1-1-1972

A study of the effects of the use of perceptual methods in the supervision of intern teachers.

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Recommended Citation

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Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014. 3817.
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A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF

THE USE OF PERCEPTUAL METHODS

IN THE SUPERVISION OF INTERN TEACHERS

A Dissertation Presented

by

BARBARA S. FUHRMANN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

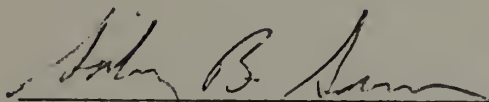November 1972

Major Subject: Education

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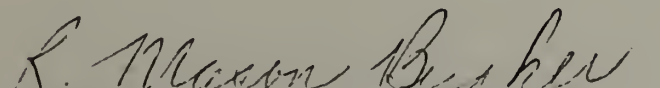
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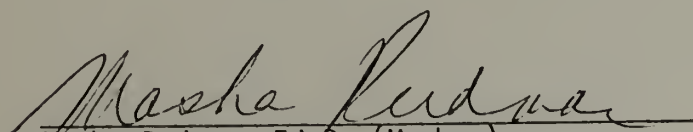
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This dissertation is dedicated to Steve, who supported and encouraged my liberation, and to David, who thought I should also be a nurse.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation owes its existence to the help and support of many important individuals: My deepest thanks

To Sid, who opened my thinking to a new and exciting field, and who continually supported my efforts;

To Ken, Mason, and Masha, who offered guidance and support;

To Jim, who provided me with a means to test my new ideas;

To Ricky, who inspired the most significant undertaking of our lives;

To Geri, whose creative energy invariably came alive when ours lagged;

To the School of Education at U. Mass., which allowed us the freedom to experiment, and especially,

To Bob and Jeanette, who always knew that I could and would.

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C H A P T E R I

RATIONALE, SIGNIFICANCE, AND OVERVIEW OF THE PROGRAM

A Brief Rationale for the Program

Arthur Combs (1965) identifies two major histor-
ical views of the teacher, and although these are by no
means exclusive, they provide an interesting basis for
comparison. The two views, that of "teacher as scholar"
or knower, and that of "teacher as doer," also create
different emphases in the training of their prospective
practitioners, and, according to Combs, teacher education
has responded in accordance with the prevalent historical
view.

In the "teacher as scholar" view, teachers are,
above all, the seekers of and repositories of knowledge,
and thus the founts of wisdom whose responsibility it is
to disperse their vast accumulations of both information
and wisdom among their students. In this "pitcher"
theory of teaching and learning, teachers need only exten-
sive amounts of knowledge, and prospective teachers are
viewed as passive receptacles, waiting to be filled so
they in turn can fill young minds, which, of course, must
also be treated as passive receptacles. This view of
teachers and learners was prevalent prior to the twentieth
century, in an age of relative cultural stability, when

education served to create reliable, predictable persons who could be counted upon to maintain the culture and provide for the survival of the species. But in our current age of unprecedented change, the view of teacher as "pitcher" and student as "empty receptacle" is no longer suitable, for we now need learners who are more than receptacles waiting to be filled. We need, instead, learners who can both change themselves and create change in their environments. It is impossible and (in an age of computers) totally unnecessary for people alone to store information. However, our educational institutions far too often still operate on the outmoded assumption that students (and future teachers especially) need to be filled with multiple-choice and short-answer knowledge that can be measured on objective examinations, and that such knowledge will somehow ensure the future wisdom and teaching expertise of the recepients.

In some places, the view of teacher as dispenser of information has been replaced by the view of "teacher as doer," with specific skills rather than information being stressed. Prospective teachers are expected to acquire a specified repertoire of well-defined and clearly demon-strable "methods" or strategies for teaching children. Though a somewhat more creative view than that of the teacher as knower, the teacher-as-mechanical-doer view

leaves much to be desired as well. It assumes, first of all, that there is a set of skills that all good teachers possess and use. Yet, as Combs (1965) points out, no research to date has been able to isolate common skills or practices of good teachers. Walberg and Thomas (1971) were able to identify, through a content analysis of the literature, characteristics common to teachers in open education situations, and they compiled an instrument which was subsequently used by Evans (1971) to differen- tiate between teachers using open methods and those using more traditional approaches, but they warned that the instrument "above all must be used only with recognition of its limitations and possible abuses. A composite ideal must not be viewed as a prescription for any real teacher (p. 68)." Although some consistent differences were found, no attempt to determine the significance of the differences was made, and although the authors apparently support open education, no attempt was made to distinguish "more good" from "less good" teachers. Further, each of us can easily identify good teachers in our experience who literally broke all the "rules" that would probably be included in a totally skill-based program. Although the characteristics of effective helpers have been described (Figure 2.8, page 52), these characteristics themselves can be the result of varied individual skills

and traits. Openness, acceptance, trust, and empathic understanding are not learned in prescribed ways. This is not to say that competency (in knowledge, in skills, and in being) is not important for a teacher, but only that each teacher must develop his own unique set of competencies, based primarily on his own personality, his purposes in being a teacher, and his style of interaction with students. Secondly, an approach that emphasizes the acquisition of a specified set of skills seems to assume that this set of skills can be learned and subsequently used effectively. Thirdly, since each skill is evaluated individually, it seems possible that the approach assumes that the methods themselves, rather than the ends or purposes they serve, can be deemed good or bad, yet it is obvious to this author that no means can be evaluated except in terms of the ends they serve. The teacher as doer model, though probably an important component of a total program, is not in itself sufficient, for only some skills (and perhaps not the vital ones) are objectifiable. The importance of purposes, the potential for creativity and sponteneity, education as opposed to training--these vital components are neglected, or at least given less attention than this author would prefer.

Both the teacher as scholar and the teacher as doer models, when used exclusively, stop rather than facilitate

learning, as learning is defined by humanistic theorists.
The view of "teacher as knower" and of "teacher as doer,"
as presented here, are extreme, and perhaps no one today
views a teacher purely as knower or purely as doer. But
these views, as extremes, point out that both emphasize
not creative, purposeful growth, but standardization,
right answers, acquisition (of knowledge or of specified
behaviors), and dependence upon authority. Students
would be treated as manipulable objects, and external
judgment by superiors would be a sufficient and viable
method of selection.

But Combs offers another model for the teacher,
one which seems superbly rational, sensible, even delight-
ful. Instead of viewing teachers as either scholars or
doers, within this scheme we should view them as scholars,
as doers, and as "instruments," knowledgeable, skillful,
and able to use themselves as trustworthy organisms to
facilitate the development of their students. Emphasis,
rather than being on acquisition of knowledge or on the
development of specified and approved skills, is on the
development of the uniquely human, uniquely individual
characteristics of each prospective teacher so that he
has commitment and purpose, a strong sense of his values,
awareness of himself and others, and the necessary know-
ledge and skills to implement himself as an instrument to

facilitate growth. This individual would be motivated by growth needs, possessing at least many of the characteristics of actualizing persons, as they have been outlined by theorists such as Abraham Maslow (1968) and Carl Rogers (1961) (Figure 2.1, page 30), and would embody also the characteristics of effective helpers (Figure 2.8, page 52). "We may define the effective teacher formally as a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others (Combs, 1965, p. 9)." And, as one respondent in the Walberg and Thomas study put it, "...not only must the skillful driver understand which gear to use at the appropriate time and be able to compensate for inadequate gears at times, but he also responds to changing roads and changing available automotive equipment as he seeks to reach his destination (p. 68)."

The single most important concern of teacher education therefore needs to be the facilitation of the natural developmental process toward actualization (ASCD, 1962, p. 152). The whole person, not just his cognitive awareness or his skill development, needs to be of central concern. The effective teacher needs knowledge--of society, of human nature and human learning, and of subject matter--but mostly of himself. Thus

self-awareness and the development of self-knowledge become paramount. If we believe that men have a tendency toward actualization, we ought to rely on that tendency—to discover and release it to facilitate the individual's development toward the best that he can become. The following, at a minimum, are therefore essential:

1) An environment free of threat. Grades, competition, externally imposed evaluation, control, prescription, and demand create threat and hinder learning. The environment must free rather than control the learners.

2) An environment rich in resources, both human and non-human, including an adequate and effective means of matching resources to needs.

3) A concern with larger rather than smaller issues. The concerns should be with purpose and commitment rather than with acquisition of specified bits of knowledge and skills.

4) A concern with goals and values, and with facilitating the development of personal purposes and meanings.

5) A primary concern with the perceptual world of the student and with helping him discover the resources within him. If self-perceptions are the most important determinants of behavior, development of accurate self-perceptions and self-trust must be paramount.

6) A coordinating concern with behavior and the effects of behavior on the self and others.

7) Direct participation by every student with ideas, with children, with the development of his own program, with the profession, with real problems, with "experts" (experts to be determined by the student concerning his needs) and with each other. The experiences of the prospective teacher must be rooted in reality, with personal involvement in real concerns of the utmost importance.

8) Encouragement of realistic risk-taking, with failure viewed as a positive rather than a negative experience. Prospective teachers need to learn that all people fail time after time, and that we all can use our failures as bases for growth rather than being shattered by them.

9) A program based on sapiential, natural, earned authority rather than on the current structured authority based on credentials. In this environment, each individual is accorded only that authority that is his by virtue of what he can offer and share in the way of unique characteristics, insights, knowledge or experience.

10) Self-evaluation, based on phenomenological awareness of self, others, and situation, rather than

external judgment by others.

11) An orientation toward the future rather than toward the past. With an unprecedented rate of change, the present is verging on the obsolete. This means that the education of teachers must be more process than content oriented, focused on meaningful learning, with an eye to the development of spontaneous, trustworthy, and aware people committed to creative change.

12) A view of the prospective teacher as responsible, trustworthy, and growth-motivated, and the provision of an environment in which these qualities are allowed freedom and expression.

13) An emphasis on self-initiated learning developing out of felt needs--needs for information, for cognitive awareness, for learnable competencies, for dialogue, and for self-knowledge and understanding.

These conditions and principles comprise the rationale upon which the program described in the following pages is based.

The Significance of the Program

Silberman (1970) concludes as a result of a three and one-half year study of education conducted by the Carnegie Corporation that teacher education, including student teaching, is in as depressing and damaging a

position as the bulk of American education. "Remarkably little has changed, in fact, since 1904, when John Dewey described the unhappy consequences of the failure to relate theory and practice in teacher education (p. 459)."

Because until recently teachers were viewed either as "knowers" or as "doers" (Combs, 1969), supervision historically has focused on the knowledge and competencies possessed by teachers. Thus have evolved the practices of testing teachers, either as a condition of employment (as is done in New York City), or as an adjunct to a prospective teacher's credential file (as the National Teacher's Examination is most often used), and of supervisors evaluating the practices (methods and techniques) actually used by the teacher in the classroom. Supervisors traditionally have seen themselves as responsible for getting someone else, the teacher, to do something differently (Corey, 1963; Macdonald, 1966), and have stressed techniques, methods, and mechanics (Sybouts, 1967; Stewig, 1970; Guss, 1961; Goldhammer, 1966, 1969; Silberman, 1970) to the exclusion of the person of the supervisee. Thus their function becomes evaluative, and an atmosphere of threat is created, for, as Rogers (1969) points out, even a good evaluation poses a threat, for it implies that the evaluator has the power to levy a negative criticism as well.

Goldhammer (1969) states that if the teacher's problems
cannot be lessened or solved by the application of a
new or different technique, then the teacher is usually
considered as having "personal" problems beyond the scope
of supervision. Textbooks in supervision (Barr, Burton
and Bruckner, 1947; Feyereisen, Fiorino and Nowak, 1970;
McNerney, 1951; Kimball, 1967) also tend to stress method-
ology, planning, and evaluation, with little relative
attention given the supervisee as a unique human being.
What is all too often forgotten is that

> Teachers are of all sorts, too; they range
> from nimble piccolos to thumping basses, from
> mellow horns to clashing cymbals; from
> sparkling champagne to flat beer; from
> lovable lizzies to champing Cadillacs
> (Thelen, 1960, p. 16).

The emphasis on the evaluative becomes pervasive:

> Through tone of voice, facial expression, or
> choice of words, supervisors often communi-
> cate how horrified, shocked, disappointed,
> etc. they are about a teacher's performance.
> Sometimes this gut reaction to what is being
> observed is more successfully disguised, but
> the teacher senses it and knows well of its
> existence (Greenberg, 1969, p. 122).

That the emphasis on evaluation also creates dis-
sonance between supervisor and supervisee is not a unique
observation, for it has been the author's experience that
in every institution of which she has been a part, the
barrier created by authority has been a major area of con-
cern, both for those with authority and those without it.

Current research, (Stewig, 1970) reports that supervisees consistently report apprehension concerning supervisory visits, and that even when the supervisor displayes concern and interest, the apprehension is not dispelled. Stewig (1970) and Silberman (1970) both point out that supervisors treat all supervisees equally, and do not tailor their services to the unique needs of individuals. And Bail (1947) reports a survey in which only 4.3% of 460 student teachers replied that they received relevant supervision. Guss (1961), in a study conducted by the Indiana Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development to determine various perceptions of supervision, reports that although central administrators, principals, university faculty, supervisors, and parents all agree generally that the supervisor's responsibility is to help teachers to improve learning, teachers themselves reported a desire to avoid supervision because they considered it "an attack on them personally." Goldhammer (1966 and 1969), after extensive research, calls supervisory relationships mutually thwarting. Neither the supervisor's nor the teacher's dignity is enhanced. He goes on to state that both the content and methodology of supervision is often archaic, random, and eclectic in the worst sense.

Corey (1963) clearly states the basis of this

thwarting relationship:

> ...the method of getting another person to do
> his work better that had seemed so straight-
> forward and reasonable and has been in use
> for a long, long time is not very effective.
> This time honored method has defined a
> supervisor as one who knows what ought to
> be done, and how, by those people he is
> supervising, and is able to get them to do
> what he thinks they should.

This leads to superior-inferior relationships and natural

resistance:

> If I am in a mood to be helped by a supervisor
> or anyone else, and no one can do much with me
> along this line unless I am, it is not necessary
> that the person wanting to help me also judge
> me. I have already done that. What I need is
> a person who can help me think more penetrat-
> ingly about what I am trying to do, the way
> I go about it, and the evidence I use to esti-
> mate my success. This requires quite a
> different kind of supervisor, it seems to me,
> from the one who believes his task is to
> know what I should do and then get me to do it.
> The help I need most is with a process and I
> regret that attention to process has dimin-
> ished in the recent emphasis on a product that
> is usually in the form of knowledge (pages 14-
> 15).

Macdonald (1966) delineates three dilemmas that
are usually ignored by traditional approaches, but that
must be faced by concerned teacher educators and super-
visors:

1) The empirical dilemma: The chains from teacher
behavior to pupil learning have not been specified.

2) The moral dilemma: Traditionally, criteria out-
side the behavior of the teacher (usually pupil learning,

or the noise level of a classroom, or some other external, observable phenomena) have been used as the basis for changing the behavior.

3) The theoretical dilemma: There is no agreement as to how to go about changing behavior.

Based on these dilemmas, Macdonald offers three premises on which a program of teacher training can be built:

1) Teaching is a complex integration of behaviors. Single behavior chains cannot profitably be grafted on.

2) It is morally wrong to set out to change behavior unless the change sought has been rationally chosen by the teacher from among a range of alternatives.

3) Learning is an individual matter. How something is learned is determined by internal structures of needs, perceptions, motivations, etc., and not by the external condition of an outsider (supervisor) desiring change.

From these dilemmas and premises emerge four conditions for professional growth, which are consistent with those advanced by humanistic theorists (Figure 2.7, page 50):

1) A positive and stimulating social setting.

2) A positive and supportive set of interpersonal
   relations.

3) Reality testing procedures.

4) Rational thinking and valuing through the use
   of the clarification process (Raths, 1966).

Young (1969, page 1) summarizes the recommenda-
tions of many who propose new emphases in teacher educa-
tion and supervision:

> Supervision is out! Evaluation is out! The
> following are in!
> 1) Teachers of teachers who serve as consultants
>   on teaching and learning.
> 2) Systems and procedures for objectively coding,
>   analyzing, and modifying teacher behavior.
> 3) Systems and procedures a teacher can use to
>   analyze and modify his own teacher behavior
>   with or without the assistance of a con-
>   sultant on teaching.
> 4) An individualized, graduated induction of
>   teacher (novices) candidates into professional
>   teaching.
> 5) A continuous diagnosis of performance and pre-
>   scription of training modules [arrived at in
>   coordination between teachers and consultants].
> 6) Facilities and time (within the professional
>   day) for teachers to analyze and modify their
>   teaching behavior.

There is little doubt that teacher education is
now doing a less than adequate job in helping prospective
teachers move toward actualization and the realization
of their unique potentials (Wilhelms, 1970), and that
supervision, as it has been traditionally practiced,
thwarts rather than enhances student growth. It is gen-
erally agreed that supervisors tend to disregard individual

perceptions and concerns, are usually critical and judgmental, and often hinder rather than facilitate communication. The process of helping prospective teachers understand themselves may well be the most neglected aspect of teacher education.

The Program and Dissertation

The program which forms the basis of this dissertation was designed to help prospective teachers increase their awareness of themselves and others with a view to stressing self-awareness, commitment, understanding, values, openness and self-assessment rather than methods, curriculum and external evaluation; to meet at least some of the criticism leveled at teacher education, and, specifically, supervision; to implement many of the recommendations outlined in the previous section of this chapter; and to offer one way to meet the "noble challenge" outlined by Seager (1971, page 1):

> Contemporary instructional supervision faces a
> noble challenge. At its finest, supervision
> can be a resource to be managed by teachers
> for the improvement of instruction and for
> their professional development. Powerful con-
> cepts, principles, techniques, and instruments
> are now available to supervisors and teachers
> who accept this challenge. Because teachers
> and not supervisors are directly responsible
> for instruction, only teachers can be directly
> involved in the improvement of instruction.
> Therefore, the management of supervision as a
> resource for the improvement of instruction

ought to be primarily the teacher's responsi-
bility. If the teacher does not have the
professional preparation to discharge this
responsibility effectively, then it becomes
the supervisor's responsibility to assist the
teacher in developing the skills the teacher
will need for this purpose.

Under the direction of Richard Curwin and the

author, a program involving 27 intern teachers from the

University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education

Individualized Program and 28 preinterns (freshmen,

sophomores and juniors from the School of Education)

was instituted in ten schools in three cities in Western

Massachusetts during the spring semester 1972. Each

intern was paired with a preintern (by mutual choice

following a week-end orientation session), who spent

no less than five hours per week in the intern's class-

room helping the intern collect data about his behavior

and about various phenomena of the classroom, as well as

taking over varying degrees of responsibility for working

with the children, for planning, for managing the class-

room, and for interacting with regular staff members.

During the fall semester 1971-72, Mr. Curwin and

the author, both of whom were supervising intern teachers,

developed a number of techniques for helping interns

examine their attitudes and behaviors and for collecting

data from the classroom, and used the techniques success-

fully, as determined by the subjective evaluations of

interns and supervisors. The techniques were compiled into a manual entitled The Teacher's I-View, A Handbook of Perceptual Methods for Improving Teaching Behavior (Appendix A), which included a personal journal and served as the basis for the program. Each intern and preintern had a copy of the manual and was encouraged to use the techniques. In addition to the time the pre-interns spent in the classroom, the supervisors (Mr. Curwin and the author) visited each intern in the class-room regularly, and met with both interns and preinterns in a seminar setting away from the participating schools. Seminars were conducted informally, with attitude explora-tion and problem-solving used as the primary activities.

Specific objectives of the program were as follows:

1) To test the use of preinterns as non-evaluative supervisors of interns. It was hypothesized that the preinterns would provide both a close, helping relation-ship and a wealth of non-judgmental data for the intern, and would help the intern define areas of need and of growth. The intern and preintern together would iden-tify needs and determine necessary data-collecting activities, with the data then being interpreted by the intern.

2) To increase the manageable load of university supervisors. It is an accepted view that supervisors

are overburdened (Stewig, 1970; Cumming, 1970; Silberman, 1970). It was hypothesized that through the use of pre-interns as confidants and data-collectors, as well as through frequent, empathic contact in seminars, the interns could receive more adequate and humanistic supervision without decreasing the supervisors' loads.

3) To supplement traditional supervision by university supervisors. At the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education, interns were generally fortunate if their supervisors observed them briefly every two or three weeks. And although most supervisors would have liked to have pre- and post-observation conferences (Goldhammer, 1966, 1969), these often were impossible to schedule. The preinterns, however, would spend a minimum of five hours per week with the interns in the classrooms, as well as seminar time outside the classroom; thus it was hypothesized that the preinterns would provide a depth and continuity previously imposs-ible in supervision.

4) To have interns evaluate themselves as teachers. Through the use of the techniques in the manual and the non-evaluative data supplied by preinterns, as well as through the use of feedback from cooperating teachers, students, and supervisors, it was hypothesized that interns would be able to assess themselves openly and

honestly as teachers.

5) To have interns improve their teaching behavior.
All the components of the program were directed toward
helping interns not only assess themselves, but to then
take the next step--that toward improving their teaching
behaviors. The specificity of many of the techniques,
as well as an emphasis on needs assessment, were directed
toward this end.

6) To have participants develop teaching attitudes
and behaviors consistent with one another. A permissive,
acceptant, non-judgmental environment for supervision
would, it was hypothesized, help close the gap between
theory and practice.

7) To have interns focus on specific aspects of
their teaching behavior. The program emphasized specific
needs assessment, data-collection in relation to felt
needs, and examination of that data in a non-threatening,
non-evaluative environment.

8) To have participants seriously examine their
attitudes, beliefs and values as they relate to teaching.

9) To have participants become more aware of the
effect of their inner states on their behavior. Numerous
techniques in the manual, as well as the counseling
background and approach of the author, were directed
toward this end.

10) To have participants become more aware of the classroom environment.

11) To have participants use perceptual methods to detect classroom needs. The preinterns, it was hypothesized, could supply valuable information as a result of viewing the classroom from varying perspectives.

12) To provide an in-depth classroom experience for preinterns. It is generally agreed that prospective teachers need classroom experience prior to their internships, but that most teacher education programs sadly neglect that need. Through involvement in this program, the preinterns spent a minimum of five hours per week in a single classroom, and had the opportunity to visit various other classrooms and schools. They observed, and would, it was hypothesized, have an opportunity to interact closely with cooperating teachers and students as well as with the interns.

13) To have participants seriously examine their choice of teaching as a career. All the components of the program were designed to help participants evaluate their attitudes, values and behaviors as they relate to teaching. It was hypothesized that through such examination, each would be able to make a clear and realistic choice as to the suitability of teaching as a career for himself. It was hypothesized that those who answered

affirmatively would do so proudly, purposefully and with a realistic understanding of their capacities and limitations, and that those who answered negatively would be equally proud, clear and understanding of why another endeavor may be more self-enchancing.

Evaluation of the program was ongoing and multi-dimensional, including self-report devises such as recurrent open letters to the supervisors, experiential journals, and subjective solicited and unsolicited evaluations by all participants. Attendance at seminars, reports on the use and effectiveness of manual techniques, problems reported, and other unobtrusive measures were used. The program was developmental in design, with both the objectives as outlined above and the procedures subject to modification as determined necessary by the supervisors and all participants. All modifications, with the developmental rationale for each, are reported in Chapter IV.

In addition to such on-going, action research, there is also an analysis of the program by the supervisors, as well as paper and pencil measures including an evaluation questionnaire (Appendix B), a feedback sheet concerning use of manual techniques (Appendix C), students' responses to the Student Teacher Performance Profile (Sharp, 1969, 1970: Appendix D), and a study of

the attitudes of the student participants at the beginning and at the end of their participation in the program. For this latter study, a semantic differential examining the concepts MY PURPOSES, MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT, ME AS EVALUATOR, MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT UPON OTHERS, ME AS TEACHER, MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF, and ME AS RESOURCE on an evaluative scale (Osgood, 1957) was administered to interns and preinterns at the beginning and at the end of the program (Appendix E).

Summary

In this chapter, a brief rationale for the program was presented, followed by an examination of the significance of the program and an overview of its design, objectives, and methods of evaluation. The program was instituted on the premise that traditional supervision is not only inadequate, but potentially damaging, and that efforts toward providing a more humanistic supervision would contribute to the development of teachers who themselves display many of the characteristics of healthy, actualizing persons, and who encourage like development in their students.

Succeeding chapters will contain the following:

Chapter II: AN OVERVIEW OF HUMANISTIC THEORY CONCERNING THE NATURE OF MAN AND OF LEARNING

C H A P T E R II

AN OVERVIEW OF HUMANISTIC THEORY CONCERNING

THE NATURE OF MAN AND OF LEARNING

Humanistic Theory Concerning the Nature of Man

Before examining the positions of leading human-
istic theorists, it is historically necessary to encoun-
ter (admittedly briefly and superficially) the first and
second psychological forces implied by the appelation
Third Force as it is applied to humanistic theory. The
first major force in modern psychology was Sigmund Freud,
who emphasized man's animal origins and basic, instinctual
drives. Freud saw man in constant conflict with his
society and with that part of himself (superego) inter-
nalized from his society, a being determined by internal
forces, especially the id, which tends to make him amoral,
selfish and sinful. Good, moral behavior is possible
only through repression or redirection of the powerful id.
Freud studied the sickness of man.

The second force, the antithesis of the first,
initiated by J. B. Watson and now represented most
respectably by B. F. Skinner, is behaviorism. Instead of
emphasizing biological drives, the behaviorists emphasize
external, environmental determinants of behavior. Accord-
ing to this theory, man is totally determined by his

environment, which can shape him in virtually any
direction. There is nothing but associatively learned
behavior, and any behavior is subject only to the conse-
quences that follow from it. B. F. Skinner, never
simplistic, recognizes feelings, emotions, purposes, goals,
consciousness and self-awareness, but contends that all
are subject to the same stimulus-response learning to
which observable behaviors are subject. Man is infinitely
malleable. Behaviorists are not particularly interested
in studying illness, as was Freud, for the symptoms of
illness too are learned responses to the environment and
are subject to change. Behaviorists study the average.

The first and second forces provided the opposites
needed for creative interplay, with the synthetic third
force in psychological theory resulting. The third
force, in addition to being presaged by philosophers
throughout the history of mankind, has its modern
philosophical roots in the work of William James (1842-
1910), who was one of the first to notice that the aver-
age man utilizes no more than about ten per cent of his
potential and that this potential can be developed by
appropriate means (Goble, p. 150).

Following James, the precursers of third force
theory were the Neo-Freudians, especially Alfred Adler and
Carl Jung. Adler rejected Freud's emphasis on sex and

contributed to modern psychology the concepts "style of
life" and "inferiority complex." He believed that man
develops unique methods and goals in a drive for superi-
ority. Jung, too, rejected the animism of Freud in favor
of recognizing aims and aspirations in man. Otto Rank
also contributed greatly to third force thinking with
his recognition of conflict between the will to actualize
and the need to be dependent. Rank attributed great
psychological importance to the biological events of
birth and physical development, in which the individual
must move from total dependence to independence, in which
taking responsibility for oneself is the primary task of
development. Rank thus pointed out the primary obstacle
to self-actualization--a self and environment which
frequently act to retard development by forcing too great
or encouraging too little risk-taking. (Encouragement
of realistic risk-taking has since become a major tenet
of a humanistic approach to learning.) Gordon Allport
points out some of the inadequacies of both the Freudian
and the behavioral approaches and emphasizes the need
for examination not of the sick (Freud) nor of the
average (behaviorists), but of the good and healthy
aspects of life. Allport insists on the necessity for
psychology to recognize that it cannot be value-free,
but must recognize and espouse good and moral behavior.

Third force psychologists recognize the importance of the contributions of both Freudian and behavioristic theory and find much in each that is both valuable and verifiable, but they find both to be incomplete. Both ignore the unique human characteristics that make man worthy of consideration apart from the rest of the animal kingdom--his strengths, potentials and subjective world. Freudians ignore all but biological instincts; behaviorists ignore all but associative learning; and both tend to ignore the best in mankind--ideals, creative energy and production, love, beauty, truth, justice, conscience, values, freedom, and the capacity to theorize. It is these qualities that third force (humanistic) theorists seek to study and to understand. The movement has many leaders and application in all fields of human interest and every social institution. Every profession, indeed every endeavor of man has been affected significantly by this new view.

Scientists may object to a lack of objectivity in the approach taken by humanistic researchers, and certainly third force views are not as easily subject to objective appraisal and measurement as are the results of behavioral modification techniques, but inherent in a third force approach is a trust in and reliance upon subjective evaluations of both subjective and objective

phenomena. Intrinsic meaning and subjective evaluation of coherence and effectiveness are to the humanistic researcher every bit as valid as laboratory findings-- and more important since they apply only in uniquely human situations. Humanistic psychologists are neither objective nor value-free, but depend instead on what Margaret Mead calls "disciplined subjectivity" (Psychology Today, July, 1970).

Humanistic theorists tend to agree on the following observations concerning the nature of man:

1) Man is a whole system, including psychomotor, affective, cognitive, aesthetic, moral, biological and spiritual domains. The total effect of these as represented in each human individual is greater than the sum of its parts. Therefore none of the contributing systems can be understood apart from the system as a whole.

2) Man is capable of growing toward self-actualization (See Figure 2.1 for a comparison of the characteristics of self-actualization as seen by three theorists); growth is both natural and necessary; and growth is the satisfaction of increasingly higher levels of psychological needs. Of particular interest is the extent of agreement among theorists concerning the nature of the self-actualizing, fully-functioning person.

3) Actualization, in fact, growth of any kind, is

FIGURE 2.1

The Characteristics of Self-Actualizing Persons
as Seen by Abraham Maslow (1968),
Carl Rogers (1961), and Art Combs (1971)

Abraham Maslow	Carl Rogers	Art Combs
-has clear perceptions and resulting accuracy of judgment and prediction	-is open to experience	-has an internal frame of reference
-is humble and capable of self-understanding	-lives in existential fashion; self and person emerge from experience	- is people-oriented
-is creative, flexible, open, spontaneous, courageous, expressive, natural, self-confident	-trusts in self and organism	-is internally motivated
	-has clear perceptions of experience	-is dependable
-is integrated, congruent	-thrives on maximum feedback	-has positive self-perceptions
-is respectful of self	-is flexible to changing environment	-has accurate perceptions of self and others
-is independent	-is actualization motivated	-is open
-is actualization motivated	-is independent	-is acceptant
-maintains deep friendships	-demonstrates self-understanding	-identifies with others
-is acceptant, tolerant	-maintains deep relationships	-is well-informed
-has normative values	-is acceptant of others	-is confident
	-has normative values	-is independent
		-is creative
		-is courageous

possible only in an atmosphere of freedom, in which the individual is free to choose emergent goals and purposes. Threat of any kind hinders growth and development.

4) Knowledge about man (or about anything, for that matter) is inexact, and can only be a matter of degree.

5) Man has two sets of basic needs, the deprivation needs which he must satisfy in order to survive in a healthy state, and the motivation or actualization needs, which create the drive toward fulfillment. See Figure 2.2, Maslow's hierarchy of needs.)

6) There are, among all men, a commonality of potential absolute values, which are the very absolutes philosophers have consistently identified throughout the history of mankind--truth, beauty, justice, etc. These normative values are supra-cultural, but the means of attainment and expression may vary both culturally and individually, although they always contribute to the survival and continued evolution of the species. Man's progress toward self-actualization can be viewed as a process of achieving these absolute states. (See Figure 2.3 for the normative values as seen by Maslow, Rogers, and Gestalt therapists.)

7) The ultimate creative capacity of the human organism, so far as we now can project, may be infinite. Man presently functions at only a small proportion of his potential.

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FIGURE 2.2

The Deprivation and Growth Needs as Defined
by Abraham Maslow (Goble, 1970 p. 50)

Growth needs: (Being
values) (Metaneeds)
not hierarchical;
all of equal im-
portance and all
interrelated,
although any one
individual may
express his
growth needs
through only
one or a few
most favored
values.

Truth
Goodness
Beauty
Aliveness
Individuality
Perfection
Necessity
Completion
Justice
Order
Simplicity
Richness
Playfulness
Effortlessness
Self-sufficiency
Meaningfulness

Self esteem
Esteem of others

Love and Belongingness

Safety and Security

Physiological
air, water, food, shelter, sex,
sleep

Basic needs:
hierarchical;
lower level
needs must be
satisfied
first.

The external environment: Pre-
conditions for need satisfaction:
Freedom, Justice, Orderliness,
Challenge (Stimulation)

FIGURE 2.3

The Cross-Cultural, Normative Values
as Seen by Maslow, Rogers, and Gestalt Therapists
(Maslow, 1968; Rogers, 1961; Fagen, 1970).

Abraham Maslow: wholeness, perfection, completion,
    justice, aliveness, richness, simplicity, beauty,
    goodness, uniqueness, effortlessness, playfulness,
    truth, self-sufficiency.

Carl Rogers: those objects, experiences and goals which
    contribute to his own survival, growth, and
    development, and to the survival and development
    of others, arrived at through an organismic
    valuing process.

Gestalt therapy: spontaneity, awareness, responsiveness,
    expressiveness, enjoyment, ease, flexibility,
    closeness with others, intimacy, competency,
    creativity, self-support, immediacy.

8) The individual's perception of any phenomena, internal or external, rather than any objective measure of that phenomena, is the basis for his behavior. Behavior is a function of perception.

9) Self-perceptions are the single most important influence affecting a person's behavior.

10) Man strives to become the best that he is capable of becoming; he is always motivated in terms of his personal perceptions of himself, the situation, and the interaction between the two. Each individual acts to maximize his possibilities, given all the curcumstances of which he is aware.

11) Man is responsible for himself, and has the power to change himself.

12) Goals and purposes, as they exist pragmatically and as they determine the direction of human behavior, are not objective. They depend upon the individual's subjective evaluation of his perceptions.

13) The natural growth process is effective to the degree that the individual is open to the experiences within and outside himself.

Numerous observers of human behavior, including Maslow (1968), Rogers (1961), Combs (1971), Perls (in Fagan, 1970), Theobald (1968), Leonard (1968), Illich (1970), and Huxley (1965), have noted evidence of the

above characteristics.

That man is motivated by basic needs has been demonstrated by laboratory researchers, clinical observers of children, and clinical practitioners of all theoretical persuasions. Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, and Art Combs, among others, have carefully examined healthy personalities (Figure 2.1) and have supported man's self-actualizing tendency--as have social scientists dating from Aristotle.

Gestalt therapists, especially interested in considering phenomenological events as actual behaviors, that is, in combining the phenomonological approach with its emphasis on the perceptual basis of behavior with the behavioral approach with its emphasis on actual, observable behavior, is in the mainstream of third force thinking, and the clinical evidence mounting in Gestalt therapy confirms the need-fulfillment process that is central to it (Figure 2.3).

Organizational psychologists, too, have noted that management and leadership styles depend upon the leader's assumptions about the nature of man. Edgar Schein (1965) (Figure 2.4) describes three separate views--rational-economic man, which is roughly descriptive of a man motivated by physiological and safety needs; social man, roughly descriptive of a man motivated by his needs for

affiliation and the respect of others; and actualizing
man, roughly descriptive of the man motivated primarily
by growth needs. Schein points out that each description
by itself is insufficient, and that in reality man is a
complex of all these motivations. This view, of course,
is perfectly consistent with that of Maslow, who sees man
fulfilling higher-order needs only as his lower needs are
satisfied.

Douglas McGregor (1960), too (Figure 2.4), in his
Theory X and Theory Y, describes views of man held by
various leaders. Whereas most institutions today (includ-
ing schools and universities) operate on Theory X assump-
tions, says McGregor, Theory Y assumptions alone are
capable of stimulating growth and actualization.

Interesting too is the remarkable applicability
of the moral stages described by Lawrence Kohlberg (1968)
to the need levels described by Maslow. Both men, though
working with different intent, made extensive observations
of the motivations of man; their findings are remarkably
consistent (Figure 2.5), adding further evidence to the
probable accuracy of both. Kohlberg's moral stages can
be seen as definitely related to the stages of need ful-
fillment described by Maslow. Even a glance at the moral
stages laid side by side with the basic needs demonstrates
that an individual operating out of a need to satisfy

FIGURE 2.4

A Comparison of Maslow's Need Theory
With Schein's and McGregor's Classifications
of Assumptions About the Nature of Man
(Maslow, 1968; Schein, 1965; McGregor, 1960)

Maslow	Schein	McGregor
ACTUALIZATION 1) motivated by growth needs 2) self-directed 3) creative: open 4) integrated: congruent 5) independent 6) commited	ACTUALIZING MAN 1) seeks challenge and intrinsic meaning 2) capable of mature, responsible behavior 3) motivated by need for independence and creativity 4) striving to use potential productively	THEORY Y 1) the expenditure of effort in work is as natural as play 2) self-directed and self-controlled 3) learns to accept responsibility 4) naturally curious, ingeneous and imaginative 5) potentialities only partly realized 6) capable of commitment to objectives 7) motivated primarily by esteem and actualization needs
SELF-ESTEEM motivated by need for self-respect ESTEEM OF OTHERS motivated by need for respect of others		
BELONGINGNESS motivated by need for love and affiliation	SOCIAL MAN 1) meaning sought in personal relationships 2) peer group most important 3) responsible 4) motivated by social needs	
SAFETY motivated by need for physical and psychological security PHYSIOLOGICAL motivated by need to satisfy biological requirements of body	RATIONAL-ECONOMIC MAN 1) passive 2) manipulable 3) controllable 4) lazy 5) incapable of self-direction 6) irrational 7) motivated by economic incentives	THEORY X 1) inherently lazy 2) must be externally controlled 3) incapable of self-discipline 4) irrational 5) motivated by outside incentives

FIGURE 2.5

A Comparison of Maslow's Need Levels
With Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development
(Maslow, 1968; Kohlberg, 1968).

MASLOW	KOHLBERG	
NEEDS	MOTIVATORS	BASIS OF MORAL JUDGMENT
ACTUALIZATION	Stage 6: Conscience or principle; moral behavior motivated by logical universality	POST-CONVEN-TIONAL: moral value rests in shared or sharable standards
ESTEEM (SELF)	Stage 5: Contractual-legalistic; moral behavior motivated by welfare of majority	
ESTEEM (OTHERS)	Stage 4: Authority and social order; moral behavior motivated by maintaining earned expectations of others	CONVENTIONAL: moral value rests in maintaining the accepted social order
BELONGINGNESS	Stage 3: Good boy; moral behavior motivated by approval and conformity to stereotyped image	
SAFETY	Stage 2: Naively egoistic; moral behavior motivated by satisfaction of self-needs	PRE-CONVENTION-AL: moral value rests in the external results of bad acts
PHYSIOLOGICAL	Stage 1: Obedience and punishment; moral behavior is motivated by external threat	

his biological needs is likely to report moral behavior motivated only by the threat of external punishment. In other words, an individual whose lower needs are unsatisfied is unlikely to be concerned with normative principles of moral behavior. Only a person who has at least approached a level at which he is motivated primarily by growth needs will be able to make moral decisions based on shared or sharable standards of belief.

These various psychologists, each viewing man with "disciplined subjectivity" have described, with amazing consistency, a being that has the potential for greatness. Never before has such a view had the potential for influence that it does today. Their agreement, the research, both scientific and more subjective, that supports their views, including such social innovations as Alcoholics Anonymous, Synonon and Daytop Village (drugs), Glasser's reality therapy, Recovery, Inc. (mental illness), and mushrooming self-help workshops and growth seminars, along with the author's deeply felt convictions as to their accuracy, provide her with a strong commitment to a humanistic view of man.

Humanistic Theory Concerning the Nature of Learning

Carl Rogers (1969), speaks most thoroughly and persuasively for a humanistic view of learning, with

principles and characteristics that certainly are sup-

ported by other humanistic theorists:

> Let me define a bit more precisely the
> elements which are involved in such significant
> or experiential learning. It has a quality
> of personal involvement--the whole person in
> both his feeling and cognitive aspects being
> in the learning event. It is self-initiated.
> Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from
> the outside, the sense of discovery, of
> reaching out, of grasping and comprehending,
> comes from within. It is pervasive. It makes
> a difference in the behavior, the attitudes,
> perhaps even the personality of the learner.
> It is evaluated by the learner. He knows
> whether it is meeting his need, whether it leads
> toward what he wants to know, whether it
> illuminates the dark area of ignorance he is
> experiencing. The locus of evaluation, we
> might say, resides definitely in the learner.
> Its essense is meaning. When such learning
> takes place, the element of meaning to the
> learner is built into the whole experience
> (p. 5).

The importance of discovery is echoed by Fritz Perls:

> Now there are two ways of learning. In the
> first, you get information; you get someone to
> tell you what your dreams mean, what concepts
> will be useful, what the world will be like.
> Then you feed this into your computer and you
> play the fitting game. Does this concept fit
> in with these other concepts? However, the
> best way of learning is not the computation of
> information. Learning is discovering, uncover-
> ing what is there. When we discover, we are
> uncovering our own ability, our own eyes, in
> order to find our potential, to see what is
> going on, to discover how we can enlarge our
> lives, to find means at our disposal that will
> let us cope with a difficult situation. As
> every need, every individual situation emerges,
> we are being controlled by this emergent need
> and have to get in touch with the world to
> satisfy this need. We use our senses to observe,
> to see what is going on. The world is opening

up. This ability to see is health (in Fagan 1970, p. 18).

Art Combs (1965) and other phenomenologists too emphasize the making of meanings, and actually define learning as personal discovery of meaning. In the perceptual view, learning is always a highly personal matter involving the way an individual sees himself and his experience. Any item of information will affect his behavior only to the degree to which he has discovered its personal meaning for him.[1]

Jean Piaget (1970), Gregory Bateson (in Theobald, 1970), Robert Theobald (1970) and Sidney Simon (1968) all

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[1]Gestalt therapists are most interested in synthesizing the phenomenological and behavioristic views of learning by expanding the S-R model of behaviorism to include symbolic processes. In Osgood's two-stage model (Kepner in Fagan, pp. 40-41) S-r-s-R, the lower case r-s refer to the phenomenological reaction (r) to an environmental stimulus (S) and the self-stimulation (s--ideation, cognition, meaning-making) which may then lead to an overt response (R). This kind of fruitful dialogue can only result in greater understanding and applicability of both original views.

speak of levels of learning; a comparison among them is drawn in Figure 2.6. Piaget, of course, is most interested in the developmental stages of children's cognitive processes, and identifies four major levels--the sensorimotor or manipulation stage involving little if any conscious cognition, the pre-operational, in which learned behaviors are dependent upon external support or reinforcement (this is basically the associative learning heralded by behaviorists as responsible for all of man's learning), the concrete operational, in which structure is understood in concrete terms, and the formal operational, in which the individual is capable of abstracting and hypothesizing.

Robert Theobald (1970) reports on the findings of Gregory Bateson and his own analysis of training and of education. These levels can roughly be compared with the findings of Piaget, even though Piaget's stages are developmental, as Bateson's and Theobald's are not. According to Theobald, "training" provides an individual with a set of rules to apply to a given situation but which in themselves do not permit further development of skills. The author, for example, has been trained in the computational skills of elementary mathematics. She is able to add, subtract, multiply, divide, and perform simple algebraic manipulations, but (as she has discovered

FIGURE 2.6

A Proposed Comparison of the Concepts of Levels
of Learning as Proposed by
Bateson, Piaget, Theobald and Simon
(Bateson, in Theobald, 1970; Piaget, 1970;
Theobald, 1970; Simon, 1968).

PIAGET[2]	BATESON	THEOBALD	SIMON
Formal operational: reflection, propositional thinking; the concrete or real is only one hypothetical possibility	Level 4: individual can perceive the nature of present systems and can reexamine them with a view to changing them; subjective measure of success; each individual chooses the areas in which to engage in fourth level learning	Education: the areas chosen by the individual as areas in which he desires to make personal meanings and to understand the principles involved in his activity. Education adapts to and causes change	Level 3: making personal meanings: value clarification

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[2]The use of Piaget's developmental scheme in this figure is pure heuristic, for the stages delineated refer to childhood development rather than to levels of cognition present simultaneously in adult humans, as do the levels recognized by Bateson, Theobald, and Simon.

FIGURE 2.6 (continued)

Concrete operational: recognition of underlying general systems; limited to concrete objects	Level 3: the individual improves his importance within an existing system of understanding; objective measure of success; common areas which all people should probably pursue	Training: the areas chosen by the individual as areas in which he desires specific skills for application to stable conditions; his knowledge or skill will become obsolete as change occurs	Level 2: understanding of underlying concepts or structure
Pre-operational: dependent upon external support or reinforcement	Level 2: interrelation of two facts; behavioristic learning theory; any two facts can be related if they are reinforced sufficiently		Level 1: taking in of externally provided information
Sensorimotor activity	Level 1: simple perception		

by observing elementary math classes and by struggling
through a statistics and a computer course) she does not
have the ability (nor the desire) to adapt to change or
to apply her skill to create change. There is no real
meaning or understanding of principles involved in her
mechanical skill. Training is all that is involved in
Piaget's first two stages, and perhaps in much of the
concrete operational. It also is all that is involved
in Bateson's first three stages, in which level 1
refers to simple perception of a fact (Piaget's sensori-
motor level), level 2 refers to the interrelation of
two facts (Piaget's pre-operational stage; all of
behavioristic theory of learning) and level 3 refers to
those learnings which help an individual manipulate his
position within a static system (roughly equivalent to
Piaget's concrete operational stage).

Training certainly plays a significant part in
the learning experiences of every individual, but should
not be considered sufficient for the development of
truly competent, powerful individuals. Each individual
must discover and pursue those areas in which he chooses
to become truly educated--capable of making personal
meaning and participating effectively in the development
of the activity in which he is involved.

According to Theobald's definition, only Bateson's

level 4, in which the individual is able to move beyond present perceptions to discover new patterns of action (certainly a process only attainable by someone who has achieved the stage of formal operational intelligence) meets the criteria of _education_. In contrast to being trained in computational skills, the author is educated in the area of human learning--able to adapt her knowledge and to trust new, personal insights. Her knowledge is meaningful.

Simon (1968) also delineates levels of learning, in which the first level is the simple awareness and taking in of information, which may or may not be connected with other knowledge and which may or may not be remembered. On the second level, connections are made, concepts and general principles understood. Both these kinds of learning are important and even essential, but most significant is third-level learning, in which personal values are explored and meanings discovered. These levels, too, seem roughly equivalent to those outlined by Piaget, Bateson and Theobald, as shown in Figure 2.6.

In the highest levels of learning, each individual must choose for himself those areas in which he wishes to become educated. Because for the author there is no personal meaning in mathematics, she does not choose to become educated in mathematics, and no one can force her.

Therefore, each individual must be met where he is: only he can decide in what areas he will become educated. This view, of course, is perfectly consistent with that of Combs, who emphasizes personal meaning-making, and of Rogers, who points out that the only significant learning results from self-initiation.

Although contemporary theorists have been presented here as a basis for a humanistic understanding of human learning, these views are certainly not new. William James spoke of the process of learning in terms of personal meaning (Peterson 1970), as did John Dewey, but perhaps at the time they were thinking and writing, training alone was still a sufficient model for the development of the vast majority of men. But now, in an age of unprecedented change, society no longer exists simply by training people to function in a stable environment, for there is no longer a stable environment. In the cybernetic age, competent individuals are those who can understand, contribute to, and gain control over the changes in their world. The development of such competent, creative persons will not be realized until all begin to act on the principles that Carl Rogers (1969) has abstracted from his experience and research:

1. Human beings have a natural potentiality for learning.
2. Significant learning takes place when the

subject matter is perceived by the student
as having relevance for his own purposes.
3. Learning which involves a change in self-
organization--in the perception of oneself--
is threatening and tends to be resisted.
4. Those learnings which are threatening to the
self are more easily perceived and assimilated
when external threats are at a minimum.
5. When threat to the self is low, experience
can be perceived in differentiated fashion
and learning can proceed.
6. Much significant learning is acquired through
doing.
7. Learning is facilitated when the student
participates responsibly in the learning
process.
8. Self-initiated learning which involves the
whole person of the learner--feelings as well
as intellect--is the most lasting and
pervasive.
9. Independence, creativity, and self-reliance
are all facilitated when self-criticism and
self-evaluation are basic and evaluation by
others is of secondary importance.
10. The most socially useful learning in the
modern world is the learning of the process
of learning, a continuing openness to exper-
ience and incorporation into oneself of the
process of change (pp. 157-164).

If man has a natural potential for growth, why,
then, does he need facilitating personal encounters and
a facilitating environment? Why does he not develop his
fantastic potential on his own? Otto Rank proposed the
basis of a rational answer. Although man has the potential
for growth both biologically and psychologically, he
also has within him a need for dependence and support.
Just as he needs encouragement to grow from environmental
support to self-support (Gestalt terminology) in biological
terms, he also needs encouragement to grow psychologically--

to become psychologically as well as biologically weaned. The lower-order needs for safety and security are not only strong, but also of first priority. They must be overcome repeatedly and continually. In addition, man has a tendency to make habits (to continue in the safe ways of the past), to fear instincts (a cultural learning, probably), to mistrust his own abilities, and to create cultural environments that are stifling and controlling. Although man can grow, he must continually choose to grow.

If man is to choose growth, conditions, environments, and relationships which facilitate that choice must be provided. Combs outlines three basic conditions for personal learning: 1) the creation of student needs for understanding; 2) a non-threatening environment which makes the exploration of personal meaning possible; and 3) assistance and encouragement in such exploration.

Growth-facilitating environments have been studied extensively by management theorists (in Hersey, 1969), and are described by Frederick Herzberg, Rensis Likert, and Douglas McGregor (1968), among others. (See Figure 2.7 for a comparison of Likert's and Herzberg's research findings with the need levels described by Maslow, and Figure 2.4 for the assumptions of man necessary for a growth-producing environment, as outlined

FIGURE 2.7

Environments Appropriate to Various Assumptions
Concerning the Nature of Man
and to Basic Need Levels
(Maslow, 1968; Herzberg and Likert, M. Hersey, 1969).

MASLOW	HERZBERG	LIKERT: management systems
Actualization	Motivators: environment provides incentives in form of 1) challenge 2) possibility of growth and development	System 4: management perceived by subordinates as having complete confidence and trust in them. System is relationships-oriented, with an emphasis on freedom and responsibility.
Self-esteem	3) possibility of personal achievement 4) increased responsibility 5) recognition for accomplishment	System 3: management perceived as having substantial but not complete confidence and trust in subordinates.
Esteem	Hygiene factors: environment provides incentives in form of	System 2: management is perceived as having condescending confidence and trust in subordinates. Rewards and punishments both prevalent.
Belongingness	1) status 2) peer socialization	
Safety	3) job security 4) working conditions	System 1: management perceived as having no trust or confidence in subordinates.
Physiological needs	5) wages	System is task-oriented, with an emphasis on threat and punishment.

by McGregor.) Herzberg notes that when people are dis-
satisfied, their lower-order needs are not being ful-
filled and thus become of prime importance. Under these
circumstances, people cannot grow toward fulfillment.
Only an environment which both satisfies lower needs and
encourages the emergence of higher needs promotes indi-
vidual growth. Rensis Likert notes that an environment
(System 1) which threatens people tends to inhibit their
growth, while an environment which stresses freedom and
responsibility (System 4) encourages it.

Once a non-threatening atmosphere has been estab-
lished, the relationship between individuals (facilitator-
learner) becomes paramount. Carl Rogers has researched
helping relationships in teaching and in therapy exten-
sively, as have Combs and Soper in therapy, counseling,
the ministry, and teaching. The results of each are
remarkably consistent with the other's (Figure 2.8).

Adding evidence to the humanistic belief that the
interpersonal relationship between facilitator and
learner is the most important characteristic of truly
facilitative environments is the now classic research
by Fiedler (1950), in which it was discovered that
experienced therapists, regardless of theoretical view-
point, were perceived as being more alike in their
relationship with clients than were beginning therapists

FIGURE 2.8

Qualities of Effective Helpers:
these qualities of helpers must be perceived
by the individuals being helped
(Rogers, 1969; Combs, 1963).

ROGERS	COMBS AND SOPER
REALNESS: congruent in relationship; open; willing to risk sharing of self	ACCURATE PERCEPTIONS: about subject field, about human learning, about other individual's private perceptions
PRIZING, ACCEPTANCE, TRUST: unconditional positive regard; warm, non-possessive caring; trust in human organism; willingness to act on tentative hypotheses	INTERNAL FRAME OF REFERENCE:
	CONCERN FOR PEOPLE: friendly, helpful
	TRUST in humans as capable, worthy, internally motivated, and dependable
EMPATHIC UNDERSTANDING: ability to sense the client's private perceptual world "as if" it were his own, but without losing the "as if" quality	CONCERN FOR PRESENT: seeks causes in current thinking rather than historical events (cp. Gestalt "here and now")

of the same school, or even beginning and experienced
therapists of the same school. In addition, ordinary
laymen--the "man in the street"--could describe the
qualities of effective helping relationships about as
well as could the experts. Evidently description and
recognition of good helping relationships is possible.
But, at least as far as teaching is concerned, we have
not systematically applied our knowledge, for threatening,
stifling environments and inhibiting relationships are
all too prevalent in the experiences of each of us.

Education in general, including teacher education
and the methods of supervision currently practiced, do
not encourage growth.

Because so much of human potential has been
deadened,

> One of the first tasks of education...is to return
> man to himself; to encourage rather than stifle
> awareness; to educate the emotions, the senses,
> the so-called autonomic systems; to help people
> become truly responsive and therefore truly
> responsible (Leonard, 1968, p. 127).

and

> ...we must provide the student with a sense of
> the ways in which both assumptions and conclu-
> sions have changed over time, and with the
> tools with which he can participate in the
> further evolution of the subject. The old
> don't have all the knowledge to pass on to
> the young anymore, and the best teachers must
> learn to rejoice when their students surpass
> them, for in this age of cybernetic revolution
> and continuous change, static knowledge doesn't
> exist...

...our responsibility, instead, is to provide
conditions in which the individual can come to
perceive his own sapiential authority and to
learn to contribute where it is most relevant
(Theobald, 1970, pp. 159-173).

and finally,

...Teaching and the imparting of knowledge make
sense in an unchanging environment. That is
why it has been an unquestioned function for
centuries. But if there is one truth about
modern man, it is that he lives in an environ-
ment which is continually changing...We are, in
my view, faced with an entirely new situation
in education where the goal of education, if we
are to survive, is the facilitation of change
and learning. The only man who is educated is
the man who has learned how to learn...To free
curiosity; to permit individuals to go charging
off in new directions dictated by their own
interests...(Rogers, 1969, pp. 104-106).

It is on the basis of a strong commitment to a

humanistic view of man and his learning that the author

bases the program that is detailed in chapters IV-VI of

this dissertation.

Chapter III will present a review of current

literature in the field of supervision.

C H A P T E R   I I I

REVIEW OF PERTINENT LITERATURE PERTAINING TO
TEACHER EDUCATION, STUDENT TEACHING, AND SUPERVISION

Although a great deal of literature and research
is devoted to teacher education, student teaching, and
supervision, this investigator found relatively little
that deals with the affective and attitudinal dimensions
of the teacher and his training, and even less dealing
with the teacher or prospective teacher's attitude toward
himself. In addition, there exist significant problems
in investigating teaching or supervisory effectiveness,
for there exist no operational definition of effective-
ness as it relates to teaching, no universally accepted
system of observing and describing teaching, and no
universally accepted methods of modifying behavior
(Seager, 1971). There simply are no convincing, empirical
definitions of what teaching and supervising are or
ought to be. There are no acceptable models, in theory
or in practice, no acceptable means of evaluating
outcomes, and no attention to process rather than
terminal goals.

The review that follows does not attempt to cover
the field in the areas of teacher education, student
teaching, and supervision, but rather limits itself to
research that is pertinent, as this investigator sees it,

to the current study and to a humanistic education of prospective teachers. The task in this program is that of truly making a difference in the lives of the participants. The literature relevant to that goal falls into the following categories:

1) The history of supervision;

2) Research surveying various perceptions of supervision and supervisors;

3) Literature devoted to assessing, in a general way, the success of supervision;

4) Literature devoted to assessing the effects of specific supervisory and training practices, including early practical experience, simulation, peer supervision, the effect of observers in the classroom, self-assessment, and various feedback mechanisms and processes;

5) Attitude change related to educational experiences;

6) Change in self-concept (attitude toward self) as a result of student-teaching experience;

From the literature will be drawn a summary and recommendations for teacher education, student-teaching, and supervision.

The History of Supervision

Like the "teacher as pitcher--student as recep-
tacle" theory of teaching, early supervision was aimed
at creating conformity and stability, at avoiding
deviations. It began as nothing more than inspection
of teachers and their teaching, first that by the head
teacher (as inherited from the European school pattern),
later that by committee organized by school boards, and
finally that by the superintendents whose positions were
designed to facilitate inspection. In all cases the
approach was to see whether or not teachers were doing
what was expected of them (Harris, 1965; Irvine, 1968).

Although the traditional view of the supervisor
as inspector has died very slowly and reluctantly, the
progressive education movement in the United States began
to destroy the inspection emphasis of supervision, and
for many years now the image of supervision as inspection
has been unacceptable, in theory if not always in
practice. Today the institutions responsible for the
development of supervision--the teacher training insti-
tutions, the professional organizations, the schools,
and the administrative structures of school districts--
are responsible for a wide variety of supervisory func-
tions and positions (Irvine, 1968), including master
teachers, district supervisors, curriculum coordinators,

department heads, administrators, and university super-
visors.

Lovell (in Lucio, 1967) identifies four sources
from which supervisory behavior derives its distinctive
features: 1) the characteristics of human beings; 2) the
nature of social systems; 3) the nature of teaching and
learning; and 4) the organizational structure of schools
(these theoretical bases were examined previously in
Chapter 2). He identifies the six major functions of
virtually all supervisory behaviors: 1) goal development;
2) control and coordination; 3) motivation (of the staff
to achieve the goals); 4) professional development;
5) problem solving; and 6) evaluation of educational
outcomes.

As has already been shown in Chapter I, super-
vision still emphasizes evaluation, techniques, and
methodology, with the person of the teacher, including
his unique characteristics, talents and needs, being
virtually ignored.

Surveys of Perceptions of Supervision and Supervisors

In a survey of Indianapolis teachers, consultants
and principals, Palmer (1955) found that although tradi-
tional supervisory practices were unwelcome, teachers did
want supervision of the right kind, the right kind being

that which was cooperative, participatory and demo-
cratic. Teachers felt that the supervisor's attitude
was more important than the services he rendered, and
that the most important qualities for supervisors to
demonstrate were understanding, sympathy and democracy.
They also considered inter-school visitations for
teachers desirable.

Guss (1961) reports the results of a three-year
study undertaken by the Indiana Association for Super-
vision and Curriculum Development to answer these four
questions: 1) What should be the function of super-
vision? 2) What duties performed by supervisors are
being noted? 3) Of these, which are most and least
important? and 4) How can the effectiveness of super-
vision be improved? Six groups, with 50 persons in
each group, were surveyed. Included in the study were
1) administrators above the rank of principal; 2)
principals; 3) School of Education faculty members;
4) parents; 5) supervisors; and 6) teachers. Guss
found that the functions of a supervisor, according to
these respondents, should be to develop curriculum to
meet community needs, to help teachers achieve the most
effective learning environments, to improve instruction,
to inspire teachers, to render expert advice concerning
methods and materials, and to serve as a consultant or

coordinator. The actual duties most often being per-
formed, however, were reported to be compiling library
and audio-visual materials, giving professional advice
to teachers, improving curriculum, taking care of paper
work, and testing and evaluating. The most important
contributions of supervisors were reported to be helping
teachers, especially novices, improve classroom instruc-
tion, holding individual conferences with teachers,
providing guidance for teachers, improving morale, and
serving as leaders in curriculum development, while the
least important contributions of supervisors were creat-
ing an unnatural situation in the classroom, doing the
teacher's work, evaluating, inspecting, and checking up
on teachers, performing clerical duties, and writing
and keeping records. Recommended improvements included
more clearly defining the goals of supervision, creating
better understanding between teachers and supervisors,
and raising training standards, as well as increasing
clerical assistance to and the number of supervisors.

Cox and Lott (1961) conducted a study of the
supervisor's role as perceived by teachers, supervisors
and principals, using a Q-Sort of 100 behaviors to
formulate descriptions. These descriptions were then
analyzed in terms of the "most liked" and "least liked"
behaviors. Respondents in all three groups ranked highest

those behaviors relating to belief in and acceptance of
people and their unique contributions, and respect for
and appreciation of individual differences.

Manley (1958) questioned teachers, principals,
superintendents and supervisors concerning the services
rendered by supervisors. As in the Cox and Lott study,
all responding groups agreed that the most significant
and beneficial services were in the area of human relations.
Most useful were commendation and encouragement and demon-
strating personal interest in teachers. Improving
teaching strategies and providing leadership were seen
as neither beneficial nor commonly occurring, and pro-
viding for professional growth, while acknowledged as
occurring, was not seen as beneficial.

In a study of the perceptions of teachers and
their supervisors, Blumberg (1967) found that teachers
and supervisors alike regard indirect supervisory
behavior as more productive than direct, that teachers
view supervisors as creating superior-inferior situations
and giving less empathy to teachers than supervisors
view themselves as giving, that teachers believe them-
selves to be learning less about themselves and teaching
than their supervisors believe them to be learning, and
that teachers report feeling less free to initiate
discussion than supervisors report them to feel. Obviously,

a marked disparity in the perceptions of supervisors and teachers was evidenced in this study.

Turpin (1960) conducted a study to determine the major problems of supervisors as seen by supervisors. In general, he found that problems (enumerated below) caused frustration, guilt feelings, and ineffectiveness. Specifically, the problems reported, and the percentage of 100 represented by each, were 1) insufficient time to render services satisfactorily--20%; 2) unfavorable attitudes of principals and teachers toward change--16%; 3) insufficient financial resources--15%; 4) insecurity due to lack of role definition and scope of job--14%; 5) inability to organize self for effective work--9%; 7) communications difficulties with general public, State University, State Department of Education, and local board of education--8%; and 8) miscellaneous--9%. The conditions presented led the investigator to demand that those with the means direct their study and attention toward alleviating a totally unworkable condition.

And finally, as a result of a careful assessment of needs, the Teacher Corps defined its supervisory jobs as directed toward: 1) counseling and advising; 2) analyzing teaching (specifically stressing micro-teaching, simulation, interaction analysis, and conferring skills); 3) fostering professional growth;

4) teaching and demonstration; 5) developing schedules;
6) fostering community work; and 7) coordinating and
liaison work.

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Literature Devoted to the General

Success of Supervision

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While most of the literature devoted to the effec-
tiveness or success of supervision is concerned with
specific issues or practices, a few studies address
themselves to supervisory behavior in toto.

Barbou (1971) examined the verbal behavior of
supervisors and student teachers in conferences, using
the Aschner-Gallagher classification system. He found
supervisors talking more than 55% of the time, with
their talk falling into the Routine category much more
of the time than students' talk. In addition, he found
very little higher level cognitive activity exhibited
by either supervisor or student.

Neville (1971) reviewed twelve research studies
on supervision conducted between 1941 and 1969 in an
attempt to identify critical factors in supervisory
behavior. His analysis of the research disclosed three
areas of competence necessary for the effective super-
visor: human relations, technical competence, and mana-
gerial ability. He recommends further study to factor

out conceptual and performance dimensions of effective supervision to serve as a basis for programs of supervisory preparation.

Bebb, et al (1969) discusses three primary principles of effective supervisory conferences: thoughtful preparations, good human relations, and plans for action arising from the conferences.

Johnston (1969), after rejecting traditional methods of supervision, focused a study on supervisor-student teacher conferences in four teacher-education programs, two using interaction analysis and two using micro-teaching, and compared the methods used in terms of process behaviors, content focus, data base used for analysis, rapport-building attempts, formulation of objectives, and scope of conference focus. The wide variation of methods used within the approaches allowed no conclusions to be drawn on the use of either approach. Evidently far more than the specific method (either micro-teaching or interaction analysis) employed comes into play during the supervisory conference.

Robert Goldhammer (1966), in an extensive study of clinical supervision as used in the Harvard-Lexington Summer School (for an explication of clinical supervision see Goldhammer, 1966 and 1969), made three major observations: 1) the proponents of clinical supervision were

more successful in analyzing teaching behavior than in changing it; 2) both the model of clinical supervision and the techniques used were largely defective; and 3) the most useful sources for modifying the original model were analogues in teaching and counseling. In addition, Goldhammer found some 828 issues about which hypotheses, problems, and recommendations could be offered as a result of his study. For example, on the concern of the acceptability of supervision to teachers, Goldhammer hypothesized that teachers accept supervision which: begins in relationships to issues that supervisees feel are consequential; results in concrete assistance to teachers; focuses on strategies for future teaching; focuses on patterns, and results in strategies for modifying patterns; provides answers and alternatives; accepts the teachers; is understanding; is relevant to felt needs of teachers; and allows learners to identify problems and areas of concern.

On the subject of advice-giving, Goldhammer hypothesizes that advice-giving promotes dependence, while supplying alternatives is well-received and promotes independence, and that teachers must be encouraged to take responsibility for themselves.

On the subject of achieving goals, Goldhammer hypothesizes that recognition and modification of

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behavioral patterns that require modification are more
likely to result when the teacher, rather than the
supervisor, has identified those patterns, and later
proposes that

> It is more consistent with the goal of developing
> professional autonomy based upon objective self-
> evaluation, self-initiated inquiry, and other
> process goals, and with the objective to convey
> a feeling of basic acceptance, for supervisors
> generally to work with teachers toward develop-
> ing professional outcomes, roles, behaviors,
> and learnings that the teachers want than
> those that the supervisor might value (State-
> ment number 72, pages not numbered).

Also, in statement number 185, Goldhammer hypothesizes
that supervisors' theoretical and professional knowledge
in relation to

> skills of self-anaylsis and techniques for train-
> ing teachers...are not generally assimilated
> without affective concomitants that make assimi-
> lation and change difficult and, occasionally,
> impossible.

On the subject of dependencies in supervision,
Goldhammer hypothesizes that teachers are often not
satisfied with supervision that does not evaluate, even
when the supervisor guides the teacher in self-assess-
ment, and poses the problem (statement number 218):

> How can teachers who have learned professional
> dependency be taught to value and to practice
> self-evaluation on objective criteria of
> mastery?

He also proposes that ego-involvement is desirable
in teaching and in supervision and that personal

involvement be recognized as a viable and relevant area of concern.

Also of significance to this investigator are Goldhammer's recognition of the ineffectiveness of the traditional observation-conference model for beginning teachers, his recommendation of providing means of collecting long-range data, and his recommendation that research be directed toward phenomonological study of teachers' professional self-concepts--the "self as teacher."

Literature Devoted to the Effects of Specific Supervisory Practices

Bunker (1970) points out research that offers some evidence that early participation and observation experiences have a positive effect on the attitudes of education students. In his own study of the attitudes of student teachers with varying pre-practicum experiences, he found that students who elected an experience in the same classroom in which they would later be student teaching showed no significant differences in attitudes toward selected concepts in teaching, in general, than those who did not have the early experience. Further, he concluded that less favorable attitudes exhibited toward the concepts "student teaching,"

"cooperating teacher," and "lesson planning" by subjects
with more extensive and intensive classroom experiences
were due, at least in part, to the subjects' more real-
istic and sophisticated viewpoint. The literature on
attitude change in student teaching supports this con-
clusion.

Simulation, a technique used repeatedly in the
seminar associated with the current program, is becoming
an ever more popular and lucrative area for investigation,
but to date, research concerning its use in teacher
training is scanty at best. However, a study by Tarrier
(1971) of counselor trainees' reactions to consultation,
audio-recording, one-way mirror viewing, audio-video
recording, and coached clients and simulated experiences,
the simulations were favored. Like Shaftel and Shaftel
(1967), the author preferred simulation because of the
wide range of experiences it can offer the student, and
because the sessions following the simulations seem to
more easily focus on personal attitudes and values
rather than on techniques and methods.

Again, although the concepts of peer or colleague
supervision and of the effect on the teacher of an
observer in the classroom are often cited as concerns,
little research has been conducted in either area.
Berman and Usery (1966, page 33) ask: "How can supervisors

prepare teachers to work with each other so that mutual help can be gleaned from the peer group?" Colleague or peer supervision seems to offer one answer. Young (1969) conducted a study in which intern teachers working individually with supervisors served as a control for an innovative approach in which two interns and one supervisor comprised a supervisory team. In a micro-teaching sequence, the colleagueal team proved signifi-cantly more effective in helping the interns acquire specific, selected teaching behaviors. Cline (1970) conducted a study exploring the effects on teacher behavior of the interjection of an observer (supposedly to comment on events in the classroom) into the class-room. A case study approach was used. In all four instances studied, the teacher so resisted the activities of the observer that all meaningful interaction between teacher and observer was cut off. Cline recommended that if observers were to be used, role definitions must be clear in order to facilitate smooth interactions.

Self-assessment is a most important process goal of many teacher educators and supervisors. Berman and Usery (1966, page 33) speak for many when they say: "Ultimately the goal of supervision within a democratic society should be to build, within teachers, skills of self-analysis and self-direction."

Travers and Knifong (1971) administered a self-assessment of teaching competencies technique to a group of student teachers prior to and following their student teaching experiences, with differences in mean scores favoring increased self-assessment. Training, better insight into abilities, or a combination of these and other factors were hypothesized as contributing to the change.

Programs involving self-assessment seem prevalent, but so far little has been written. Combs (1963) warns against confusing the terms self-report and self-concept, but goes on to state that "Self-report studies are valuable in their own right. We need such information (page 499)." It is only when they masquerade as studies of self-concept that self-report studies become dangerous. One program, The In-Service Training Program at Wheeling High School, Wheeling, Illinois was instituted during the 1967-68 shcool year (Johnson, 1969). Two of its primary objectives were to expose teachers to situations which would result in their being willing to look at their own behavior and its effect on the group, and to involve teachers in assessing their behavior in a classroom setting. Video-tape plus protected-time seminars provided the primary vehicles. The program was considered an empirical success, and funds were made

available to expand the program to all six high schools in the district.

Considerably more research has been conducted to explore the use and effectiveness of various methods of feedback than has been conducted in the practices previously cited, and that feedback provides a significant means of influencing behavior is well documented (McDonald and Allen, 1967; Claus, 1968).

Emmer et al (1970) investigated the influence of expected feedback on a teacher's preference for expository or discovery teaching styles, and found that expected feedback concerning appropriateness of style caused the teacher to revert to the most familiar behaviors, even though these may have been considered less effective. Expectations of feedback, it was concluded, can hinder a teacher's attempts to experiment with new styles and methods. The problem, of course, is that teachers have learned to expect negative evaluative feedback.

Adair et al (1969) investigated three feedback procedures: standard observation-conference, self-assessment of video-tape, and directed (i.e. supervisor-assisted) self-assessment of video-tape. All three procedures were found to be effective in increasing the percentage of probing questions asked, with both

video-tape procedures being more effective than the traditional procedure.

Kiser et al (1969) found that although regular supervisory feedback, use of audio-tape, and use of video-tape were all effective in influencing "less direct teaching influence" as measured by Flanders' Interaction Analysis, only the group using video-tape displayed a statistically significant change.

Although the results of James' (1970) investigation into the use of three techniques to influence the development of indirect teaching by student teachers in science were not overwhelming, it was inferred that the group supervised with both the traditional observation-conference strategy and with self-assessment of video-tapes was more successful than either the traditional procedure alone or the traditional procedure plus viewing films of experienced teachers using the desired indirect strategy.

Hoehn (1969) detailed an extensive program relying on both feedback and self-assessment, as well as realistic goal-setting. The Teacher Behavior Improvement Program depends upon a seven-part improvement strategy: 1) seek goal statements; 2) collect and order data; 3) analyze and interpret data; 4) select behaviors to be changed and plan strategy; 5) practice behavior and analyze practice session; 6) try in classroom; and

7) evaluate change and plan next activity. This compe-
tency-based program successfully used colleague analysis,
feedback from colleagues and students, and self-assess-
ment. The independent variables included practice with
specific feedfack techniques, degree of participation and
involvement, and teacher's dogmatism. Dependent teacher
variables included both the attitudinal--attitudes toward
self, pupils, teaching, the program--and the behavioral--
defining problems, using and relating skills, and use of
various teaching styles, to name only a few. Conclusions
were that feedback of all types can be effective, as can
be self-assessment and conscious goal-setting by teachers.

Literature Pertaining to Attitude Change
Among Teacher Trainees

Most of the literature addressing itself to
attitude change among teacher trainees concerns itself
with trainees' attitudes toward concepts and issues
related to teaching rather than toward the trainee's per-
ceptions of himself as a teacher. Jansen et al (1971),
for example, used his own instrument, the Educational
Values Perception Inventory, to assess change among
student teachers, cooperating teachers, and supervisors
in six categories: philosophy of education, role of
teachers, role of students, attitudes toward evaluation

of students, teaching methodologies, and curriculum content. Using a pre- and post-test design, Jansen found that all three groups tended toward being more liberal on the post-test, and that, although not statistically significant, student teachers tended toward greater congruence with their cooperating teachers on the post-test.

In preparation for his own study of attitude and attitude change among teacher trainees, Bunker (1970) examined the literature and came to the following conclusions, among others: attitude study is a legitimate concern of educators; attitudes (student teachers' attitudes, specifically) are modifiable; early training seems to affect the attitudes of student teachers; limited research indicates that early participation and observation contribute to positive attitudes toward teaching among education students, and

> While student teaching is a universal practice, the research on the value of that experience as it relates to attitude formation and attitude change is inconclusive; the many studies utilizing the MTAI [Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory] have provided evidence that student teachers' attitudes at the conclusion of that experience are higher, lower, and no different than they were before practicum (page 56).

In his study of attitude change among student teachers, Bunker found that student teachers' attitudes toward student teaching, the cooperating teacher, the

seminar that was a part of their experience, programmed
teaching materials, and their overall attitude across
all concepts tested were significantly lower following
student teaching than they were prior to that experience.
Their attitudes toward professional education courses,
lesson planning, and classroom control were also more
negative, though not significantly, and their attitudes
toward children, learning by doing, and themselves as
teachers were more positive.

The literature generally supports the hypothesis
that the direction and degree of attitude change evi-
denced by student teachers is related to the relevance
of the experience for each individual, and to how well
the experience meets his felt needs.

Literature Pertaining to Change in Self-Concept
(attitude toward self) Associated with Student
Teaching and Pre-practicum Experiences

It is widely accepted that changes in the self-
picture are associated with virtually every experience
an individual has, whether or not the individual is
aware of their occurrence. Combs (1971, pages 39-40)
defines the self-concept:

By the self-concept is meant all those aspects
of the perceptual field to which we refer

when we say "I" or "me." It is that
organization of perceptions about self
which seems to the individual to be who
he is. It is composed of thousands of
perceptions varying in clarity, pre-
cision, and importance in the person's
peculiar economy. Taken altogether these
are described by the perceptual psychologist
as the self-concept....

The self-concept, it should be understood, is
not a thing but an organization of ideas. It
is an abstraction, a Gestalt, a peculiar
pattern of perceptions of self.

Though the literature treats self-concept change
associated with student teaching only scantily, Lantz
(1964), Wright and Tuska (1967), Dumas (1969), and
Bunker (1970) independently found that the experience
of student teaching was associated with a more positive
self-concept. Lantz emphasized the importance of a non-
threatening atmosphere in the student teaching experience.

Summary

From the literature examined for this study and
discussed above, the following conclusions and recommen-
dations are drawn:

1) Early classroom experience seems to have a
significant positive effect on the attitudes of education
students toward concepts associated with teaching.

2) Student teaching seems to be related to a
positive change in the reported self-concept of teacher
trainees.

3) Self-assessment is more meaningful and growth-producing than external assessment.

4) A threatening environment hinders rather than enhances growth.

5) Objective, non-evaluative feedback is helpful to teachers who want to grow.

6) Teachers are more willing to attend to personal and professional growth if protected time is set aside for it.

7) Supervision, as external evaluation and external assessment of teaching behaviors, is probably counter-productive.

8) Supervision, viewed and practiced as teaching or facilitation, has a greater impact on the positive learning of supervisees than supervision viewed and practiced as assessment.

9) The relationship established between super-visor and supervisee is an important determinant of the assistance the supervisor is able to provide.

10) Cooperative planning and open communication are essential to a growth-producing relationship between supervisor and supervisee.

11) Facilitative supervisors are seen as real, caring, supportive, encouraging of independence, inter-ested in the perceptions of the supervisee, flexible,

acceptant, competent, and accurate in their perceptions.

12) Role-playing is an effective method of broadening a learner's experiential base.

13) Peer or colleagueal supervision is a promising avenue for investigation.

14) Teachers and supervisors alike report a need for clearer role definitions for supervisors.

15) Supervisors are overburdened, with neither the time nor the resources to serve teachers as both would like them to.

CHAPTER IV

THE PROGRAM, PROCEDURES AND METHODS

The Program: Problem, Goals and Objectives

Based on the rationale set forth in Chapter I of
this dissertation, with the psychological grounding in
the humanistic theory set forth in Chapter II, and with
an understanding of the research in teacher education
as explicated in Chapter III, the program involving
twenty-seven intern and twenty-eight preintern teachers
was instituted in ten schools in Western Massachusetts
during the spring semester of 1972, in an attempt to
respond to the following three-fold problem:

1) Intern teachers from the University of
Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education Individual-
ized Program[3] generally received a considerable amount

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[3]During the academic year 1971-1972, a number of
specialized programs for under-graduates in teacher education
were being conducted at the University of Massachusetts,
Amherst, School of Education, and students not enrolled
in specialized programs were contained under the umbrella
of "Individualized Program." The following year, all
teacher-education students were required to join one of
the specialized programs, and the Individualized Program
was eliminated.

of evaluative feedback concerning their teaching from
their cooperating teachers and from their supervisors.
They did not, however, receive objective data concerning
their teaching from a non-judgmental source in any con-
sistent way.

2) Prior to internship, undergraduate teacher
education students in the Individualized Program at the
University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education
had only limited exposure to actual classrooms. In fact,
no experience prior to internship was required as a con-
dition of internship. What experience preintern students
had in actual classrooms was often dependent solely upon
the preintern's aggressiveness in seeking out such
experiences.

3) At the University of Massachusetts, Amherst,
School of Education, interns in the Individualized
Program were assigned to schools on the basis of an
interview among the intern and the principal and teacher
of the prospective cooperating school and classroom,
with the cooperating principal and teacher assuming the
responsibility for accepting or rejecting each prospec-
tive intern. However, it was generally accepted by
principals, teachers and interns alike that one brief
interview provided less than a satisfactory basis for
selection.

These three problems, recognized by the author as significant, led to the formation of three broad goals:

1) To provide interns with consistent, objective, non-judgmental feedback concerning their teaching;

2) To provide preintern education students with an in-depth, continuous classroom experience; and

3) To provide principals and teachers in cooperating schools with an opportunity to know preintern teacher education students over a significant period of time.

With these goals in mind, the author and her colleague, Mr. Curwin, hereafter called the supervisors, decided to institute a program in which preintern education students would be paired with interns and would spend at least five hours per week in the intern's classroom. The preintern could, it was hypothesized, be taught to use non-judgmental feedback techniques to provide objective data to the interns, would be provided an extensive period of experience in one classroom, and would be able to get to know at least one school, its principal and teachers, at a level previously not commonly possible.

From these broad goals, the specific objectives of the program were developed:

1) To test the use of preinterns as non-judgmental

supervisors of interns. It was hypothesized that the preinterns would provide both a close, helping relationship and a wealth of non-judgmental data for the intern, and would help the intern define areas of need and growth. The intern and preintern together would identify needs and determine necessary data-collecting activities, with the data then being interpreted by the intern.

2) To increase the manageable load of university supervisors. It is an accepted view that supervisors are overburdened. It was hypothesized that through the use of preinterns as confidants and data-collectors, as well as through frequent, empathic contact in seminars, the interns could receive more adequate and humanistic supervision without decreasing the supervisors' loads.

3) To supplement traditional supervision by university supervisors. At the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education, interns were generally fortunate if their supervisors observed them briefly every two or three weeks. And although many supervisors would have liked to have pre-and post-observation conferences, these often were impossible to schedule. The preinterns, however, would spend a minimum of five hours per week with the interns in the classrooms, as well as seminar time outside the classroom; thus it was hypothesized that the preinterns would provide a depth and

continuity previously impossible in supervision.

4) To have interns evaluate themselves as teachers. Through the use of the techniques in the manual and the non-judgmental data supplied by preinterns, as well as through the use of feedback from cooperating teachers, students, and supervisors, it was hypothesized that interns would be able to assess themselves openly and honestly as teachers.

5) To have interns improve their teaching behavior. All the components of the program were directed toward helping interns not only assess themselves, but to then take the next step--that toward improving their teaching behaviors. The specificity of many of the techniques, as well as an emphasis on needs assessment, were directed toward this end.

6) To have participants develop teaching attitudes and behaviors consistent with one another. A permissive, acceptant, non-judgmental environment for supervision would, it was hypothesized, help close the gap between theory and practice.

7) To have interns focus on specific aspects of their teaching behavior. The program emphasized specific needs assessment, data-collection in relation to felt needs, and examination of that data in a non-threatening, non-judgmental environment.

choice of teaching as a career. All the components of
the program were designed to help participants evaluate
their attitudes, values and behaviors as they relate to
teaching. It was hypothesized that through such exam-
ination, each would be able to make a clear and realistic
choice as to the suitability of teaching as a career for
himself. It was hypothesized that those who answered
affirmatively would do so proudly, purposefully and with
a realistic understanding of their capacities and limita-
tions, and that those who answered negatively would be
equally proud, clear and understanding of why another
endeavor may be more self-enhancing.

The program emphasized self-evaluation rather than
judgment by an external source (e.g. the supervisors) as
a primary process for the students involved in the
program. The supervisors viewed themselves as important
in the process in that they could use their expertise to
help the students become increasingly aware of both their
external and their internal environments, thus increasing
the amount and validity of data available to the student.
The supervisors believed that being aware of objective
and realistic data concerning each teaching situation
(including both the external data peculiar to the situation
and the internal states of the student) would equip the
students with a sound basis on which to evaluate themselves
as teachers.

Personal interviews were conducted with all forty-five students within the subsequent two weeks, resulting in twenty-nine students who actually registered for and participated in the program. Each of the twenty-nine completed and returned a questionnaire committing himself to the program (Appendix G). One student subsequently dropped out of school for health reasons, leaving twenty-eight that began and completed the program. Students included members of the classes of 1973, 1974 and 1975, with ages ranging from 18 to 23. Although more males initially expressed interest, only one actually participated in the program. Most of the students (twenty-five of the twenty-nine) expressed interest in working only in the elementary grades, with two expressly wanting to work at the secondary level, and two willing to try any level.

Interns. Ideally, it was thought that interns as well as preinterns should participate voluntarily. It was, however, impossible to invite intern participation on a voluntary basis because: 1) At the time the program was conceived, interns had already been assigned to schools; 2) The cooperation of the schools and their staffs was considered essential; 3) Few preinterns had transportation to distant schools; and 4) The supervisors would have supervisory responsibility for the participant

interns; thus those schools which had already established
working relationships with other university supervisors
were unavailable.

The supervisors therefore spent the end of December
1971 and the beginning of January 1972 talking with prin-
cipals and faculties of schools in Amherst, Pelham,
Deerfield, and Greenfield, Massachusetts, all within
twenty miles of the School of Education, and most consid-
erably closer than that. As a result of personal inter-
views with the principals and faculties, the cooperation
of ten schools offering twenty-seven internships was
obtained. Descriptions of the schools follow:

Amherst. South Amherst Elementary School: Approx-
imately ninety children in grades one and two, a public
school in what was known as the East Street Complex:
grades one through six housed in three separate buildings
that shared one administration. The four basically
traditional classrooms in South Amherst Elementary
School offered positions for five interns, one in each
of the first-grade rooms, one in one of the second-grade
rooms, and two in the other second-grade room.

East Street Elementary School: Approximately
ninety children in grades three and four, a public school
in the East Street Complex. In preparation for a future
move into an "open-concept" building, East Street School

was experimenting with open classroom methods and felt
a need for a large staff. They thus offered eight intern-
ships, two in each of the four classrooms, which served
as traditional self-contained classrooms in the morning
and open-concept activity centers (math, social science,
language arts and science) in the afternoons.

East Street Elementary at the Amherst Junior High
School: Approximately sixty children in grades five and
six housed in three adjoining classrooms in the Amherst
Junior High School building, but existing with a separate
administration and schedule as part of the East Street
Complex. Children moved from room to room for different
subjects. One internship was offered.

The Common School: Approximately eighty-five
children aged three through eleven in a non-graded,
private school practicing open classroom methods. One
internship was offered working primarily with three and
four-year-olds, and two working primarily (but not exclu-
sively) with the older children, aged seven through
eleven.

Pelham. Pelham Elementary School: Approximately
one hundred children in grades one through five in a
public elementary school with self-contained classrooms.
One internship was offered in grade five.

Deerfield. The Bement School: Approximately one

hundred children in a private school serving children aged five through twelve. One internship was offered working with third and fourth graders.

Greenfield. Federal Street Elementary School: Approximately two hundred fifty children in grades kindergarten through six in a traditional public school in which older children moved from room to room for various subjects to a limited extent. One internship working with second and third graders was offered.

Four Corners Elementary School: Approximately three hundred children in grades kindergarten through six in a traditional public school with self-contained classrooms. Four internships, in grades one, three, four and five were offered.

Greenfield Junior High School: Approximately one thousand students in grades seven through nine. One internship in English was offered.

Greenfield High School: Approximately one thousand students in grades ten through twelve. Two internships in English were offered.

Thus twenty-seven internship positions, and the interns assigned to those positions, were secured. The interns assigned were notified by mail of the supervisors' need to talk with each one (letter in Appendix H), and interviews were arranged and completed. At the

time of interview, the program was explained and the
interns' cooperation sought. It was explained that in
addition to their commitments to the school, the interns
would be requested to attend a week-end orientation
workshop and a weekly evening seminar, for which they
would receive an additional three credits for Education--
518, Seminar in Student Teaching. Holding such seminars
was the prerogative of university supervisors at the
University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of Education.
All the interns expressed interest in participating in
the program.

The interns were members of the classes of 1972
and 1973, with four of the interns being graduate students.
Of the twenty-seven final participants, twenty-two were
female. The five males were distributed throughout the
schools as follows: two at East Street Elementary School
(grades three and four), one at the Bement School (grades
three and four), one at the Common School (ages seven
through eleven), and one at East Street (grades five and
six).

The Procedures

Week-end Orientation Workshop. In the interviews
with preinterns and interns, the supervisors requested
that all participants set aside Friday evening, January 28,

1972 and all day Saturday, January 29 for an orientation
workshop, the major purpose of which was to have pre-
interns and interns get to know one another well enough
to make a selection of a partner for the ensuing
semester's experience, and to make that selection.
Reminder letters (Appendix I) were sent to all parti-
cipants, and invitations (Appendix J) were sent to all
cooperating teachers and principals.

All interns and pre-interns attended at least
part of the orientation workshop, and two cooperating
teachers attended the Friday evening session. The
activities of both Friday and Saturday were designed to:
1) create an atmosphere in which meeting other partici-
pants would be facilitated; 2) establish an atmosphere
of warmth, friendliness, and trust; 3) introduce the
manual, The Teacher's I-View, and answer whatever
questions participants had; 4) have participants select
partners for the program; and 5) have fun.

Appendix K contains a summary of week-end work-
shops activities. As a result of the two sessions, each
participant either chose a partner or at least indicated
specific persons with whom he would like to work.
Following the weekend sessions, the supervisors used
the information gathered to match interns with preinterns.
The matching proved to be a simple matter, as everyone

was paired with someone with whom he indicated a desire
to work. (Because there were twenty-eight preinterns
and only twenty-seven interns, one intern volunteered
to work with two preinterns.)

Before the participants left the Saturday session,
the interns were also asked to express a preference, in
writing, for either the author or Mr. Curwin to serve
as their supervisor, if they had such a preference. On
the basis of the responses, the author served as supervisor
of fourteen interns, Mr. Curwin as supervisor of thirteen.

The Teacher's I-View. The manual, The Teacher's
I-View (Appendix A) developed by the supervisors during
the previous semester, served as a basis for the program.
Activities in Section I were designed to assist students
in examining their attitudes and beliefs as they related
to teaching, those in Section II were designed to
provide means by which objective observers (in this case
the preinterns) could gather non-judgmental data for
teachers (in this case the interns), and those in
Section III were designed to offer means by which
readers could review their teaching experiences in an
analytic manner.

Weekly Seminar. Prior to the beginning of the
program, the supervisors decided to structure many of
the seminar activities in small support groups of six to

eight participants (three or four pairs of partners),
with the underlying rationale that the small group could
provide a secure center for each participant, from which
he could gain whatever support was necessary, and from
which he could venture out into other groups and activ-
ities. Thus it was decided to hold one large seminar
for all fifty-five participants, and to have participants
establish support groups early in the semester. However,
after two such large meetings, the supervisors and
participants all expressed displeasure with the arrange-
ment. Physical arrangements were crowded, the noise
level was uncomfortable, and virtually everyone desired
smaller seminars. The problem was presented, and the
participants suggested alternative solutions. It was
then unanimously decided to divide the group in half,
with each group meeting with the supervisors on alternate
weeks, but for a longer time period. Thus, instead of
meeting from 7:30-9:30 p.m. weekly, as the larger group
had been meeting, each smaller group met from 7-10 p.m.
every other week.

Following the decision to divide, participants
then were faced with the problem of how to divide. A
solution was quickly suggested and accepted: all those
participants associated with the East Street Complex
schools formed one group; those associated with all the

seminar fulfill the following functions: 1) to offer a
supportive and encouraging environment for exploration of
attitudes and concerns and for experimentation with new
behaviors; 2) to offer time and opportunity away from
the schools for intern and preintern partners to exchange
perceptions and plan for future activities in the class-
room; 3) to motivate participants to examine their
attitudes and beliefs as they related to teaching; 4) to
teach techniques of data-collecting; 5) to offer oppor-
tunities to practice data-collecting techniques; 6) to
discuss educational questions of significance to partici-
pants; 7) to allow participants an opportunity to freely
discuss specific problems relating to their experiences
in the classroom; 8) to explore problems that might
arise in relation to the supervision of interns by the
supervisors; 9) to practice behaviors consistent with a
humanistic theory of how people learn, as presented in
Chapters I and II of this dissertation; 10) to establish
trusting relationships among supervisors and participants;
and 11) to have fun.

Preintern Activities in the Classroom. Exactly
how each preintern spent his time in the intern's class-
room, as well as the specific times set aside for the
preinterns to be in the classrooms, was decided by mutual
agreement of the preintern, intern, and cooperating

teacher. Thus the actual activities of the preinterns varied considerably. Some preinterns spent much time observing and data-collecting; others were immersed in the life of the classroom early and deeply, and as a result spent much more time in actual contact with children than did others. Basically, however, preintern activities included at least the following: 1) observing classroom activities led by the cooperating teacher; 2) observing classroom activities led by the intern; 3) observing other classrooms in the building; 4) data-collecting for the intern; 5) working on a one-to-one basis with individual children; 6) working with small groups of children; 7) taking over responsibility for an entire class for a short period of time; 8) reviewing data collected with the intern; 9) helping the intern with playground, lunch and other related responsibilities; 10) planning lessons with the intern and/or the cooperating teacher; 11) conferring with the intern, cooperating teacher, principal, and parents concerning students; and 12) visiting other institutions, including public and private schools and a nearby juvenile detention home.

Supervisor Activities. Both the supervisors were assigned as the university's supervisors of the twenty-seven interns involved in the program. Although they would have liked to supervise all twenty-seven as a team,

time limitations required that they divide actual super-
vision responsibilities, while sharing total responsi-
bility for the program. Both visited every school
principal and cooperating teacher prior to the initiation
of the program, both visited every intern at least once,
and both participated in the week-end orientation workshop
and in each seminar, but regular weekly visits to interns
were done individually.

Each intern was visited in his classroom by his
supervisor weekly for the first half of the semester, and
every other week during the last half of the semester.
Although the supervisors would have liked to pre-schedule
their visits with interns, time considerations usually
required unannounced visits. The supervisors served as
consultants rather than as evaluators, with post-
observation conferences centering on issues raised by
the intern. Evaluation of an intern's teaching perform-
ance was not performed by the supervisors. Rather, the
supervisors sought to encourage independence and self-
evaluation; thus they worked with interns to help them
effectively assess themselves as teachers. In addition
to providing the interns with a source of help in collect-
ing data concerning the teaching situation (e.g. pointing
out circumstances of which the intern may not have been
aware previously), they tried to exemplify the

characteristics of effective helpers as they are out-
lined in Chapter II of this dissertation. These
activities culminated, at the end of the semester, in
the interns actually writing their own placement recom-
mendations, in conjunction with the supervisors, who
provided questions and guidance rather than traditional
evaluations.

In addition to regular supervisory visits to
interns' classes, interns, preinterns, and faculty of
cooperating schools were invited to call the supervisors
at any time. Calls came frequently from interns--to
discuss problems, ask questions, and seek guidance, less
frequently from preinterns, and occassionally from admin-
istrators and faculty. As a result of specific requests
for assistance from interns, the supervisors arranged
one meeting with an administrator and the interns who
expressed a communication problem with him, with highly
satisfactory results reported for all concerned. At the
request of a cooperating teacher, a problem between that
teacher and the intern she was working with was also
satisfactorily resolved, this time by moving the intern
into another situation. In a third case, a conflict
between two interns and their cooperating teacher was
lessened slightly by a meeting including the interns, the
cooperating teacher, and the supervisor. Thus the

supervisors, in addition to providing support for interns
to test their skills and competencies, served as confi-
dants, teachers, arbitrators, and consultants. They did
not supervise in traditional ways.

The Evaluation Design

The program as designed and implemented was intend-
ed to be experimental, flexible, and modifiable in every
conceivable way. It was intended as a trial of an idea,
and thus the author felt that no one means of evaluation
would provide sufficient or comprehensive enough data
upon which to make decisions regarding changes in the
program, or even the acceptance or rejection of the
basic concept--that of having preintern teacher education
students working in a partnership arrangement with
interns. Thus it was decided that a multi-faceted
evaluation design was essential, in order, at least, to
guard against the possible narrowness of interpretation
warned of by Frank S. Kessel (1969):

> What is being asserted is that the scientists'
> premises and presuppositions can and do play a
> significant role at all levels of his endeavor.
> The analogy drawn by Eddington (1928) between
> the scientist and the icthyologist conveys
> the point best: Having used a fishing net with
> a certain size mesh, the ichthyologist proclaims
> that there are no fish in the universe smaller
> than the mesh size. It is a simple and yet
> seldomly appreciated point that the scientist

is casting a net with a certain size mesh
and that is catch is to a large extent a
function of that mesh (pages not numbered).

The author took every precaution to insure that the
evaluation of the program was not merely a function of
the narrowness of the evaluation design.

The program was viewed by the author as being an
important means of developing a meaningful design for
future programs and other endeavors. Thus the emphasis,
rather than being on evaluation in the sense of comparing
it to other programs of teacher preparation, was on
design development. The program was not compared to
other programs to determine relative effectiveness, and
participants were not compared to non-participants to
determine relative growth; the emphasis was on the devel-
opment of a model that could be used as the basis for
future activity. Ben Harris (1965) identifies the
problem:

> Underlying research difficulties hampering
> program research is a basic problem. To date
> we lack conceptual models to guide super-
> visors in designing supervision programs.
> Theories of learning have not generally been
> applied to the design of in-service programs
> for teachers. As these theories and models
> are used in designing programs of super-
> vision, it will become feasible to research
> such programs so as to gain new insights into
> the impact upon people and situations, and the
> dynamics involved (p. 100).

Thus a multivariate study utilizing the measures outlined
below was designed.

The Attitude Inventory. Since a major focus of
the program was on the examination of attitude toward
self and teaching, and since it was hypothesized that
such examination would enable students to assess them-
selves honestly as teachers, it was decided to test
participants' dimensions of attitude toward teaching
prior to and following their experiences in the program.
Attitude and attitude modification were considered an
important concern in evaluating the program. As Bunker
concluded from his examination of relevant literature
(1970):

> 1. The study of attitudes and attitude modifi-
> cation through experience is a legitimate
> concern of the psychologist and educator.
> 2. The most authoritative techniques for
> measuring attitudes are the differential
> scales, summated ratings, cumulative scales,
> forced choice, rank order, rating, and factor
> analytic procedures.
> 3. The sophistication and speed of the computer
> render it a valuable tool for the measurement
> of factors underlying attitudes.
> 4. The widely used Minnesota Teacher Attitude
> Inventory has provided a lack of consensus in
> studies investigating the attitudes of students
> toward professional education courses and exper-
> iences, and has aroused authoritative criticism.
> 5. Original attitude scales are often inadequately
> standardized and appear to lack unidimensionality;
> it is often difficult to determine what is being
> measured.
> 6. The semantic differential technique for
> attitude measurement has been demonstrated to
> be flexible, sensitive, reliable, valid, and
> easy to administer.
> 7. There is limited research on the effect of
> dissimilar curriculum experiences on education
> students' attitudes. Indications are that

The authors described the instrument (Osgood
et al., 1957):

> The semantic differential is essentially a
> combination of controlled association and
> scaling procedures. We provide the subject
> with a concept to be differentiated and a
> set of bipolar adjectival scales against
> which to do it, his only task being to
> indicate, for each item (pairing of a concept
> with a scale), the direction of his association and
> its intensity on a seven-step scale (p. 20).

The semantic differential is not a test, but is rather:

> ...a very general way of getting at a certain
> type of information, a highly generalizable
> technique of measurement which must be adapted
> to the requirements of each research problem
> to which it is applied. There are no standard
> concepts and no standard scales; rather, the
> concepts and scales used in a particular study
> depend upon the purposes of the research (Osgood,
> et al., 1957, p. 76).

Thus the concepts and scales are developed by the research-

er in accordance with the purposes of the research. The

subject rates each concept on a set of seven-point

scales (the generally preferred method), with opposing

adjectives at either end. Each of the seven points is

assigned an intensity--very, quite, slightly, or neutral,

with the subject rating the meaning of each concept in

relation to each scale. For example, the meaning of the

concept MOTHER to a subject is rated by the subject's

checking where on the scale

beautiful   ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ___: ugly

and on similar scales the meaning of MOTHER lies for him.
The first and seventh spaces represent the intensity very
associated with the closest adjective, the second and
sixth spaces quite, the third and fifth slightly, and the
fourth either neutral or irrelevant.

To develop the semantic differential for use in
this study (the instrument appears in Appendix E), the
suggestions of Osgood et al. were followed. Instructions
to the participants were identical to those presented in
Osgood et al., 1957, pp. 82-84.

Form II, in which one sheet of paper is used for
each concept, with scales listed successively, was used.

> Here the ordering of concepts for different
> subjects may be varied, but the form of the
> differential itself is constant (i.e. the
> same ordering of scales and a constant
> polarity direction for each scale). This
> form has the advantage that it is both easy
> to mimeograph...and easy to score...It also
> has the distinct advantage of greater
> constancy of meaning in the thing being
> judged and of being much more satisfying to
> the subjects of the experiment (Osgood et al.,
> 1957, p. 82).

The nature of the research problem dictated concept
selection. Thus the investigator chose concepts on the
basis of their apparent relevance to this study. With
the assistance of Mr. Curwin, members of the author's
dissertation committee, and other colleagues, the follow-
ing seven concepts and concept explanations were adopted
and randomly arranged:

MY PURPOSES: My perceptions of my purposes as a teacher.

MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT: My perceptions of my ability to see what's happening around me, especially in the classroom.

ME AS EVALUATOR: My perceptions of my ability to evaluate my own teaching behavior.

MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT UPON OTHERS: My perceptions of my ability to realize the effect of my behavior on other people, especially in the classroom.

ME AS TEACHER: My perceptions of myself as a teacher.

MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF: My perceptions of my ability to know what's happening within me, especially as it affects my teaching.

ME AS RESOURCE: My perceptions of my ability to use myself as my main resource, especially in the classroom.

Osgood et al. (1957, pp. 78-80) also offer guidelines for selection of scales. Factor analysis by numerous researchers and reported by Osgood has uncovered different factors or dimensions of meaning, the most pervasive being evaluation (good-bad), potency (strong-weak), and activity (active-passive). Thus the first criterion for scale selection is their factorial

composition. In most cases a few scales are chosen to
represent each of the factors; however, since attitude
formation is an evaluative process, evaluative scales
are most appropriate to attitude measurement:

> Despite a plethora of definitions of "attitude"
> in contemporary social science, some consensus
> and agreement is evident, particularly with
> respect to the major properties that attitudes
> are assumed to possess. Most authorities
> are agreed that attitudes are learned and
> implicit--they are inferred states of the
> organism that are presumably acquired in much
> the same manner that other such internal
> learned activity is acquired. Further, they
> are predispositions to respond, but are dis-
> tinguished from other such states of readiness
> in that they predispose toward an evaluative
> response (Osgood et al., 1957, p. 189).

and

> ...to index attitude we would use sets of scales
> which have high loadings on the evaluative
> factor across concepts generally and negligible
> loadings on other factors...Thus, scales like
> good-bad, optimistic-pessimistic, and positive-
> negative should be used rather than scales like
> kind-cruel, strong-weak, or beautiful-ugly
> because the latter would prove less generally
> evaluative as the concept being judged is
> varied (Osgood et al., 1957, p. 191).

Scales were thus selected on the basis of their
evaluative nature and on the basis of their relevance
to the present study. Through concurrence with Mr. Curwin,
members of the author's dissertation committee, other
colleagues, and a group of four undergraduate students,
the following scales were selected and randomly arranged,
with direction of polarity also randomly arranged:

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good - bad

able - unable

unworthy - worthy

aware - unaware

unfriendly - friendly

meaningless - meaningful

involved - alienated

worthless - valuable

open - closed

untrustworthy - trustworthy

Although only two of the ten scales selected for
use had been statistically analyzed for their factorial
loadings (good - bad is reported as being 100% evaluative;
meaningful - meaningless as 41% evaluative, Osgood et al.,
1957, pp. 53-55), the good judgment of the colleagues of
the author was considered to be a sound basis for scale
selection. Scales deemed appropriate to the present
study by all conferees were thus selected.

The semantic differential is reported to be both
a highly valid and a highly reliable instrument. Osgood
et al. (1957, p. 141) report the necessity, in attitude
measurement, to rely upon face validity; that is, that
the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure
"to the extent that the distinctions it provides corres-
pond with those which would be made by most observers

without the aid of the instrument." The concepts and
scales selected for this study were considered valid
by colleagues and students of the author.

Reliability studies on the semantic differential
have produced evidence of remarkable reliability, with
highly evaluative scales demonstrating outstanding test-
retest consistency (Osgood et al., 1957, pp. 126-140).
In the present study, however, eight of the ten scales
used were unique; that is, they had not been reported
as used in previous studies. It was therefore decided
to test the reliability of the instrument in a test-
retest situation. The author administered the instru-
ment to nineteen students in an education class (Education
20-686: Special Problems in Education) twice, with a
two-week interval between testings. The scores were
correlated using the Pearson Product-Moment Coefficient
of Correlation, r. Results of the reliability test
appear in Table 4.1. Ranging from an r of .76 to an r
of .96, all seven correlations proved sufficiently
reliable.

TABLE 4.1

Reliability Coefficients of Seven Concepts

of the Semantic Differential

CONCEPT	r
Concept 1	.91
Concept 2	.83
Concept 3	.78
Concept 4	.96
Concept 5	.91
Concept 6	.84
Concept 7	.76

The instrument was administered to program participants on a test-retest basis, the pretesting occurring on Friday evening, January 28, 1972, at the opening of the week-end workshop, and the posttest occurring at the last meeting of each of the two seminars, both early in May 1972. Scores were summed over concepts, double-checked for accuracy, and keypunched onto IBM data-processing cards. Change in attitude toward each concept was analyzed using a BIOMED paired t-test program at the Computer Laboratory, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts. The null hypothesis tested was as follows:

H_0(interns):   There will be no difference in concept
                   scores on attitudes related to teaching
                   from pretest to posttest for interns
                   participating in the program.

and

H_0(preinterns): There will be no difference in concept
                   scores on attitudes related to teaching
                   from pretest to posttest for preinterns
                   participating in the program.

with alternative hypotheses being:

H_1(interns):   Differences in concept scores on atti-
                   tudes related to teaching from pretest
                   to posttest for interns participating
                   in the program will be less than zero.

and

H_1(preinterns): Differences in concept scores on atti-
                   tudes related to teaching from pretest
                   to posttest for preinterns participating
                   in the program will be less than zero.

and also

H_2(interns):   Differences in concept scores on atti-
                   tudes related to teaching from pretest
                   to posttest for interns participating
                   in the program will be greater than zero.

and

H_2(preinterns): Differences in concept scores on atti-
                   tudes related to teaching from pretest
                   to posttest for preinterns participating
                   in the program will be greater than zero.

Self-evaluation of teaching behavior by participants.

Because self-evaluation was considered a goal of the pro-
gram, it was decided by the supervisors to collect data
from participants concerning their perceptions and
analysis of their teaching behaviors. After perusing a

number of possible instruments, the Student Teacher Per-

formance Profile (Appendix D) was selected. Although

the profile was developed and used in extensive research

(Sharp, 1969) with secondary student teachers, the

criteria, method, and considerable research of the

instrument were judged significant for use with elemen-

tary teachers as well.

> The Secondary Student Teacher Performance
> Profile provides nine criteria upon which
> the supervisor will rate the student on a
> seven-point continuum. The classroom
> behavior of teachers provides the organ-
> izing principle for this instrument. The
> nine criteria were drawn from various
> research studies which had been designed
> with differing logical premises. The
> criteria, therefore, are eclectically
> rather than logically derived (Sharp, 1969,
> p. 28).

In this study, the profile was used as suggested,

with one change. The students themselves, rather than

the supervisors, rated their teaching behaviors (all

students were instructed to rate themselves as they

actually had behaved in the classroom, or, if they had

not demonstrated a criterion specifically, to imagine

themselves in a situation in which behavior on that

criterion would be necessary). The nine criteria

evaluated were:

    I. Understanding, friendly vs. egocentric,
       aloof
   II. Planned, organized, responsible, vs. unplan-
       ned, disorganized, irresponsible

III. Stimulating, imaginative, surgent vs.
dull, routine, unimaginative
IV. Perceives self as competent vs. perceives
self as less than adequate
V. Has mastery of facts and organizing princi-
ples of field vs. has only minimum
knowledge of field
VI. Communicates well and empathetically vs.
communicates ineffectively and perfunctorily
VII. Classroom discourse characterized by reason-
ing and creative thinking vs. classroom
discourse characterized by simple recall
VIII. Directs attention to process of thinking vs.
fails to call attention to process of
thinking
IX. High professional potential vs. low pro-
fessional potential.

Results were hand scored and key-punched on IBM data
processing cards. A one-way analysis of variance
utilizing BIOMED OIV, Analysis of Variance for One-Way
Design between and within groups (interns and preinterns)
was run to test the following null hypothesis:

H_0: There will be no difference in total score
across criteria on self-evaluations of
teaching behavior between interns and pre-
interns.

H_1: Differences in total score across criteria
on self-evaluations of teaching behavior
between interns and preinterns will be less
than zero.

H_2: Differences in total score across criteria on
self-evaluations of teaching behavior between
interns and preinterns will be greater than
zero.

Questionnaire. Participants' subjective responses
concerning the effectiveness of the program were consid-
ered essential to its overall evaluation. The author

therefore developed a questionnaire (Appendix B) which
was distributed in early May to all participants, who
were requested to respond anonymously. Responses were
tabulated according to the major types of responses
given, and compared between groups.

Data-collecting devise evaluation. All partici-
pants were requested to comment on their use of the data-
collecting devices included in Part II of The Teacher's
I-View. A form (Appendix C) was provided in early May.
Responses were tabulated and compared between groups.

Journals. Each participant received a blank
journal as part of The Teacher's I-View, and was request-
ed to use it to record impressions and experiences
throughout the semester. During each seminar at least
ten minutes was set aside for journal writing, sometimes
with specific suggestions, sometimes completely open.
Journals were read with particular attention to reactions
to program components, and to evidence of personal and
professional growth.

Other measures. During the semester the author
also recorded data collected in informal and unobtrusive
means. Attendance at seminars was not mandatory, and
formal attendance figures were not kept, but the author
did keep an informal record of attendance. Other measures
used for total program evaluation included unsolicited

opinions and reactions from students, teachers and
administrators, telephone calls concerning the program,
requests for information, for copies of the manual, and
for in-service programs, and the incorporation of pro-
gram components into other teacher education programs
at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, School of
Education. Finally, at the end of each seminar session
participants were asked to write, on a four-inch by six-
inch index card, a "Dear Barbara and Rick..." letter, in
which they were to say anything that they wanted to--
reactions to the evening's seminar, experiences during
the week, new learnings, complaints--whatever was on their
mind. These letters were considered basic to program
development and analysis, as they represented significant,
real messages addressed to a real and responsive
audience. All the letters were read immediately following
the seminar and considered in planning for future activ-
ities, and were read again following the conclusion of
the program, with particular attention paid to partici-
pants' development over the semester, as demonstrated
by their weekly and bi-weekly letters.

Supervisor self-evaluation. Finally, the super-
visors spent considerable time and energy in self-
evaluation. Many of their concerns and discussions
revolved around the checklist of action-research questions

for supervisors suggested by Rodgers (Educational

Leadership 21(5), 1964):

1. Have I continually supplied materials essential
to the success of the project?
2. Have I supplied reliable moral support through-
out its development?
3. Have I been available for consultation on
problems that arose during this study?
4. Did I take enough time to interpret results
and to discuss ways in which this new informa-
tion can be implemented in everyday teaching?
5. Did I provide opportunities for the indi-
vidual or the group to be recognized for
worthwhile action?
6. Did I provide opportunities for the results
of the action research project to be shared by
other members of the profession?
7. Have I myself recognized how this informa-
tion will modify present curriculum guides in
the schools, and have I taken positive steps
toward the necessary revision?
8. Have I helped to make teachers aware of
personal growth through this action research?
9. Have I continually stressed values of the
process rather than the product?
10. Have I used the present success to stimulate
new research enterprise? (pp. 297-300).

In addition to continual, on-going self-evaluation

throughout the semester, the supervisors spent two hours

in program evaluation in July, 1972, allowing themselves

approximately eight weeks since completion of the pro-

gram in an attempt to view it as objectively as possible.

They taperecorded this evaluation, with many of the

conclusions discussed in Chapter VI resulting.

Summary

This chapter has outlined the program that was the subject of this dissertation, including goals, objectives, and procedures employed, as well as an overview of the evaluation design employed. Chapter V will present the findings of that evaluation and in Chapter VI the author will present conclusions and recommendations of the program for the consideration of those who are interested in making teacher education, both pre-service and in-service, the truly actualizing process that it holds the potential for being.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

Introduction and Summary

In examining the attitude inventory, participants'
self-evaluations, responses to an evaluation questionnaire,
and other measures, it was found that, in general, pre-
interns were more seriously involved in the program as
a whole than were interns; preinterns became significantly
more positive in their attitude toward the concept MY
PURPOSES over the course of the program; interns became
significantly more positive in their attitude toward the
concepts MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS, ME AS
TEACHER, and ME AS RESOURCE over the course of the semes-
ter; the interns and preinterns scored much alike on
both the attitude inventory and the self-assessment
instrument; preintern experience was recommended for
prospective teachers by most participants; data-collection
activities were reported as being limited in relation
to other program activities; self-evaluation by interns
proved to be both difficult and rewarding for them;
and, in general, the program aroused interest on the
part of participants and non-participants alike.

More specific findings are reported in the follow-
ing pages.

The Attitude Inventory

For each concept on the attitude inventory, the null hypotheses were as follows.

H_0(interns): There will be no difference in concept scores on attitudes related to teaching from pretest to posttest for interns participating in the program.

and

H_0(preinterns): There will be no difference in concept scores on attitudes related to teaching from pretest to posttest for preinterns participating in the program.

with alternative hypotheses being:

H_1(interns): Differences in concept scores on attitudes related to teaching from pretest to posttest for interns participating in the program will be less than zero.

and

H_1(preinterns): Differences in concept scores on attitudes related to teaching from pretest to posttest for preinterns participating in the program will be less than zero.

and also

H_2(interns): Differences in concept scores on attitudes related to teaching from pretest to posttest for interns participating in the program will be greater than zero.

and

H_2(preinterns): Differences in concept scores on attitudes related to teaching from pretest to posttest for preinterns participating in the program will be greater than zero.

The t-ratio, computed on a BIOMED paired t-test program at the Computer Laboratory, University of

Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts was used to test
the null hypotheses, with a t-ratio less than zero
indicating an increase in concept score (a more positive
attitude toward the concept) from pretest to posttest,
and a t-ratio greater than zero indicating a decrease
in concept score (a more negative attitude toward the
concept) from pretest to posttest. Results of the
attitude inventory are displayed in Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

On Concept 1, MY PURPOSES, intern participants
showed no significant difference in concept scores from
pretest to posttest, thus the null hypothesis was accepted.
Preintern participants, however, showed a gain from a
mean of 60.895 to a mean of 64.842, with a t-ratio of
-2.5698, significant at the .05 level of significance.
Thus the null hypothesis was rejected, and H_1, indi-
cating a significant increase in concept score, was
accepted. Although the intern's score change was not
significant, it too was in the direction of a more
positive attitude toward the concept MY PURPOSES.

On Concept 2, MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT,
neither interns nor preinterns showed a significant
change in concept score from pretest to posttest. Thus
the null hypothesis was accepted in both instances.
Though not significant, scores for both groups were in the
direction of more positive attitudes on the posttest.

TABLE 5.1

Paired T-tests for Concepts 1 through 7

for Intern Participants

	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	t-ratio
Concept 1 My Purposes	59.778	62.074	-1.9498
Concept 2 My Awareness of the Environment	55.926	58.148	-1.8028
Concept 3 Me as Evaluator	47.037	43.704	.6095
Concept 4 My Awareness of My Effect on Others	55.852	60.444	-3.9762***
Concept 5 Me as Teacher	54.444	57.778	-3.1225**
Concept 6 My Awareness of Myself	44.444	42.222	.2590
Concept 7 Me as Resource	61.000	63.704	-2.1806*

*significant at .05 level of significance
**significant at .01 level of significance
***significant at .001 level of significance

TABLE 5.2

Paired T-tests for Concepts 1 through 7

for Preintern Participants

	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	t-ratio
Concept 1 My Purposes	60.895	64.842	-2.5698*
Concept 2 My Awareness of the Environment	55.263	57.895	-1.4237
Concept 3 Me as Evaluator	49.474	51.053	-0.1838
Concept 4 My Awareness of My Effect on Others	58.474	60.527	-1.1822
Concept 5 Me as Teacher	55.263	57.895	-1.5639
Concept 6 My Awareness of Myself	47.895	42.632	0.7280
Concept 7 Me as Resource	60.4211	64.000	-1.9054

*significant at .05 level of significance

On Concept 3, ME AS EVALUATOR, neither group scored significantly different on the posttest than it had on the pretest. Thus the null hypothesis was again accepted in both instances. Although the t-ratios were far from indicating significance, the direction of change is interesting to note. For the interns the direction was toward a less positive attitude toward the concept, while for the preinterns it was toward a more positive attitude toward the concept.

On Concept 4, MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS, the interns scored a difference from pretest to posttest, as measured by t, of -3.9763, a difference significant at the .001 level, and indicating a significantly more positive attitude toward the concept on the posttest. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of H_1. The preinterns also scored more positively on the post-test on Concept 4, but not significantly so. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted for preintern participants.

On Concept 5, ME AS TEACHER, interns displayed a difference, as measured by t, of -3.1225; thus the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of H_1. Although pre-interns also tended toward a more positive attitude toward the concept on the posttest, the difference was not significant, and the null hypothesis was accepted.

On Concept 6, MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF, both groups

tended toward slightly less positive attitudes toward
the concept on the posttest, but neither difference was
significant. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted in
both cases.

On Concept 7, ME AS RESOURCE, both groups tended
toward more positive attitudes on the posttest. The
score difference for interns was -2.1806, as measured
by t, was significant at the .05 level. Thus, for the
interns, the null hypothesis was rejected in favor of
H_1. The difference in preinterns' scores, however, was
not significant. Thus for them the null hypothesis was
accepted.

Although only four of fourteen t-tests proved
significant, (two at the .05 level, one at the .01 level,
and one at the .001 level), the direction of change in
all four significant tests and in eleven of the fourteen
total tests was in the direction of more positive atti-
tudes on the posttest than on the pretest. The interns
scored slightly less positively on the posttest on the
concept ME AS EVALUATOR, and both groups scored slightly
less positively on the posttest on the concept MY AWARE-
NESS OF MYSELF. Whereas preinterns scored significantly
more positively on the posttest on the concept MY PURPOSES,
interns scored significantly more positively on the post-
test on the concepts MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS,

ME AS TEACHER, and ME AS RESOURCE.

Discussion of Findings. Much more research would have to be conducted to discover possible causes for the trends noted above, but it is possible to at least speculate as to the answers to the following questions:

Why might the interns, and not the preinterns, have tended to become less positive (though not signifi- cantly so) in their attitude toward the concept ME AS EVALUATOR? The concept specified self-evaluation, and perhaps the result is the function of a more realistic attitude. Perhaps, as interns became more aware of the relationships involved in teaching, they became less and less sure that each of their actions was a "right" or "good" one. The preinterns, however, has only limited experience in evaluating themselves as teachers, and therefore may not have been so affected.

Why might both groups have tended to become less positive (though not significantly so) in their attitude toward the concept MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF? Much of the program was directed toward increasing self-awareness, therefore it seems ironic that this concept should be the one on which both groups scored lower following their experience in the program. Perhaps, however, the emphasis on self-awareness served to increase the

participants' awareness of the lack of attention they
had been paying to themselves previously; that is, they
became increasingly aware of a lack of awareness. Also,
all participants found themselves in new situations,
calling for new responses. Finding themselves called
upon to act in truly different ways, they may have
become increasingly aware of the depths of their own
possibilities.

Why might preinterns alone have scored signifi-
cantly more positively in their attitude toward the con-
cept MY PURPOSES? Perhaps this is a function of exper-
ience. It seems unlikely that interns, ready to graduate
and begin careers in teaching, would clarify their pur-
poses in becoming teachers during their final few months
of preparation. Preinterns, however, many of whom were
just beginning to explore teaching as a career, would be
more likely to clarify purposes during an experience in
which they were in close contact with children. In
addition, this finding is consistent with the many un-
solicited comments from preinterns received by the
supervisors stating that through this experience they
had definitely decided to pursue teaching as a career.

Why might interns, and not preinterns, have scored
significantly more positively on the posttest on the
concepts MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS, ME AS

TEACHER, and ME AS RESOURCE? Perhaps these three con-
cepts were seen as directly related to in-class exper-
ience over a significant period of time. Interns,
spending full days in classrooms in which they hold
major responsibility, had time to test themselves as
teachers and as resources in the classroom. Perhaps
the limited time spent by the preinterns was simply
insufficient for preinterns to change their attitudes
toward concepts because it was insufficient for them to
test themselves as teachers and resources, or to deter-
mine their effect on others. In addition, the data-
collecting devices, which were done to help the intern
collect data, assisted only the interns in increasing
their awareness of their effect on others.

Obviously, the rationales presented above are
only speculative and tentative. They are meant to
raise rather than answer questions.

Other Observations from Attitude Inventory Data.
In order to glean as much information as possible from
the data, scores on the attitude inventory were examined
in various ways.

Means on the posttest were compared between groups,
as shown in Table 5.3.

Interns' scores ranged from a high of 63.704 to a
low of 42.222, and preinterns' scores ranged from 64.842

TABLE 5.3

Range of Mean Scores on Seven Concepts of the Semantic

Differential for Interns and Preinterns

	Mean Score	Concept	
	63.704	Concept 7	ME AS RESOURCE
	62.074	Concept 1	MY PURPOSES
	60.444	Concept 4	MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS
INTERNS	58.148	Concept 2	MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT
	57.778	Concept 5	ME AS TEACHER
	43.704	Concept 3	ME AS EVALUATOR
	42.222	Concept 6	MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF

	64.842	Concept 1	MY PURPOSES
	64.000	Concept 7	ME AS RESOURCE
	60.527	Concept 4	MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS
PREINTERNS	57.895	Concept 5	ME AS TEACHER
	57.895	Concept 2	MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT
	51.053	Concept 3	ME AS EVALUATOR
	42.632	Concept 6	MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF

to 42.632. It is interesting to note, that except for
Concept 3, on which interns scored a mean of 43.704 and
preinterns scored a mean of 51.053, the scores between
groups did not differ greatly. Although it could be
speculated that because each preintern generally evalu-
ated another's work rather than his own, and because it
was interns who were faced with the full responsibilities
of teaching, these results might be predictable, further
investigation into the motives and experiences of both
interns and preinterns would be necessary to adequately
explain the difference. Except for their attitudes
toward Concept 3, it can be concluded that interns and
preinterns, as separate groups, scored consistently
with each other on the posttest, their attitudes being
most positive toward ME AS RESOURCE and MY PURPOSES,
somewhat less positive toward MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT
ON OTHERS, MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT, and ME AS
TEACHER, and least positive toward ME AS EVALUATOR and
MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF. It is important to note also
that the means for both groups on all concepts were
above the neutral point (40.00); thus the mean averages
of all attitudes measured were positive rather than
negative.

Also of interest is the fact that with both groups,
the range of scores was greater on the posttest ranges

for both groups.

TABLE 5.4

Pretest and Posttest Mean Ranges on Attitude
Inventory for Interns and Preinterns.

	Pretest Mean Range	Posttest Mean Range
Interns	444.444 - 61.000	42.222 - 63.704
Preinterns	47.895 - 60.895	42.632 - 64.842

Upper and lower limits were expanded for both
groups on the posttest. Although again it would require
further research to determine the cause, the author
hypothesized that over the course of the semester students
may have become more clear in their attitude toward each
concept, and were better able to evaluate each concept
individually. The results may thus display their increas-
ed ability, after the semester, to rate their attitudes
on the selected concepts independently of one another.

Self-Evaluation of Teaching Behavior by Participants

Student Teacher Performance Profile. A one-way
analysis of variance utilizing BIOMED OIV, Analysis of
Variance for One-Way Design, between groups of interns
and preinterns was run at the Computing Laboratory,

University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts, to

test the null hypothesis:

H_0: There will be no difference in total
score across criteria on self-evaluations
of teaching behavior between interns
and preinterns.

H_1: Differences in total score across criteria
on self-evaluations of teaching behavior
between interns and preinterns will be
less than zero.

H_2: Differences in total score across criteria
on self-evaluations of teaching behavior
between interns and preinterns will be
greater than zero.

Results of the anaylsis of variance are shown in Table 5.5.

TABLE 5.5

Analysis of Variance Between Groups on Student

Teacher Performance Profile

Group:	Preinterns	Interns
N	25	19
Mean Score	47.640	48.842
Standard Deviation	4.081	5.500
Z Score	11.673	8.880

F ration between groups: 0.6939

With group sizes of 25 and 19, the F ratio between

groups would have to be over 1.00 to indicate a significant

difference at the lowest level (Glass and Stanley, page

522). Thus the null hypothesis of no difference was

accepted. Of a possible high score of 63 (nine concepts

with seven possible points for the highest evaluation
per concept), preinterns averaged 47.640 and interns
averaged 48.842, both groups rating themselves somewhat
better than average over all concepts. In looking over
individual scores, it is interesting to note that no pre-
intern rated himself lower than average over all concepts
(the lowest score being 41), and one intern (with a
score of 38) rated himself below average. Since the
profile was given only once, at the end of the semester,
it cannot be speculated whether or not this individual
changed his opinions of his teaching behavior over the
semester.

Recommendations. Because the supervisors empha-
sized self-evaluation throughout the program, they
requested that interns end the experience by contributing
their own self-evaluations to the recommendations the
supervisors would write for the interns' placement
credential files. These were completed by each intern
in one of two ways. Either the intern actually wrote
a rough copy of his recommendation and then met with
his supervisor to discuss, revise, and polish it, or the
intern simply outlined the points to be included prior
to meeting with the supervisor to write the recommendation
jointly. Although virtually every intern reported to
the supervisors that he experienced difficulty with the

assignment, the interns reported and the supervisors concurred that the interns were both complete and honest in their self-evaluations, and that the recommendations that resulted were far more meaningful than those ordinarily written.

Questionnaire

A ten-item questionnaire (Appendix B) was distributed early in May to participants, who were requested to respond anonymously and to return the questionnaires at their convenience. Responses are tabulated and discussed below:

1. Please comment on the helpfulness, interest, etc. of the Thursday night seminar for you.

Major adjectives used	Times used
valuable, very helpful	10
helpful, useful	15
interesting, fun	8
not very helpful, useless	3

Major activities mentioned as helpful	Times mentioned
techniques learned	22
vicarious learning (role-playing and learning from others' experience)	18
group support and sharing	13
partner interaction	10
viewing others' teaching	1
information gathering	1

It was concluded from the results of the questionnaire that the seminar proved at least moderately helpful

and useful to most participants. Unsolicited personal
reactions supported the conclusion.

2. <u>Would you recommend that prospective teachers have a
    preintern experience like the one offered in this
    program? Please explain.</u>

	Yes	Maybe	No
Preinterns	23	0	1
Interns	15	2	0

The overwhelming majority of those responding was in
favor of the early experience. Thirty-two respondents
mentioned the actual classroom experience as being most
valuable, fourteen mentioned the opportunity to work
closely with an intern, and four mentioned the sharing
that occurred in the seminars.

3. <u>Would you recommend that interns have preintern part-
    ners? Please explain.</u>

	Yes	Maybe	No
Preinterns	12	10	1
Interns	8	6	1

Those responding affirmatively most often mentioned that
good discussions with a sympathetic partner were helpful,
and that preinterns provided assistance in the classroom.
Those responding negatively stated that the intern should
rely on himself and that the preintern was no help. Those
qualifying their responses stated that interns should
have preinterns if they want them, if the preinterns are
committed to helping the interns, and if more sheltered
time during school hours is provided for partners to
work together.

4. How satisfied are you with the relationship that developed between you and your partner?

	Very	Satisfied	Not very	Not at all
Preinterns	14	8	1	1
Interns	6	1	1	4

Although not everyone responded, it can be seen that perhaps more preinterns than interns were satisfied with the relationships that developed. Responses seemed to indicate that whereas preinterns felt they gained much, interns felt little gain from the partnerships. Lack of time to work together was most often mentioned as a deterring factor.

5. How satisfied are you with the help provided by your partner?

	Very	Satisfied	Not very	Not at all
Preinterns	11	9	3	1
Interns	6	0	2	4

Again, it must be pointed out that more preinterns than interns responded, and that of the respondents, more preinterns were satisfied. Again, lack of time was mentioned as a critical factor by those who were not satisfied.

6. How satisfied are you with the supervision provided by Rick and Barbara?

	Very	Satisfied	Not very	Not at all
Preinterns	13	7	2	0
Interns	8	1	1	1

Although it appears that those who responded to the

questionnaire were relatively satisfied, it is interesting to note that those who were not indicated a desire for "closer" supervision, especially for specific criticisms of their teaching from the supervisors.

7. What, for you, was the most significant aspect of the program?

	Preinterns	Interns
Classroom experience	23	1
Partnership	3	2
Seminar	1	1
Support from others	1	1
Supervisors	0	3
Journal	1	0
The Teacher's I-View	0	5
All aspects of program most significant	1	2

8. What, for you, was the least significant aspect of the program?

	Preinterns	Interns
Nothing	11	2
Partnership	1	5
Seminar (parts or all)	5	2
The Teacher's I-View	3	0
Lack of enough time	0	3

Those who mentioned the Teacher's I-View as least significant explained that perhaps it would be more valuable to them later on, when they had more experience and more time. Those who mentioned partnerships were clear in stating that it was in individual problem they were reporting and that they thought the partnership could have been good had different individuals been involved in specific partnerships.

9. <u>What recommendations would you make for the future of this program?</u>

	Preinterns	Interns
structure preintern responsibilities	7	3
more time for partner sharing	8	4
interschool visitations	3	0
more emphasis on small groups	4	3
more sharing of experiences	3	4
better screening and matching	2	2
keep as is	7	2

Other suggestions, each made once, included more role-playing, more evaluation of attitudes and behaviors, greater emphasis on self-contracts, more frequent seminars, specification of concrete goals, more structure, less structure, and a guide for cooperating teachers in the schools.

It seems, from these responses, that the outstanding need was for more time to work together--both in the partnerships and in groups.

10. <u>Please comment on your own sense of personal and professional growth over the past semester.</u>

The responses to this item were difficult to tabulate. Most respondents mentioned both personal and professional growth in general terms, e.g. "tremendous personal and professional growth," and "much of both," and more specific references like the following:

Preinterns: "teaching is for me--I made the decision;" "self-confidence, friendship;" "I began to change myself in directions <u>I want</u>;" "increased awareness of self and

others and environment;" "much work and learning ahead
of me;" "now feel ready to go on;" "more self-confidence
and a realization of limits;" "I learned that answers
in teaching aren't found in books;" "I'm more realistic
about myself and my profession." Recurring themes in
the preinterns' responses were the ideas of deciding to
teach, of gaining confidence, of greater awareness, and
of increased readiness.

Interns: The theme of increased self-confidence was most
obvious. In addition, comments included the following:
"I put information, ideas and techniques together;" "I
became more organized and responsible, and much more
mature;" "I have a long way to go;" "I made it through a
discouraging situation;" "I grew up."

It was obvious that more preinterns than interns
responded to the questionnaire, and that their responses
were overall more favorable. On the basis of this
phenomenon, the question needs to be raised: What
factors may have contributed to this phenomenon? The
following is offered as a suggestion in need of further
research:

Preinterns participated voluntarily, whereas in-
terns had no real choice. The preinterns wanted the
experience and arranged their schedules accordingly.
Their classroom experience, which was overwhelmingly

reported as the most significant aspect of the program, was a result of being in the program. The interns would have had the classroom experience with or without the program, so for them only the partnership, The Teacher's I-View, and the seminar constituted the program. In addition, for some interns, the preintern partner was apparently an imposition.

Data-Collecting Devise Evaluation

The data-collecting devices in Part II, pages 45-90 of The Teacher's I-View, were explained to participants, and selected activities ("One-way Glasses," "Lesson Analysis Continuum," "Feeling Identification Continuums," and "The Flower,") were done in role-playing situations in seminar. Little more was said, except that periodically during the semester, participants were reminded to try the activities. In early May, a questionnaire (Appendix C) was distributed. Results appear in Table 5.6.

In all, twenty preinterns and eleven interns returned the questionnaire, again demonstrating the greater interest and cooperation on the part of the preinterns. Those who responded did so enthusiastically; all indicated a desire and intent to use the activities in the future. Some preinterns reported feeling a need

TABLE 5.6

Use of Data-collecting Activities

by Interns and Preinterns

	Preinterns	Interns
Classroom arrangement	10	7
Observation: Student Point of View	3	4
One-way Glasses	6	1
Shadowing	0	2
Interviews	3	4
Incidental Learnings	2	2
Daily Data Sheet	6	4
Weekly Reactions	4	3
Self-contracts	3	4
How Did It Go?	5	3
Lesson Analysis Continuum	4	4
Classroom Effectiveness	0	1
Feeling Identification Continuums	3	4
Why Did You Do That?	1	2
Needs Assessment	0	1
What Kinds of Questions Do You Ask?	4	3
Responses to Student Responses	5	2
Sentence Stems	0	3
The Flower	0	2
Teacher Walking Map	5	1
Self-disclosure Assessment	1	1

TABLE 5.6 (Continued)

	Preinterns	Interns
Sending I Messages	2	2
Acceptance	3	2
Single Student Focus	2	1
Not enough time, or conditions precluded activities	13	4

to work with children and were not interested in collect-
ing data for the interns.

Journals

Each participant received a blank journal as part
of The Teacher's I-View, and was requested to use it to
record impressions and experiences throughout the semester.
During seminar, some time was set aside for journal
writing, sometimes with specific suggestions, sometimes
completely open. At the end of the semester students
were asked to share their journals with the supervisors,
on a completely voluntary basis. Five preinterns and
four interns did so. Many participants indicated that
they had not kept journals, either because they weren't
interested in doing so or because they never found the
time to do so, and three said they would prefer not to
share the content of their journals. The nine that were
submitted were lengthy, ranging from twelve to fifty-six
pages, and included considerable evidence of attention
to detail, concern for classroom activities, and personal
and professional growth. Some examples include the
following:

    Preintern: I think that it's really important
    to develop the individual child's creativity.
    How? Is scribbling--as Bill said--creative?
    Must it be a directed creativity? I tend to

think of Thomas' camel on the board the first
week--a creativity that should have been put
to use....try again.

Intern: The past two days have been a jumble
of faces and names, concepts and techniques.
I'm confused, and need help. Maybe my
partner can help. ·

Preintern: At times today I felt like I wanted
to take over the class and call myself teacher
from that point on. I felt so good because
something inside me made me positive that this
was the career I wanted.

Preintern: It was sad to see "my kids" for the
last time--especially Tommy a "slow" child who
demanded special attention. I just looked at
him as he was going out the door--with his cap
on side ways and his lunch box dangling at his
leg, and I hoped so much that he'd make out
alright. I hope he's supported by people
who'll care for him--people who'll show him
they're interested in him--I know he'll be
alright then. I'll always have warm
memories of Tommy--he more than anyone else
made me think, act, and learn things about
myself that I hadn't realized before.

Open Letters

At the end of each seminar session participants
were asked to write, on a four-inch by six-inch index
card, a "Dear Barbara and Rick" letter, in which they
were to say anything they wanted to--reactions to the
evening's seminar, experiences during the week, new
learnings, complaints--whatever was on their mind. In
addition to being used for on-going evaluation and plan-
ning, the letters were read again following the semester's

program, with particular attention being paid to evidence
of student development over the semester. Following
are all the letters from one preintern, in chronological
order, unedited.

2/10/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
    I don't think tonight has been especially
helpful. I found the school much more than
any of us has been prepared for. Maybe this
is what the observation is all about--but
what good will it do to know what kind of
problems I will have to face and not get any
definite ideas about how to face them?
    How do you discipline children effectively--
not as punishment? How do you keep track of
all the misbehaving students and still give
the do-gooders the attention they deserve?
How do you plan for individual abilities--
to make the most of them for the child and the
entire class? These are questions I'd like
answered.
    Barbara, thank you for your answer about the
child who didn't want to do his math. I guess
that is the kind of help I'd like.
    These are the type of things I'd like to see
brought up.
                                    SC

2/17/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
    This class session was really helpful.
The brainstorming session is exactly the
concrete type of help that I want and
need. One of my own failing is that in
this kind of thing I fear to speak up, but
at least the ideas are generated in my head
and I can include them on my own list.
    I think that it would be good if we could
have a long, session in the beginning to talk
within our groups. The exercise in the
beginning generated a great conversation in
our group on creativity in the classroom.
When you interrupted, our trains

of thought were interrupted. In other
words, if you had put up that discussion
topic at the beginning of the period and
then let us alone, I think we could have
got deeper into our talk.

Having a smaller group will be especially
helpful I think--especially for those who
are inhibited by large groups (like me).

SC

3/2/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
I feel that breaking up into two sessions
has been really helpful. There seems to be
more rapport with the smaller group. We
were lucky in that the kids that we wanted
in our group, wanted us. I think that our
group is going to work our well.
That's all tonight.

SC

3/16/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
I'm into having you challenge many of
my basic take-them-for-granted reactions.
We have done brainstorming in this class
before, but tonight we learned a more
formalized way of doing it. I wonder if
it can ever be implemented with older
administration, faculty in school systems,
etc. Is this practical for our use?

SC

4/6/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
Tonight's class was a good demonstration
of how to evaluate one's teaching. By

of thought were interrupted. In other
words, if you had put up that discussion
topic at the beginning of the period and
then let us alone, I think we could have
got deeper into our talk.

Having a smaller group will be especially
helpful I think--especially for those who
are inhibited by large groups (like me).

I've started two lists in my journal--
"Lesson Plans to Remember" and "Ideas for the
Classroom." In the latter list, for example,
I've recorded the idea of using large sheets
of newsprint to write things on--it has an
informality which is good.

Thanx for this session.

SC

3/2/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
I feel that breaking up into two sessions
has been really helpful. There seems to be
more rapport with the smaller group. We
were lucky in that the kids that we wanted
in our group, wanted us. I think that our
group is going to work our well.
That's all tonight.

SC

3/16/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
I'm into having you challenge many of
my basic take-them-for-granted reactions.
We have done brainstorming in this class
before, but tonight we learned a more
formalized way of doing it. I wonder if
it can ever be implemented with older
administration, faculty in school systems,
etc. Is this practical for our use?

SC

4/6/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
Tonight's class was a good demonstration
of how to evaluate one's teaching. By

observing both Linda and Peggy I picked up
the type of things I want to be aware of
when I teach--the way things come across
to kids--is what is being taught clear to
them--being especially aware of their
moods, their interest or lack of it.
Both offered something to remember.

The technique you used to help Linda
evaluate her own lesson [Lesson Analysis
Continuum] seems an excellent way of seeing
where improvement is needed. I think I'll
suggest that my intern try it, especially
since she is forced to do the same science
experiment five or six times a week.

SC

4/27/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
Tonight made me think back over the semester.
I guess that maybe the kinds of answers I was
looking for don't really exist, do they? I
wonder if I'll be able to find my own?

SC

5/4/72

Dear Barbara and Rick,
This course has really been the most
valuable one that I've taken since I've been
at U Mass. I am much more aware now of
what is expected of me as a teacher. I
realize that there are many areas I don't
know about, areas that I don't feel compe-
tent in. I expected that I was better pre-
pared for the class and teaching than I was.

I've used my manual a lot. There have
been days when I've just sat down and done the
quotes or other activities. Many of these I
have shared with other friends and I've found
myself learning more about them.

My partner and I have become friends.
Thank you.

I guess maybe it's alright that there aren't
very many definite answers.

Thanx.

SC

Other Measures

Attendance. Seminar attendance was considered
optional, and formal attendance figures were not kept.
But because students wrote informal letters to the super-
visors at the end of each session, an informal record
was available. Attendance at the seminar ranged from 15
to 26 (28) (26 or 29 possible, depending upon the section),
with an average of approximately 23. Preinterns attended
more regularly than interns, and generally arrived more
punctually.

From reports of participants, preinterns did spend
the expected time in their classrooms. Apparently one
or two attended only sporadically, those being the same
individuals who reported dissatisfaction with their
partners or positions. Transportation difficulties,
combined with poor health, precluded regular attendance
on the part of one other preintern.

Unsolicited reactions. Unsolicited reactions from
students, teachers and administrators were virtually all
positive. The negative reactions that may have been
present were not shared with the supervisors, except for
two interns who objected to the supervisors' reluctance
to evaluate their teaching. Cooperating teachers reported
pleasure with the preinterns and expressed interest in
The Teacher's I-View activities, usually, however, with

the reservation "There just isn't enough time!" A few teachers became very enthusiastic, and encouraged their colleagues to purchase copies of the manual.

Through other contacts, a workshop based on the program was conducted by the supervisors for teachers and administrators in Cuyahoga County, Ohio, where teachers worked with one another in peer-supervisor relationships. Interest generated from that workshop then led to a series of three more, with over 250 people in all attending.

Interest in The Teacher's I-View also spread, basically by word of mouth, with a total distribution of approximately 300 manuals resulting.

Student interest as a result of word-of-mouth information ran high. Numerous requests (estimated at about 50) were received by the supervisors from students throughout the university to participate in future programs. The vast majority of these requests came from prospective preinterns.

Finally, as of the summer of 1972, the program was being considered in its entirety as part of one total teacher education program at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts, and components of it were being incorporated into other programs.

Summary of Findings

1) More preinterns than interns appeared to be seriously involved in the program.

2) Preinterns attitudes toward the concept MY PURPOSES became significantly more positive over the semester.

3) Preintern attitudes toward the concept MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT ON OTHERS, ME AS TEACHER, and ME AS RESOURCE became significantly more positive over the semester.

4) There was little difference in total mean score on the attitude inventory between preinterns and interns, and both groups ordered the concepts in like ways.

5) Mean scores of both groups on the attitude inventory were above the neutral or "average" point.

6) Both groups increased the range of their responses to the attitude inventory on the posttest.

7) There was no significant difference between groups on their self-evaluations of their teaching behavior, as measured by the Student Teacher Performance Profile.

8) Interns found it difficult but meaningful to evaluate themselves as teachers by writing or outlining self-recommendations.

9) Participants generally found the seminar to be at least somewhat helpful.

10) The most often reported helpful use of seminar time was in learning techniques of self-analysis, learning

from the experiences of others, and interaction in small groups and partnerships.

11) All preinterns who responded to the evaluation questionnaire recommended preintern experience for prospective teachers, and all interns who responded recommended preintern experience for those who want it.

12) Both interns and preinterns recommended that interns who want them should be provided with preintern partners.

13) Of those responding to the questionnaire, 22 of 24 preinterns and 7 of 12 interns were satisfied with the relationship that developed between him and his partner.

14) Twenty of 24 preinterns and 6 of 12 interns were satisfied with the help provided by his partner.

15) Twenty of 22 preinterns and 9 of 12 interns were satisfied with the supervision provided by the supervisors.

16) Preinterns overwhelmingly reported classroom experience to be the most significant aspect of the program. No one component was overwhelmingly favored by interns.

17) Eleven of 19 preinterns and two of 12 interns felt nothing in the program to be least significant. Other responses included the total range of components.

18) Both interns and preinterns indicated a need

for more time to work with partners and in small groups,
in order to provide deeper relationships and opportun-
ities to share learnings and to work together.

19) All respondents reported significant personal
and professional growth over the semester.

20) Use of data-collecting devices was somewhat lim-
ited, no more than 17 participants using any one of the
activities. Lack of time and opportunity were reported as
influencing this finding. Most respondents indicated
strong interest and an intent to use the activities in
the future. Some preinterns reported feeling that the
activities did not apply to them; they wanted to work
with children in the classroom rather than collect data
for the interns.

21) Most participants chose not to share their
journals. Many chose not to keep journals.

22) Attendance at seminar averaged about 23 (of 26
or 29 possible). Preinterns attended more consistently
than interns.

23) Preinterns, with two exceptions, did spend at
least five hours per week in their classrooms.

24) Interest in The Teacher's I-View spread
through various means, mostly verbal.

25) The supervisors received numerous requests to
continue the program, and components of it are being in-
corporated into other teacher education programs.

Comparison with Findings and Recommendations
from the Literature

At the conclusion of Chapter III, the major find-
ings and recommendations from the literature reviewed
were summarized. This study is in general agreement
with those findings. For specific comparison, the find-
ings are repeated below, with a brief comment on each
concerning the findings of this study.

1) Early classroom experience seems to have a
positive effect on the attitudes of education students
toward concepts associated with teaching. This conclu-
sion is strongly supported by the findings of this
program.

2) Student teaching seems to be related to a pos-
itive change in the reported self-concept of teacher
trainees. Without stating that a change in self-concept
occurred, this study supports the contention that student
teaching seems to be related to more positive attitudes
on the part of student teachers toward selected concepts
related to themselves as teachers.

3) Self-assessment is more meaningful and growth-
producing than external assessment. Except for those
student teachers who resisted self-assessment, the student
teachers generally reported their efforts at self-assess-
ment to be highly meaningful.

4) A threatening environment hinders rather than enhances growth. Threat was considered by the supervisors to be antithetical to the program, and every effort was directed toward establishing a supportive environment. Thus this conclusion served as an underlying assumption and was not tested.

5) Objective, non-evaluative feedback is helpful to teachers who want to grow. Those interns who used feedback consistently reported it to be extremely helpful.

6) Teachers are more willing to attend to personal and professional growth if protected time is set aside for it. No protected time was available in this program, but it was suggested by the supervisors that future endeavors of similar programs include such time.

7) Supervision, as external evaluation and external assessment of teaching behaviors, is probably counterproductive. Like number 4 above, this conclusion was an underlying assumption of the program and therefore was not tested.

8) Supervision, viewed and practiced as teaching or facilitation, has a greater impact on the positive learning of supervisees than supervision viewed and practiced as assessment. The program was not compared with any other, therefore this conclusion was not tested, but rather served as an underlying assumption for the

program.

9) <u>The relationship between the supervisor and</u>
<u>supervisee is an important determinant of the assistance</u>
<u>the supervisor is able to provide.</u> Both the supervisors
and the preinterns (who served as non-judgmental peer
supervisors) reported a far greater capacity to provide
assistance to those interns with whom an open, honest
and caring relationship was established.

10) <u>Cooperative planning and open communication</u>
<u>are essential to a growth-producing relationship between</u>
<u>supervisor and supervisee.</u> All participants reported
concurrence with this conclusion.

11) <u>Facilitative supervisors are seen as real,</u>
<u>caring, supportive, encouraging of independence, inter-</u>
<u>ested in the perceptions of the supervisee, flexible,</u>
<u>acceptant, competent, and accurate in their perceptions.</u>
Interns who reported a high degree of satisfaction with
the help provided by their preintern partners and with
the supervision provided by the supervisors reported
seeing the above characteristics in the preinterns and
supervisors with whom they worked.

12) <u>Role-playing is an effective method of broad-</u>
<u>ening a learner's experiential base.</u> The large number
of respondents who mentioned the role-playing activities
as being highly significant supported this conclusion.

13) <u>Peer or colleagueal supervision is a promising</u> <u>avenue for investigation</u>. It is this author's opinion that this study barely scratched the surface of a highly promising research subject. The questions for further research offered in the following pages are merely suggestive; each reader is invited to add to them.

14) <u>Teachers and supervisors alike report a need</u> <u>for clearer role definitions for supervisors</u>. Although this study did not deal with this conclusion directly, it was apparent to the supervisors that many teachers would like clearer role definitions for supervisors, but also that no one role definition is likely to satisfy even a majority of teachers.

15) <u>Supervisors are overburdened, with neither</u> <u>the time nor the resources to serve teachers as both</u> <u>would like them to</u>. Although throughout this program the supervisors were hoping to develop a means of lessening the supervisors' burden, the program itself served to emphasize to them the demands of supervision. They concluded that increased time and resources would do much to help them better meet the needs of teachers, but that neither is likely to provide a panacea.

Questions for Further Research

At least the following questions could provide

avenues along which further research could be conducted:

1) What factors contribute to an individual's attitude toward himself as an evaluator? What effect does practical experience have on this attitude?

2) What effect does an emphasis on self-awareness have on prospective teachers? Are they likely to become more or less positive in their attitudes toward their own self-awareness?

3) What effect does practical experience have on the stated purposes of prospective teachers?

4) Would a pre-program experience in which dependent students were gradually eased into a program emphasizing self-assessment and self-direction better prepare reluctant and insecure students for a program such as the one described in this dissertation?

5) Are students who are faced with an insecure job future (such as existed in the spring of 1972) likely to want closer supervision and "answers" in an attempt to insure their own competence in a competitive field?

6) Would more extensive training in data-collection provide a stronger base for partner relationships?

7) Might interns better serve as partners for one another than the preintern and intern served together?

8) What effect would extensive use of video-tape have in supervisory program such as this one?

9) Could the supervisor team work effectively by providing different supervisory styles for different students?

10) Would sheltered time during the school day better facilitate effective working relationships between partners?

C H A P T E R   V I
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Objectives

Based on identified needs, three broad goals led
to the design and implementation of the program described
in this dissertation. These three goals were as follows:
1) to provide interns with consistent, non-judgmental
feedback concerning their teaching; 2) to provide pre-
interns with an in-depth, continuous classroom exper-
ience; and 3) to provide principals and teachers in co-
operating schools with an opportunity to know preinterns
over a significant period of time.

From these broad goals, thirteen specific objec-
tives were developed. They were not objectively
measured, but were evaluated rather in terms of the
supervisors' and participants' behaviors, beliefs and
responses. Following is a summary of the supervisors'
analysis, based upon their direct observation and upon
participant reports, of the degree of success with which
each was met.

1) To test the use of preinterns as nonevaluative
supervisors of interns. About one-third of the partner-
ships succeeded. Various circumstances, including lack
of time, lack of interest, lack of partner rapport, and

lack of opportunity contributed to the lack of success noted among the other two-thirds. Most apparent were interns who didn't want to work with preinterns in this way, and preinterns who chose to spend all their time working with children rather than collecting data for the interns. Data-collection was also voluntary, and although the supervisors felt (and thought they expressed) its importance, many participants didn't respond. The supervisors, in retrospect, felt they assumed too much. In future programs, it is recommended that participants be given extensive training in the use of data-collecting activities, and that all participants be voluntary.

Sheltered time during the school day should also be set aside for partner planning of data-collecting activities, and greater seminar emphasis could be placed on data-collection.

2) To increase the manageable load of university supervisors. Partnership arrangements seemed to the supervisors to fall into three general categories: those in which the partners worked together very well; those in which good relationships were established, but in which the preinterns didn't provide much in the way of help for the interns; and those in which the relationship between partners was less than satisfactory. The supervisors felt that in those cases in which the

partnership was functioning effectively a more humanistic
supervision was being provided without a decrease in the
supervisors' loads, for the preinterns were providing
support and encouragement as well as objective data. In
the remainder, however, the partnerships did little to
effect the traditional supervisor-supervisee relationship,
for they provided little beyond friendship (if that) for
the interns. It is again recommended that sheltered
time, preferably during the school day, be set aside for
partner interaction, and that preintern responsibilities
be more carefully described prior to the beginning of
the program.

3) To supplement traditional supervision by
university supervisors. In some cases, this objective
was highly successful. The supervisors felt that, if
the recommendations above were followed, so that interns
and preinterns had a clearer idea of their responsi-
bilities to each other, and if they then chose to work
together, the incidence of success would be much greater
than it was. The nine or ten partnerships in which
empathy, depth and continuity were provided encouraged
the supervisors that this objective is, indeed, a realistic
one.

4) To have interns evaluate themselves as teachers.
The supervisors felt that about half the interns were

willing and competent self-evaluators who used non-
evaluative feedback in constructive ways. About a fourth
of the interns tried, but felt extremely uncomfortable
and insecure in doing so, and the remaining one-fourth
resisted, some quite adamantly, all suggestions of self-
evaluation. It is recommended that individuals who want
extensive external evaluation be discouraged from partici-
pating in any future programs involving self-evaluation,
or that such individuals be given extensive assistance
in breaking away from the need for external evaluation
prior to their participation in the program.

5) To have interns improve their teaching behaviors.
Many did, and it was, in the judgment of the supervisors,
those who accepted nonjudgmental data collection, self-
evaluation, and self-contracts who improved most signif-
icantly. It is recommended that prospective participants
be both carefully screened to assure a desire for self-
evaluation, and carefully trained in the process of self-
analysis and goal-setting.

6) To have participants develop teaching attitudes
and behaviors consistent with one another. Most students
seemed to behave consistently with their expressed
attitudes, and although a range of attitudes and attend-
ant behaviors existed among the participants, the super-
visors felt successful in accepting all. One intern,

who expressed affection for children and a commitment to teaching, was seen by her colleagues as cold and uncaring, and was reported frequently late, absent, and unprepared. When confronted, in a permissive, acceptant way, with the dichotomy between what she said and what she did, her behavior began to change, though, of course, the supervisors could not determine the sincerity, consistency, or permanency of the apparent change.

7) To have interns focus on specific aspects of their teaching behavior. Through seminar activities, through use of the manual, through simply reading the manual, and through the questions and suggestions of the supervisors, most interns did focus to some extent on specific aspects of their teaching behavior. Many reported analyzing seating arrangements, classroom movement, questioning patterns, and successful and unsuccessful lessons. Most often, aspects selected for focus arose from problems encountered in the classroom.

8) To have participants seriously examine their attitudes, beliefs and values as they related to teaching. The supervisors felt that this objective was met with considerable success. Seminars were strongly based on the examination of teaching attitudes, beliefs and values, and the open letters and many personal reactions from participants attested to their success.

9) <u>To have participants become more aware of the</u>
<u>effect of their inner states on their behavior</u>. Because
many seminar activities and the personal contact of the
supervisors included an emphasis on participants' inner
states, the supervisors felt this objective to be success-
fully met in most instances. An important question
raised by it, however, involves the carry-over from the
seminar into the classroom. In this study, no attempt was
made to determine the degree to which participants
increased their awareness of their inner states outside
the seminar. One concept, MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF, was
included in the attitude inventory, and on it both interns
and preinterns scored slightly less positively on the
posttest, though not significantly so. Could they have
become more aware of their own depth, and thus felt less
aware of themselves than they had prior to self-exam-
ination?

10) <u>To have participants become more aware of the</u>
<u>classroom environment</u>. All aspects of the program were
directed toward this end, which the supervisors felt was
met most successfully.

11) <u>To have participants use perceptual methods to</u>
<u>detect classroom needs</u>. In those partnerships in which
a high degree of trust and responsibility existed, interns
learned a great deal from their preintern partners, who

could view the class from varying perspectives. Success ranged from highly successful to negligible. It is again recommended that adequate screening and training preclude future programs.

12) To provide an in-depth classroom experience for preinterns. Except for the one preintern who left the university for health reasons, all preinterns had rich classroom experiences; most became deeply involved with students, and a few interacted in significant ways with faculty members. The experiences, of course, were as varied as the individuals involved, but even those who went less than regularly reported significant experiences.

13) To have participants seriously examine their choice of teaching as a career. All participants had the opportunity and were encouraged to examine their choice of teaching as a career. Preinterns, especially, reported doing so. Through letters and personal responses, the supervisors were able to identify ten preinterns who made the decision to pursue a teaching career, two preinterns who decided, as a result of this experience, that teaching was not for them, one intern who decided that some other career would be more suitable, and two interns who were seriously questioning their career decisions. How many others either made decisions or were

questioning previously made decisions was not determined
(except in purely speculative ways). The supervisors
were satisfied with the degree of success attained. It
is important to note, of course, that the interns had
much stronger commitments to teaching, and were less free
to choose otherwise. The supervisors felt that the degree
of involvement on the part of preinterns emphasized the
importance of early classroom experience, especially in
light of the current oversupply of teachers.

Summary of Recommendations

1) A program emphasizing partnership assistance,
feedback, and nonevaluative peer supervision must be
completely voluntary.

2) Participants in such a program should be trained
in the gathering and use of non-evaluative data.

3) Participants in such a program need sheltered
time, preferable during the school day, to plan their
activities, share experiences, and try out new ideas
and behaviors in a non-threatening environment.

4) Continued emphasis on and assistance in data
collection and analysis is necessary, at least until
participants express confidence in the methods.

With these recommendations, the supervisors firmly
believe that a program like the one described in this
dissertation can be successful in meeting the needs of
interns for consistent, non-evaluative data, of pre-
interns for in-depth classroom experiences, and of
cooperating teachers and principals for significant
contact with prospective interns. In addition, it seems
feasible to adapt this program for use in in-service
programs of teacher education emphasizing self-evaluation
and peer supervision, and the supervisors recommend that
such be begun wherever interest exists. The successes
described in the previous pages can be enlarged upon.

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    Minneapolis, 1970.

THE TEACHER'S I-VIEW

A Handbook of Perceptual Methods
for Improving Teaching Behavior

by

Richard L. Curwin
Barbara S. Fuhrmann

CONTENTS

MIKE CARREL ALWAYS WORE

his pants almost to his neck
and one time virgil phillips sucked
all the ink out of a pen
into his mouth
mrs beavers wouldn't let me
carve in wax in art
cause i told her i could do it real good'
i was fibbing at the time
but she said "if you already know how,
we'll let you work in clay"
boy did i ever hate clay
and phil mcdaniels fell down at recess
and cut his bottom
but he was embarrassed to have mrs rogers
look at it or fix it but he was really bleeding
so she let a 6th grader fix it
he was red all day and i don't mean his bottom
either
miss crawford told us every day how
smart she was and
how her oboe would fit in her underarm
but we all liked singing better
mrs harod who really rode a wagon in the
land run
would drink cough syrup right out of the bottle
and by last period
she would sure act silly
once she asked us to learn limericks
for the next day
and ole virgil phillips
learned the dirtiest one
i'd ever heard and
mrs harod got choked and nearly
passed on right then
mean old miss habor hit bucky one time
so hard he fell outa his chair
and it was scotty who was talking
mike morris told dirty jokes at recess
ole mike was really popular
i'd laugh and laugh
but i didn't really understand
i wanted to ask somebody but i was afraid
one time there was this word on the sidewalk
and bucky pretended he didn't know it
so i sounded it out
and it was nasty
and everybody laughed
but when mrs matheson
would read to us
about holland
i'd think about holland and
be real happy
and 4th grade sure went fast

Kevin Bales, Mad, Sad and Glad,
Scholastic Book Services, New
York, 1970, pp. 9-10.

What I see is clearly affected by my values and prejudices
and biases. I see bureaucratic waste and inefficiency; I
see underdogs; I see dangerous reactionism, where other men
might see a tight administrative ship, inferior social
classes, and endurance of the good old ways. Sometimes I
do not see anything intelligible because so much goes by
so fast. At other times, I fail to see enough because I
have only looked for things at which I had some prior in-
tention to look. Often, my perceptual distortions arise
from my tendencies to understand events as I have under-
stood events previously. I fit new things into old pat-
terns, even when the fits are poor. I frequently fuse
inferences with perceptions and believe that I have seen
things that are invisible, for example, that people like
or don't like me. I even think I see invisible relationships,
such as in cause-and-effect, and even more often I see
"effects" for which I imagine erroneous causes. Whatever
I see as figure, I have made figure. To have shifted my
gaze thirty degrees would have generated different figures
in different grounds.

Robert Goldhammer, Clinical
Supervision, Holt, Rinehart
and Winston, Inc., New York,
1969, p. 290.

WHY THE TEACHER'S I-VIEW?

I remember clearly the first time my supervisor visited me when I was student-teaching. With no advance notice she came into my room, sat for about twenty minutes, and left. After the class was over, I caught her getting ready to leave the building, and while buttoning her coat with one hand and opening the door with the other, she turned to me and said, "It was kind of noisy in there." It was her only visit.

My first year's teaching assignment was a class of troubled students, ten junior-high aged boys with emotional problems in a self-contained classroom. My principal, who was responsible for evaluating teachers, must have been afraid of my room, for he never came in, except once or twice to call me out into the hall for a brief conference. Nevertheless, in April he had a full evaluation of my teaching, I presume from information gathered passing my room, from nearby teachers, and from the number of times my students got into trouble. He was concerned that my class was too noisy.

Both student-teaching and my first year of experience were full of confusions, decisions, uncertainty, and a real need to understand what I was doing and what effect I was having. Aside from the obvious lack of information my supervisor and principal had, my major concern over their evaluations of me resulted from them judging me as a performer instead of helping me become aware of myself as a teacher.

How can an individual learn to be an effective teacher?
Phenomenological psychologists say that every person acts in
his own best interests based on the information he has. Assuming
that teachers want to be more effective and useful, this view
has two implications. First: teachers need more accurate infor-
mation about their classrooms. Second: they need to know how
to process that information once they have it. These two impli-
cations are the basis for this manual. We intend to provide you
with some ways to accumulate information about yourself as a
teacher, and ways to use that information to become the kind of
teacher you want to be.

Being told that my class was too noisy gave me some data, but
it was mostly an inference, a judgment, rather than a fact; thus
it was of no use to me. If, for example, I was teaching shouting,
what sense could I make from that observation? The kind of infor-
mation that would help would be non-judgmental. If I were told
that the noise level in my class was 40 decibels, I then could
see what that meant in terms of my goals for the class. If my
shouting lesson was designed to reach 50 decibels, I would judge
myself and the class too quiet rather than too noisy. Many of
the exercises in this manual provide means of collecting non-
evaluative data concerning classroom phenomena. Interpretation
of that data is your responsibility.

In order for you to make sense of the information you collect,
you need a frame of reference, which is provided by your assump-
tions, beliefs, values and goals concerning teaching. Looking at
what you are doing in the classroom becomes increasingly useful

as you become increasingly clear as to what you want to accomplish. Thus many of the activities in this manual (Section I especially) are devoted to helping you clarify your values, beliefs and goals. As long as you teach, this is one of your most important responsibilities. Once a teacher begins to blindly accept or ignore these issues, he becomes merely a child-clerk and curriculum-secretary.

By working to clarify these attitudes and by collecting information from your classroom, you can become a micro-self-researcher, a self-scientist looking at your goals and your effect, and learning skills of self-assessment. We encourage you to make this process a part of your everyday teaching experience, to use a daily journal to record your experiences, and to use your discoveries to grow as a teacher and as a person.

The activities in this manual are intended to help teachers become more effective. The ground rules are to expose rather than impose, to clarify rather than manipulate, and to provide perceptions that are not blinded by prejudices. It is important that the activities not be used only as games or as short-cuts to meaningful involvement. Though often fun, they are only the beginning of the real work, not the end. And if you are told that your classroom is too noisy, you can ask, "How do you know?" *

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* The authors are indebted to Sidney B. Simon and Gerald Weinstein of the Center for Humanistic Education at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, from whom they learned many techniques that were adapted for this manual, and to Patrick Sullivan of the University of Massachusetts for his assistance and guidance.

I. I View My Attitudes

Attitudes influence behavior. When I feel good about myself and the situation I am in, I act in a manner that reflects my positive attitude; conversely, when I feel cynical, or depressed, or just tired, that attitude too is reflected in my behavior. Literally every activity in which I engage, from the way I walk to the way in which I respond to a student's look or question, is intimately related to how I see myself and my environment. The exercises in this section are therefore designed to help you look closely and carefully at your attitudes, especially as they relate to your life as a teacher.

We offer you an opportunity to examine yourself -- your feelings, attitudes, beliefs and behaviors. At times, you may find a conflict between a belief you hold and past action concerning that belief. In discovering such a conflict, you will be uncomfortable, for you will be living with dissonance. What you do about that dissonance, however, is up to you--alone. You can try to ignore it, or rationalize it away, or project it onto others. Or you can use it creatively--by recognizing it, accepting it as an area of your life that needs attention, and adopting a plan of action to bring your behavior and attitudes more in line.

You will note that the exercises in Section I can be done alone, with a friend, or in a group, however is most appropriate for you. But always remember that you have the right of privacy. Therefore, if working in a group, anyone may pass at anytime.

These exercises are intended to be personally involving. Take your time with them, use them meaningfully, and enjoy them.

ISSUE RESPONSE

On the following pages are quotations, taken from various sources, that deal with very real issues in teaching.

Read each quotation. Then respond, spontaneously and honestly and in writing, to the questions that follow. Don't discuss your responses before writing them; just let yourself go without worrying about either sentence structure or what someone else might think.

You may, of course, discuss these issues after you have responded. Remember only that there are no right answers.

The tyranny of the lesson plan in turn encourages an obsession
with routine for the sake of routine. School is filled with
countless examples of teachers and administrators confusing
means with ends, thereby making it impossible to reach the
end for which the means were devised.

Charles Silberman, <u>Crisis</u>
<u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>Classroom</u>, p. 125.

1. How can lesson plans hinder you (be specific)?

2. How can lesson plans serve you (be specific)?

From an interview conducted by
James Michener near the Kent
State campus:

<u>Mother</u>: Anyone who appears on the streets of a city like Kent
    with long hair, dirty clothes or bare feet deserves to be
    shot...it would have been a lot better if the guards had
    shot the whole lot of them.

<u>Michener</u>: But you had three sons there.

<u>Mother</u>: If they didn't do what the guards told them they should
    have been mowed down.

<u>Professor of psychology</u>: Is long hair a justification for shooting
    someone?

<u>Mother</u>: Yes. We have got to clean this nation up. And we'll
    start with the long-hairs.

<u>Professor</u>: Would you permit one of your sons to be shot simply
    because he went barefoot?

<u>Mother</u>: Yes.

<u>Professor</u>: Where do you get such ideas?

<u>Mother</u>: I teach at the local high school.

<u>Professor</u>: Do you mean that you are teaching your students such
    things?

<u>Mother</u>: Yes. I teach them the truth. That the lazy, the dirty,
    the ones you see walking the streets and doing nothing ought
    all to be shot.

<u>You</u>:

<u>Mother</u>:

<u>You</u>:

<u>Mother</u>:

<u>You</u>:

<u>Mother</u>:

<u>You</u>:

(continue as long as you choose)

Yet freedom was the issue then, and still is. In some cities, they
cane students into submission; in many places, they slap, shake,
and shove them. In many more, teachers subdue kids with threats,
sarcasm, and ridicule. Like beatings with a blackjack, these
techniques crush but leave no marks the eye can see.

Terry Borton, Reach, Touch
and Teach, pp. 151-152.

1. Recall briefly a situation in which you were ridiculed.

2. What effect did the ridicule have on you?

3. Describe three techniques that"crush but leave no marks the
   eye can see."

4. Cite any situations in which ridicule could be positive.

5. What will you do to support your view on this issue? Be specific.

A vocation is an act of love; it is not a professional career.
When desire is dead, one cannot continue to make love. I've come
to the end of desire and to the end of a vocation. Don't try to
bind me in a loveless marriage and to make me imitate what I
used to perform with passion. And don't talk to me like a priest
about my duty. A talent -- we used to learn that lesson as
children in scripture lessons -- should not be buried when it
still has purchasing power, but when the currency has changed
and the image has been superseded and no value is left in the
coin but the weight of a wafer of silver, a man has every right
to hide it. Obsolete coins, like corn, have always been found
in graves.

Graham Greene

1. Identify an obsolete coin from your past experiences.

2. Name some teachers that you know for whom teaching has become
   an obsolete coin. Comment on the effectiveness of each as
   a teacher.

3. How will you know if teaching becomes an obsolete coin for you?

4. What will you do if it does?

School teaches us that instruction produces learning. The existence of schools produces the demand for schooling. Once we have learned to need school, all our activities tend to take the shape of client relationships to other specialized institutions. Once the self-taught man or woman has been discredited, all non-professional activity is rendered suspect. In school we are taught that valuable learning is the result of attendance; that the value of learning increases with the amount of input; and finally, that this value can be measured and documented by grades and certificates.

In fact, learning is the human activity which least needs manipulation by others. Most learning is not the result of instruction. It is rather the result of unhampered participation in a meaningful setting....

The discovery that most learning requires no teaching can be neither manipulated nor planned. Each of us is responsible for his or her own deschooling, and only we have the power to do it.

Ivan Illich

1. Jot down your immediate reaction to this statement.

2. Underline the thoughts with which you agree. Circle those with which you disagree.

3. What implications do your reactions to Illich's statement have for your teaching?

Once upon a time on Tralfamadore there were creatures who weren't anything like machines. They weren't dependable. They weren't efficient. They weren't predictable. They weren't durable. And these poor creatures were obsessed by the idea that everything that existed had to have a purpose, and that some purposes were higher than others.

These creatures spent most of their time trying to find out what their purpose was. And every time they found out what seemed to be a purpose of themselves, the purpose seemed so low that the creatures were filled with disgust and shame.

And, rather than serve such a low purpose, the creatures would make a machine to serve it. This left the creatures to serve higher purposes. But whenever they found a higher purpose, the purpose still wasn't high enough.

So the machines were made to serve higher purposes too.

And the machines did everything so expertly that they were finally given the job of finding out what the highest purpose of the creatures could be.

The machines reported in all honesty that the creatures couldn't really be said to have any purpose at all.

The creatures thereupon began slaying each other, because they hated purposeless things above all else.

And they discovered that they weren't even very good at slaying. So they turned that job over to the machines, too. And the machines finished up the job in less time than it takes to say, "Tralfamadore."

Kurt Vonnegut, Jr.
The Sirens of Titan, pp. 274-275.

1. What does the story of Tralfamadore say to you?

2. What is Vonnegut saying about purposes? Do you agree?

3. What does this mean in terms of your purposes for teaching?

What the pupil is going to learn is to him far away in time
and entirely mysterious. All he knows is what he has been
taught, and he only remembers part of that, often in an isolated
fashion. Why he is made to learn this and not that, or this
before that, is another mystery to him; nor does he know what
the alternative choices might be. Since little of what he is asked
to learn makes much sense to him, except perhaps the more visible
skills of reading, writing, and computation, he rarely asks
why he has been asked to learn them. He also senses that he
is going to be taught whatever the teacher has decided she is
going to teach, so the question is useless.

<div align="right">Mary Alice White,"The View
from the Pupil's Desk"</div>

1. How accurately does this statement reflect your experiences
   as a student?

2. Cite incidents from your background which either prove or
   disprove it for you.

3. What implications do your answers to the above questions
   have for your teaching?

Most schools in practice define education as something teachers do to or for students, not something students do to and for themselves, with a teacher's assistance.

Charles Silberman, <u>Crisis in the Classroom</u>, p. 135.

1. How much of the real learning in your life depended on a teacher?

2. Based on your experiences in classrooms, is Silberman accurate?

3. Defend your position.

4. How can you make your beliefs concerning this issue obvious in your behavior as a teacher?

A grade (is)...an inadequate report of an inaccurate judgment
by a biased and variable judge of the extent to which a student
has attained an undefined level of mastery of an unknown proportion
of an indefinite amount of material.

Paul Dressel, Basic College
Quarterly

1. Jot down your immediate reaction to this statement.

2. Are you in emphatic agreement or disagreement with anything
   in the statement? What?

3. Write a statement that positively states your position on
   the issue.

4. What have you done that demonstrates your position?

5. What will you do?

17

...a twenty-four year old -teacher, has been dismissed from a Philadelphia elementary school for conducting a "sensitivity session" on obscenities in his fourth grade class. School officials said he had his students write on cards the first obscene word that came to their minds, then exchange the cards and whisper the words to their classmates.

The Boston <u>Globe</u>

1. Write your immediate reactions to this news item.

2. Would you hire this teacher? Would you have fired him?

3. Imagine yourself a student in the class. How would you have reacted to the assignment?

4. Write a statement concerning your position on the issue.

5. Rewrite the article imagining that you were the teacher... using the offense that you might be fired for.

THERE AND THEN

Effective, helpful teachers are able to understand and empathize with their students. It is therefore important for each of us to periodically step back in time to re-examine our own days in school, to recall the significant concerns we had as students.

In each of the four quadrants of the circle on the worksheet on the next page, write a word or short phrase about something important you recall from your days as a student--at the age of your present students. If you teach young children, fantasize your own early elementary years. Get in touch with being a child again, and respond accordingly. If you teach older children, remember what it was like when you were their age.

Then, beneath your There and Then Wheel, finish the sentence beginning "School for me was...," using each word or phrase in the wheel, but expanding each to explain in one detailed paragraph what your experience was like. When you have finished answer the following:

What kinds of things do you recall most readily? Are they concerned with subject matter? with learning? with attitudes and feelings? with peers? with social life?

Do you see any patterns in your responses?

How do you think your students would respond to this exercise, done in the present with their present concerns?

What implications does this exercise have for your teaching?
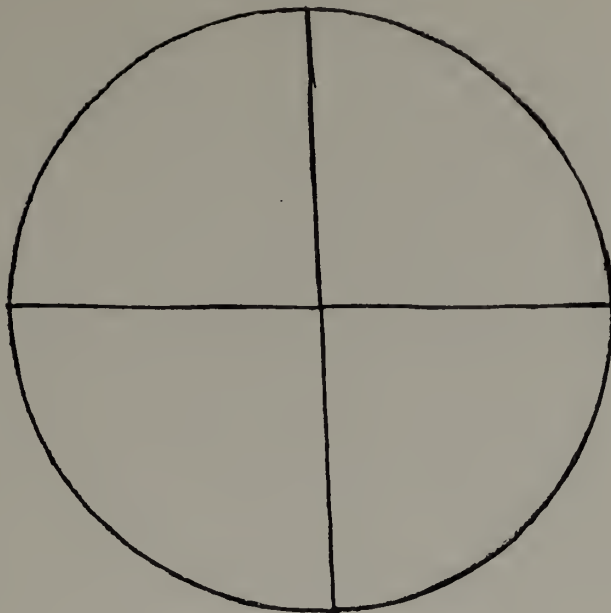
THERE AND THEN WHEEL

School for me was...

TWENTY THINGS YOU DID...

This exercise provides you with another opportunity to step back into your school days and relive your experiences as a child. Imagine yourself back in school at the age of your students, in the class that was most like that you are now or will be teaching-- elementary reading, fourth grade, junior-high social studies, high- school science--whatever is appropriate for you. Think about all the things you did in that class.

On the worksheet on the next page, list twenty things you did-- wrote book reports, memorized the multiplication tables--whatever comes to mind as you recall your experiences in that class. Then read the codes across the top of the worksheet, and check in the box under code that describes each activity.

When you have finished, examine your list to see if you can discover something that may influence your teaching. In your journal, finish the sentence "I discovered that I...(or learned or noticed that I)" in as many different ways as you can.

WORKSHEET   TWENTY THINGS YOU DID...

Row labels (rotated):
- Aim teaching:
- Was helpf...
- Totally teach...
- Boring
- Exciting
- Short-term...
- Long-term p...
- Required ima...
- Involved rote
- Needed other
- Did activity a...
- Disliked activi...
- Enjoyed activi...

Column numbers: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20.

ARE YOU SOMEONE WHO...

On the following pages you will find two worksheets designed
to help you take a look at yourself. One worksheet asks you to
examine your attitudes and practices concerning the issue of
testing and grading, the other concerning the issue of classroom
management. Next to each statement, check under YES if it applies
to you, under NO if it does not. Be honest. If you are unsure
about an answer, think about how you typically behave or would
behave. Of course, you may always choose to pass.

Once you have completed the questions on a worksheet, review
them and circle at least ten which are the most meaningful for you.
They might be the ones to which you reacted most strongly, or the
ones which were the most difficult for you, or the ones that speak
most consistently with how you feel about the issue. In your
journal, write a positive value statement for each circled response
by completing the sentence beginning "I value...." Your value
statements should be consistent with your behaviors in the classroom
concerning the issues involved. If there are inconsistencies, you
might want to try writing a different value statement, or you may
wish to consider changing your behavior.

WORKSHEET   ARE YOU SOMEONE WHO... Testing and Grading

YES	NO	PASS	

Are you someone who...

believes IQ should be a factor in deciding a student's grade?
gives a lot of weight to final exams?
believes effort should contribute to a student's grade?
gives one major test each marking period?
considers a student's popularity in deciding his grade?
considers class participation in giving grades?
considers your feelings for a student in assigning a grade?
gives better grades to students who conform to your wishes?
discourages students from taking issue with you?
grades on a standard grading curve?
would grade creative writing?
would emphasize grammar more than content in student work?
never gives many A's ?
never gives many F's ?
believes that threatening quizes will encourage students to
    do homework ?
believes tests should be mostly subjective?
believes tests should be mostly objective?
would emphasize content more than style or grammar?
takes off for spelling errors?
adds points for perfect spelling?
gives surprise quizes?
considers a paper's neatness in assigning it a grade?
considers a low grade an incentive to try harder?
lets other teacher's opinions influence your grading?
considers a high grade an incentive to try harder?
thanks students for doing excellent work?
posts or announces all grades?
keeps all grades secret until the end of the term?
drops a student's grade for tardiness?
negotiates a student's grade with him?
allows students to contract for grades?
is considered an easy marker?
is considered a tough marker?
generally gives tests on Fridays?
assigns homework over vacations?
considers poor performance your responsibility?
uses tests diagnostically?
would fight standard grading procedures?
tries to find acceptable alternatives to current grading
    practices?
sends progress reports to parents of students doing poorly?
sends progress reports to parents of all students?
worries about students cheating?
makes make-up tests more difficult than originals?
allows students to grade themselves?
allows students to grade one another?
believes that boys and girls should be graded differently?

WORKSHEET

Are you someone who...

YES	NO	PASS	
___	___	___	insists that desks be arranged in neat rows?
___	___	___	encourages students to speak without raising hands?
___	___	___	is comfortable being called by your first name?
___	___	___	requires a standard format for papers being turned in?
___	___	___	does your own bulletin boards?
___	___	___	generally follows your lesson plans?
___	___	___	lets students go to bathroom at any time?
___	___	___	allows gum chewing?
___	___	___	allows students to sit where they please?
___	___	___	sticks to a seating chart?
___	___	___	threatens to send students to the office?
___	___	___	contacts parents frequently?
___	___	___	does not tolerate swearing in class?
___	___	___	enforces quiet during study periods?
___	___	___	allows students to eat in class?
___	___	___	allows card playing during free time?
___	___	___	uses a lectern?
___	___	___	sits on the floor?
___	___	___	allows students to sit on the floor?
___	___	___	allows students to remove their shoes in class?
___	___	___	believes in student dress codes?
___	___	___	believes in teacher dress codes?
___	___	___	students would consider traditional?
___	___	___	your principal would consider traditional?
___	___	___	encourages self-directed activity?
___	___	___	gives students opportunity to make classroom decisions?
___	___	___	is willing to depart from lesson plan?
___	___	___	gives detention?
___	___	___	finds it easy to relate to students?
___	___	___	discloses yourself to your students?
___	___	___	sometimes is frightened by student questions?
___	___	___	finds it difficult to say "I don't know"?
___	___	___	invites feedback about your teaching from students?
___	___	___	might be asked to keep your students quieter?
___	___	___	runs a teacher-centered class?
___	___	___	students ask to chaperone parties?
___	___	___	is likely to advise student groups?
___	___	___	sets a relaxed atmosphere in the class?
___	___	___	jokes in class?
___	___	___	acts differently with students outside of class?
___	___	___	sits on the desk?
___	___	___	doesn't have a desk?
___	___	___	is comfortable co-teaching?
___	___	___	sends students to see the counselor when they misbehave?
___	___	___	reads student records from guidance office?
___	___	___	carefully checks attendance?
___	___	___	punishes tardiness?
___	___	___	lets students take advantage of you?
___	___	___	expects respect from students?
___	___	___	thinks you have better answers than students?
___	___	___	tries to be a friend to your students?

CLARIFYING RESPONSES

All too seldom do we teachers stimulate the young people with whom we work to examine and clarify their values--to consider their thinking or behavior in terms of its significance for them. When a student tells us "I'm going to visit my cousins this weekend," how many of us are likely to respond "Good" or "Have fun"? Though certainly friendly, such responses don't stimulate thought. But what might be stimulated if you would respond with "Oh, and are you pleased about the visit?" If the student is pleased, he will have considered his anticipation, and if he is not, he will have confronted his preferences. And what if then he responds by saying "No, I'd rather go to the big game at West on Saturday."? Even if you do no more than nod to acknowledge that you heard, the student will at least have made contact with his preferences and become just slightly more aware of his life.

Responses which stimulate others to think about their choices and actions are called Clarifying Responses (See Values and Teaching, by Raths, Simon and Harmin). They encourage others to examine their lives and ideas, and are characterized by the following:

1)They are non-evaluative;

2)They place responsibility for his life on the individual;

3)They are permissive; they have no right or wrong answers;

4)They are only small stimuli, not major decision-making strategies;

5)They are personal, individually directed;

6)They are used to help individuals clarify some of the confusion of their lives.

Below are thirty clarifying responses from <u>Values</u> <u>and</u> <u>Teaching</u>.
You can add many more.

1) Is this something you prize?

2) Are you glad about that?

3) How did you feel when that happened?

4) Did you consider any alternatives?

5) Have you felt this way for a long time?

6) Was that something that you yourself selected or chose?

7) Did you <u>have</u> to choose that; was it a free choice?

8) Do you <u>do</u> anything about that idea?

9) Can you give me some examples of that idea?

10) What do you mean by_____:can you define that word?

11) Where would that idea lead; what would be its consequences?

12) Would you really <u>do</u> that or are you just talking?

13) Are you saying that....(repeat)?

14) Did you say that...(repeat in some distorted way)?

15) Have you thought much about that idea (or behavior)?

16) What are some good things about that notion?

17) What do we have to assume for things to work out that way?

18) Is what you express consistent with...(note something the person
   said or did that may point to an inconsistency)?

19) What other possibilities are there?

20) Is that a personal preference or do you think most people should
   believe that?

21) How can I help you do something about your idea? What seems to
   be the difficulty?

22) Is there a purpose back of this activity?

23) Is that very important to you?

24) Do you do this often?

25) Would you like to tell others about your idea?

26) Do you have any reasons for (saying or doing) that?

27) Would you do the same thing over again?

28) How do you know it's right?

29) Do you value that?

30) Do you think people will always believe that? Or, "Would Chinese peasants and African hunters also believe that?" Or, "Did people long ago believe that?"

Practice using clarifying responses with a friend or friends. Each of you take turns being "teacher;" the others role-play students in various situations. The "teacher" is to respond to students in clarifying ways.

Below are a few situations with which to begin. Remember, the point is simply to raise an issue and leave it hanging—for the student to deal with.

1) A student states that he is going to try out for the lead in the school play.

2) A student tells you that English is his favorite subject.

3) A student tells you that her grandmother is coming to live with her.

4) A student asks to do "extra-credit" in your class.

In your own classroom, you might begin stimulating clarifying thought among your students by making at least two clarifying responses to students each day. As soon after using a clarifying

response as you can, record it in your journal. Later, review the clarifying responses you have made; recall the situation and note the effect of the response.

Clarifying responses are, of course, not appropriate in every situation--only when you want to encourage a student to examine his thoughts and behaviors. Their effect may not be noticeable each time, but the cumulative effect can be significant.

VALUES IN THE CLASSROOM

Below are twelve qualities that might be displayed in various
ways in a classroom. In your ideal classroom, how would you
rank them? Place a 1 next to the quality you most value in
a classroom, a 2 next to the second most important, and so on
through 12, which will represent the quality you value least
in relation to the others. When you have finished, compare your
ranking with the rankings of others. How do your individual
ideal classrooms differ? In actual practice, are your values
evident in your classroom? What is something specific that you can
do to improve the atmosphere of your classroom so that it more
nearly approximates your ideal?

_____ Freedom

_____ Self-direction

_____ Quiet

_____ Laughter

_____ Concentration

_____ Purposefulness

_____ Orderliness

_____ Creativity

_____ Respect

_____ Equality

_____ Fairness

_____ Love

SIGNIFICANT OTHERS

The needs, desires and demands of other people often in-
fluence our behavior and attitudes in both overt and subtle ways.
Becoming aware of those needs, desires and demands often helps
us to sort out which are truly of concern and which we might
prefer to ignore or dispose of.

On the worksheet following, you see a circle surrounded
by six boxes. Label the circle ME to represent you. Then label
each of the six boxes with the name or initials of someone impor-
tant to you: the most important person in your life right now;
your principal; two important colleagues; your most troublesome
student; your most rewarding student; another important individual
in your school.

Now, as you picture each of these significant people, think
of something that person wants _for_ or _from_ you, and write that
need in or near his/her box. When you have identified the six
needs, examine each again, and if you want the same thing for or
from yourself, draw a line connecting that person and his/her
need with ME in the center.

You now have a constellation of demands on you, including
your responses to them. What does it mean to you? Are you sat-
isfied with your relationships? How do the needs of others influ-
ence your behavior as a teacher? What would you like to change?
What can you _do_ to change it?

At the bottom of the worksheet, write anything significant
for you concerning this exercise.

WORKSHEET   SIGNIFICANT OTHERS
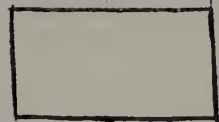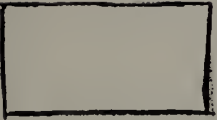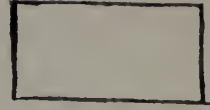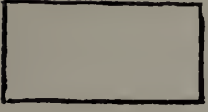
WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF...

Every day you face situations for which there are no "right"
solutions, yet, as the teacher, you often must make important
decisions, decisions which have serious implications both for
you and for your students. On the worksheet on the following
page you will find a number of hypothetical situations. For
each, think of as many possible solutions as you can. Brain-
storm solutions with friends. Ask colleagues what they would
do. Consider any approaches that make sense. Then decide, for
now at least, what _you_ would do, and jot down what seems best
to you.

Keep the list of situations in your journal, and as you meet
new problems that have no pat solutions, add them to your list.

WORKSHEET   WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF...

What would you do if...

1) your best student has become erratic, and you suspect a
   problem at home.

2) a troublesome student stops coming to school.

3) you must teach a lesson required by the department, but both
   you and the students think it a waste of time.

4) your class is filled with tension due to conflict between
   two groups of students.

5) you suspect that the teacher in the next room, who is openly
   hostile to you, is spying on you.

6) you find yourself getting bored.

7) two attention-seekers in your class are continually disrupting
   the lesson.

8) you overhear two students saying you are unfair.

9) you suddenly find out that you are going to be evaluated today,
   and you have promised the students an activity which you know
   the observer disapproves.

10) you are very unsure about whether you should continue teaching.

11) (your own)...

LOOKING BACK

This simple exercise is intended to help you consider how you want to use the valuable time your students are entrusting to your care.

Imagine yourself back in the grade or class that you are now teaching. Try to recall what you did, how you felt, and what you thought. Then, as honestly and accurately as possible, list all the things you learned in that grade or class that are helpful to you in life--any situation outside school. Add up the number of hours you spent in that grade or subject. Compare your learnings with the time you spent. Was it a bargain? Or were you taken? Or something in between?

How many hours of each of your student's time will you have this year? (Actually figure this in hours.) Based on your examination of how your time was spent in school, what can you do to insure that your students' time is well spent? In your journal, list as many things as you can that you can do to make their hours worthwhile.

CREATIVE LISTENING

Misunderstanding and frustration often result not from a conflict of ideas, but rather from a breakdown of communication, which itself is usually the result of inattentive, insensitive listening. When we fail to listen, we frequently misread what is being said, and project totally inaccurate meanings onto what the other person intends.

It is especially important, of course, for teachers to hear their students with sensitivity and accuracy, for often a child will simply give up if not understood immediately. To listen well, you must be able to concentrate and to empathize with the speaker—to see the world as he sees it and respond accordingly. To do this, you must also be able to suspend your own value judgments so that you do not impose them on the speaker. To demonstrate to yourself how difficult truly creative listening is, try the following exercise with two or more other persons. Select one person to act as process observer; the rest of you will be discussants.

Discussants should select a topic of mutual interest, but concerning which you have varying opinions—grading, or tracking, or a new curricular approach—any value-laden issue. One of you can then begin by stating your views on the subject. Each of you will have an opportunity to state your ideas, to argue or refute, but before doing so you must first restate what the last speaker has said to his satisfaction. The process observer's job is to see that this is done.

The process includes the following steps:

1) Speaker 1 states his position.

2) Speaker 2 listens attentively, trying to understand Speaker 1's position. Then he rephrases Speaker 1's position.

3) Speaker 1 acknowledges that Speaker 2 understands him, or he indicates that Speaker 2 apparently has not understood and attempts to clarify.

4) Speaker 2 either tries again, or, if his analysis of Speaker 1's position was accepted, goes on to state his own position.

5) The process continues.

Creative listening is not easy, but it is a highly productive process. When you feel relatively confident that you can both listen creatively and adequately monitor a creative listening exercise, try this with your students. Adopting a habit of creative listening-- responding by restating, to the satisfaction of the sender, what the sender has said--can be an important avenue by which real, open and honest communication can be facilitated.

PERCEPTION CHARADES

Becoming aware of how others interpret our behavior can significantly influence both the ways in which we view ourselves and the manner in which we respond to other people. Teachers, especially, need to be acutely aware of the perceptions their students have of them, for we can hardly act effectively if our intentions are not clear.

In the following exercise you will have an opportunity to receive some feedback on how your nonverbal behavior might look to others, and to share with others your perceptions of their behavior.

In a group of six to ten persons, individually list ten or more characteristics that you can see a good teacher displaying in the classroon. When everyone has a list, select one item from your list to act out, without talking or writing, in front of the group. After two or three minutes, let the other members of the group give you feedback on what they say. For example, an individual may have acted out "friendliness," yet some members of the group may have perceived excitement, or nervousness, or a patronizing attitude.

After everyone has had a turn, discuss what happened with a focus on its implications for you as a teacher.

THE EPITOME

Collaborate with three to six other persons to draw (prefer-
ably on newsprint with felt pens or crayons) what for you repre-
sents the epitome of good teaching--the "ideal" teacher. You may
draw anything upon which you can agree, but every member of the
group must agree on every aspect of the drawing. You may use words
only as necessary in the representation, not as descriptors of the
ideal. Every member of the group should contribute in some way
to the drawing.

Then, on another paper, draw what for you represents the
epitome of bad teaching, following the same guidelines as before.
If your group wishes, you may reverse the order of the drawings.

When both drawings are finished, discuss with your group the
implications these drawings have for your teaching, and make note
of them in your journal.

FORCED CHOICE: WHOM WOULD YOU HIRE?

Imagine that you are an elementary administrator with responsibility for hiring new teachers. You have four positions open in grades 1-4 and eight applicants from whom to choose. You have interviewed all eight, each of whom impressed you favorably. Read through the brief descriptions below, and select the four you would hire. (Admittedly, these sketches may be briefer than you would have in reality, but no matter how much material you have, it would undoubtedly never be enough. Do your best with what you have.)

When you have selected four, collaborate with others (three to six others in a group is preferable) as a selection committee, and arrive at a consensus of opinion regarding the four candidates upon whom you all can agree. Do your best to arrive at a consensus; a simple majority vote is not sufficient.

Candidate 1: 40 year-old female, single, lives alone. Traditional background and philosophy. Highly creative, very warm, Eighteen years' experience.

Candidate 2: 20 year-old male, single, leader of local Black-power group. The only non-Caucasian that applied. Near-genius, excellent recommendations, no experience.

Candidate 3: 35 year-old male, married, father of six. Good reputation and credentials, interested in Cub Scouts. Ten years' experience.

Candidate 4: 40 year-old male, single, living with aged parents. Extensive experience as local businessman before returning to college for credentials. Two years' experience.

Candidate 5: 26 year-old female, divorced, supporting self and two small babies alone. Excellent recommendations. Three years' experience.

Candidate 6: 60 year-old male, highly respected ex-minister who left pulpit to spend full-time with children. No credentials.

Candidate 7: 58 year-old female, widowed. Excellent recommendations. Twenty-five years' noteworthy experience.

Candidate 8: 21 year-old female, single, living openly with man in community. Highest recommendations. Voluntarily tutored all four years in college, including full-time in the summers. No other experience.

After you have selected your new teachers, answer the following questions, both individually and as a group:

1) What qualities or characteristics in elementary teachers do you value most highly?

2) What qualities or values have little or no relevance for you?

3) Would your choices have been different for high-school teachers? How?

4) Were you protecting anything in yourself in the choices you made? If so, what? Do you want to continue protecting that?

5) How would you have fared if in your committee you had been one of the candidates? (Refer to Job Application exercise, page 98 . If your group wishes, you may use these in a similar manner.)

ANALYSIS OF GROUP PROCESS

After working in a small group for a while, each partici-
pant develops his own unique perceptions of that group, and
although the group may feel very close, it is often surprising
to discover how differently it is seen by different individuals.

To illustrate, each of you in the group can share your per-
ceptions of the group as a whole by drawing your impressions of
the group's functioning up to now. (Newsprint and felt-pens or
crayons are ideal.) Be as realistic or as abstract as you wish,
but be prepared to explain your drawing to the other members of
the group.

When the group feels that it understands each individual
drawing, answer the following questions:

1) As a whole, what do the drawings indicate about the group?
List five or six adjectives that you all agree describe the func-
tioning of your group.

2) What major differences in perception became apparent as the
drawings were discussed? Do these differences say anything signif-
icant about the individuals who drew them?

3) What does your group need to work on? Make a contract with
each other concerning something you will do to improve your group
process.

You might conclude this exercise by making another drawing of
your group, this time as a group, to represent a composite of per-
ceptions, including the process you have agreed to work toward
improving.

CLASSROOM PERCEPTIONS

Drawings like that explained on the preceding page can also be used to increase awareness of and to share individual perceptions of clasroom behavior.

Begin by drawing your impressions of the functioning of your classroom. Also have an observer who is familiar with the environment draw his impressions of the classroom, and, if you wish, ask students to draw theirs. In small groups, discuss the drawings if a number of individuals experienced the same situation, and have each group draw a composite. The composites can then be displayed and discussed by the class as a whole, perhaps with a list of suggestions for improvement resulting. These can then be posted as reminders of processes that need attention in the class.

BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS CONTINUUMS: BEHAVIOR IN GROUPS

Each of us acts along a range of behaviors that we not only can become more aware of, but can change as well. On the worksheet on the following page are a number of scales describing individual behavior in groups. Following a group task, the individuals in the group can each complete a worksheet analyzing his own behavior. You can then discuss your responses in any of a number of ways, including the following:

1) Share those scales on which you are most pleased with your behavior, and get feedback from other group members as to how they see you on that scale.

2) Share those things on which you would most like to improve. Following group discussion, select one on which to work and make a contract with the group to do something concrete about it. At the next group meeting, report back concerning your progress. Keep track of your progress in your journal.

Low_____High
                              Trust in others

Low_____High
                              Creative listening

Low_____High
                          Acceptance of opposing ideas

Low_____High
                              Ability to influence

Low_____High
                          Awareness of others' feelings

Low_____High
                          Willingness to discuss feelings

Low_____High
                                  Bossing

Low_____High
                              Understanding of self

Low_____High
                          Desire to reach consensus

Low_____High
                                  Empathy

Read over each scale above. In the group task you just completed, how did you behave on each? Mark each as you saw yourself in the group. After marking all the scales, decide with your group how you wish to use the information contained here. A few suggestions appear on the preceding page.

With which of the behaviors above are you most satisfied?

With which are you most dissatisfied? What can you do about that?

II. I View the Classroom

The exercises in Section I are internally-focused; they are designed to help you look inward—at your own unique emotions, attitudes, beliefs and past behaviors. Those following in Section II are focused instead on externals; they are designed to help you collect valuable data about observable phenomena in the classroom—both your own classroom and any others that you may observe. What you do with that data is then up to you.

You can view the classroom as a huge game of chess, composed of numerous interrelated parts, each functioning in a unique but interdependent relationship with all the rest. When you look at the whole, you see only seemingly meaningless and un-directed activity, but when you understand how each apparently independent movement affects the others, you begin to under-stand the complex interdependence of the whole. The exercises in this section are designed to help you separate out the many individual classroom functions and behaviors that so vitally affect the complex whole. As in learning to play chess, you must focus on single, manageable movements before you can analyze and effectively manipulate the total environment.

Interpretation, evaluation and judgment have no place in data-collection. As a data collector, you are simply gathering information. Be careful not to pre-select outcomes, let your biases influence the data you collect, or interpret or evaluate while collecting. Continually keep in mind the absolute necessity of remaining as open and objective as possible (realizing, of course, that complete objectivity is humanly impossible). You

are a recorder only at this stage. Interpretation and evaluation
come only after collection.

In some cases you will be receiving data collected about
you and your classroom. As a receiver, remember that the data
you receive is non-evaluative, and because it is, you don't
have to defend it. Accept it. as one individual's observation and
use it in whatever way is meaningful for you.

All the exercises in Section II provide means of gathering
data. In some, you are asked to gather data about other classrooms;
in others you may have an observer collect data about you and/or
your classroom. Adapt these methods in any way that is appropriate
for you: use student data-collectors, audio and/or video tapes, new
designs that occur to you as you go through any of the processes.
All are flexible to allow for individual needs. All will provide
you with concrete material to increase your awareness of that
excitingly complex environment we call a classroom.

As you become increasingly proficient, we hope you can become
your own most perceptive data collector.

CLASSROOM ARRANGEMENT

The arrangement of any room, especially of a classroom, has significant implications for the interactions that occur in that room. On the worksheet on the following page are diagrams of seven possible classroom seating arrangements. (From research conducted by Fred C. Feitler and reported in Psychology Today, September, 1971, p. 12.) Note that an O represents a student location, an X the teacher's location. You can use these diagrams to answer a number of questions, including at least the following:

1) Which of the seven have you experienced as a student?

2) In which of these arrangements are you most comfortable as a student? Why?

3) In which are you least comfortable as a student? Why?

4) Which arrangements have you observed in classrooms you have visited? What is your overall impression of the climate of each as you have experienced or seen it?

5) Which classroom arrangement is used primarily in the classroom you are now working in? What effect does this arrangement have on the atmosphere or tone of the classroom?

6) Do you think another arrangement might have a positive effect in your classroom? Why or why not?

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WORKSHEET   CLASSROOM ARRANGEMENT
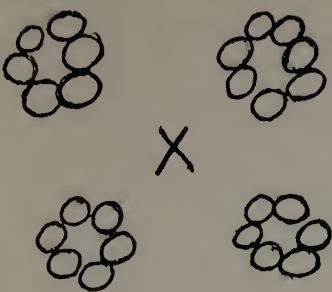
setting
one
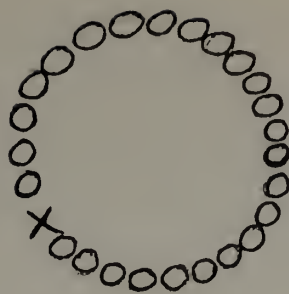
setting
two

setting
three

setting
four

setting
five
(no teacher)

setting
six

setting
seven
(teacher moves freely)

O=Student location   X=Teacher location

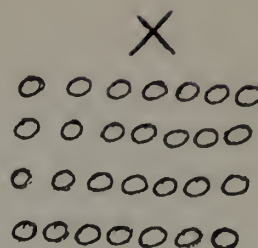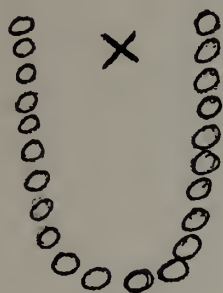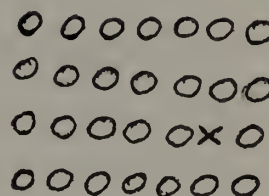# OBSERVATION: STUDENT POINT OF VIEW

All too often, we teachers forget what it is like to be students. This exercise may help you recall the feelings associated with being students, and may provide a new means of feedback for you.

As you observe a class, imagine yourself a student in that class. Sit in a student desk, feel the desk top under your hand, the floor under your feet. Try to get in touch with just how it must feel to be a student in this class. Then, as you sit there, look down the sets of descriptors on the worksheet on the next page. After the class, mark on each scale your immediate reaction to each set of descriptors as you think a student in that class would experience it.

After teaching a class or lesson, you might use this set of scales to evaluate the class in terms of how you think your students would have responded. You might also ask an observer to complete an identical worksheet and compare his/her observations with your own. Students, too, can provide feedback by responding—at the end of a class, a unit, or even a semester, though more frequent, specific evaluations will prove considerably more useful.

After completing a worksheet, answer the following questions:
1) In general, are you pleased or displeased with your own evalua-tion of your class?
2) What, specifically, are you most pleased with?
3) What, specifically, are you most displeased with? What can you do to change that?
4) What else does the worksheet tell you?

WORKSHEET   STUDENT POINT OF VIEW

Indicate your reactions concerning the atmosphere of the class
on each scale.

CONCENTRATION_____DISTRACTION

BUSY_____DELAYING

EXCITEMENT_____BOREDOM

DOING_____POSTPONING

TALKATIVE_____UNEXPRESSIVE

FREEDOM_____RESTRICTION

CONTINUITY_____INTERRUPTIONS

FRESHNESS_____REPETITION

CONSENT_____DENIAL

For your own use, make lists of descriptors designed specifically

to evaluate something you are especially concerned with in your

classes.

ONE-WAY GLASSES

Every perception is colored by the emotions and feelings of
the moment. For example, imagine that it is late afternoon on a
rainy, cold day. Your day has been miserable; literally every-
thing has gone wrong, and you feel about as depressed and cynical
as you ever have. Then the phone rings, and when you answer, you
hear "Western Union calling. I have a telegram for __(you)__ ."
How do you feel? What are your expectations?

Now imagine the situation reversed. It is a beautiful day.
You are on top of the world, and feel that absolutely everything
and everybody is on your side. Again, the phone rings, and again
you hear "Western Union calling. I have a telegram for _(you)_."
How do you feel this time? What are your expectations ?

In order to experience quite pointedly the effect on perceptions
of emotion, try the following experiment:

As you observe a classroom, try wearing a pair of imaginary
one-way glasses, glasses which allow you to view the class from
a single perspective. You can use one of the following or invent
your own: bored, enthusiastic, angry with teacher, scared, jealous,
worried about next period's exam. Following the observation period,
spend a few minutes recording in your journal your feelings, thoughts
and impressions--anything you discovered during the exercise.

On another day you might try observing the same classroom while
wearing another pair of one-way glasses, and compare your reactions
with those of the first observation. Later, you may wish to
share your experience with colleagues.

SHADOWING

It is, of course, impossible to step into the shoes of
another person and experience life exactly as he/she does, but
it is possible for each of us to develop empathy for the posi-
tion in which another individual finds himself. Shadowing, a
technique often used by cultural anthropologists, is useful
for gathering data about how another person sees and moves in
his/her environment.

Simply select a person whose world you would like to learn
more about. A student, a teacher, the principal, the school
nurse--anyone who will give you permission to shadow him/her.
Then, for at least one full day, follow that person everywhere,
carefully observing how he/she reacts to the environment,
trying to feel as he/she seems to, and taking whatever notes
you think important concerning the way in which that individual
experiences the school. Following the experience, spend
whatever time you think necessary recording the discoveries
you make about the person you shadowed, about the school, and
about yourself.

If possible, shadow someone else in a very different
position at another time. You may find significant differences
in the experiences of two people who share the same physical
environment.

INTERVIEWS

The school holds many different people with many divergent views and opinions concerning life in that school. The Student Council President, for example, may have a very different view of the principal than has the youngster who poses the school's greatest behavior problem. Interviewing students, teachers, administrators, janitors, cooks, librarians, parents, and anyone else with interest in the school can provide you with a wealth of data about life in that environment. Consider yourself an anthropologist, visiting this unique culture for the first time. Following are some questions, the answers to which will help you understand this confusing, pulsating, ever-changing environment.[*] In addition, ask students about their school--what they most like and dislike, how they spend their days, where their favorite spots in school are, what the best time of day is, how the food in the cafeteria is (compare with cook's answer), what makes good teachers.

If you find answers to all these questions, you will have a complex and quite realistic collage of influences, concerns, attitudes and practices as they exist in your school.

1) How old is the school? What is the architecture? What educational philosophy is reflected in the building?
2) What recreational areas or facilities are provided? When and by whom are they used most?
3) What library facilities does the school offer? What procedures do students use to gain access to the library?
4) Where is the nurse's office? What are the major concerns of the health administrator and children? What treatment is allowed in the school? What are the procedures for being sent home or remaining in the health office?
5) What is the procedure for tardiness?
6) Do students move throughout the school? What procedures are used?

* Many of these questions came from Professor Emma Cappaluzzo of the University of Massachusetts.

7) Who handles discipline in the school? For what infractions might a student be suspended? expelled? What is the procedure for re-entry of a suspended or expelled student?

8) Is there a teacher's lounge? What does its furnishing tell you about the school? Who uses the lounge? for what purposes?

9) Do teachers have any power to make educational decisions? If so, what kind?

10) What is the philosophy of each counselor? For what reasons do students see counselors?

11) How is the student council elected? Does the student council have any real power? Is the council representative of the student body? What does the advisor to the council say is his main function?

12) Do parents visit the school? If so, when and for what?

13) Is there a cafeteria or lunchroom? What does this facility tell you about the school? What are the lunch-time procedures? Are teachers treated differently from students?

14) What extra-curricular activites are offered? Which are most popular?

15) Is there an auditorium? When is it used?

16) Is there a student lounge?

17) Are students bussed to school? Ride a bus someday and see what it's like. Is it different in the morning than it is in the afternoon?

18) Listen to students' language in class and out of it. Can you detect any differences?

19) How do students dress? teachers? What does dress tell you?

20) How long has the principal been principal? Where did he come from?

21) What percentage of the faculty is male/female? What does this statistic tell you?

22) What is the average age of the faculty? What effect does this seem to have on the school?

23) Talk to an administrator, secretary, custodian, teacher, librarian, and nurse to find out how each describes the student population.

24) What socio-economic levels are represented in the student body? What effect does income level have in this school?

25) What is the ethnic make-up of the student body? of the faculty?

26) What is unusual about this school?

27) Are students trusted? What evidence do you have?

28) Are teachers trusted? What evidence do you have?

29) Which students are most popular with their peers? Which most respected?

30) Which teachers are most popular? Which most respected?

31) How is the school board selected?

32) What is the relationship between the board and the central administration? between the central administration and the principal of your building?

33) What is the make-up of the board? (Who, what philosophy does each member hold? What are the political realities?) Attend a school board meeting. What is the tone? What effect do you think this board has on the daily operation of your school?

34) Would you like to be a full-time teacher in this school for a long period of time? Why or why not?

INCIDENTAL LEARNINGS

A classroom can be compared to a communications system, for certainly there is a flow of messages between teacher (transmitter) and pupils(receivers) and among the pupils; contacts are made and broken, messages can be sent at a certain rate of speed only, and so on. But there is also another interesting characteristic of communications systems that is applicable to classrooms, and that is their inherent tendency to generate noise. Noise, in communications theory, applies to all those fluctuations of the system that cannot be controlled. They are the sounds that are not part of the message... (Jules Henry, Culture Against Man, p. 289. Random House, New York, 1965.)

The noise of the classroom generates learning among the students that is incidental to the message or subject matter itself. For example, imagine a teacher who continually tells students that encouragement of individual thought and creativity is the major purpose of the class, yet in class responds positively only when students offer "right" answers—answers anticipated and searched for by the teacher. Instead of the verbal message encouraging independent and creative thought, students quickly learn that in this class thinking that conforms exactly to the teacher's thinking is the only rewarded thinking. They learn not to answer unless they know what the teacher is thinking.

On the worksheet on the following page are some examples of patterns that are likely to foster incidental learnings. Imagine yourself a student in the class in which each is practiced. What would you learn as a result of the teacher's behavior in each class?

As you observe classes, try to note probable incidental learnings in that environment, and keep a list in your journal.

What incidental learnings are probable in your class? Look for positive as well as negative learnings.

WORKSHEET   INCIDENTAL LEARNINGS

What incidental learnings might each of the following teaching
patterns foster?

1. TEACHER: What do you think we're going to do today?
   TEACHER: I'm thinking of a word. Can anyone tell me what
            the word is? It starts with "E".
   TEACHER: You'd better pay attention, because this is important
            and just might be on the test.

2. Whenever a pupil gives a response, the teacher repeats his
   response verbatim.

3. TEACHER: America was discovered by...?
            Three and what are seven?
            Was Socrates a real person?

4. Whenever a pupil gives a response, the teacher paraphrases or
   otherwise elaborates on it.

5. The teacher responds to almost every pupil's recitation with
   a stereotyped "O.K., very good."

6. The teacher gives assignments to be done at home, but never
   again refers to the material in any way.

7. The teacher often asks poll-taking questions concerning student
   work. For example, "How many of you read the chapter? How
   many of you understood this?......I don't see very many hands!"

8. The teacher begins nearly every utterance with the phrase
   "Who would like to..." The same phrase is used to ask con-
   tent questions and to get someone to wash the chalkboard.

9. The teacher frequently (if not always) phrases questions
   something like the following:

   Who can tell me who discovered America?
   Who would like to read the next page for me?
   Who can give me the answer to number four?
   Sally, put your answer on the board for me, please.

10......(note patterns you have noticed in classes you have observed).

DAILY DATA SHEET

In order to become increasingly aware of ourselves, it is often helpful to keep a running record of impressions, significant events, and whatever feelings and attitudes seem most important. Some people find journal or diary-keeping an involving and rewarding experience, but others are less interested in extended writing. Daily Data Sheets provide a quick, simple, yet meaningful way to keep track of those things which are important in our lives.

Each day, complete a Daily Data Sheet like that on the following page. Date your Daily Data Sheet and note your major teaching responsibilities for the day. Before your first class and after your last complete a Here and Now Wheel. In each of the four quadrants write a word or short phrase that describes a feeling you are experiencing at the moment. You may use both physical and emotional feelings. Then, next to the wheel, expand upon the most dominant feeling in a sentence or two. When you complete the second Here and Now Wheel, also note the high point and the low point of your day, whatever they may have been. The worth of the Daily Data Sheets lie not in each individual sheet, but in the patterns they reveal over time. At the end of a week, two weeks, or a month lay your Daily Data Sheets consecutively before you. Do you see any patterns in your responses? What, for you, provide consistent highs? consistent lows? What do your Here and Now Wheels tell you about your life? Are any changes indicated for you?

WORKSHEET   DAILY DATA

DATE: RESPONSIBILITIES:

TIME: STRONGEST FEELING:

TIME: STONGEST FEELING:
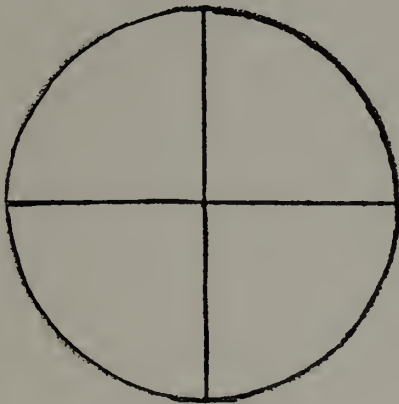
HIGH POINT OF DAY:

LOW POINT OF DAY:

WORKSHEET   WEEKLY REACTIONS

Another means of monitoring ourselves is by the use of Weekly

Reaction Sheets. Every Friday afternoon, complete the following

and keep it in your journal, to be reviewed at the end of a month

or six weeks.

DATE:

1. What was your biggest project of the past week? Comment on
   its success.

2. What were the high and low points of the week?

3. Who was your most rewarding student during the past week?

4. Who was your most troublesome student during the past week?

5. Describe your relationship with each of the above-mentioned students.

6. Explain one thing you did this past week that you would do
   differently if you had it to do again.

7. Finish the sentence, "This week in the classroom was for me...."

8. Open comment on the week...

SELF-CONTRACTS

Long ago people discovered that a highly effective means of accomplishing a goal is to write and sign a contract pledging to carry out whatever responsibility is involved. Today contracts are common--in business, in the professions, and in the classroom. Many children contract with their teachers to accomplish self-designed tasks, with a resultant increase in motivation over that stimulated by externally imposed assignments.

But contracts need not be made only between individuals or groups. Self-contracts, those you make with yourself, can be the most effective of all. Throughout this manual, as we ask you to look carefully at your behavior in the classroom, we will ask you to identify anything you would like to change or do differently, to specify something concrete that you can do, and then to contract with yourself to do it.

In order to make self-contracts as useful as possible, we also recommend that you write them in your journal, as a reminder to yourself of the obligations you have incurred.

The following guidelines will help you get started:

1) Never contract to do something that you really don't believe in or that seems irrelevant to you. There is no quicker way to subvert the potential power of the contract.

2) Make your contracts specific: something you can readily identify and evaluate. For example, it is much more useful to contract to call every student by name at least once in a morning than it is to contract to be more personal with students.

3) Make your contracts realistic, something readily attainable.
Contracting to have bookmarks marking the pages you plan to refer
to is far better than contracting to be more organized.

Now, think back over the past day's activities; identify one
thing that you could have done better. Choose something that
is important to you. In your journal, note the date and briefly
describe the situation. Then write a brief, meaningful, realistic
and specific contract with yourself. In a day or two, look back
at your contract and note whether or not you accomplished what
you intended to. Does this analysis then lead to another self-
contract? If so, go through the process again.

WORKSHEET   HOW DID IT GO?

The questions below are designed to help you keep a record of
your classes' activities, your feelings and insights, and any changes
you have observed in yourself or others. You can organize and
bring meaning to your teaching experience by reflecting on the kinds
of questions below. You might also become aware of patterns of be-
havior or feelings which you had not noted previously.

After selected classes, record your feelings, insights, and ob-
servations. Use the following questions as a guide; answer one, or
all, or others which are more appropriate for your situation.

Date_____   Class_____

1. What happened during the class?(Briefly sketch to help yourself
   recall events.)

2. How did you feel about yourself in today's class?

3. What did you like about the class? students? yourself?

4. What did you dislike about the class? students? yourself?

5. How did you react to students' talk in today's class?

6. How did students react to you?

7. What was your greatest strength in this class? weakness?

8. Did you notice any changes in the class from former sessions?
   changes in students? changes in yourself?

9. Make a contract with yourself about something you'll do tomorrow.

LESSON ANALYSIS CONTINUUM

Your own analysis of your teaching is by far the most meaning-
ful; this exercise is therefore designed to help you analyze your
experience. It is best completed as soon after teaching a lesson
as possible.

1) On the worksheet on the next page, mark on the continuum your
feelings concerning how the lesson went; 0 represents the worst
possible lesson, 8 the perfect lesson. You are not allowed to
rate it exactly in the middle; therefore there is no 4 on the
scale. In rating, keep in mind your goals and how successfully
they were accomplished.

2) Rate all the factors that contributed to your rating the
lesson as high as you did. If you rated it a 5, why wasn't
it a 3, or a 2, or a 1?

3) List everything you can think of that you could do to make
it better. Check your list for completeness by asking yourself
"Now would this lesson be perfect?" If your answer is still "no"
add something more to your list.

4) Rank the items you have listed in numbers 2 and 3 according
to their potential importance in accomplishing your goals.

5) Make a contract to do one of the things that ranks high on
your list.

If you wish, ask an observer whose judgment you trust to do the exercise simultaneously with you, but separately. Then compare your perceptions of the lesson with his/hers. Are the two of you looking at or concerned with the same aspects of the lesson? (If you use an observer as an evaluator, be sure that the two of you spend some time before the lesson clarifying your goals and intentions.)

You may also wish to do one of these continuums each day for a specified period of time (one week, two weeks). Then look back at your responses to the questions to note any patterns that emerge. In your journal note these and any implications they have for your teaching.

WORKSHEET   LESSON ANALYSIS

Date: Class:

worst   perfect
possible _____ lesson
lesson   0   1   2   3   5   6   7   8

What factors contributed to your rating this lesson as high as you did?

What would you have to do to make it a perfect lesson?

Contract with yourself about something you'll do next time.

CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS

Before teaching a lesson or class, sit down with a peer observer and outline your goals for the lesson, including personal intentions concerning your own behavior in that class. From the list, select three or four that are most important to you, and, with the observer's assistance, construct continuums on which both you and the observer can rate your behavior. Be specific in describing the behaviors, so that you and the observer have something concrete to look for and discuss.

For example, perhaps you want to work on accepting the viewpoints of all students in a non-evaluative, caring way. You might define your continuum as follows:

(Displays concern   (Cuts students off.
for and acceptance   Favors "right" answers
of all viewpoints   and openly rejects
and openly respects   opinions which differ
every opinion offered)   from own.)

_____
HELPFUL   HINDERING

ACCEPTANCE OF ALL VIEWPOINTS

During the lesson, the observer might tally incidents of acceptant and of non-acceptant behavior on your part. This data can then be used to indicate the degree of helpful or hindering behavior displayed during the lesson.

Some other concerns, with possible continuums, include:

(Plays "teacher" role;   (Identifies personal
puts nothing of self into   positions and views
lesson. Students see a   without imposing them.
machine.)   Students see person.)

_____
CLOSED   OPEN

OPENNESS CONCERNING SELF

(The lesson plan rules;   (Spontaneity is the rule. The
student needs are ignored)   situation determines the lesson.)

RIGID   FLEXIBLE

FLEXIBILITY IN CLASSROOM

Now try writing a few continuums of your own. Include as well
a list of specific behaviors which the observer can note as a means
of collecting data concerning the behavior.

FEELING IDENTIFICATION CONTINUUMS

On the next three pages are worksheets containing sets of
continuums, each continuum representing a range of feelings be-
tween extremes. Following a lesson or class, simply run down
one of the worksheets, marking how you _felt_ in that class on
each of the scales. Your placement of a mark on each scale
should be determined by your immediate reaction to that set
of adjectives. Don't puzzle over individual items. It is
your immediate feeling about yourself in the situation you
just experienced that is important.

Following the use of a continuum worksheet, discuss your
reactions with an observer, and note significant observations
in your journal. Are you pleased with the way you felt during
the lesson? What factors, internal or external, contributed
to your feelings and behavior? What, if anything, would you
like to change? Write a self-contract concerning something
positive you can do the next time you meet this class.

WORKSHEET   FEELING IDENTIFICATION

OPEN...CLOSED

HOPEFUL..HOPELESS

CAREFUL...SLOPPY

SEXY..SEXLESS

DEMANDING..ACCEPTING

LISTLESS...ACTIVE

HERE AND NOW...THERE AND THEN

HOSTILE...CARING

HUMAN..MECHANISTIC

EXPERIMENTAL..RITUALISTIC

WORKSHEET   FEELING IDENTIFICATION

COLD..WARM

FEARFUL...CONFIDENT

CONSISTENT..INCONSISTENT

GUILTY..PROUD

EMPATHETIC.......................................SELF-ABSORBED

CLOSE...DISTANT

FULL...EMPTY

I..WE

AWARE..UNAWARE

PLANNED...SPONTANEOUS

WORKSHEET   FEELING IDENTIFICATION

"TEACHER ROLE"...................................MYSELF

SERIOUS...FLIPPANT

AIMLESS...PURPOSEFUL

LIKED...DISLIKED

BORED...ENTHUSIASTIC

TRADITIONAL.....................................INNOVATIVE

PERSONAL..AUTHORITARIAN

CONGRUENT.......................................INCONGRUENT

AWARE...UNAWARE

HAPPY.................... ....SAD

WHY DID YOU DO THAT?

Many times in teaching we do things without considering either the reasons for doing them or the effects that might result. We do things the way they have always been done, or the way that a favorite teacher did them, or the way that seems most expedient. But many of these things might be done in a much better and more productive way. All that's really needed is to look at what is done and analyze both the rationale and the probable outcomes. To help you do this, we offer the following:

Ask an observer to record a number of things you <u>do</u> during a class--the way in which you distribute papers, the manner in which you introduce a new idea, whatever is noticeable in that class. Following the class, analyze each behavior noted by answering the questions:

1) Why did you do that?

2) What are the probable effects of doing that in that manner?

In each case, determine whether or not you approve of or would encourage the rationale (first question) and the process or outcome (second question),of each behavior on your list.

In your journal, make a note of those behaviors you like and those which you may want to consider changing. Make a contract with yourself concerning something you can do to change one.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Before teaching a lesson, sit down with an observer whose
judgment you trust and outline the needs and demands of indi-
viduals in the class as you expect them to be made during the'
lesson. When you have a list of six or more expectations, examine
the list and decide which you would like to fulfill and how you
might fulfill them during the class.

As the lesson progresses, the observer can watch specifically
for the emergence of needs, check the accuracy of your predictions,
and note whether or not individual needs are met.

Following the lesson, you and the observer can analyze your
perceptions of how well you met the needs you planned to satisfy,
how accurate your predictions were, how needs other than those
planned for were handled, etc. What significant need went
unmet? What can you do to satisfy that need next time?

WHAT KIND OF QUESTIONS DO YOU ASK?

Every teacher spends a great deal of time asking students questions, but all questions are not of equal value in stimulating active thought and discussion. To discover your questioning patterns, use one of the following two methods:

METHOD ONE: On the worksheet on the next page have a trusted observer tally every question you ask in a specified period of time (fifteen minutes as a minimum) according to the following categories:

Class 1: Questions to which students can respond with a YES or NO answer. Example: Was George Washington the first President of the United States?

Class 2: Questions which students can answer with a simple, short, factual answer. Example: Who was the first President of the United States?

Class 3: Questions which require that students do some immediate thinking to find a correct answer (there is a correct answer). Example: What are the subject and object in the preceding sentence? What is the sum of 20, 89, and 34?

Class 4: Questions which require that students look for relationships and underlying concepts. Example: What similarities do you find between the causes of the First and Second World Wars?

Class 5: Questions which ask students for personal opinions and responses. Example: What do you consider to be more worthy of your concern: earth ecology or space exploration?

In each column, the observer can simply classify every question you ask according to the five categories.

METHOD TWO: Have an observer record verbatim every question you ask. After the lesson, read the questions very carefully, and you classify them according to the five categories on the worksheet.

After the tally is complete, discuss with the observer what the tally means to you:

What kind of questions do you ask most often? What effect do these questions have on class discussions? Are you satisfied with the questions you ask? What, specifically, can you do to improve your questioning style?

Make a contract with yourself about something concrete you will do to improve your questioning technique.

WORKSHEET   QUESTIONS ASKED

Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5
Yes-No	Short ans.	Immediate thought	Relationship	Opinion

RESPONSES TO STUDENT RESPONSES

A teacher's responses to student responses are also vitally important influences on the tone and activity of the classroom. Again, the worksheet on the following page can be used in either of two ways:

METHOD ONE: Have an observer whose judgment you trust tally your responses to students directly on to the worksheet.

METHOD TWO: Have an observer record verbatim your responses to students. Then _you_ tally the responses on the worksheet.

Following the class, examine your response sheet. What does it tell you about your verbal interactions with students? Do you wish to change anything? Use your journal to record your observations and their implications for you.

WORKSHEET   RESPONSES TO STUDENT RESPONSES

I. STUDENT ANSWERS CORRECTLY	
...teacher says "good"	
...teacher nods	
...teacher gives no noticeable response	
...teacher repeats answer	
...teacher rewords answer	
...teacher thanks student	
...teacher praises student	
...teacher asks student to repeat	
...teacher looks pleased	
...teacher adds to answer	
...teacher uses answer to go on	
II. STUDENT ANSWERS INCORRECTLY	
...teacher says "no"; asks someone else	
...teacher says "no, try again."	
...teacher corrects student	
...teacher leads or prods	
...teacher ridicules student	
...teacher encourages student	
III. STUDENT RESPONDS WITH OPINION	
...teacher accepts answer	
...teacher gives own answer	
...teacher says answer is wrong	
...teacher carries answer further	
...teacher changes subject	
...teacher challenges student to prove himself	
...teacher ignores answer	

SENTENCE STEMS

To help you keep in close contact with your feelings as a
teacher, complete each of the following sentence stems three
or four times (in three or four different ways) and keep your
sentences in your journal. Repeat in a month or so and compare
your responses to see if you can detect any patterns. What do
your answers mean in terms of your teaching?

I feel good about myself when my students...

I feel bad about myself when my students...

I feel good about myself when other teachers...

I feel bad about myself when other teachers...

I feel discouraged about teaching when...

I feel encouraged about teaching when...

I feel I have been successful when...

I feel I have wasted students' time when...

I feel the students trust me when...

I feel the students are learning when...

I feel I am learning when...

I feel the students are not learning when...

I feel in a rut when...

I am glad to be a teacher when...

I lose my temper when...

I know its time to put my foot down when...

I feel used when...

I like having visitors when...

I am threatened when...

In addition to the sentence stems offered here, make up your own and add them to your list. You might also have your students finish appropriate sentence stems, which can then be used in any way you and they devise. And, you can ask your students for anonymous feedback concerning your effect on them by having them complete the statement "Mr./Ms. _(you)_ makes me feel _____ when he/she _____."

THE FLOWER

It is often extremely helpful to check your perceptions of your behavior with those of an observer whom you trust. Following a lesson that your observer has witnessed, use carbon paper to make two copies of a worksheet. In the center of the papers draw a circle about an inch in diameter. Then, with your observer, brainstorm positive qualities that could describe teachers (for example: friendly, patient, concerned, etc.) and write these at random around the paper. When you have about twenty descriptors, each of you take one copy of the worksheet and separate to work on the next part of the exercise.

Separately, each of you circle each descriptor that you think describes the teacher in the previous lesson and draw a line connecting it to the center circle. Then compare your worksheets and discuss the correspondence or lack of it. The key to fruitful discussion lies in being open, honest and acceptant of disparity. Discuss the meaning this exercise has for you and possible implications for your teaching.

Other descriptors can be used as well in this exercise. Try skill words and phrases (calls students by name, asks thought-provoking questions, etc.), or make up your own categories appropriate to your situation and concerns.

TEACHER WALKING MAP

A classroom observer can assist you in monitoring your movement in the classroom. For a specified period of time (probably one period or one hour) the observer can map, on a sheet of paper on which the furniture arrangement of the room is drawn, your movement during the hour. The observer may find it helpful to number the spots at which you stop, even briefly, and to devise a system to indicate length of time spent in one spot. For example, the observer could draw concentric circles around spots in which you remain for a considerable period of time...one circle for each three or five minute period. Upon looking at the map, you may make whatever observations you have concerning your movement in that class. Some questions to answer include:

1) In which areas of the classroom do you spend most of your time?

2) Do you neglect any area(s)?

3) Do the students' activities determine your movements?

4) What effect does the seating arrangement have on your movements?

5) What effect might your movement have on the students?

6) Do you want to change anything? Why or why not?

7) What, specifically, will you do?

SELF-DISCLOSURE ASSESSMENT

The JoHari Window (named after its originators Joe Luft and Harry Ingham) represents the processes of self-disclosure and of feedback.

	Known to self	Not known to self
Known to others	**A** what both you and I know about me	**B** what you know about me that I don't know
Not known to others	**C** what I know about me that you don't know	**D** what neither of us knows

The chart represents everything about an individual. Section A represents all those things about me that I have shared with you --my public self; Section B represents those things about me of which you are aware but I am not, my blind spot (perhaps my zipper is open); Section C contains those things I have kept from you, my very private self; and Section D represents those things about me of which neither of us is aware.

As I disclose more of myself to you, Area A extends into Area C, and as you give me feedback about myself, Area A extends into Area B.

increased feedback ⟶

increased dis-

closure ↓
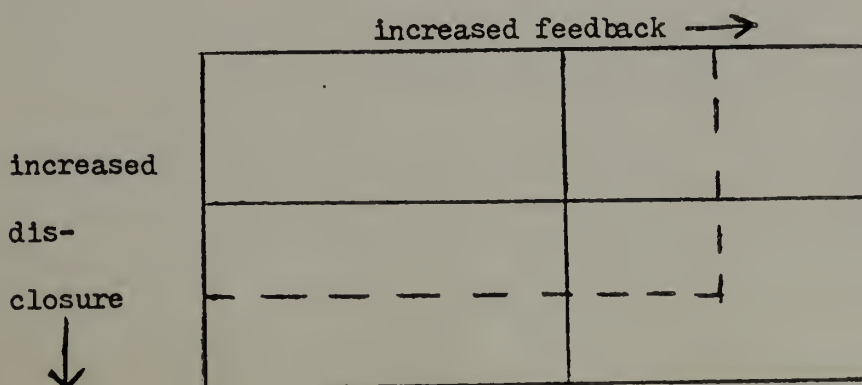
Thus Area A becomes ever larger, and I become both more open and public and more aware of myself.

Open, aware people tend to facilitate openness and awareness in others too. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suggest that teachers who disclose themselves to their students will be more likely to facilitate students' self-disclosure, and will thus develop relationships characterized by openness and honesty, qualities essential to effective communication and to trust.

How do you act with your students? Are your relationships with them characterized by openness and self-disclosure, or are you closed, private, and distant? Have an observer monitor your verbal behavior for you.

On at least two different occasions, preferably one in which you expect to feel comfortable with students and one in which you expect some discomfort, have an observer record every statement you make for a period of at least fifteen minutes. Later, carefully examine the two transcripts, marking every instance in which you actually shared something of your personal self with your students.

Then answer the following questions:

1) Were your expectations realistic? That is, were you comfortable in one situation and uncomfortable in the other as you expected to be?

2) Can you see any differences in your verbal behavior in the two situations?

3) Does your verbal behavior have any relationship to your comfort?

4) Is there anything you noted that you would like to change? Contract with yourself to do something about it.

SENDING I MESSAGES

Communication between adults and children often breaks down because the adults continually send YOU rather than I messages. YOU messages are those that blame (You are naughty; you should know better; you didn't understand; you are wrong), that direct (you go outside; you clean up your room), that threaten (if you don't ....). I messages, on the other hand, share personal feelings (I really get upset when there is fighting near me).

I messages state facts; they don't blame, direct, threaten, or preach. Instead, they reveal, and since they do, they facilitate communication. You messages facilitate conflict.

Try responding to the following situations with I messages:
1) A fifth-grader knocks his books off his desk, apparently purposely.
2) Two students continue their private conversation in the corner, even after you have asked them twice to hold it for later.

Now, with a friend or in a small group, identify some frustrating experiences you have had recently. How did you react? What were you feeling? Imagine yourself back in that situation, and respond with an I message.

In a small group, you might devise a brief role-playing situation. Identify the circumstance and participants in a conflict situation in the classroom. The person playing the teacher should respond with I messages; other participants should respond to the teacher as it seems natural to. After enacting the situation a couple of times, discuss your feelings and responses.

In your own classroom, ask an observer to record all the I and all the You messages you send in a specified period of time (half-hour minimum), including some indication of student response to each. Later, look over the list and answer the following questions:

1) Do you send a preponderance of one type of message? Which type?

2) What effect did You messages have?

3) What effect did I messages have?

4) Are you satisfied with the messages you sent? Can you identify one message which could have been better? Contract to change a similar one.

ACCEPTANCE

Recognizing and accepting the feelings behind the words that
a person says is a skill that, although difficult, is certainly
essential to an effective, facilitative relationship. Perhaps
teachers, more than anyone (except parents?) need to develop this
skill. All too often, we evaluate and judge, and the very process
of evaluating keeps us from understanding and accepting. All too
often, when a child is acting sullen after a lost ball game, we
teachers admonish him rather than recognizing his very real
feelings. Instead of saying "Stop slouching, Jim. Look on
the bright side," how much more understanding it would be to
say "Jim, you seem very upset. I guess that game meant a lot
to you." In the first instance, Jim will probably respond with
hostility--if he responds at all. In the second instance, how-
ever, he will probably nod, recognizing immediately and responding
to the understanding evidenced.

Either alone, with a friend, or in a small group, try responding
in an accepting, non-evaluative way to each of the following:
1) A third-grader comes in crying, proclaiming that "Johnny
won't give me back my mitten."
2) A high-school junior proudly shows off the motorcycle he
bought with money he earned.
3) A junior-high-student slams into your room, throws down his
books, and tells you how unfair Mr. _(a colleague)_ is for
giving him a detention slip.

4) A student hands you a bedraggled-looking assignment, sheepishly explaining that she dropped it in a puddle on the way to school.

If you wish, you and a friend or group of friends can set up mini-role-playing situations for each other to practice making non-evaluative, acceptant responses. Think of individual situations like those above and role-play the individuals involved.

In your own classroom, you can have an observer record every personal response you make to students in a specified period of time (a half-hour is recommended). Following the class, classify each remark as <u>Acceptant</u>, <u>Evaluative-positive</u>, or <u>Evaluative-negative</u>. Then answer the following questions:

1) In which category did most of your responses fall?

2) Is it easier to make one kind of response than another? What does that mean to you?

3) Are you satisfied with your pattern of responses? Would you like to do anything differently? Make a contract with yourself about something you'll do in the near future.

SINGLE STUDENT FOCUS

Much can be learned about the environment of a classroom by focusing on one student in the class. Have an observer select one of your students (he can pick someone who interests him, he can select randomly, or he can watch someone you request) and watch him/her alone throughout a minimum of one hour.

The observer should take care to be unobtrusive; don't stare or do anything to draw attention to the student. Simply watch him/her and take notes on his/her behavior during the observation period. Do your best to record observable behavior (he smiled) rather than your inferences about that behavior (he was happy). Following is an example of a brief section of notes on a student's behavior:

> Jim spent the first three minutes doodling, looking out the window, and shuffling papers. When a discussion about rockets began, he raised his hand and made a comment. The teacher nodded and said "good," and Jim smiled. When the subject changed to pollution, he looked away from the teacher, shuffled papers, and began doodling. When called on he shrugged, mumbled "I don't know" and looked at the floor...

After the observation period, both of you can review the record, noting especially any instances in which the observer's inferences found their way into the record (it happens easily). Then focus on the behavior of the student and the implications it has for him/her, for you and for the class as a whole.

III. I RE-VIEW MY EXPERIENCES

If you have seriously encountered your attitudes and behaviors through the exercises in the first two sections of this handbook, you have collected a wealth of data, and have, we hope, recorded most of it in your journal. You have recalled your days as a student and looked at your teaching life in terms of student perceptions; you have focused on specific aspects of the class-room environment; you have examined your attitudes on numerous delicate issues; you have collected and analyzed data concerning many aspects of your own teaching behavior; you have contracted with yourself to try new approaches.

What does all this mean to you? What patterns in your life have you uncovered? Do you really want to devote your life to teaching? What about your life would you like to change?

The few exercises remaining in this manual are intended to help you review your experiences both within and outside the classroom with a view toward helping you consider important questions like those above. They may serve as the basis for some very significant decisions concerning your life. We hope they serve you well.

PATTERN IDENTIFICATION

In your journal you have a great deal of information about yourself and your teaching--bits and pieces that may begin to fill in the giant puzzle that is you--a person and a teacher.

Read your journal--just for enjoyment. Let yourself re-experience those moments of joy, pride, anger, hurt, frustration and love that are recorded there.

Then read your journal again, this time as if you were a cultural anthropologist pouring over the only artifact you have to tell you about this person you have discovered and are trying to understand. Look especially for any patterns that emerge--feelings, attitudes, behaviors, activities, concerns that recur throughout a portion or the entire manual.

Record these patterns at the end of the journal. What do they tell you about the unique individual you have discovered? What are his/her outstanding characteristics? What does he/she mean to you?

SELF-ASSESSMENT SENTENCE STEMS

This exercise is designed to be done with the help of an observer whose judgment you trust and who knows your work in the classroom well, although you could do it alone if you choose.

Both you and the observer independently finish the sentence stems on the worksheet on the following page for _you_ as a teacher. Then compare your results.

On which do your perceptions agree?

On which do your perceptions disagree?

Try to understand how and why your perceptions differ, but do not treat differences defensively. You do not have to prove that you are right. It is better not to discuss the data at all than to spend time justifying your position.

Following discussion, record anything you learned from the experience in your journal.

WORKSHEET   SELF-ASSESSMENT SENTENCE STEMS

I am most patient in school...

I am least patient in school...

I am most as ease in school...

I am not at ease in school...

Students make me nervous...

I react to other teachers...

I react to authority...

When I am in authority...

When people agree with me...

When people disagree with me..

Two things I can improve on as a teacher...

Three things I do exceptionally well as a teacher...

My students would describe me as...

My students' description of me makes me feel...

The student I like best...

The student I like least...

I listen...

I learn from my students...

ANALYSIS OF SELF-CONTRACTS

If you have accepted our recommendations, you have been writing significant, attainable contracts with yourself over the past weeks. Now go back over those you wrote, and answer the following questions:

Were your contracts specific enough to be readily evaluated?

Were they realistic? Could you attain them?

Were they meaningful enough that you cared about attaining them?

What kinds of things did you contract with yourself about?

What percentage did you attain?

Do you see any patterns in those you succeeded with? Have they become a part of you?

Do you see any patterns in your failures? Which do you care enough about to keep working at?

Have your self-contracts provided you with the motivation to make significant changes? What are they?

Do you want to re-contract any--either some you succeeded at and then let lapse, or some you failed at?

A PERSONAL PLAQUE FOR TEACHERS

Throughout history, people have symbolized their heritages
on heraldic coats of arms. Our modern version allows you to
symbolize personal meanings and values in your professional
life. In each of the spaces numbered 1 through 5 on the worksheet
on the following page, draw a picture to represent something
significant in your teaching life:

1) Your greatest success as a teacher.

2) Your greatest failure as a teacher.

3) A value you wish all teachers would hold.

4) Something you would like to do as a teacher.

5) A memorial to you, erected by your students, including the
   three words you'd most like them to say of you.

PERSONAL PLAQUE FOR TEACHERS
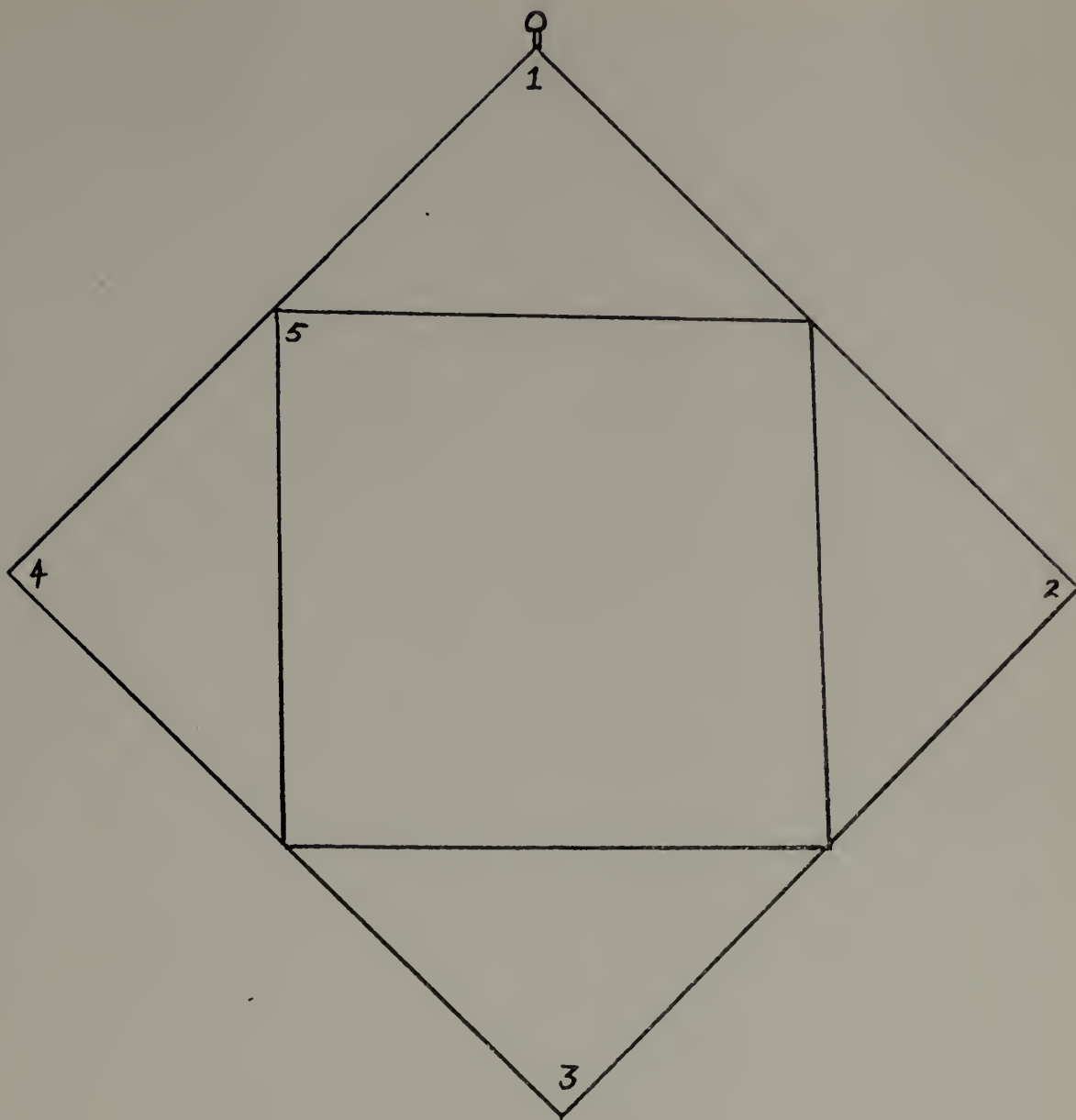
WHERE DO I GO FROM HERE?

Near the end of a semester or year, it is often helpful to spend a few moments quietly reflecting over the recent months and how they have influenced the direction of your life.

Put yourself into a comfortable position, close your eyes, and allow your vision to go blank. You are probably seeing bright dots before your eyes: let them come together and travel over to the far left of your field of vision, where they begin to form an image. The image is of you, as you are right now in your life, with the experiences of the present -- the pressures, the joys, the frustrations, the confusion, the warmth--everything that is you at this moment. When that image is clear, move your attention to the far right of your vision, and let form there an image of your ideal--your professional and personal goal. When that image is clear, fill in the abyss between the two images by imagining the path or route between the two. What is it like? What obstacles lie in the way? What supports do you expect to find? Allow yourself to travel that route. Then, when you are ready, return to the present and open your eyes.

Now draw, in whatever way you choose, the fantasy you just experienced. When you have finished, sign your drawing, post it in your group if you are working in a group, and allow each member of the group to share whatever he chooses concerning his fantasy.

JOB APPLICATION

Imagine that you are applying for a teaching job and that the questions below appear on the form. In your journal write your answers to the questions. The only difference between this application and the real thing is that for now you are not trying to sell yourself, but to look honestly at yourself. If there are things you would answer differently on a real application, asterisk those answers, and on another page, answer them as you would if you were actually applying for the job.

1) For what position are you applying? Why this position?

2) What have you done in the past two years to prepare for it?

3) What are your most favorable characteristics in terms of this particular position?

4) What liabilities will you have in this position?

5) Name three references. Why have you chosen each?

6) Would you still choose the same three if you knew they would be totally honest in their evaluations of you?

7) Will you still want this position in five years?

8) What else do you want professionally? How are you preparing yourself for it?

9) Why should you be hired?

10) Would you hire yourself?

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To: All interns and preinterns
From: Barbara

Your evaluation of this experimental program is vital, for
without it we cannot make decisions regarding future programs.
Please answer the following questions completely openly and
candidly. Return the questionnaire to my box in the School
of Education, to me personally, or to my home at North
Village, Apt. D-10.   Thanks.

1. Please comment on the helpfulness, interest, etc. of the
   Thursday night seminar for you.

2. Would you recommend that prospective teachers have a pre-
   intern experience like the one offered in this program? Explain.

3. Would you recommend that interns have preintern partners?
   Explain.

4. How satisfied are you with the relationship that developed
   between you and your partner?

5. How satisfied are you with the help provided by your partner?

6. How satisfied are you with the supervision provided by
   Rick and Barbara?

Questionnaire, page 2.

7. What, for you, was the most significant aspect of the program?

8. What, for you, was the least significant aspect of the program?

9. What recommendations would you make for the future of this program?

10. Please comment on your own sense of personal and professional growth over the past semester.

Are you an   intern_____   preintern_____?

APPENDIX C   MANUAL FEEDBACK FORM

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Date_____   Name_____

WHICH OF THE DATA-COLLECTING DEVICES, PAGES 45-89 OF THE
I-VIEW, HAVE YOU USED IN THE CLASSROOM? Please comment
on the use you made of each, and on the usefulness, meaning-
fulness, or effectiveness of each that you used. Please
be specific.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS FOR
SECONDARY STUDENT TEACHER PERFORMANCE PROFILE

Criterion I — Understanding, Friendly vs. Egocentric, Aloof

Teachers who are described as having a high degree of the quality indicated by this criterion are characterized by such terms as friendly, understanding, tactful, good-natured, sympathetic, kindly, democratic, fair, approachable, gregarious, cooperative, genial, "looks on the bright side," enjoys the contact with his class. Superficial friendliness and mothering behavior should be recognized and given a low rating.

Criteria I, II, and III are virtually Ryans' XYZ factors as reported in his *Characteristics of Teachers*.

Illustrative classroom behaviors: (The specific behaviors are considered to be parallel or synonymous. Students need not rate high on all examples to be rated high.)

Understanding, Friendly			vs.	*Egocentric, Aloof*			
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*N*

1. Shows concern for a pupil's personal emotional problems and needs.	1. Recognizes only academic accomplishments of pupils; no concern for personal problems; scolds.
2. Tolerant of errors on part of pupils.	2. Completely unsympathetic with a pupil's failure at a task.
3. Finds good things in pupils to which to call attention.	3. Calls attention only to very poor work.
4. Listens encouragingly to pupil's viewpoint.	4. Impatient.
5. Behavior that invites friendliness from all pupils.	5. Stiff and formal in relations with pupils.
6. Goes out of way to be pleasant and/or help pupils.	6. Hypercritical, fault finding, apart, removed from pupil activity.
7. Smiles and speaks to individual pupils; knows names.	7. Reserved and sober; doesn't know names of students.

Criterion II — Planned, Organized vs. Unplanned, Disorganized
Responsible Irresponsible

Teachers associated with a high degree of the quality indicated by this criterion are described as businesslike, systematic, responsible, consistent, definite, thorough, self-controlled, well-prepared.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Planned, Organized, Responsible			vs.	*Unplanned, Disorganized Irresponsible*			
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*N*

1. Has a detailed lesson plan; has materials that will be used.	1. Has no lesson plan; materials are not available when he needs them.

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2. Tells class what to expect during period; has next assignment planned.

2. Class members see no organization in what they are doing; next assignment unplanned.

3. Objectives of the lesson are clearly discernible; proceeds with assurance.

3. Objectives not apparent; undecided as to next step.

4. Anticipates and prepares answers for student questions.

4. Is surprised and confused by questions.

5. Keeps discussion focused on objectives.

5. Easily distracted from matter at hand; course of action easily swayed by circumstances of the moment.

6. Is aware of school regulations and is guided by them.

6. Ignores school regulations.

7. Punctual.

7. Does not perform own duties on time.

8. Gives definite directions and checks on responses.

8. Assignments and directions indefinite; no evidence of follow-up.

To be Checked Out of Class

1. Does he understand and is he following directions given in seminar?

1. Vague about assignments and is not doing them well.

2. Meets obligations in record keeping.

2. Careless and evasive in record keeping.

Criterion III—Stimulating, Imaginative, Surgent   vs.   *Dull, Routine Unimaginative*

Teachers who possess high degrees of this quality are described as original, adaptable, stimulating, resourceful, imaginative, "puts pupils on their own," encourages pupil initiative. This is the Z factor described in Ryans.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Stimulating, Imaginative, Surgent				vs.	*Dull, Routine, Unimaginative*		
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*N*

1. Highly interesting presentation; got and held attention.

1. Class seems bored, uninterested.

2. Clever and witty; enthusiastic, animated.

2. Pedantic, boring, phlegmatic, bored-acting.

3. Assignment challenging.

3. Fails to provide challenge.

4. Took advantage of pupil interest.

4. Failed to capitalize on pupil interest.

5. Seemed to provoke thinking: provoked strong esthetic appeal.

5. Class lacked enthusiasm; lacked interest.

6. Uses what seem to be original and relatively unique devices to aid instruction.

6. Uses routine procedures without variation.

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7. Tries new materials or methods.

7. Does not depart from procedure to take advantage of a relevant question and situation.

8. Resourceful in answering questions; has many pertinent and novel illustrations available.

8. Not resourceful in answering questions or providing explanation.

Criterion IV — Perceives Self as Competent   *vs. Perceives Self as Less Than Adequate*

Teachers who possess a high degree of this quality tend to see themselves as liked, wanted, worthy, and able to do a good job of whatever they undertake. This is an attempt to rate self-confidence.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Perceives Self as Competent   *vs. Perceives Self as Less Than Adequate*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N

1. Speaks confidently; self-confident in relations with pupils.

1. Faltering, hesitant in speech, timid in relation with pupils.

2. Takes mistakes and/or criticism in stride.

2. Disturbed and embarrassed by mistakes and/or criticism.

3. Actions are reasonable, aggressive, and spontaneous.

3. Appears timid and shy.

4. Poised.

4. Lacks poise.

5. Accepts new tasks readily.

5. Offers excuses for not acting, delays.

Criterion V — Has Mastery of Facts vs. and Organizing Principles of Field   *Has Only Minimum Knowledge of Field*

A teacher who possesses a high degree of this quality recognizes important and significant knowledge in his field — concepts, generalizations, and relationships. He recognizes the organizing principles, or the basic ideas, of how things are related. This is sometimes referred to as the inquiry structure of the discipline.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Has Mastery of Facts and vs. Organizing Principles of Field   *Has Only Minimum Knowledge of Field*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N

1. Presentation concerned with basic principles of the field.

1. Presentation simply reviews the facts from the text.

2. Organized ideas, concepts, and principles on a recognizable priority system.

2. Presentation or discussion was not directed toward any central idea or generally accepted generalizations.

3. Drew examples and explanations from various sources and related fields.	3. Failed to enrich the class with illustrations familiar to students or from related fields.
4. Leads his class to form and test hypotheses.	4. Inaccurate or irrelevant comments; emphasizes mastery of unrelated facts.
5. Approach to subject was in spirit of discovery.	5. Approach to subject was one of routine examination of a given amount of materials.

Criterion VI — Communicates Well vs. Communicates Ineffectively and Empathetically and Perfunctorily

Teachers who possess a high degree of this quality show acute sensitivity to the perceptions of pupils and make use of these insights to make presentations at their level of understanding. A detailed analysis of the communication function is found in Smith and Ennis, Language and Concepts in Education.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Communicates Well and Empathetically vs. **Communicates Ineffectively and Perfunctorily**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N

1. Reacts to expression of students by asking if there are questions or whether a student can give an example.	1. Presents material withour recognizing obvious indications of confusing or personal interest on part of individuals.
2. Draws examples from local community or current interests of youth of the age group being taught.	2. Uses few examples or ones that serve to confuse the student.
3. Expresses pleasure at receiving student questions and comments.	3. Shows impatience with student interruptions and digressions.
4. Makes effective use of audio-visual aids to supplement communication.	4. Makes no attempt to adapt activities or materials to needs and interests of students.
5. Analyzes and answers student questions efficiently.	5. Makes little attempt to understand question; answers in rambling fashion.
6. Has no distracting mannerisms.	6. Has nervous mannerisms which distract.
7. Speaks fluently.	7. Speaks hesitantly.
8. Diagnoses readiness of students.	8. Unaware of student interest and understanding.

Criterion VII—Classroom Discourse vs Classroom Discourse Characterized by Reason- Characterized by Simple ing and Creative Thinking Recall

A teacher who possesses a high degree of this quality helps students to go beyond specific recall of facts into an understanding and application of the problem-solving process.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Classroom Discourse Characterized by Reasoning and Creative Thinking				vs. Classroom Discourse Characterized by Simple Recall			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N

1. Seeks definition of problems with his class.

2. Leads his class in a search for possible solutions to problems.
3. Leads class to decide upon the most promising solution to problems.
4. Leads class to evaluate and revise solutions previously reached by the class.
5. Encourages students to make wider application of general principles discovered.
6. Major share of teacher's questions are open-ended.
7. Permits a time lapse to occur after asking a question.
8. Frequently relates to experiences of pupils.

1. Raises own questions and answers them; or uses questions given and answered in the text.
2. Assumes a single correct solution to a problem.
3. Gives the single "best" solution.
4. Requires uncritical acceptance of facts.
5. Teaches facts unrelated to application.
6. Students are never asked, "Why?"
7. Students seldom given even a moment to think.
8. Makes no analogies to students' experiences.

Category VIII—Directs Attention to the Logical Operations in Thinking vs. *Fails to Call Attention to the Logical Operations in Thinking*

A teacher who finds opportunities to point out and analyze the logical operations in thinking will score high on this criterion. Teachers who help pupils become aware of the processes they follow in identifying and solving problems will score high. Teachers who are concerned only with subject matter will score low.

Illustrative classroom behaviors:

Directs Attention to the Logical Operations in Thinking				vs. Fails to Call Attention to the Logical Operations in Thinking			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N

1. Recognizes and points out that confusion arises from different definitions of terms. "You can't disagree unless you are talking about the same thing."
2. Recognizes and points out that differences or arguments arise from contrasting views of what is worthwhile or best.

1. Defines terms only according to what the dictionary says. Uses authoritarian rather than agreed upon meanings as basis for definition.
2. Ends an argument with a shrug and such comment as: "That's one person's opinion. I have mine. Let's get back to the subject."

3. Points out the differences between what is observed and what is inferred from the observation.
4. Asks for and demands examination of evidence.
5. Faces up to the problem where conflicting evidence or contradictory facts are presented by teaching the laws of evidence and rules of proof.
6. Leads students to state assumptions.

7. Helps students find their way through the steps of problem solving.
8. Makes beliefs truer.

3. Fails to distinguish between fact and inference.
4. Makes frequent dogmatic statements.
5. Ignores cases of loose reasoning or contradictory statements.

6. Asks a question that requires thinking but doesn't wait for students to think.
7. Either gives answer or avoids the problem.
8. Accepts beliefs and opinions uncritically.

Criterion IX—High Professional vs. *Low Professional*
Potential *Potential*

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | N |

The rating on this criterion is not an average of the other qualities in this profile. It goes beyond these qualities to include all factors and feeling concerning the professional potential of the student teacher. This includes such considerations as success in a typical school situation, desire to achieve the maximum potential for himself and his students, and interest in the improvement of the profession. It constitutes a global estimate.

B. ANALYSIS OF TEACHER CLASSROOM ACTIVITY

The Teacher Classroom Activity Profile (TCAP) is printed in two forms. The 8" x 11" no-carbon-required triplicate form B and the IBM card form C. The NCR form B will generally be used to record observations in the classroom — one copy (yellow) is for the student teacher, one copy (white) is for the Division of Secondary Teaching, and one copy (pink) is for the Departmental Supervisor. The IBM card will be used for key punching, filing, and research purposes.

The completed profile provides data which enable the student and supervisor to "reconstruct the experience" and examine the effectiveness of the teaching acts and consider alternatives. The completed profile constitutes a sequential account of the major activities in which the teacher engages during the class session.

Instructions for Use of TCAP

The observer records a continuous line moving among the seven major activities in three-minute intervals. Explanatory notes should be keyed to the column number which indicates the sequence of three-minute intervals. If there is just a momentary shift in categories, a vertical line going up or down to the proper category should be made without interruption of the general flow of the regular profile graphs.

It has been found helpful to indicate the time of day at each of the three-minute intervals, starting in column 1 with the minute the class starts and then recording the time at three-minute intervals after that in the numbered squares. If a teacher interrupts a presentation to reprimand a student or to ask for attention, since this

APPENDIX E   SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this study is to measure the meanings of certain things to you by having you judge them against a series of descriptive scales. In taking this test, please make your judgments on the basis of what these things mean to you. On each of the following pages you will find a different concept to be judged and beneath it a set of scales. You are to rate the concept on each of these scales in order.
Here is how you are to use the scales:
If you feel that the concept at the top of the page is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your check-mark as follows:

worthless   _X_ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ :   valuable
                                      or
worthless   ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : _X_ :   valuable

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check-mark as follows:

aware   ___ : _X_ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ :   unaware
                                      or
aware   ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : _X_ : ___ :   unaware

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

unfriendly   ___ : ___ : _X_ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ :   friendly
                                      or
unfriendly   ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : _X_ : ___ : ___ :   friendly

The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seems most characteristic of the thing you're judging.
If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the concept, then you should place your check-mark in the middle space:

good   ___ : ___ : ___ : _X_ : ___ : ___ : ___ :   bad

IMPORTANT: 1) Place your check-marks in the middle of
               spaces, not on the boundaries:
        This: x :   Not this: x   .
            2) Be sure you check every scale for every
               concept; do not omit any.
            3) Never put more than one check-mark on a
               single scale.

        Sometimes you may feel as though you had the same
item before on the test. This will not be the case, so
do not look back and forth through the items. Do not
try to remember how you checked similar items earlier
in the test. Make each item a separate and independent
judgment. Work at fairly high speed through this test.
Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is
your first impressions, the immediate "feelings" about
the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do
not be careless, because we want your true impressions.

Last four digits of social security no._____

MY PURPOSES

My perceptions of my purposes as a teacher.

good   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: bad

able   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: unable

unworthy   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: worthy

aware   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: unaware

unfriendly   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: friendly

meaningless   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: meaningful

involved   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: alienated

worthless   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: valuable

open   _: _: _: _: _: _: _: closed

untrustworthy _: _: _: _: _: _: _: trustworthy

MY AWARENESS OF THE ENVIRONMENT

My perceptions of my ability to see what's happening around me, especially in the classroom.

good	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	bad
able	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unable
unworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	worthy
aware	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unaware
unfriendly	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	friendly
meaningless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	meaningful
involved	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	alienated
worthless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	valuable
open	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	closed
untrustworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	trustworthy

ME AS EVALUATOR

My perceptions of my ability to evaluate my own teaching behavior.

good   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: bad

able   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: unable

unworthy   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: worthy

aware   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: unaware

unfriendly   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: friendly

meaningless   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: meaningful

involved   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: alienated

worthless   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: valuable

open   __: __: __: __: __: __: __: closed

untrustworthy __: __: __: __: __: __: __: trustworthy

MY AWARENESS OF MY EFFECT UPON OTHERS

My perceptions of my ability to realize the effect of my behavior on other people, especially in the classroom.

good	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	bad
able	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unable
unworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	worthy
aware	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unaware
unfriendly	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	friendly
meaningless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	meaningful
involved	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	alienated
worthless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	valuable
open	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	closed
untrustworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	trustworthy

ME AS TEACHER

My perceptions of myself as a teacher.

good	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	bad
able	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unable
unworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	worthy
aware	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unaware
unfriendly	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	friendly
meaningless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	meaningful
involved	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	alienated
worthless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	valuable
open	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	closed
untrustworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	trustworthy

MY AWARENESS OF MYSELF

My perceptions of my ability to know what's happening
within me, especially as it affects my teaching.

good	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	bad
able	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unable
unworhty	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	worthy
aware	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unaware
unfriendly	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	friendly
meaningless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	meaningful
involved	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	alienated
worthless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	valuable
open	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	closed
untrustworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	trustworthy

ME AS RESOURCE

My perceptions of my ability to use myself as my main resource, especially in the classroom.

good	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	bad
able	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unable
unworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	worthy
aware	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	unaware
unfriendly	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	friendly
meaningless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	meaningful
involved	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	alienated
worthless	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	valuable
open	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	closed
untrustworthy	__: __: __: __: __: __: __:	trustworthy

APPENDIX F   PREREGISTRATION FLYER

EXPERIENCE IN A CLASSROOM FOR PRE-PRACTICUM STUDENTS!!!!

Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors:

You can get valuable classroom experience while earning credit.
An innovative program, in which you can spend six hours a week
working closely with children, intern teachers, and regular
classroom teachers, is taking applications now for the spring
semester. If you would like to earn six credits while ex-
periencing an actual classroom come see Barbara or Rick at
the Pre-practicum table at pre-registration.

We want to talk with you.

APPENDIX G   LETTER TO PROSPECTIVE LEARNING PARTNERS

TO: PROSPECTIVE "LEARNING PARTNERS" (six-credit pre-
      practicum students)
FROM: RICK CURWIN AND BARBARA FUHRMANN

Please help us meet your needs by completing the follow-
ing questions and returning this questionnaire to one of
our mailboxes in Room 126, School of Education, by
December 20, 1971. You must return a questionnaire if
you wish to take part in the practicum.

NAME:_____ SEX:_____

CAMPUS ADDRESS:_____ PHONE:_____

_____ MARITAL STATUS:_____

HOME ADDRESS:_____ YR. OF GRAD:_____

_____ DO YOU HAVE A CAR?_____

GRADE OR SUBJECTS YOU HOPE TO TEACH_____

CAN YOU MEET ON THURSDAY EVENING?_____

ATTEND WEEKEND JAN. 28-29?_____

What qualities, characteristics, and teaching situation
do you want in your intern partner? (Outline whatever
you think important.)

What do you hope to gain from a learning partner exper-
ience with an intern teacher?

What reservations or fears do you have in entering this
experience?

Thanks. We are encouraged by your interest and enthusiasm,
and are looking forward to a fun and involving experience.
We ask only that you commit yourself to working closely
with your intern partner and with the group as a whole.
You must put in four-five hours per week in the class-
room, regularly attend the Thursday evening session
(7-10 p.m.), and be willing to start the semester with a
Friday evening and all-day Saturday session on January
28-29. If you are willing to commit yourself, fill out
the above and return to us by December 20.

Rick Curwin

Rick Curwin

Barbara Fuhrmann

Barbara Fuhrmann

APPENDIX H LETTER TO INTERNS

December 24, 1971

Dear

      As the supervisors of your internship experience, we invite you to select one of the following times to meet with us prior to the beginning of the new semester. In order to get the internship off to a good start, we feel it imperative to speak with you personally. We will be in the TPPC office, Room 121 in the School of Education, at 10 a.m. Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, January 3-6. Please leave a note in one of our mailboxes in Room 126, or call us at the numbers below to confirm a day for you.

      It is essential that we see you. If all the above times are impossible for you, please call and we'll make other arrangements.

      Also, please reserve Friday evening, January 28 and all day Saturday, January 29 for an intern workship. We'll explain the nature and purpose of the workshop in our early January meeting with you, and because your attendance is essential, we want you to know of the dates well in advance.

      We look forward to meeting with you, and are excited about the possibility of a rewarding semester.

Best wishes for a happy new year.

Rick Curwin

Rick Curwin
549-0384

Barbara Fuhrmann

Barbara Fuhrmann
549-0465

To: Rick Curwin and Barbara Fuhrmann

Name_____

I will meet with you on_____.

APPENDIX I REMINDER LETTER

January 17, 1972

Dear

  We would once again like to welcome you and
thank you for participating in our program this semester.
We look forward to our next meeting, the weekend session
combining interns and pre-practicum students. The dates
are Friday, January 28 beginning at 7 p.m. and Saturday,
January 29, from 9-5. This meeting is essential to our
project as it will be the basis for matching up learning
partners. Because everybody's time is so valuable we
would appreciate it if you could be there promptly at 7,
on Friday, so we can begin with little delay. Please
note that our room has been changed to 163-164 Campus
Center, to allow us more room.

  After meeting with each individual in the program
we are more excited about next semester than ever. We
hope you will be able to share our enthusiasm with us.

       Sincerely,

       Rick Barbara

       Rick Curwin
       Barbara Fuhrmann

APPENDIX J   LETTER TO TEACHERS

January 19, 1972

Dear

During the spring semester, 1972, we will be supervising the
intern from U Mass who will be working with you. In some cases,
we have already spoken with you concerning the manner in which
we hope to work this semester; in others the opportunity has
not yet been available, but we will certainly be talking with
you shortly.

Regardless of whether or not we have seen you personally thus
far, we cordially invite you to join us for the orientation
workshop we will be holding for the interns on Friday, Jan. 28,
from 7-10 p.m., and Saturday, January 29 from 9 a.m. - 4 p.m.
at the University Campus Center, Room 163. At that time, we
plan to have the interns (and the preinterns with whom we will
also be working) spend some time getting to know one another
and getting oriented to the internship experience. We realize,
of course, that your weekend time is valuable to you, but we
nevertheless want you to feel free to spend whatever time you
can with us. You are welcome to take part in the entire work-
shop or in any portion of it that you choose. Please drop in
if you can.

We also invite you to join us when you can for the supervisory
seminar that will be held every Thursday evening from 7-10 p.m.
in room E37 of Machmer Hall (just across from the Student
Union). At those meetings we hope to meet whatever needs
arise, in addition to spending time in activities designed
to help interns analyze their teaching behaviors.

We are looking forward to meeting and working with each of you.
Whenever you have a question, concern, or comment, please call
either of us.

Sincerely,

Rick Curwin
549-0384

Barbara Fuhrmann
549-0465

APPENDIX K   WEEK-END WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES

1. Semantic differential pre-test

2. Name cards

3. Silent milling

4. Twosomes -- foursomes selection

5. Foursome activities
   a. two-minute biographies
   b. embarrassing moments
   c. issue stands

6. Milling

7. Non-verbal exercises

8. Back-rubs

9. Discussion of program

10. Discussion of I-View

11. Partner selection

APPENDIX L SELECTED SEMINAR ACTIVITIES

1. Attitude exploration (I-View, Part I)

2. Fantasies

3. Partner planning and exchange

4. Journal writing

5. Feedback letters

6. Brainstorming (solutions to felt problems)

7. Support group selection

8. Support group discussion

9. Role-playing

10. Public interviews

11. Video-taping of teaching sessions

12. Role-playing to learn data-collection techniques

13. Program feedback