and sixteen hours with section two. On two occasions, all day field experiences replaced the regular two-hour class periods.

During the remaining hour each week, the combined groups met in a general session. At this time, topics of concern to all students were covered by resource people and through films.

The primary purpose of the special program was to increase students' acceptance of the behavior of the culturally-deprived child and to increase their confidence in their ability to teach in inner-city schools.

Certain secondary objectives were established to provide guidelines for reaching this goal. Objectives for the special program were:

- (1) To increase the students' understanding of the culturally-deprived child's environment and its impact upon his development--intellectual, physical, and social-emotional.
- (2) To enable the students to understand better the educational problems arising from the child's limited experiential background.
- (3) To improve the students' teaching skill in handling educational problems peculiar to the culturally-deprived child by introducing various approaches to meeting the child's language and perceptual difficulties and his need for concrete stimuli, individualized instruction, and remedial attention.
- (4) To acquaint the students with current attempts to meet the educational needs of the culturally-disadvantaged child by introducing (a) current research studies utilizing new teaching methods and aids, (b) approaches to school organization, and (c) school-community projects.
- (5) To acquaint students with the school and community resources available to teachers in culturally-deprived districts.
- (6) To challenge student teachers to uncover the potential of the culturally-deprived child.

Instructional methods used by those working with the group were varied. Lectures by the regular instructors and by resource people from the public schools and from the Reading Center at Oklahoma State University were used; however due to the size of the group, these tended to be lecture-discussion periods. Because of the students' interests in working out some of their own answers, a great deal of discussion was used. Some of these discussion sessions involved actual case studies. Other discussions centered around assigned topics. The need for developing an adequate background for discussing a topic required outside reading by the students on the assigned topics. Additional methods used included a limited amount of role playing, individual student reports, and two field experiences in inner-city

schools in Oklahoma City and Tulsa. Three films depicting the life of culturally-deprived children and the influence of the school on their lives were shown. "Children Without" was used to demonstrate the life of the disadvantaged child in a large metropolitan center; "And So They Live," presented a family eeking a slim existence in a rural area; and "A Desk for Billie" portrayed the problems of the child of migrant workers.

In attempting to meet the objectives established for the program, topics were selected which seemed to most closely correspond to the stated objectives. As each topic was covered, an attempt was made to give special attention to the communities served by the schools in which students were to be placed. Each of the seven topics will be discussed separately.

The nature of the community was given more attention than some other topics due to the students' expressed desire to know more about culturally-deprived neighborhoods. Students were given a map of Stillwater on which the lower-income residential districts had been marked. As the topic was covered, students were asked to visit these districts and to compare observations with outside readings and class discussions.

As students grew in understanding of the nature of the community, the group moved to a discussion of the child and his nature. Research studies dealing with the social-emotional and learning needs of the child received the greatest emphasis. The experiential background of the child with its resultant sensory deprivation was covered. A public school teacher visited the group and described her students in terms of physical, emotional, and mental maturity and in terms of academic

achievement.

The public school teacher also discussed some facets of home-school relationships in her particular school situation. Other experiences concerning relations between the school and families living in culturally-deprived neighborhoods were provided through case studies gathered by a principal in a nearby city.

Special emphasis was given to classroom climate and ways of meeting individual needs in discussing the role of the school. The role of the teacher as a model and mediator of the larger culture was covered as a part of the educational objective of assimilating the culturally-deprived child into the larger community.

Discussion of special school programs was divided into three subtopics: programs in specific content areas, programs established in specific city systems, and school and community services.

Modifications in the developmental reading program including an emphasis on the reading readiness program and the language-experience approach were discussed. The relationship between reading and the other language arts was stressed as the use of the language-experience approach with culturally-disadvantaged children was covered. Technological media--specifically the tape recorder and language laboratories, used in language programs received some attention. The ease with which social studies, science and mathematics can be adapted to the child's concrete learning pattern and his desire for practical knowledge were touched briefly.

Students reviewed programs currently being used in the twelve cities included in the Greater Cities School Improvement Project chiefly through individual reports. Discussions of the programs

centered around comparing programs and in noting how certain curricular innovations made by various systems related to the principles discussed in the preceding four topics. Since several of the students were to be placed in the Oklahoma City public schools, special attention was given to efforts of that system to meet the needs of culturally-deprived children.

Professional services and remedial aid provided through the public schools and through various community and state welfare agencies were considered. Assistance offered to the classroom teacher by these sources was stressed.

Because of the number of corrective and remedial reading cases found among the culturally disadvantaged, classroom procedures for diagnosing and treating special reading problems were included apart from the developmental reading program covered previously. Two reading specialists spent a total of five class periods with the students acquainting them with procedures and materials which have been found helpful in meeting the interests, abilities, and achievement levels commonly encountered in elementary schools serving culturally-deprived children. Special attention was given to this area because of the importance of reading in the total school program and because of the difficulty that learning to read presents to the educationally-deprived child (Lloyd, 1965). Berg estimated that in some slum areas as many as eighty per cent of the children are reading retardates and suggests that teachers of the culturally-disadvantaged child be given special instruction in meeting his reading handicaps (Berg, 1964).

One two-hour period was given to reviewing characteristics of slow-learning and emotionally-disturbed children. Discussions

focused on general principles and techniques for working with exceptional children as outlined by Cruickshank (1958) and by Kirk and Johnson (1951).

Following the eight-week program on campus, the fifty student teachers were placed in the public schools for a seven-week period of student teaching. During this experience, students were given the opportunity to add to their limited knowledge and understanding of the topics introduced through concrete personal experience. Students in the experimental group observed and taught culturally-deprived children under the supervision of experienced teachers. With these teachers, the students visited in the homes of the children, observed parent-teacher conferences, participated in PTA or other school-community programs, and helped to conduct after-school activities such as scouting for the children.

Selection of objectives and topics for the experimental program and the offering of student teaching in the culturally-disadvantaged neighborhood were based upon suggestions by Goldberg (1964), Rivlin (1963), and Schueler (1965) for a teacher-education program for the teachers of culturally-deprived children. Further bases for the program were gathered from descriptions of competencies needed for effective teaching of the educationally deprived by Haubrich (1964) and Kornberg (1963).

The program for the control group during the eight weeks prior to student teaching dealt primarily with practices and procedures which would be used with the middle- or upper-class child. A brief discussion of topics covered with the control group will follow.

Since student teachers were concerned with their initial impression

and success in student teaching, the program began with factors related to success in teaching. Special reports and resource people were brought in to acquaint the students with qualities which most cooperating and supervising teachers consider important in a student teacher and qualities which the principals hope to find.

Because of the importance of classroom management in the effectiveness of the teacher, considerable time was devoted to this topic. In connection with classroom management, classroom organization, long-term and short-term lesson planning, the learning climate, and democratic control were discussed. Emphasis was given to the relationships among these areas.

Although all of the students had completed courses in child development and in educational psychology, one class period was devoted to identifying growth needs and characteristics of elementary children, and one period dealt with the relationships of learning the growth and development of elementary children. An attempt was made to tie previous learnings to the students' forthcoming experience in student teaching.

Attention was also given to ways of providing for individual differences in the classroom. Group and individualized instruction were discussed and compared. The organization of the classroom and the school day were discussed in terms of inclusion of both types of instruction. Identification of the slow learner and ways of providing for his instruction in a regular classroom situation were also covered. The importance of diagnosing individual needs and abilities in order to provide for individual differences received special attention. The use of seat work, individual inventories, observation, and other

classroom procedures were discussed.

Through special student reports, the relationship of the school and the community was discussed. Students reviewed the effects of relationships between the home and the school and the faculty and the community. In addition, procedures for evaluating pupil progress and reporting to parents were discussed. Current arguments concerning promotion and retention practices were discussed in terms of child development and learning theory.

Current innovations used in the schools in which the students would be working were covered. Specific innovations discussed included team teaching and team learning, the nongraded school, the use of television, programmed learning, and other technological innovations, and the foreign language program in the elementary school.

Since the student teachers would encounter both the self-contained classroom pattern of school organization and the semi-departmentalized plan, characteristics of each were noted. An effort was made to point out the advantages and disadvantages of each pattern.

The importance of knowing more about the teaching profession was stressed in relation to the qualities of a professional teacher. The qualities of the effective teacher were compared to the aims and objectives of the teaching profession.

One class period was devoted to acquiring and preparing for the first teaching position. The job interview and selection of the right teaching position were stressed.

Students in the control group were placed in schools located in middle- and upper-class neighborhoods for the student teaching experience.

Measurement of Differences

According to Knapp (1965), previous evaluations of student teachers' feelings toward the behavior of culturally-deprived children and their confidence in their ability to teach in these schools tended to be informal and fragmentary in nature. The problem of the present study is to objectively and quantitatively measure any possible differences which might occur between the two groups. Discussion of the procedures used to measure possible differences will include a description of (1) the development of a suitable questionnaire, (2) administration and scoring of the questionnaire, and (3) analysis of data.

Rosander developed an attitude scale based on actual behavioral situations. Items on the scale consisted of verbal descriptions of actual problem situations regarding a certain issue. Responses consisted of descriptions of the actual behavior an individual might follow when confronted with the problem situation. The value of such a questionnaire, called a "behavior-reaction scale" by Rosander, was in requiring the respondent to place himself in the actual situation described and to select the course of action he would probably follow. Rosander found it possible to gain a sharper and more specific picture of an individual's attitude patterns with the behavior-reaction scale (Rosander, 1937). The present study was concerned with identifying students' reactions to the behavior of culturally-deprived children. Since student teachers included in the study had had little or no experience with the educationally-deprived child, the possibility of developing items which would require the respondent to place himself in a

given situation was considered highly desirable. Hence, the problems presented in the present study consisted of behavior-reaction situations which depicted the actual behavior of educationally-deprived children. Since the purpose of the investigation was to note the feelings of students toward the behavior rather than the student teachers' behavior toward the problem created, an opinion-type response was substituted for the behavior-reaction response.

Items included on the questionnaire were collected through personal interviews. Each person interviewed was contacted prior to the interview and asked to think of actual situations which had occurred in his/her building which in his/her opinion were typical of situations causing teachers to consider the school in which the individual worked a "difficult" school. One respondent had kept anecdotal records of problems which had occurred in his building. These were used to supplement the interview with him.

The public school personnel interviewed included four principals, three classroom teachers, and one beginning teacher who had just completed her student teaching in an all-white school located in a culturally-deprived area.

The four principals participating were white men who served in integrated schools. Three of the men were employed in a large city system. The fourth served in the one elementary school in a small central-Oklahoma community. Of the three principals drawn from a city system, one was from a predominately Negro school; one was from a school serving a predominately white area; the third principal administered a school enrolling 200 pupils who were equally distributed among white, Negro, Mexican, and Indian races.

Of the three women teachers interviewed, two came from a city system and one from a small community. One of the city teachers had twenty years' teaching experience, nine of which had been in culturally-deprived school districts--one an integrated school located in the heart of the business district and the other an all-white school located near the edge of the city. The other city teacher had completed two years' teaching experience in a predominately Negro school. The third teacher was an experienced teacher in an all-white school in a small central-Oklahoma community.

129 items were collected from the eight people interviewed. These items were then classified according to behavioral areas listed in the literature as being "most annoying" to teachers. In interviewing sixty Chicago public school teachers, Becker found their grievances toward educationally-deprived children tended to fall into three major categories: problems related to the teaching task itself, problems in discipline, and problems involving the moral acceptability of the children. The behavioral situations collected were analyzed according to the subheadings in these three categories.

Items related to the task of teaching culturally-deprived children were classified according to the pupils' lack of interest, learning ability, and outside training and help from home.

Discipline problems cited by Becker tended to refer to the unrestrained behavior and physical violence shown by the child and the teachers' fear of pupil retaliation.

Annoyance with children's aggressive behavior, physical appearance, dishonesty, health and cleanliness, and sex and use of obscene language were listed by Becker under the heading of moral

acceptability (Becker, 1952).

Items which seemed to apply to no category and items deemed inappropriate or offensive by two university supervisors of student teachers were omitted from the questionnaire. One hundred eighteen items remained.

Selection of items to be included on the final questionnaire involved submitting the one hundred eighteen items to a panel of judges who were asked to evaluate the content validity of the items and a study of item reproducibility.

Eight teachers and principals with experience in teaching culturally-deprived children were asked to evaluate the items. Each judge was asked to evaluate whether behavior described represented the actual behavior of disadvantaged children. Included among the eight judges were two women principals, five classroom teachers, and one university child development specialist who had elementary teaching experience with culturally-disadvantaged children. All judges were white, and all were women.

The two principals had wide experience in a city system. One principal was serving in a predominately white school located in an industrial section of the city. The other had spent three years as principal of a school numbering only three white students among its predominately Negro student population.

Two of the classroom teachers taught in a predominately white school located in an industrial area of a large Oklahoma city. One was an experienced primary teacher; the other taught in the upper grades in the same school.

One teacher had completed three years' teaching experience in

a large city system. Two years had been spent in an integrated school in a "river bottom" district and one year in a transition area which was rapidly changing from an all-white, middle-class district to a district serving a population, largely Negro.

The two remaining teachers were drawn from a small central-Oklahoma university community. One of the teachers taught in the primary grades in an all-white school located in a lower-income area. The other teacher had spent two years as a social worker in a large southern city. In addition, during the summer preceding the study, she had taught in the Head Start program.

Each judge was asked to read the questionnaire carefully and to check any situation which a beginning teacher would not normally encounter in teaching the pupils who were known by the judge. Any item receiving three or more checks by the eight judges was eliminated.

The items which remained were arranged in questionnaire form. Students were asked to respond to each behavioral situation in relation to their annoyance with the behavior described and their confidence in their ability to handle the behavior. Responses to each category were arranged along a four-point continuum.

The annoyance continuum ranged from "(a) This would greatly annoy me, (b) This would annoy me, (c) I would be concerned, but not annoyed, to (d) I would not be annoyed or concerned."

Possible responses to the confidence index included: "(a) I could handle this situation myself. (b) I could handle this situation with help. (c) I could not handle this situation alone. (d) I could not handle this situation with help."

The intensity with which students held a given position in either of the two categories was checked on a second four point continuum. Possible responses to the degree to which an attitude was held included: "(a) Very strongly, (b) Strongly, (c) Somewhat, (d) Not at all."

Because of the length of the questionnaire, one-half the items were placed at the beginning of one-half of the exam booklets, and the other fifty-nine items were placed at the beginning of the other booklets. Approximately one-half of the students responded to the first fifty-nine items; the other students responded to the final fifty-nine. An attempt was made to divide the exam booklets as evenly as possible. Thirty students responded to the first one-half of the questionnaire; twenty-five students responded to items on the second half.

The questionnaire was administered to elementary education majors in a course in children's literature during the fall semester of 1965. The majority of the students taking this course were seniors planning to enroll in the student teaching block during the spring semester of 1966.

The same examiner administered the questionnaire to students in all three sections. Respondents were told to read each item carefully. In relation to the annoyance section of the questionnaire, students were asked to check (✓) the response which most accurately described their feelings toward the behavior and to then check (✓) how strongly they felt about this response. Students were told to check (✓) the response which best described their ability to handle the situation and to then check (✓) how strongly they felt about this response in order to determine a confidence score.

Questionnaires were hand-scored by one person. Responses for each item were weighted on a 3-0 scale. Annoyance and confidence responses were recorded separately. Total scores were calculated for the separated annoyance and confidence scores of each individual by adding the responses to each item. Respondents were ranked according to total scores, and the Guttman technique was used to determine the reproducibility of the items.

In using the Guttman method, a table was made for each item in which students were placed in rank order allowing one row per person. Each weight was allocated one column. The response of each person to the item was indicated by an x in the appropriate column. The frequencies for each weight were noted at the bottom of the table. The number of frequencies in a given weight were compared to the number of people within a given rank. The number of students within a rank who had responded with a weight other than that which would be expected by their ranking in the total group constituted the number of errors for that rank. For instance, if nine students had responded with a three to the item, the nine highest ranking students would be expected to respond in this category. If two of the nine high ranking students responded with a two weight, the error for that rank of students would be two. The percentage of error was calculated and subtracted from one hundred per cent. This last percentage was the reproducibility index for the item.

In items which achieved less than eighty-five per cent reproducibility, categories, or weights, were combined and new weights were assigned using the method outlined by Guttman. Each person's score was again totaled using the new weights. Scores were again

ranked, and new tables were made using the new totals. Frequencies were again obtained, and the errors were counted. New reproducibility percentages were calculated (Guttman, 1947).

After using the Guttman technique, thirteen items showed a reproducibility above .90 on the annoyance scale and eleven items were found on the confidence scale. The twenty-four items which showed an adequate reproducibility index were selected for the final questionnaire form. The thirteen items on the annoyance scale were labeled "Part A." The eleven items on the confidence scale were "Part B."

The final questionnaire was twice administered to the fifty students included in the study. The first administration took place at the end of the eight weeks spent on campus in theory courses prior to going into the public schools for student teaching. The second administration followed the student teaching experience. On each administration, the same examiner administered the questionnaire to the combined groups.

Directions and scoring procedures were identical to those used in the trial study.

After each administration, the total scores for each part were calculated. The Guttman technique was applied to determine whether responses to items on each part formed one attitude in both direction and degree.

The Mann-Whitney U test (Siegel, 1956) was used to compare the results of the two groups in order to determine if differences appeared between the groups. Since scores were in rank order only, the parametric t test could not be applied to compare the groups. Siegel

notes that the Mann-Whitney test "is an excellent alternative to the t test and can be used when ordinal measurement has been achieved." (Siegel, 1956)

Results of the two tests applied to the data will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Findings of the present investigation are reported below under four headings; content validation, reproducibility, pre-test results, and post-test results.

Content Validation

Only items which proved to be representative of the behavior of children in most schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas were used in the final questionnaire. 129 items were presented to a panel of public school personnel who were asked to judge the validity of each item. Eleven items were checked by three or more judges as happening rarely or never in their buildings. These items were omitted.

Six of the eleven items omitted from the questionnaire dealt with discipline problems, specifically physical violence directed against a teacher. Three were related to areas included in the teaching task. Incidents of physical aggression toward the teacher were described by every person interviewed. Five judges noted that such incidents had occurred only rarely or never in their experiences. The other three judges noted that similar incidents had occurred in their buildings within the past year.

Four of the judges noted that problems involving academic achievement and learning ability of the children they taught occurred frequently in their schools; however they felt that estimates made by the interviewees were too high for the schools in which they worked.

Reproducibility

The Guttman method of scale construction was employed to determine the reproducibility of items. In the trial study, thirteen items on the annoyance scale showed a reproducibility index above ninety per cent. These twenty-four items were included on the final questionnaire.

The distribution of students' responses to each of the thirteen items in Part A is shown in Table II. The number of errors, percentage of error, and reproducibility index for each item are also given.

Differences in the total number of students responding to items five through forty-seven and the number responding to items sixty-three through ninety two should be noted. Because of the length of the trial test, approximately one-half of the students responded to the first fifty-nine items; the other students responded to the final fifty-nine. An attempt was made to divide the booklets as evenly as possible. Thirty students responded to the first half of the questionnaire; twenty-five students responded to items on the second half.

Table III shows the distribution of students' responses to each of the eleven items in Part B. In addition, the number of errors, percentage of error, and reproducibility index for each item are given. Again, on Part B, the confidence section, thirty students responded to the first half of the questionnaire, and twenty-five students responded

to items on the second half.

When ranked content and intensity scores were plotted together, medians for each column tended to form a scattered pattern on the graph. The distribution of medians for students responding to the first fifty-nine items on the trial questionnaire is shown in Table IV. Table V shows the distribution of medians for students responding to items sixty through one-hundred eighteen.

Tables VI and VII show the distribution of medians for Part B. Again the distribution for each group of students is shown separately.

TABLE II
STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO REPRODUCIBLE
ITEMS ON TRIAL TEST
PART A

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
5		21	9		2	7	.93
17		13	17		2	7	.93
22		25	5		2	7	.93
26	2	5	23		2	7	.93
34	5	2	23		2	7	.93
38			6	24	2	7	.93
40		7	23		2	7	.93
47		8	22		2	7	.93
63		16	9		0	0	1.00
80		14	10	1	0	0	1.00

TABLE II (Continued)

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
90		13	12		2	8	.92
91		7	18		2	8	.92
92	12	12	1		0	0	1.00

TABLE III

STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO REPRODUCIBLE
ITEMS ON TRIAL TEST
PART B

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
22		27	3		2	7	.93
34			6	24	2	7	.93
43			17	13	2	7	.93
52			9	21	2	7	.93
57			10	20	2	7	.93
67		6	19		2	8	.92
76		22	3		2	8	.92
79	24	1			0	0	1.00
85			23	2	2	8	.92
91		18	7		0	0	1.00
117	22	3			2	8	.92

TABLE V
 DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
 AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR TRIAL
 GROUP TWO ON PART A

Content	Intensity							
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8
15								
14				x				
13		x				x		
12								
11					x		x	
10								
9			x					
8								
7								x
6								
4	x							

TABLE VI
 DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
 AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR TRIAL
 GROUP ONE ON PART B

Content	Intensity						
	14	12	11	10	9	8	7
26							
25	x						
24							
23							
22							
21							
20				x			
19						x	
18		x	x				
17					x		x

TABLE VII
 DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
 AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR TRIAL
 GROUP TWO ON PART B.

Content	Intensity									
	18	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8
15										
14	x					x	x	x	x	x
13		x	x	x						
12					x					

Pre-Test Results

Responses to the pre-test were checked to determine if the items included on the questionnaire were scalable. Guttman noted that scales were relative to both time and population; hence a universe might be scalable for one population but not for another, or it might be scalable for one population at one time but not at another (Guttman, 1944). Consequently, it was necessary to attempt to scale the final questionnaire on the new sample.

Parts A and B were, again, scaled separately.

On the pre-test, the content reproducibility on all but one of the twenty-four items was above eighty-five per cent. The reproducibility index was above ninety per cent on all but four of the items. Since item nine contains more error than the smallest frequency of responses to any weight on the item, reproducibility could not be achieved by item nine (Guttman, 1947). Students' responses to each of the twenty-four

items are shown in Table VIII. The number of errors, percentage of error, and reproducibility index for each item are also shown.

When each student's responses to each item were added, total scores ranged from twelve to twenty-three on Part A, the annoyance section, and from seventeen to twenty-three on the confidence section, Part B.

The content and intensity scores for Part A were plotted on a single graph. The resulting distribution of medians formed a scattered pattern rather than a triangular one. Consequently, individuals could not be classified by this scale as possessing a predisposition to react either negatively or positively toward the behavior described. The distribution of medians for Part A is shown in Table IX.

When the content and intensity scores for Part B were plotted together, the distribution of medians again formed a scattered pattern. Table X illustrates the distribution of medians for Part B.

Classifying individuals as being positive or negative in attitude toward the behavior of culturally-deprived children was not possible with the questionnaire. In order to determine if differences existed between groups, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the data. The U score was converted to a z score using the method described by Siegel (1956). Because of the large number of tied groups, the correction for ties was employed (Siegel, 1956).

On Part A, the annoyance index, the value of z on the pre-test was 2.50 ($p = .0096$ for a two-tailed test). The difference was in favor of the experimental group.

TABLE VIII
STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO
ITEMS ON PRE-TEST

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
1		6	44		3	6	.94
2		2	48		2	4	.96
3		45	5		4	8	.92
4	4	5	41		4	8	.92
5		7	43		2	4	.96
6			7	43	3	6	.94
7		3	47		2	4	.96
8		3	47		2	4	.96
9		4	45	1	7	14	.86
10		3	47		2	4	.96
11		6	44		4	8	.92
12		2	48		2	4	.96
13		5	45		4	8	.92
14		11	39		4	8	.92
15		42	8		6	12	.88
16	50				0	0	1.00
17		5	45		6	12	.88
18		49	1		0	0	1.00
19	48	2			2	4	.96
20		2	48		2	4	.96

TABLE VIII (Continued)

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
21		5	45		4	8	.92
22		4	46		8	16	.84
23		1	44	5	5	10	.90
24	34	16			4	8	.92

TABLE IX
 DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
 AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR PRE-TEST
 PART A

Content	Intensity																
	36	35	34	33	32	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	17
23																	
22																	
19																	
18																	
17			x														
16														x			
15		x											x				
14					x	x	x										
13				x				x			x	x			x	x	x
12	x								x	x							

TABLE X
 DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
 AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR PRE-TEST
 PART B

Content	Intensity													
	27	26	25	24	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13
23														
22								x						
21	x						x							
20				x	x	x			x		x			
19		x								x		x		x
18													x	
17			x											

The z value on the confidence score, Part B, was 1.19 ($p = .2340$ for a two-tailed test). No difference between the two groups was indicated on the pre-test.

Post-Test Results

Following the second administration of the questionnaire, the Guttman technique was again applied to see if the universe was still scalable with the same sample.

The content reproducibility on all items was above eighty-eight per cent. Only items eight and ten fell below ninety per cent reproducibility on the post-test. Item nine again showed more error than the smallest frequency of responses to any weight on the item; consequently reproducibility was not achieved for item nine. Table XI shows the students' responses to each of the twenty-four items on the post-test. The number of errors, percentage of error, and reproducibility index for each item also appear in Table XI.

When the weights corresponding to each student's responses to each item were added, total scores ranged from twelve to twenty-five on Part A and from seventeen to twenty-one on Part B. Again, a large number of ties appeared.

When the ranked content and intensity scores for Parts A and B were plotted, the patterns formed for each section were scattered; however when the medians were plotted, the result approximated a straight line. Table XII shows the distribution of medians when content and intensity scores for Part A were plotted on a single graph. The distribution of medians for Part B is shown in Table XIII.

TABLE XI
STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO
ITEMS ON POST-TEST

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
1		2	48		2	4	.96
2		3	47		2	4	.96
3		40	10		2	4	.96
4		7	43		2	4	.96
5	3	0	47		0	0	1.00
6		3	47		0	0	1.00
7		4	46		4	8	.92
8		5	45		6	12	.88
9		5	44	1	4	8	.92
10		6	43	1	6	12	.88
11		4	46		4	8	.92
12		4	46		4	8	.92
13		2	48		0	0	1.00
14		42	8		4	8	.92
15		50			0	0	1.00
16		50			0	0	1.00
17		50			0	0	1.00
18		49	1		0	0	1.00
19		48	2		2	4	.96
20		1	49		0	0	1.00

TABLE XI (Continued)

Item	Weight of Response				Number of Errors	Percentage of Error	Reproducibility
	3	2	1	0			
21		5	45		0	0	1.00
22		6	44		4	8	.92
23			50		0	0	1.00
24		47	3		2	4	.96

TABLE XII
 DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
 AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR POST-TEST
 PART A

Content	Intensity														
	39	38	37	36	35	34	33	32	31	30	29	28	27	26	25
25															
22															
20															
19															
18															
16												x			
15															
14			x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x		
13	x	x		x										x	x

TABLE XIII

DISTRIBUTION OF MEDIANS FOR CONTENT
AND INTENSITY SCORES FOR POST-TEST
PART B

Content	Intensity																
	33	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	17	16	15
21																	
20																	
19	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x
18		x									x						x

The Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the data of the post-test to determine if differences existed between the two groups.

On Part A, the annoyance section, results of the Mann-Whitney showed a z value of .59 ($p = .5992$ for a two-tailed test). The z value on Part B, the confidence section, was 5.63 ($p = .00006$ for a two-tailed test). The difference favored the experimental group.

Summary of Results

The results of the present study are summarized in this section. The hypotheses that were tested and the statistical tests applied in testing each are included. Results are presented in the order in which the hypotheses were stated in Chapter II.

I. Hypothesis: Prior to student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the annoyance with behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

Statistical Tests:

Guttman method of scale construction

Mann-Whitney U test

Results:

Guttman--reproducibility of twelve items above ninety per cent

Mann-Whitney U test yielded a z score of 2.50 ($p < .05$)

Disposition of Hypothesis:

Reject null at .05 level of confidence

II. Hypothesis: Following student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the annoyance with behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

Statistical Tests:

Guttman method of scale construction

Mann-Whitney U test

Results:

Guttman--reproducibility of every item was above ninety per cent

Mann-Whitney U test yielded a z score of 1.19 ($p > .05$)

Disposition of Hypothesis:

Fail to reject null at .05

III. Hypothesis: Prior to student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the feeling of adequacy to handle the behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

Statistical Tests:

Guttman method of scale construction

Mann-Whitney U test

Results:

Guttman--reproducibility of eight items was above ninety per cent

Mann-Whitney U test yielded a z score of .59 ($p > .05$)

Disposition of Hypothesis:

Fail to reject null at .05

IV. Hypothesis: Following student teaching, there will be a significant difference ($p < .05$) toward the feeling of adequacy to handle the behavior presented in a hypothetical situation between a group of elementary student teachers who participate in a program designed to increase their understanding and skill in working in schools located in culturally-disadvantaged areas and a group of elementary student teachers who do not participate in such a program.

Statistical Tests:

Guttman method of scale construction

Mann-Whitney U test

Results:

Guttman--reproducibility of all items was above ninety per cent

Mann-Whitney U test yielded a z score of 5.63 ($p < .05$)

Disposition of Hypothesis:

Reject null at .05

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Since World War II, large numbers of unskilled and semi-skilled workers have clustered in the central-industrial and marginal residential areas of major American cities. As the numbers of culturally-disadvantaged people in the central city have increased, the more fortunate middle- and upper-working-class residents have moved to the suburbs. The migration of the established, middle-class families from the inner city has left the new residents in relatively homogeneous communities with a limited social class range.

The high concentration of unemployed, unskilled, and poorly educated individuals in the central areas of large cities has resulted in tremendous problems for the cities, which have been heightened by the increased numbers of such people in the metropolitan areas. The federal government, states, and the cities themselves have invested money and personnel in projects designed to alleviate the social, economic, and educational problems prevalent in these central-industrial and marginal residential areas. School systems have played a major part in such projects because of their role in educating all segments of society.

However, many children living in culturally-deprived

neighborhoods have been unable to reach their maximum achievement level in an ordinary school program. These children have been at a decided disadvantage in competing in an academic world, and the handicap has become greater as the students progressed through the school curriculum. In recent years, school enrichment programs, such as the Higher Horizons Program in New York City, have opened the possibility of narrowing the cultural gap for these children.

Superior teaching is a necessity if the promise of greater educational opportunity is to become a reality, but, all too often, culturally-disadvantaged children have been taught by inexperienced or unqualified teachers. The problem of attracting and retaining good teachers in lower-class schools has been grave. Transportation problems, objections of parents and friends, and a fear of the children have caused many young teachers to refuse positions in such schools. Those who have accepted positions in inner city schools have often requested transfers or have left teaching after a short tenure. Of those who have remained, many have been ineffective because of a lack of understanding or rejection of the needs and behavior of the children they were attempting to teach.

The possibility of recruiting capable young teachers through special teacher education programs has been explored and appears promising; the time has now come when this movement should be extended to non-volunteers.

The behavior of culturally-deprived children has been a major source of difficulty in teachers' eschewing positions in schools servicing lower-class districts. Increasing student teacher tolerance for and skill in handling such behavior has been noted as one factor in

providing effective teachers for culturally-disadvantaged school districts. The purpose of the present study was to attempt to discover if students who had participated in a program designed to prepare them to teach in culturally-disadvantaged districts would react in the same way as students who had not taken part in such a program.

Limitations of the Study

The findings reported in this study should be interpreted in the light of certain limitations. Factors which may have substantially influenced the results will be discussed briefly.

One limitation of the study concerns the population on which it was based. The sample consisted of student teachers from the College of Education in a land grant university located in the southwestern section of the United States. Because of the homogeneous backgrounds of students majoring in elementary education at this university, the experimental sample may be considered to be representative of the population of elementary education majors at this institution; however it cannot be said that the sample drawn is representative of the total population of prospective elementary school teachers.

The distribution of students' scores on the measuring instrument constituted a second limitation. On each administration of the questionnaire, the ranking of total scores revealed a rather narrow range of scores on each section of the questionnaire. The homogeneity of students' responses decreased the possibility of discriminating between students who reacted positively from those who reacted negatively. Although the present investigation did not include a study of

individual students, such a phenomenon may have affected the grouped results.

The number of tied scores may have tended to affect the results reported in yet another way. Although the Mann-Whitney correction for tied scores does not greatly alter the results, the correction does tend to increase the value of z slightly (Siegel, 1956). The results reported in this investigation may have been influenced to some extent by the number of tied scores.

The tendency of students to waver somewhat in their response to the intensity section of the questionnaire suggests a fourth limitation of the study. Wavering may have been partially due to the students' lack of familiarity with the behaviors described; however the students' judgments of the severity of the behavior may also have been a factor.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In view of the limitations discussed in the preceding section, a conservative interpretation would appear in order for the findings of the present study.

Results of the Mann-Whitney U test suggest that, prior to student teaching, students participating in the special program showed a tendency to react with more annoyance ($p < .05$) toward the behavior of culturally-deprived children than did the control group. A number of factors may have been related to this tendency. Student teachers who knew they would be expected to teach boys and girls similar to those described may have been reacting in terms of their concern over handling these situations. In addition, their understanding that such behavior actually occurs in schools may have

caused them to view the situations more realistically.

Following student teaching, no statistical differences were apparent between the two groups on the annoyance section. When content and intensity scores were plotted, the groups seemed to be more homogeneous in attitude than on the first administration. The results suggest that the student teaching experience, in this case, seemed to foster greater homogeneity in attitudes toward children. The data offered no indication that students participating in a special program differed in attitude toward the behavior of culturally-disadvantaged children.

On the confidence section of the questionnaire, no statistical differences between the two groups were apparent on the pre-test. A significant difference at the .001 level appeared on the post-test. Students participating in the special program and completing student teaching in a school located in a culturally-deprived district expressed more confidence in their ability to handle problem situations which might arise in teaching culturally-disadvantaged children. This should not be interpreted to mean that the students were better able to handle these situations. They simply expressed a feeling that they felt capable of handling the behavior problems presented in the questionnaire.

The assumption underlying the intensity analysis of the Guttman scale is that individuals holding stronger positive or negative attitudes will tend to hold these attitudes more intensely than individuals who feel more moderately toward a group, object, or institution (Guttman, 1947). In the present study, students showed a tendency to waver in the intensity with which they reacted to the verbal situations presented

in the questionnaire. The tendency of students to waver in the intensity to which they reacted toward the situations described suggest that these attitudes may not yet be firmly established. If the attitudes measured in the present study are not fixed, further research aimed at the possibility of modifying these attitudes might prove profitable.

The number of tied scores and the narrow range of scores on each section of the questionnaire suggest considerable homogeneity among the students included in the study. Due to the screening of students prior to student teaching and the similarities in academic background, some homogeneity would be expected. Similar findings were noted by Fuller after administering the MTAI to a group of student teachers with similar academic background and screening (Fuller, 1951).

With regard to future research, the results of the present investigation, particularly the confidence section, suggest that further study of programs designed to increase the effectiveness of young teachers working with culturally-deprived children might be profitable. Certain modifications in the design of the present study might prove helpful in future research.

The use of behavior-reaction responses similar to those used by Rosander (1937) might prove more useful in measuring the students' reactions toward children's behavior than the opinion-type responses used in the present study. With a behavior-reaction response, the student would select the actual behavior she felt she would follow when confronted with a situation similar to the one described.

In addition to measuring the students' acceptance or annoyance with the child's behavior and confidence in handling the situation, the

behavior-reaction response would enable the researcher to investigate the realism of the student's responses to the problems presented. The realism of the student's solutions to the child's behavior would offer yet another measure of the student teacher's preparedness to work with culturally-deprived children.

Future research of attitudes of student teachers toward the behavior of the culturally-disadvantaged child might include the administering of a questionnaire during the first few days of the student teaching semester. This would enable the investigator to compare the initial attitudes of student teachers with their attitudes as they progress through the semester. Such a measure might enable the researcher to note any differences in attitude which might occur at various points during the semester.

An additional measurement following six months or one year of full-time classroom teaching might offer information regarding the stability of the attitudes and any differences which might take place during this time. A comparison of teacher's attitudes related to the location of the school in which beginning teachers were placed might yield further data regarding possible attitudinal changes.

The greater confidence expressed by students in the special program would indicate that such a program might have merit in preparing students to teach in culturally-disadvantaged neighborhoods. On the basis of the results of the study, the writer recommends the inclusion of a special program in the regular student teaching block at Oklahoma State University.

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APPENDIX A

Directions:

These items are descriptions of situations which teachers have met in schools located in culturally disadvantaged areas. Read each item carefully.

PART I. Check (✓) the response which most accurately describes your feelings toward the behavior. Then check (✓) how strongly you feel about the response.

1. Harley transferred to a new school in November bringing no records with him. The teacher worked with him individually and talked with his mother. His cumulative folder was received in December. In checking Harley's folder, the teacher found that he had been retained in the first grade at the end of the previous year and that this was his third school. Harley's mother refused to admit that he had been retained and soon moved to a new school district.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

2. Marcia was a well-developed sixth grade girl who had just enrolled in a new school. Her dark hair was stringy, but combed. She wore long, dangling earrings. Her dirty, white sweater was too tight and was thin enough to reveal that she was wearing inadequate underclothing. Her black skirt was tight and covered with dust. She wore white, highheeled shoes which had not been polished.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

3. Fifth grade Bennie caused a disturbance in the classroom by cleaning his nose and putting the results on the other children's papers and by spitting on their desks.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

4. Lawrence was sent to the office for stealing money from girls' purses.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

5. Of the 788 children in one school, over sixty have been classified by the school counselor or psychologist as needing intensive professional care or committal in a mental hospital because of severe emotional disturbances.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

6. One principal estimated that ninety per cent of the children in his school were one or more years below grade level in achievement.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

7. Susy was a small, slender first grader. During September, Susy missed seven days of school. She missed four days in October. During the months of November, December, and January, Susy missed thirty-nine days due to various childhood diseases.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

8. The teacher went into the boys' restroom to check into a disturbance and found that Rockey (grade 4) had hit Leroy in the stomach with a ring, hit Eddie in the mouth, and had thrown water all over the restroom.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

9. Roger Lee, a thirteen year old fifth grader, brought sex books to school and sold them to the other boys.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

10. A fourth grade boy had been late several times. When the teacher scolded him, he hit her.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

11. Four boys and two girls broke into the school building and stole four volley balls and three basketballs.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

12. Arhanita and Vanessa, fifth grade twin girls, were causing a disturbance on the playground because they bragged they could "whip any boy in school" and were attempting to prove that they could.

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

13. Jerome (grade 5) hit Lawrence in the back with a chair after Lawrence had called him a "black nigger."

<input type="checkbox"/> This would greatly annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> This would annoy me	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I would be concerned, but not annoyed	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I would not be annoyed or concerned	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

PART II: Check (✓) the response which best describes your ability to handle the situation. Then check (✓) how strongly you feel about this response.

14. Elna, a first grader, enrolled in school three weeks after the beginning of the fall term. When the older brother brought Elna to the classroom, he explained, "We no bring her sooner 'cause she no speak English."

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

15. A beginning primary teacher noticed a child who repeatedly disturbed the other children on the teeter totter. The teacher corrected him and walked off. He immediately returned to the teeter totter and repeated his action. The teacher corrected him more firmly. She walked off again and was standing near a mud puddle. The child slipped behind her and threw a large rock into the puddle intentionally splashing the teacher's dress.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

16. Terry and Rocky were fighting in line as they went into the room.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

17. A third grade teacher had transferred to a new school district. During the first week of school the county health officer came to visit her to tell her that two of the children in the room had syphilis.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

18. Arhanita and Vanessa, fifth grade twin girls, were causing a disturbance on the playground because they bragged they could "whip any boy in school" and were attempting to prove that they could.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

19. Herbert, a small boy in a special education class, had shown some fondness for one of the fourth grade teachers. One wintry day Herbert, who was wearing only a thin white shirt and blue jeans, held the outside door for the teacher as she talked with the principal. Finally, Herbert said, "Mrs. _____, will you hurry up and get your fanny out the door?"

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

20. Karl, a fourth grader, spent an entire week in the principal's office because of the disturbance he caused in the classroom. A few weeks later Karl robbed the school safe. He said he had discovered how to get money while he was staying in the office.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

21. Jerry was a tall, slender nine-year-old boy. His face was thin, and his cheeks were hollow. His eyes were dull, and he seemed to be staring into space. His mouth was poorly shaped. Jerry's coordination was very poor. He had great difficulty in holding items and in catching or throwing a twelve inch ball. He walked with a shuffle and was unable to run, skip, or jump. He walked and stood with his shoulders stooped and with the lower part of his body pushed forward.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

22. One principal reported that around five per cent of the children in his building were "excessively" absent or tardy because their mothers did not get them up in the morning.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

23. Of the 788 children in one school, over sixty have been classified by the school counselor or psychologist as needing intensive professional care or committal in a mental hospital because of severe emotional disturbances.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation alone	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

24. Fifth grade Bennie caused a disturbance in the classroom by cleaning his nose and putting the results on the other children's papers and by spitting on their desks.

<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation myself	<input type="checkbox"/> Very strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat
<input type="checkbox"/> I could not handle this situation with help	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all

VITA

Carmen Claire Hogg

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

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WITH THE CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED

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