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DISSERTATION
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
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*****

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The Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged
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-continued-

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CHAPTER I

ANALYZING THE PROBLEMS OF DISADVANTAGED LEARNERS

Each decade seems to carry its unique set of problems associated with education and accompanied by a set of efforts to solve them. At the present time, one set of learning problems demanding much attention and effort is that related to social and economic deprivation in the United States. These learning problems warrant description and analysis as well as effort toward solution if we are to retain our leading position as a democracy with the highest standards of living known and the broadest programs of educating the populace.

Is it appropriate to refer to economic and social deprivation as disadvantages resulting in learning problems? Research data and other professional literature repeatedly emphasize that learners at all levels whose backgrounds reflect lack of certain social experiences and lack of an economic status which makes the experiences somewhat more probable—present the most chronic cases of learning difficulties among school children today. Additionally, the quantity of these learning problems attests to the fact that there is a definite and
profound relationship between disadvantaged status and low attainment of desirable school achievement.

Solutions to these learning problems require detailed analysis and carefully developed approaches to remediation. One beginning toward these solutions is the enhancement of programs which prepare teachers whose services will become available to learners with the aforementioned backgrounds.

An Overview

In America, the democratic ideal supports the contention that every individual should be given the opportunity for free public education through the completion of the secondary school. This is a valid and logical contention since it would be impossible for a democracy to be functional unless those who live therein utilize certain basic skills which are necessary for survival. The basic skills referred to here are those common to all literate societies and especially to citizens of the United States of America. Particularly is it desirable and necessary for each individual to have learning experiences, both in and out of school, which allow him to proceed toward maximum development of individual abilities and capacities. These learning experiences build one upon the other and provide opportunities for the full utilization of all levels of
mental development as well as for the enhancement of desirable social activity.

In this decade, learning problems associated with economically and socially disadvantaged settings have reached a level of complexity never before imagined or presumed. Not only are we faced with the problems identified as learning problems in disadvantaged settings, but concurrent problems growing out of the compilation of factors associated with housing, employment, social experiences, low-income, geographic isolation, economic activity, and political awareness.

Economic and social deprivation in the United States has reached such proportions that many agencies have been forced to turn attention to proposals and procedures designed to decrease the complexity and extent of these problems. Because society has always turned to the schools for direction and help in the solution of human problems, educational institutions have begun to respond in seemingly desperate ways seeking preventive and corrective approaches.

Learning problems, then, emerge as the unique problems of the schools. In disadvantaged areas, these problems continue to increase in quantity and complexity. This study is designed to (1) validate the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged, an original
instrument which seeks to discover the extent of cognitive concepts and knowledges held by pre-service teachers at the student-teaching level, the ranks from which the next new teachers will come, and (2) to learn the realities of existing competencies reflected through mastery of cognitive information on the disadvantaged learner held by pre-service teachers from institutions preparing large numbers of teachers. Most of the institutions used in the study hold membership in the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

The mobility of the American population and the constant shift from rural to urban localities have resulted in a heavy concentration of disadvantaged learners in the urban centers of the nation. It is estimated that two-thirds of the population live in or near the metropolitan centers of America. Concurrently, two-thirds of the disadvantaged are included in these centers. Just in terms of sheer numbers, the problems of teaching the disadvantaged are immense. Solutions to the problems directly involve the effectiveness of instruction for the disadvantaged which must be based on a thorough understanding of the learner by the teacher. For instance, a classroom teacher, attempting to help a pupil make social adjustment in a learning situation that a pupil perceives as almost totally foreign, impractical, and of little or
no benefit—will be in a much more advantageous position to help the learner if the teacher holds realistic, factual, and accurate concepts about the learner and his life.

It cannot be denied that specific problems faced by American schools can best be approached with remedial intentions when the teacher has a comprehensive knowledge of the learner, the extent and quality of his social experiences as well as the economic status of the family from which he comes. Such knowledge provides for the selection, planning and organization of more productive learning experiences.

Schools and Teachers

In one sense, schools are social agencies as well as educational institutions charged, among other things, with the responsibility of helping children learn by selecting, planning, organizing, directing, and evaluating learning experiences which contribute to the development of each learner in accordance with the academic potential demonstrated. American schools have always been viewed as the major human resource center in our society and educating the children of the poor is a major challenge for that center.

Without reservation, the classroom teacher is the most crucial variable in the teaching-learning setting.
No schools can ever hope to be more productive, more academically challenging, more respected or more serviceable than the quality of the teachers who staff them. Teachers are people with monumental responsibilities for guiding the learning experiences of children and in the process of discharging these responsibilities, they become the most influential individuals at the professional level in our times. Their knowledge about learners with unique and severe learning problems appears to be a significant factor in the quality and appropriateness of classroom teaching performances which will be given in the future. Their teaching responsibilities are discharged in ways which are direct reflections of their teacher-training programs and related experiences.

One of the most pronounced characteristics of the child from socially and economically disadvantaged families or communities is that of behavior which deviates from the level generally accepted in organized learning situations and in related activities. Because teachers must constantly observe and evaluate the behavior of children in school, they are also in a unique position to help influence that behavior. In our system, the masses of children are educated in public schools and most states have compulsory school attendance laws through age sixteen. Schools are staffed primarily by classroom
teachers who spend the major part of their time in the act of directing learning experiences designed to change behavior. Because the behavior of children from socially and economically disadvantaged settings has often deviated so markedly from the behavior of children from more advantaged settings, it is believed that a study of knowledge about them held by pre-service teachers approaching entrance to the ranks of the professional practitioner would reveal certain data which may be useful in suggesting approaches to more adequate and more appropriate training for future teachers.

Definition of Terms

Cognitive concepts as used in this study refer to facts, ideas, or generalizations in the mind drawn from particular instances. These knowledges are at the levels of recall, comprehension and judgment and are individually held as factual content.

Pre-service teachers are those persons registered as students in collegiate programs of teacher education at colleges and universities in the United States. Further, they are persons whose teacher-training programs have included knowledge of content in both basic discipline courses and in professional education courses together with related experiences, particularly student teaching (sometimes called internship) in a public or
private school which is recognized as having a realistic and acceptable school program. As candidates for baccalaureate degrees with teaching specialties, these persons are normally expected to enter the service of teaching upon receipt of degrees and teaching certification.

**Economically disadvantaged learners** are those pupils registered in pre-school, elementary and secondary classes who are members of families that are considered poor based on the income scale of $3600 per four persons in family (scale used by the Office of Economic Opportunity of the United States Office of Health, Education, and Welfare). Further, they are the children whose families are designated as low-income families due to an absent, non-producing, or marginally-producing breadwinner; they are residents in neighborhoods where dwellings are noticeably inferior in structure (material from which they are constructed), in architecture, and in maintenance, or they live in high-rise housing developments which are a vertical variation of horizontal low-income dwellings. Finally, they are often children whose families are recipients of public financial assistance through social welfare agencies.

**Socially disadvantaged learners** are those registered pupils in pre-school, elementary or secondary
classes who vary from each other in a number of ways, but whose common characterist.
ics include (1) low social status, (2) low educational achievement, (3) lack of social experiences which tend to broaden the perceptual base and "social conditioning" of the individual, (4) lack of motivation at a level appropriate for normal school achievement or success, (5) lack of interest in intellectual pursuits, (6) geographic isolation from much of the activity in the "mainstream" of American life, and (7) social alienation caused by racial, ethnic, or class discrimination with all its accompanying deprivations in housing, employment, and education or by membership in a different or non-English-speaking subcultural group.

The use of the foregoing terms is made with the observation that economic deprivation and social deprivation are characteristics of the same child, home, family, school, or community. It is for this reason that the combined term, economically and socially disadvantaged learners, will be used throughout this study.

Further, the learners referred to in the study have been defined and labeled in other studies and in published literature with a variety of terms including (1) the socio-economically deprived, (2) the culturally deprived, (3) the culturally alienated, (4) the chronically poor, (5) the poverty-stricken, (6) those of depressed
social and economic status, (7) the slow learners, (8) the inner-city children, (9) the slum children, (10) the ghetto children, and (11) the drifters—children of disorganized, lower class families.

Despite the fact that the terms have been used interchangeably in professional and popular literature, in this study the most common use will be limited to economically and socially disadvantaged learners or to children whose lives reflect social and economic deprivation. Inherent in this use is the notion that economic deprivation and social deprivation are academic and intellectual disadvantages.

**Basic Assumptions**

This study of cognitive concepts held by pre-service teachers relating to economically and socially disadvantaged learners is undertaken based on the following assumptions:

1. that public and private schools in the United States do have responsibility for educating the children of all the people including those who are socially and economically disadvantaged;

2. that alleviation of the problems associated with teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings requires attention to the most powerful element in the learning situation which is the **classroom teacher**;
3. that immediate and long-range plans for decreasing the problems attributable to economic and social deprivation include special programs and practices designed for learners with this background and description;

4. that the preparation of teachers is a factor that will continue to be significant when assessments of American education are made and when the value of schools serving these learners is reappraised;

5. that large numbers of children enrolled in public schools today do make up a describable group identified as being socially and economically disadvantaged;

6. that the school fulfills one of its most important obligations when its pupils show increased academic achievement;

7. that most pre-service programs for teachers are comprised of individuals (students and instructors) who themselves are products of middle class patterns of living and whose values reflect middle class standards;

8. that cognitive factors about socially and economically disadvantaged learners, sufficient for mastery of traditional teaching methodology, are held by each pre-service teacher during the course of his training.

An analysis of the foregoing assumptions reveals
a rather unique place in the American way of life for the school, the teacher, and for the learners who are categorized as being socially and economically disadvantaged.

Because the profession of education has always accepted the basic and the adjunct responsibilities which society has thrust upon it, there is now a distinct feeling of urgency within the profession to discover theories, practices, procedures and innovations which lend themselves to the ultimate alleviation of problems associated with social and economic deprivation. Not only are we concerned with the massive problems associated with the population explosion in this country, but we are also faced with a form of a "knowledge explosion" which makes it mandatory to increase the rates at which we have traditionally taught and learned in schools. In other words, there is more to be learned now than even a decade ago, and the time in which to teach it and learn it seems to be constant or decreasing. It appears that Americans are unconsciously demanding that schools increase the rate and quality of their production and meet the challenges of the present and future at the same time.

The scope of this study seeks to concern itself with the discovery of existing situation—knowledge of which may be helpful in planning future programs which
prepare teachers.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study is to describe precisely how much pre-service teachers know about socially and economically disadvantaged learners. It seeks to discover their present level of understanding regarding such factors as the effect of family relationships upon language development in the child, the impact of self-concept upon motivation in disadvantaged learners and the social and economic status of the families from which the learners come. Concurrently, it is also the purpose of this study to validate the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged, the instrument used in conducting the study.

Specifically, the objectives of the study are to:

1. Validate the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged through item analysis and responses from experts in education, psychology, and sociology.

2. Identify the cognitive concepts held by pre-service teachers about the conditions of social and economic deprivation and about learners from disadvantaged settings.

3. Identify the extent to which pre-service teachers hold knowledge of literature and of research data about teaching and learning in depressed areas.

4. Make recommendations for revisions in teacher education programs based on the findings.
Significance of the Study for Education

The study as outlined is a descriptive study of the existing status of pre-service teachers' knowledge about various aspects of education specifically related to teaching socially and economically disadvantaged learners. The nature of that reality has not actually been known.

We do not know how to describe the teachers who are best suited for work with disadvantaged learners and it is fairly certain that specific preparation for teachers who may be assigned classes containing this kind of learner has not been identified. Several limited programs for training of pre-service teachers have been developed without much precise information about how much knowledge the prospective teacher has or gains during the course of the training. Simple profiles are not easily developed when they are applied to teaching and learning situations.

This study is designed to produce information which would be especially useful to planners of teacher education programs preparing teachers to serve disadvantaged learners. Those responsible for planning pre-service teacher education programs might desire to adjust the studies and experiences included in pre-service programs for teachers in relation to the strengths and weaknesses identified in the study and reported in the find-
This information should also prove helpful to those responsible for in-service programs involving teachers who staff schools serving disadvantaged learners.

Many programs which are even remotely concerned with the education of economically and socially disadvantaged learners are presently based upon guesses or assumptions about the pre-service teachers' knowledge of factors regarding the learner rather than on the basis of empirical fact. The usefulness of this study presupposes an inadequate data base of how much pre-service teachers know about the nature of that kind of learner. Precise knowledge about this should be of value to almost any person who is concerned about teacher preparation and teacher improvement. An accurate description of the reality involved is considered to be one crucial aspect in thinking of program development and instructional innovation for pre-service teachers.

Profile of the Disadvantaged Learner

Writings which attempt to describe the disadvantaged learner often appear as though their authors experienced considerable difficulty in making them precise, accurate, and understandable. One way in which the disadvantaged learner may be described is through the listing of factors associated with pupil characteristics.
or by a variety of similar specified areas. Learning, however, requires skill and facility in speaking, listening, reading, writing, problem solving and critical thinking utilizing standard English language in order to reach traditional achievement levels as sought and evaluated in American schools.

Webster (55), Havighurst (25) and others have offered descriptions which include the fact that these learners may be described in terms of (a) family characteristics, (b) personal characteristics, and (c) observable social groups. The term, disadvantaged, is a relative term and means that the learner has a disadvantage relative to some other learner. In this case, the "other learner" will be one of higher economic status based on income and its reflection in housing, employment, and education and one of higher social status based on the experiential diet of the child as developed through the kinds of social activities engaged in by the family and other immediate contacts. The socially disadvantaged child is one who is handicapped in the task of growing up to lead a competent and satisfying life in the American society.

Studies have shown that lack of economic resources and lack of many social experiences which modern schools consider to be common to all learners--generate
frustration, account for mental retardation, and result in academic failure. These observations are given in terms of comparisons with children of more advantaged situations and are made on the basis of empirical data regarding school achievement, aptitude, self-concept, aspiration levels and motivation to be successful in academic tasks.

(Profile) Based on Family Characteristics

The socially disadvantaged child, compared with other children whose families give them average or better advantages for getting started in modern urban life, lacks several of the following:

1. a family conversation which:
   a. answers his questions and encourages him to ask questions
   b. extends his vocabulary with words and with adjectives
   c. gives him a right and a need to stand up for and to explain his point of view on the world.

2. a family environment which:
   a. sets an example of reading
   b. provides a variety of toys and play material with colors, sizes, and objects that challenge his ingenuity with his hands and his mind.

3. two parents who:
   a. read a good deal
b. read to him

c. show him that they believe in the value of education

d. reward him for good school achievement. ( )

Following Bernstein's designations of language types, the child from socially and economically disadvantaged settings experiences what is known as restricted language as opposed to elaborated language.

Restricted Language

A family which employs restricted language gives a child a language environment characterized by:

1. Short, grammatically simple, often unfinished sentences with a poor form stressing the active voice.

2. Simple and repetitive use of conjunctions such as so, then, and because.

3. Little use of subordinate clauses to break down the initial categories of the dominant subject.

4. Inability to hold a formal subject through a speech sequence; thus a dislocated informational content is facilitated.

5. Rigid and limited use of adjectives and adverbs.


7. Frequent use of statements where the reason and conclusion are confounded to produce a categoric statement.

8. A large number of statements and phrases which signal a requirement for the previous speech sequence to be reinforced ("Wouldn't it?" "You
see?" "You know?" and similar insertions). This process is termed "sympathetic circularity."

9. Individual selection from a group of idiomatic phrases or sequences occurring frequently.

10. Individual qualification implicit in the sentence organization. It is a language of implicit meaning.

Elaborated Language

On the other hand, a family which employs an elaborated language gives the child a language environment characterized by:

1. Accurate grammatical order and syntax which regulate what is said.

2. Logical modification and stress mediated through grammatically complex sentence structure construction, especially through the use of a range of conjunctions and subordinate clauses.

3. Frequent use of prepositions which indicate logical relationships as well as prepositions which indicate temporal and spatial contiguity.

4. Frequent use of the personal pronoun, "I".

5. A discriminative selection from a range of adjectives and adverbs.

6. Individual qualification is verbally mediated through the structure and relationships within and between sentences.

7. Expressive symbolism discriminates between meanings within speech sequences rather than reinforcing dominant words or phrases, or accompanying the sequence in a diffuse, generalized manner.

8. A language use which points to the possibilities inherent in a complex conceptual hierarchy for
the organizing of experiences.

A child who has learned a restricted language at home is likely to have difficulty in school where an elaborate language is used and taught by the teacher; and the difficulty of the child is likely to increase as he goes further in school, unless he learns the elaborate language that is expected in the school. In comparison, the child who has had experience with an elaborated language from his early years has a relatively easy time in school, because he must simply go on developing the kind of language and related thinking which he has already started.

(Profile) Based on Personal Characteristics

The socially disadvantaged learner from a family environment characterized by restricted language tends to reflect certain personal deficits. According to the Deutsch studies, such children have:

a. inferior auditory discrimination
b. inferior visual discrimination
c. inferior judgment concerning time, number and other basic concepts.

Analysis reveals, however, that this inferiority is not due to physical defects of eyes and ears and brain, but is due to inferior habits of hearing and seeing and thinking. Presumably, the family environment of these
children did not teach them to "pay attention" to what was being said around them or to the visual scene. Then when they attended school, their school performances suffered because they had not learned to "listen" to the teacher and other important people or to "see" the things they are shown in school.

(Profile) Based on Observable Social Groups

The socially disadvantaged child described in terms of observable social groups is the child from groups with the following characteristics:

1. They are at the bottom of the American society in terms of income.

2. They have a rural background.

3. They suffer from social and economic discrimination at the hands of the majority of the society.

4. They are widely distributed in the United States. While they are most visible in the big cities, they are present in all except the very high income communities. There are many of them in rural areas.

In racial and ethnic terms, these groups are about evenly divided between whites and non-whites. They consist mainly of the following:

1. Negroes from the rural South who have migrated recently to the Northern industrial cities.

2. Whites from the rural South and the Southern mountains who have migrated recently to the Northern industrial cities.

3. Puerto Ricans who have migrated to a few
Northern industrial cities.

4. Mexicans with a rural background who have migrated into the West and Middle West.

5. European immigrants with a rural background from East and Southern Europe.

Altogether, these groups make up a large percentage of the United States population. Since they tend to have large families, their children make up an even larger percentage of the child population.

Passow (40), in discussing Thomas' findings in studying kindergarten children, describes the disadvantaged learner of low socio-economic status when compared to children of upper socio-economic status.

Summarily, they are:

1. Culturally different children use a smaller number and variety of words to express themselves. They speak in shorter sentences.

2. They use a much larger proportion of incomplete sentences.

3. They use a small proportion of mature sentences such as compound, complex, and elaborate constructions.

4. They tend not to elaborate their ideas.

5. They commit more errors such as verb and subject not in agreement, colloquialism and slang, omission of auxiliaries, wrong word order, and misuse of prepositions.

Not all socially disadvantaged children come from the groups described above, but the majority do. Not all children in these groups are socially disadvantaged, but
the great majority are.

Residency of the Disadvantaged

While a complex of reasons surround the fact that a large percentage of the disadvantaged live in metropolitan areas, it is established that the most obvious and most disadvantaged families of our country are now resident in urban communities. This is not to suggest that rural or less urban communities do not have their share of families who are so categorized but because of the vast number of these persons now living in our largest cities, special attention is given to the plight of the poor with minor children who are now resident in urban areas.

The City. The most dramatic change in the make up of urban population in the last several decades relates to the movement of middle-and-upper middle class families from the city itself to the surrounding suburban and ex-urban areas. As a result, the metropolitan areas have increased in population while many of the older cities themselves have shown either little change or a decline in population (Vernon, 1960). This has occurred despite the continued in-migration of people from rural areas, young women looking for career possibilities and small town people in search of employment.

Passow (40) further explains that resident in New
York, for example, is a small group of upper income families who prefer the convenience of accessibility and the advantages of urban living to the greater spaciousness and isolation of the further suburbs. This group produces a very minor part of the public school population, since most of its children go to independent day or residential schools. A second group, the "clerical workers" (Vernon, 1960), those immediately below the professional or managerial level but above laborers and service workers, represent a considerable portion of the city's residents, living mainly within the city limits in the areas surrounding Manhattan. Within Manhattan and the neighboring portions of other boroughs in the most decayed areas of the city, whether in obsolescent structures or in low-income public housing, lives the great mass of low-income families.

According to the United States Census of Population, about seventy percent of all residents of the New York metropolitan region who earned less than $1500 per year lived in the core of the city, whereas only a little more than half the people who earned between $7000 and $10,000 lived within the city limits. Analyses of the population statistics of other cities would probably reveal similar patterns.

Economic deprivation, then, appears to have its
most chronic state in the core of American cities. Documentaries and numerous legislative efforts all help toward identifying families of economic deprivation and toward bringing an awareness of their existence to the more privileged—ore the more advantaged.

Although the total metropolis must be viewed as an essentially inter-dependent complex, no part of which can solve its problem alone, the central core of the city with its great masses of financially and socially disadvantaged people living in severely blighted and gray areas, demands particular emphasis and first priority in any attempt to study and to improve education and total living patterns in the rapidly enlarging metropolitan areas of the United States.

Nature of the Problem

It is a well known fact that schools did not create the problems related to social and economic deprivation but as part of the school's professional and social responsibility, it is attempting to prepare teachers to serve disadvantaged learners. It is significant to know and understand much about the learner before an effective job of instruction can be planned and implemented. In establishing the relevancy of this knowledge to the improvement of teacher education and teacher preparation, particularly preparation for teaching the
children of the poor, we must re-emphasize the fact that teaching is a highly personalized kind of professional activity. Because of the nature of teaching, the teacher must be equipped with varying kinds of knowledges for effective performance in the classroom.

The four categories of knowledge which are considered major segments of teacher preparation programs are:

1. Knowledge of human behavior
2. Knowledge of content from academic discipline
3. Knowledge of the learner

Programs of teacher education have made great strides in items #1, #2 (even with the knowledge explosion), and #4. In the case of disadvantaged learners, not enough has been done in item #3. No one really knows what kind of teachers are most productive in disadvantaged settings. If that were known, the solution to the problem would be practically at hand. Educational experimentation must continue, however, in the hope that those teachers may either be found or be prepared through new and challenging programs of preparation.

The essence of this study is based on the notion that many pre-service teachers need more cognitive information on the characteristics of children considered
MAJOR CATEGORIES OF KNOWLEDGES NEEDED BY THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

Knowledge of Human Behavior

Knowledge of Content from Academic Discipline

Knowledge of the LEARNER

Knowledge of Materials and Instructional Methodology

THE LEARNER

Figure 1.
socially and economically deprived. Research has provided certain data which makes it possible to further identify the conditions or characteristics which have been encountered in children from this kind of background with such frequency that they bear listing here.

Usdan (59) cites:

1. Weaknesses in the utilization of abstract symbols to represent and to interpret phenomena. They are reflected at all academic levels in vocabulary and language usage, reading comprehension and speed, word-attack skills, and in the use of formal arithmetic tools.

2. Concept formation tends to be content centered rather than form centered, that is, concrete as opposed to abstract, with far greater emphasis on inductive than on deductive reasoning. Even within the realm of inductive reasoning, deprived children seem to be limited in their readiness to make accurate generalizations from the specific to the universal and in the ability to transfer knowledge utilizing previously learned concepts.

3. Their typical ways of perceiving the environment and of receiving information from it differ from the ways that are important to academic learning. Although high levels of perceptual sensitization and discrimination are often present, these skills tend to be better developed in physical rather than in visual, and in visual
rather than in aural behavior. Of great significance is
the absence of any high degree of dependence on verbal or
written communication for cues in understanding the en-
vironment. Many of these children have simply not become
attuned to the perceptual modes traditional to academics.

4. Many of these children show a marked lack of
readiness for involvement with, attention to, and con-
centration on the content of their academic experiences.
There are few academic tasks that commit them to deep
involvement. Work habits are frequently insufficiently
developed. The high-interest demands of extra-academic
experiences leave them limited in their ability to inhibit
responses to stimuli that are extraneous to academic
learning and to disinhibit responses to stimuli that are
pertinent to academic learning.

5. The degree and direction of motivation are
often inconsistent with the demands of and goals of formal
education. Symbolic rewards and postponements of gratifi-
cation appear to be inoperative as positive norms in
motivation. Goals for these children to be more self-
centered, immediate, and utilitarian. Although the values
from which motivation is derived do reflect the dominant-
culture concerns with status, material possession, ingroup
morality, Judeo-Christian ethics, competition, and the
like, there is usually lacking a concern with aesthetics
of knowledge, symbolization as an art form, introspection and competition with self. Drive is present, but its direction and goals may not be complementary to academic achievement.

6. Attitudinal preparation closely related to motivational factors is not infrequently a problem in planning education for deprived children. Depressed self concept has been noted as well as self-depreciation.

Socio-cultural Factors

Additionally, these children face very specific socio-cultural patterns in relation to:

- a. nutrition and health status
- b. geographic mobility
- c. family instability
- d. overcrowding and inadequacy in housing
- e. absentee parents
- f. economic insufficiency
- g. second and third class citizenship
- h. excessive and extraneous stimulation present in communities marked by rapid social change or disorganization.

Positive Characteristics of Disadvantaged Children

Both Reisman (43) and Gordon (20) make strong points that efforts to describe characteristics of disadvantaged children include positive factors which can be useful in the educative process. Experience with youth
gangs and with delinquents provides ample evidence that selective motivation, creativity, and proficiency are present in many of these children. There are also examples of complex symbolism utilized in special recall, association, and generalization, and accurate perception of social, psychological, and physical data. These children are capable of positive as well as negative relationships and are frequently found to hunger for meaningful identifications with significant adults.

Knowledge of these and other characteristics about a specific group of learners provides a data base for any pre-service teacher whose preparation should include some familiarity with this kind of learner. Knowledge of the learners to be taught in any given situation places the teacher in a more advantageous position for utilizing those strengths and weaknesses toward academic productivity.

Studies have shown that more than fifty percent of the socially and economically disadvantaged adults have some educational deficiency which tends to place a ceiling on the nature of employment for which they can successfully bargain. As a long-term effort for the alleviation of this social and economic problem, classroom teachers must be prepared to upgrade their performances through more thorough knowledge of the disadvantaged learner, his
environment, his family, and his perceptions, in order to increase academic productivity. Success in school is a major factor in raising aspiration levels and upgrading the self-concept of disadvantaged children, especially those of minority groups. Teachers whose professional training provides them with more factual data about this kind of learner are in a better position to help the child work toward success in school.

**Migration Factor of Disadvantaged Families**

Taba and Elkins (50) address themselves to the plight of the disadvantaged families with regard to the effects of migration on family existence and on the school achievement of the children.

There is still rapid migration of disadvantaged families to industrial cities both from the rural areas of the United States and from other countries: Negroes and Puerto Ricans in the East; Spanish-Americans, Mexicans, and Indians in the Southwest and marginal farmers and poor mountain whites everywhere (Jencks, 1962).

This migration accentuates the disabilities of the migrant children in learning and socialization. According to Harrington (22), between 20 and 40 percent of our population lives in a subsociety of economic, social and educational impoverishment in the midst of a society of abundance. A portion of this impoverished population
is concentrated in large cities where they not only face marginal employment and crowded, dehumanizing living conditions but also are the most displaced by rapid technological changes (Harrington, 1962). Geographically, in the most disadvantaged settings, there are crowded and dilapidated tenements. If the people are Negro, Puerto Rican, or Mexican-American or poor mountain whites, life is in a more-or-less segregated community. There are likely to be extremely crowded apartments, high rates of unemployment, chronic economic insecurity, a disproportionate number of broken families, and continual exposure to denigration and social ostracism of varying degrees. The educational level of the adults tends to be quite limited and the result is a pattern of life that exposes a child to a minimum of direct contacts with the central channels of our culture. The condition of social inequality, the absence of an accessible opportunity structure, and the frequent non-availability of successful adult male models create an atmosphere there that is just not facilitating to individual development. The everyday problems of living, particularly those of economic insecurity and a multiplicity of children, leave minimum time for the adults who may be present to assist the child in exploring the world, to reward him for successful completion of tasks, and to help him in the development of
a differentiated self-concept (Deutsch, 1964).

The usual difficulties that plague the public schools in large cities are magnified among children who live in such conditions. These children show generally poor performance. They have a high proportion of failure, of drop-outs, of reading and other learning disabilities, and of life adjustment problems. Sexton's (1961) tables of correlation between income and education show that members of lower income groups consistently score lower on practically every index. They have lower IQ's, achievement, grades; their health is poorer. They are beset with deficiencies in reading and language, the two tools on which success in school depends.

The correlation of Merit scholars by family profession and income levels dramatize the discrepancy. The children of librarians and professors produce 234 Merit scholars per 12,672 families, while the children of laborers produce on Merit scholar per 3,581,370 families. Since it seems reasonable to assume that potential merit is distributed much more evenly than that, it appears that social rather than genetic factors are operating.

Other Learning Difficulties

Disadvantaged children also lack the skills and the habits necessary for meeting the expectations of conduct in school. Observation in a first-grade classroom
showed that the children did not distinguish one piece of paper from another, tearing out a page from one book to make a marker for another one, and then cherishing a piece of toilet paper, (Taba-Elkins). They have minimal training in disciplined group behavior. While the middle class child acquires the norms of group behavior around the dinner table, lower class families rarely have dinner together as a group. The consequences are illustrated by one teacher's bafflement when her children obediently sat down in their reading groups, but then stood and went about their own business. This was obviously a behavior learned in the family. The stories that the same children dictated about their families included recurring examples of withdrawal or "running away" in the face of a conflict or difficulty: when father gets mad, he "goes away and stays all night"; when brother gets made, he "goes to a baseball game"; when mother gets mad she "takes us to the movies and doesn't bring us back."

Other difficulties include failure to exhibit the virtues cherished in school, such as cleanliness, punctuality, and orderliness. Often the teachers do not perceive behavior of this type as functional habits learned at home and in the neighborhood but interpret it, rather, as malicious conduct to be corrected by appropriate punishments.
Perhaps the most serious deficiencies occur in the area of cognitive functioning: in processes of thinking, in language skills and in reading (Deutsch, 1964). The intellectual inferiority of the children from lower class families and disadvantaged areas is evident from the first years of school. Children from such environments are apt to have various linguistic disabilities such as poor articulation, limited vocabularies, and faulty grammar (Hunt, 1964). School records indicate their incapacity in such cognitive processes as the ability to observe and state sequence of events, to perceive cause-and-effect relationships, or to group concrete phenomena into classes of phenomena. Presumably, individual potential is evenly distributed among all groups of people. If there are differences in the functioning intelligence of groups, they must be caused by environmental conditions which inhibit or fail to convert the potential intelligence into a functioning one.

Examinations of the diary materials of disadvantaged eighth grade children in a northern city confirms the lack of opportunity to interpret experience or to check such interpretations if attempted. Typically, a day is characterized by a rapid shift from one activity to another, by lack of sustained attention to one thing, and especially by the scarcity of experience with ab-
stractions. For example, if parents and children eat dinner together, the time is spent in meting out punishments for infractions committed the day before and in allocating chores. In only one instance out of twenty-five did the members of a family use dinner time to discuss what happened to them during the day, that is, to interpret and express their experiences (Taba, 1955). Further, lower class conversations tend to be limited to the immediate instant and they generally do not include sequences, relationships between concepts, logical sequences, or casual relationships. Records show that the speech sequences are limited and poorly structured. Yet they have an expressive quality if one overlooks the poor structure and spelling. Thus it seems that the problem of linguistic deficiency is not merely that of a lack of vocabulary or poor syntax. It includes also a low level of conceptualization and a low ability to perceive relationships. The combinations of nonverbal orientation and an absence of conceptualization may very well account for what we call low intelligence in economically and socially disadvantaged children.

If a child's sensory discrimination, language, and cognitive skills are inadequately developed, he is not prepared to cope with the complex and confusing stimuli that the school offers. He is not capable of handling the
many strategies of transforming information which make it usable; he cannot see sequences, reverse the order of events, group properties of objects and events into class categories, or develop generalizations from specific data. Yet success in school depends precisely on these cognitive skills: the ability to distinguish the meaning of one word from that of another; the capacity to handle the abstractions that organize the physical characteristics of the environment such as direction, distant location, scale, etc. This is the mental equipment upon which the performance in school depends.

**Education and Low Income**

Research studies in New York indicate that the heads of poor families (those receiving public assistance) on the average, have never earned as much as it would cost to support their present families at the levels specified by the New York Community Council budgets. Poor education among all but a few heads of poor families is partly responsible for low income; however, a careful analysis of the characteristics of families whose incomes are inadequate reveals that they should earn considerably more than they do on the basis of their education and other characteristics.

Data on the education and occupations of the parents and children of heads of poor families indicate
some transmission of poverty from one generation to the next. They also indicate that the poor include many who have slipped from the level of well-being enjoyed by their parents. The experience of all families implies that heads of poor families should have better education and better occupations than they have actually had.

Aside from the revelation of that kind of inconsistency, other data indicate that low incomes, in large measure, can be attributed to low levels of educational attainment on the part of heads of households as well as other adults who comprise the citizenry of most disadvantaged communities.

Caplovitz (7) reports a study of consumer practices among low income families living in low income public housing (the Projects) in New York and found that the educational level of the household heads appeared to relate directly to their low income and their general life styles. About half did not progress beyond elementary school. Another third had some education but did not graduate; 13 percent completed high school, and 4 percent had some advanced education.

The families in the sample tended to be much younger and larger in size than those in the city or nation at large. The median age of the household heads was about 38. Some 20 percent of family heads are
under 30 years of age and 54 percent are under 40. The average family consists of four persons, and more than 40 percent of these families have six or more members. Only 13 percent consisted of two people.

In this particular study, the composition of the families also varied. Seventy-one percent were "complete" families consisting of a mother, father and children. Married couples without children constituted 7 percent of the sample. One fifth were broken families, 19 percent consisting of a mother and children, and one percent of a father and children. Young children seemed to be the rule. Half the families in the study had one or more children under six years of age.

To understand the consumer behavior of these families, one must keep their characteristics in mind. Various studies have shown that it is the families in the early stages of the life cycle—where the heads are under 45 years of age and there are young children—that are the most active consumers of durable goods and the ones most likely to have consumer debts. In short, the typical family in the sample is one which has a number of characteristics generally associated with considerable consumer activity. But they differ from other families known to be active consumers in one important respect: they are exclusively low income families who appear to lack
certain reasoning powers with regard to consumer purchasing.

Although all the families have income below the ceilings established by the Housing Authority, there is still considerable variation among them. About 15 percent derive all or part of their income from welfare, 13 percent live on pensions, and the remaining 72 percent obtain all their income from earnings. The place of origin of these families and their level of education all suggest that their early training was not geared to life in highly urbanized and bureaucratic societies. This fact underlies much of their behavior as consumers. In many urban situations, merchants adjust to these consumers and take advantage of them.

One basic implication here is that education serves as a "conditioner" for the most profitable management of income and those who are poor would appear to need more facility in financial management than many other. The scarcity of an item (income) demands more careful management of that item. Considering the description of consumer practices given in the study above, the economically and socially disadvantaged family could conceivably become even more disadvantaged through lack of consumer competence. Does this incompetence have any relationship to the children of these families and their
learning practices? Indeed, it does and it cannot be
overemphasized that the consumer practices of a family
are often passed on to the next generation. Despite the
differences in the levels of affluence of the nation in
different times, many offspring of the economically dis­
advantaged continue to employ the same kind of consumer
practices as their parents. These practices manifest
themselves both in the availability of material goods
(including those needed for school) and in the development
of values by individual learners--and they result in
tremendous impact.

Without a doubt, the economically disadvantaged
are victims of their low educational attainment. The
following Poverty Index used in a social service center
in Columbus, Ohio, under the Economic Opportunity Act
of 1964 is an example of the categories of income in
which many of these families fall. The following table
shall be used for determining family income below the
poverty line in order to establish financial eligibility.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Family Size</th>
<th>Income (Non-farm)</th>
<th>Income (Farm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$1,600</td>
<td>$1,100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

-continued-
Table 1, continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Size</th>
<th>Income (Non-farm)</th>
<th>Income (Farm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
<td>$1,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>1,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>2,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>2,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,200</td>
<td>2,900</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4,700</td>
<td>3,300</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5,300</td>
<td>3,700</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>7,300</td>
<td>5,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>7,800</td>
<td>5,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Knowledge About the Disadvantaged and Its Relation to Teacher Preparation

Perhaps the strongest implication for the basis of this study is the apparent need of public and private school teachers to understand more about the learner, about the environment from which he comes, and to understand the analysis of his learning difficulties. There are many experts who feel that there are weaknesses in this implication and there may be merit in their claims. Traditionally, however, teachers have needed to know something about the learners to be taught before they could effectively plan learning experiences for them. Because the nature of the problems related to social and
economic deprivation looms so large and because schools are faced with such monumental tasks of educating all the children of all the people, then the teachers who are to be prepared for this task must have an improved level of preparation which focuses more directly on the problems faced in "real life school situations." These situations can never be really divorced from the homes, the economic levels, and the social experiences of the families from which the children come.

Effective teaching requires knowledges and skills appropriate to the particular teaching tasks. Tasks related to teaching children identified as disadvantaged require more intensive, more practical and more innovative preparation than we have utilized heretofore.

The many colleges and universities preparing teachers in this country who have begun and who are beginning to initiate programs for this specific purpose attest to the fact that educators and teacher-training institutions are quite serious about the need to work on the problems. Further, these programs in urban education for both the pre-service teacher and the in-service teachers are themselves manifestations of a keen desire to help alleviate learning problems which have their origin through membership in families who are victims of economic and social deprivation.
CHAPTER II

SELECTIVE REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH ON THE DISADVANTAGED

Examination of the sources of literature and research on the problems of teaching and learning in disadvantaged areas reveals striking development in the broad areas of description of poor learners and in suggestions for the instruction of these learners. Equally limited publications are available on specific studies dealing with the cognitive understandings held by pre-service or in-service teachers. Within the past five years, thousands of concerned educators, sociologists and psychologists have focused attention on the descriptive aspects of the learners' lives and on the nature of their learning difficulties. This focus may be justified in attempting to move toward solutions but there seems to be omission of a very basic concept in the approach of this movement. It would appear that solutions to the problems now associated with teaching the children of low-income families would have some origin in the total quality of the teachers who staff the schools serving
them. This total quality is determined, in part, by the nature and extent of training experiences through which teachers come and by the extent of basic cognitive concepts held by those who offer their services as teachers.

Recency of Literature

The crisis of the nineteen sixties has resulted in extensive production of observations and research on teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings. This is viewed as a positive aspect of this selective review of available research and literature. The ideas and results of studies contained herein represent the most recent efforts on the part of educators to find solutions to the massive problems facing America as we approach the next decade.

Relationship of Knowledge and Teaching Performance

How does cognitive information held by pre-service teachers relate to the kind of teaching performances they are likely to render in the classroom? The major premise for the position taken here is that attitudes and commitment are the result of one's knowledge, experiences, and the perception of both.

Some experts and concerned educators are almost violently convinced that the solutions which we seek are found only in the "attitudinal arena" in which teachers find themselves. Our position does not entirely refute
that position. We propose that the development of attitude and commitment to children as growing organisms who seek knowledge and understanding as well as to be understood must be based on the knowledge and experience of the teacher. The extent, then, or knowledge about economically and socially disadvantaged learners seems to have some basic effect on the degree of commitment and on the wholesomeness of the attitudes which are likely to develop among teachers.

Limitations of Literature

The examination of research reveals certain unique limitations which are (1) lack of empirical data on cognitive concepts held by teachers (pre-service nor in-service) and (2) the lack of empirical data regarding the most appropriate instructional approaches to be taken for remedial purposes. While the first limitation appears to have been overlooked in pursuit of attitudes and beliefs, it seems that the second limitation might be somewhat more justifiable because teaching and learning are both such individual and unique endeavors that researchers may be perplexed as to what specific data should be sought that might be applicable to the masses of children from this background who must be taught. Regardless of justification, these are two definite limitations of the present supply of literature on the
disadvantaged.

Another aspect of the total picture of literature and research on the disadvantaged is the quality or the comprehensiveness of it. The problem of the disadvantaged have been brought to the attention of the American public in shattering realities. This has been done through grim and costly riots, protests, and various forms of dissent but the fact remains that educators have moved rapidly to find answers to the problems as they relate to education. Because of the necessity to move rapidly, some of the literature has been little more than hurriedly-drawn conclusions from minor impressions and, therefore, would not lend itself to much empirical examination. Many of those who have sought to publish literature designed to provide answers to the problems—have done so without much first-hand experience with the problems and without extensive examination of the conditions which contributed to the complexity of the problems.

Traditionally, educational researchers and writers have focused on the strengths and weaknesses of external manipulative aspects of teaching and learning whenever problems of education in diverse situations were attacked. Literature on the education of disadvantaged youth, with few exceptions, has taken much the same focus. Particularly has the literature emphasized a "profile" of
the disadvantaged learner identifying aspects which characterize the lives of a large percentage of socially and economically disadvantaged learner.

Categories of Literature and Research

The quantity of available research studies on the disadvantaged appears to be somewhat less than the quantity of observations or "idea articles" about what should be done in teaching and learning in low-income communities.

The literature examined seems to fall into four (4) general categories:

1. Literature on the origin, effects, and the descriptions of learning difficulties found in disadvantaged communities. These include (a) knowing the learner, his family and residential characteristics, (b) describing the nature and extent of learning difficulties, and (c) summarizing the complexities of urban education.

2. Studies and observations of the backgrounds, training, attitudes, and preferences of teachers who staff schools that serve disadvantaged learners.

3. Instructional approaches for teaching the educationally disadvantaged with particular emphasis on compensatory and exploratory practices.

4. The perceptions, attitudes, and cognitive achievement of students in low-income areas.
The following selections are representative of the categories described above. They are, by their inclusion here, deemed to be among the more significant efforts educational, sociological, and psychological researchers.

**Literature on Origin, Effects and Descriptions of Learning Difficulties in Disadvantaged Areas**

Marans and Lourie (35) hypothesize that social action programs for the disadvantaged child rest on the conviction that life's early privations yield long-range individual and social consequences. Because cycles of deprivation pass from generation to generation, they are of grave concern on both community and national levels. The basic hypothesis is that there are culturally determined patterns of child rearing. These patterns are shared by a certain segment of the lower socio-economic group, and these patterns are more common among all the lowest socio-economic groups (whites, Negroes, Mexican-Americans, etc.) than among any other groups, and therefore will show up more in slum families. Discussed are individual variation, maternal care, high risk babies, dependency, inadequate perceptual stimulation, multiple mothering, and motor development. Other topics are discipline, precocity, attitudes toward authority, verbal communication, emotional overstimulation, and survival techniques. If the poverty cycle is to be interrupted,
there must be an intervention early in the children's lives. Attempts must be made to determine the most practical way of augmenting the good qualities which the slum mother does provide her child. This implies the need for a diagnostic approach to babies which will provide a descriptive profile of their strengths, sensitivities, activity levels, reactivity patterns, and parental and environmental compatibilities, and incompatibilities.

A second description is offered by Powledge (42) in *To Change A Child* where he describes the work of the Institute for Developmental Studies, a division of the Department of Psychiatry of the New York Medical College. The desire is to have educational institutions expose the disadvantaged child to the middle-class attributes that are missing from his home environment. They also want to motivate schools to recognize that the disadvantaged child has attributes of his own which are worthy of respect and capable of enhancing the child's interest in the educational process. The volume focuses on types of interactions between child and teacher and purports that a sense of identity needs to be created by frequent use of names. Extensive use of realia also play a large part in the Institute's program.

Kunz (32) reports a study whose purpose was to determine whether a group of five-year-old children from
an economically disadvantaged environment and a group of five-year-old children from an economically advantaged environment differed significantly in terms of selected characteristics. He studied 25 children from disadvantaged schools or backgrounds and 18 from advantaged backgrounds in 1965-66 and all the testing was done at the University of Maryland kindergarten facilities. No significant differences were found.

Feshbach, reporting in American Educational Research Association's Paper Abstracts of an experiment with children from disadvantaged areas in California, describes compensatory efforts through clinical approaches with the following results:

(1) advantaged and disadvantaged youngsters placed similar values on academic attainment, but the disadvantaged child experienced greater anxiety regarding school-related matters, was poorer in auditory discrimination, and was more field-dependent;

(2) both advantaged and disadvantaged children attending the Clinic School made significantly greater gains in Achievement than did the other groups. Simply placing the disadvantaged child in a more congenial environment resulted in higher achievement scores, less anxiety and greater vocational aspirations on the initial testing.
Repeated comparisons similar to the findings of Feshbach's study are found throughout the literature. These have served a unique purpose in diagnosing the learning problems carefully and extensively.

Rioux (44) in *The Disadvantaged Child* cites that generally speaking, schools in depressed areas are viewed by the poor and disadvantaged as cold institutions which do not recognize or satisfy their needs. This image is a handicap which the schools must overcome. Before entering the building, the poor child feels a psychological barrier. Discussed are some issues which hold back progress. The complex and demanding array of skills, talents, and resources which must be part of successful efforts to modify the effect of deprivation in children require new operating styles in education. To believe that the public schools alone will help disadvantaged children is a lasting error. There must be a tying together of community agencies, education, health, welfare, legal, and housing resources in a concerted attack on common problems in ways which have been uncharacteristic of agency operation prior to the anti-poverty emphasis of the last few years. Time, energy, and additional personnel are needed to accomplish the concentrated services approach. He points out that a full time person is needed in every school system whose responsibility
would be to know about application deadlines, program emphasis, guidelines, contact personnel, budget and reporting requirements, and other details associated with securing assistance. The present heavy emphasis on remediation carries a strong implication that the fault or deficiency rests with the child and his family rather than with the school.

With little reservation, an investigation of the prevailing literature on the disadvantaged reveals Michael Harrington's *The Other America: Poverty in the United States* to be somewhat of a classic in the impact of its description of America's poor citizenry. While Harrington does not address himself to teachers and teaching specifically, he makes a strong point for the necessity of greater sensitivity and stronger commitment to the less fortunate on the part of more privileged Americans. Certainly prospective teachers generally come from the ranks of more privileged Americans and Harrington explains that the poor (or disadvantaged) in America are not impoverished in the same sense as those poor nations where millions cling to hunger as a defense against starvation. This does not change the fact that millions of Americans are maimed in body and spirit, existing at levels beneath those necessary for human decency. If these people are not starving, they are hungry, and sometimes fat with
hunger, for that is what cheap foods do. They are without adequate housing and education and medical care.

Harrington's volume is a description of the world in which these people live. Here are the unskilled workers, the aged, the minorities—human beings and Americans who live in a economic underworld in the wealthiest nation the world has ever seen. The book is both reportage and analysis. One of its most significant aspects is an analysis of the "invisibility" of poverty, the reasons why educated and concerned Americans have overlooked the enormous culture of want and desperation in the midst of plenty.

In the concluding chapters, he offers a theory of contemporary poverty as a self-perpetuating culture—as a way of life. On this basis, he argues that only an integrated and comprehensive program really overthrow America's citadel of misery.

The real significance of Harrington's descriptions lies in their usefulness in understanding the life styles of children whose origins are in low-income families, and certainly teachers have need to understand the total lives of learners.

Studies and Observations of Training, Backgrounds, Attitudes and Preferences of Teachers Who Staff Disadvantaged Schools
Lund and Webster (34) investigated factors in teacher persistence in disadvantaged schools in California and with a total of 115 Ss, they sought to determine possible differences on a number of variables between two groups of public school teachers. Teachers currently teaching in schools heavily populated by disadvantaged students constituted the group. The second population studied was comprised of teachers who (a) had once taught in disadvantaged schools, (b) had requested and been granted transfers from such schools, and (c) remained in teaching in other assignments. The major portion of the study involved the testing of eight hypotheses with the groups of teachers described. None of the propositions was supported at the desired levels of statistical significance. Observations, however, revealed that often it is contended that many teachers leave such schools because of the incompatibility existing between their middle-class backgrounds (i.e., the families in which they were socialized) and the socio-economic status and values of their disadvantaged students. No statistically significant mean differences were observed when index scores derived from the SES responses of the persisting and the defecting teachers were compared.

A second general assumption in the Lund-Webster study was that prior exposure to divergent ethnic and
social class groups should enhance an individual's ability to relate effectively with other such persons. Here, no significant differences were observed between the extra-ethnic social class exposure scores of the teachers who persisted in disadvantaged schools and those who transferred from such settings.

The DKT Test used by Lund and Webster addressed itself to certain cognitive information about the disadvantaged and sought to learn data which could be derived from the experiences of Ss who were in-service teachers.

Pagen's (38) study of teacher and student attitude interactions and their effects in a program for the culturally deprived attempted to measure relationships and changes in teacher and pupil attitudes after one year in a program designed for them. His study included investigation of the pupil's need to achieve, to influence, and for affiliation. These pupils differed from the general population in their need to achieve and need for affiliation were below the norm in all grades. Need to influence was above the norm in grade four and just below in grades five and six. The results of the study revealed that these pupils were eager to learn but not capable of making that fact known in an acceptable manner. They had high need to achieve, high motivation, and a high regard
for their teacher. The teacher was prone to relate behavior and achievement with self-concept, while the pupil did not see these as related. These differences were indicative of the communication problem that existed in this program for the deprived.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (45) in Pygmalion in the Classroom report a 1965 study which concluded that IQ test scores affect teacher expectations which in turn affect performance. An increase or decrease of IQ scores affects pupils' self-ratings. Those boys whose IQ's had been fictitiously lowered felt that (1) they worked less at their school work than did other boys; (2) school was more difficult for them than for other boys; (3) their teachers were harder on them in grading than they were on other children; and (4) school was less enjoyable.

They also report a 1966 study which employed fictitious ability groupings to learn the effects of teacher expectancy on pupil performance. Subjects were seventh grade pupils in two junior high schools located in depressed areas of different cities. Two classes from each school of comparable ability and achievement were selected. One was arbitrarily labeled as one of the top groups in the school. Teachers were not told of the arbitrary nature of the groups. At the end of the year, tests in one school showed the experimental group perform-
ed better in reading and arithmetic than the control group, but there were no differences in IQ. The experience in other schools showed the reverse.

Writing in the *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vernon Haubrich (23) purports that there's a new context for teacher education based on his experiences with the Hunter College program designed to prepare teachers especially for Harlem schools. Believing that such programs can be uniquely helpful in preparing young teachers for disadvantaged schools, he cites that the program in which he was engaged began with several assumptions:

1. that the demands of teaching in a school where the children and neighborhood are different from the teacher's will require more intensive experience and preparation than the ordinary student-teaching situation;

2. that many student-teachers live with a fear of the "difficult" school which is partly the result of a bad press and partly the perceptions of prospective teachers themselves;

3. that the experience of teaching in a "difficult" school can be richly rewarding for those who are firmly committed to the proposition that the public school exists for all the children of all the people and that these rewards lie in the context of the teaching situation, which is, in many ways, far more challenging than the
typical school;

4. that a combination of people from the college, from the school, and from the neighborhood can be utilized for optimum preparation of prospective teachers;

5. that no one should be forced to participate in a program that operates in "difficult" schools, and, therefore, the entire program of teacher preparation would be offered on an entirely volunteer basis;

6. that if students wished to stay in the school as regular teachers after their student teaching, they could do so, and a student-teacher, after student teaching, could elect to leave without prejudice.

According to Haubrich, the Hunter Program sought to prepare teachers for disadvantaged schools by providing an experience in student-teaching for the prospective teachers in that kind of school. While the rudiments of the program seem, for the most part, logical and sequential, much of what is proposed did not seem to be particularly unique to the preparation of teachers in general.

He concluded that many of his assumptions regarding the difficulties in staffing disadvantaged schools might well be wrong, and that, in the future, the opportunities for teaching in these schools may be emphasized. It seems that many young people today are
willing to stake their professional careers on the "difficult" schools in the hope that the democratic ethic can be extended to all the children of all the people.

In an article entitled, "The Culturally Disadvantaged and Teacher Education," published in The Reading Teacher, Haubrich (24) further cites that today's colleges have a dual handicap in preparing teachers for service in disadvantaged areas. On the one hand, they tend to prepare teachers for children and for schools which are only rarely found in disadvantaged regions. The educational psychology of the middle-class child, the methods which one uses in the "good school setting," and the normal constraints one applies in a typical school setting just will not work in the disadvantaged areas of big cities. On the one hand, the prospective teachers who are themselves on the rise in our society are not always eager for the challenges of teaching in disadvantaged areas. The young prospective teacher has an image of what the task of teaching is going to be, and his home, peer group, and college tend to confirm a vague and general rejection of the disadvantaged.

Many prospective teachers have a picture of disadvantaged areas as places in which little distinction can be won and little recognition is given. Considering the emphasis in the past few years on "giftedness," and the
pressure on the college student, the confusion about the rejection of the disadvantaged are understandable. Teaching the disadvantaged does not fit into the perceptual pattern of the prospective teacher has learned to see and value.

Additionally, he observes that the sociological, anthropological, and political issues which arise in disadvantaged areas are not always as fully understood by teachers as one might hope. The impact of color in our culture, the social and economic status of the Negro and his long fight to attain even marginal recognition, is a story that many young teachers do not understand. The slums of segregated housing, the financial plight of migrant workers, the technological displacement by the revolution in automation, and the range of psychological cuts caused by poverty are usually not part of the apperceptive mass of the typical prospective teacher. Consequently, it would be fair to say that many new and experienced teachers are operating under false assumptions and with inadequate and inaccurate information.

That observation by Haubrich embodies much of the rationale for the totality of this study of cognitive concepts held by pre-service teachers.

The prospective teacher has not fully understood the social revolution which is underway in America; the
schools have not fully participated in this revolution; and finally, many children will not receive the kind of education to which they are entitled unless and until there are some drastic changes in the patterns of teacher education programs in colleges and universities.

**Programs of Teacher Education**

In the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development publication, *Educating the Children of the Poor*, edited by Alexander Frazier (17), several questions are brought to bear regarding the selection and preparation of teachers for schools serving low-income students. The element of "volunteer teachers" is stressed but there is little evidence concerning the characteristics of those who volunteer or on what happens to them when they take the jobs for which they volunteer. The Hunter Study provided some evidence that those who took advantage of opportunities to learn more about teaching in depressed areas developed more favorable attitudes toward such teaching. Was the information they obtained the influencing factor, or was it some aspect of the personality of the student which caused him to attend the information sessions while four out of five of his fellow students did not choose to do so?

The Syracuse Program, in providing for selection from among those who apply, is testing a series of action-
tasks as a supplement to paper-and-pencil tests and interviews. This is an attempt to measure performance rather than verbal manipulation skills and may lead to some profitable insights.

Another characteristic of developing programs for the preparation of teachers for the disadvantaged is the provision of direct experience in schools and community agencies. There is no doubt that such experience results in more favorable attitudes for some students, but it is equally true that it merely confirms the fears or the prejudice of others. A wilderness of variable confronts any attempt to discover the actual effect of any specific type of experience upon any individual prospective teacher, and yet, if the "early exposure" technique is to be used with any confidence, such information must be obtained.

The work of the National Defense Education Act's Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth, supported by the United States Office of Education and administered by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, has an important potential for contributing to knowledge concerning the means for improving programs for teachers of the disadvantaged. The program of the Institute operates on two levels:

First, through the frequent meetings of the
Institute's National Steering Committee and Task Force, special attention is given to the identification and clarification of the fundamental problems and issues relevant to teaching the disadvantaged and to the preparation of teachers. As a result, the National Committee proposes to recommend substantive changes and appropriate strategies for the improvement of teacher education.

Second, through a series of interrelated projects, conferences and other activities, opportunities are provided for educational personnel engaged in the teaching of the disadvantaged to exchange information regarding effective practice and materials, to develop their competencies as teachers, and to provide the National Committee with specific information regarding the problems and issues which constitute its continuing agenda on the preparation and retraining of teachers.

The comprehensive approach of this National Institute seems to be leading significantly toward solutions to problems identified with preparing teachers for the disadvantaged.

The volume also cites that we now have a tremendous gap between what needs to be known and between what is known about preparing teaching for urban schools. This further solidifies the rationale for the context of this study and is therefore deemed significant in relation
Another view of the recruitment, selection, and preparation of teachers for the disadvantaged is offered by Strom (49) who asserts that there is a more important problem involved than recruitment. High rates of turnover among staff in slum schools in nearly every urban complex lend credence to the suggestion that a more adequate type of training is needed by those assigned to disadvantaged schools. This is not because teaching is poor compared with the past but because the demands of the present and future are so high. There are indigenous to slum school assignments certain difficulties which require special training for the teacher. Yet, unlike the social worker and other members of the supportive staff who are trained in urban sociology, teachers often lack knowledge which might increase the relevance of instruction, the length of their tenure and the degree of their satisfaction.

Teacher training institutions purporting to equip candidates for positions in almost any type of environment must begin to provide more than cursory attention to the tasks which appear vital to successful teaching in poor neighborhoods. The responsibility of colleges and universities to develop carefully constructed programs for the
training of teachers for the disadvantaged is not limited to urban universities but includes all institutions where future teachers are being prepared because the population mobility in our nation includes its teachers. Untrained to teach in the big city, those educated elsewhere are generally not promising recruits when because of marriage or other reasons their circumstances bring them to an urban residence. We cannot change facts by ignoring them and the fact is, according to Strom, that we live in an era when about 80 percent of our population will reside in urban centers. A striking example is in the cities of California where 1,700 new residents arrive daily. The implication for teacher training is monumental.

Havighurst (25) in Education in Metropolitan Areas, suggests that some of the preparation of teachers for the disadvantaged must be through direct contact with learners from the communities described, a point which Frazier feels may not necessarily be the case. He states that many young teachers will work for a time in an inner-city school. Some will master the job, and get real satisfaction from doing difficult work well. Some will hate the job and will transfer to an easier school as soon as possible. Some will find a well-run inner city school and deliberately stay there, knowing that they are doing an important thing by teaching disadvantaged children
effectively. Others will move to another type of school but will remember that they served creditably for a time, even though they eventually made a change.

The inner city school teacher needs special preparation and is getting it in an increasing number of colleges. In addition to the usual training program, the prospective teacher studies urban sociology and observes and then assists in a number of community agencies, such as community centers, playgrounds, and summer camps, as well as other recreational endeavors. Eventually the prospective teacher does practice teaching in an inner city school. Such programs are increasing but still there are many young teachers who must learn on the job. One of the most difficult things for new teachers (and many older ones as well) to learn is that the inner city community has a style of life which the school teacher must understand and respect to some degree.

Again, the significance of Havighurst's position as it relates to this study is that accurate information regarding the extent of knowledge held by pre-service teachers will provide a data base on which to build certain aspects of teacher education programs.

Teacher Status in Disadvantaged Schools

In an issue of Review of Educational Research, a case is presented asserting that some urban schools
serving disadvantaged children are over-staffed by teachers described as inferior by professional standards. Some researchers are reasonably certain that a certain type of teacher is over-represented in depressed area schools. In a secondary analysis of a study of school principals in larger cities, Herriot and St. John (1966) provided some data on the degree of relationship between the social class composition of the urban school and particular characteristics of the staff. Herriot and St. John were oriented to social policy questions and they had the advantage of a national probability sample designed to highlight the urban school. Results dealing with status characteristics of staff and replicated on the elementary, junior high, and senior high school levels were thus:

(a) Teachers in higher status schools were more experienced and older.

(b) Teachers in lower status schools were more likely to be nonwhite or Catholic.

(c) Teachers in higher status schools were more likely to be of high status family origin.

Contrary to predictions, there were no consistent differences in highest academic degree held or reported quality of college work. It was most unfortunate that analysts were unable to obtain age data in a form usable as a control variable because of the correlations among
experience, length of training and age.

Although the teachers at low status schools were more likely to wish to move to a school in a better neighborhood, the prediction of a significantly lower career satisfaction for teachers in lower status schools was not upheld. In other words, present job difficulties in slum schools did not seem to affect their appraisal of the professional aspects of their careers.

The significance of a study like this one is that it provides for a clearer perspective of some of the complexities of a problem involving characteristics of staff and of school environment and the effect on pupils.

Literature on Proposed Instructional Approaches for Teaching the Disadvantaged

Encompassing many of the approaches taken to compensatory education taken under programs funded through Title I of the Elementary-Sec. Education Act, Gordon and Jablonsky (21) in the Journal of Negro Education describe compensatory education as a term which refers to those pedagogical efforts directed at overcoming or circum­venting assumed deficiencies in the background, functioning, and current experiences of children from economically de­prived, culturally isolated, and/or ethnically segregated families. A wide variety of elements have been introduced under this banner. They include

(1) modifications in training, recruitment, and
utilization of staff;

(2) remedial reading and language development;
(3) enrichment and modification of curriculum;
(4) expanded guidance services;
(5) enrichment of extracurricular activities;
(6) increased parental and peer involvement;
(7) extended reciprocal involvement of school and community;

(8) extensions and appendages to the school day and year.

Particular emphasis has been given to the prevention and salvaging of school dropouts and to the preparation for school through preschool programs. Although most of these programs have concentrated on improved or increased cognitive output, some have sought to introduce effective experiences or affect-laden materials designed to improve self-concept and motivation. Compensatory education models have been wide and enthusiastically accepted. However, when one looks at their impact on academic performance in a target population, it is obvious that compensatory education as presently practiced is either insufficient or irrelevant to the needs of disadvantaged young people.

The authors go on to make proposals for developing more effective programs for compensatory education.
In a discussion of "Team Teaching in Culturally Deprived Areas," published in The National Elementary Principal, Charles H. Hayes (26) suggests that team teaching is a general approach rather than a precise type of organization and operation. It must be tooled to achieve specific objectives.

In describing special advantages in culturally deprived areas, Hayes asserts that the flexibility of team teaching facilitates an appropriate use of resource people who can give impact and firsthand knowledge to the instructional program. For example, municipal government may well be introduced to the entire seventh grade team of pupils by a member of the city council. On the other hand, five or six talented sixth grade pupils may sit around the table and discuss creative writing with a professional writer. This type of instruction is much more easily articulated with the school program in a team teaching setting.

A parallel benefit lies in the fact that the members of the instructional team, according to Hayes, tend to specialize. In large group presentations, the member of the team who is best qualified to present a specific phase of a subject will do so. In this way, pupils receive the benefit of the best teacher talent on the team. Since teachers who are going to make a
presentation to a large group usually receive the aid of the team mother or team father and some additional preparation time, they are much more likely to have a well-prepared lesson than would be probable in the usual self-contained classroom. While time to specialize and plan would be a major advantage to any teacher, the high pupil-teacher ratio of most schools located in a disadvantaged community makes it especially difficult to provide planning time within the traditional self-contained setting.

Behavior problems are more frequent in the schools of the deprived neighborhoods. If the personalities of the pupil and teacher clash, it is not always easy to make a smooth adjustment in the conventional school. But with the team approach, a teacher and a pupil are not in all-day, face-to-face relationship with each other. This affords relief to both teacher and child. It is also likely that the teacher who is having this type of difficulty will seek and receive the assistance and insights of members of the team.

In the school that is heavily populated by culturally deprived children, it is especially important to have male teachers who can supply an effective and desirable father image to boys. For a variety of reasons, including the increased salary for team leaders, team
teaching seems to attract more men. It is also a fact that team teaching offers a degree of individual attention which is not readily obtained in a conventional setting. For both academic and personal reasons, this is of vital importance to the culturally handicapped child.

The significance of this article is that it describes many of the advantages of team teaching as an instructional approach to be used in teaching the disadvantaged. Needless to explain that team teaching, in itself, is not the answer to the problems associated with teaching the children of low-income families but further investigation of the ideas contained in Hayes' description is warranted.

One of the chronic and constant problems of the disadvantaged school is the difficulty of attracting and holding excellent teachers. The position of team leader has acted as a magnet for obtaining and maintaining a stable core of superior teachers. The improved working conditions, which are largely the result of the work of the team leader, have proved to be effective for teacher recruitment.

For the classroom teacher, there are numerous features to team teaching but it should be remembered that there will be certain teachers who do not enjoy working in concert with their professional associates. But this
group is much smaller than one would suppose. It is also true that a significant number of teachers who do not like the team approach in theory do approve of it in fact. That is to say, a discussion or a theoretical study of the team approach does not suffice. A teacher must actually be involved in teaming before he can give a valid opinion of its worth.

Very often, teachers who work on a team will experience a very real life in enthusiasm for teaching. In spite of some preconceived attitudes, most teachers will both enjoy and benefit from planning and carrying out instruction together. The opportunity to employ their best talents more frequently affords a sense of greater professionalism and weekly team meetings offer an occasion to benefit from the special abilities of others. Often, this does much to strengthen each teacher.

The position of team leader is attractive to most teachers. While the demands made on a team leader's time are considerable, this is generally outweighed by the feeling of marked accomplishment. Increased salary carries with it an additional and tangible reward. The upward surge of staff spirit is one of the frequently remarked upon results of team teaching. This is a fact of tremendous importance, since in the past, schools located in depressed areas have not been especially noted
for the high level of staff morale.

University spokesmen have stated that they regard the assignment of student teachers to a team as a particularly effective means of teacher training. It affords the intern an opportunity to gain a wider experience than is available in the self-contained classroom. Primary responsibility for planning the work of the student intern rests with the team leader. University officials also approve of the fact that the intern can begin his actual teaching experiences earlier by working with the small groupings of children which are characteristic of the team approach. In terms of recruitment, the assignment of student teachers to schools in deprived areas has paid dividends. (One could draw a comparison here between this position and the results of the Hunter Study.) Some of these student teachers do request assignments in the schools where their practice teaching and this constitutes a striking reversal of attitude on the part of beginning teachers.

The improved individualized teaching facilitated by the team approach has provided an instructional breakthrough in some disadvantaged areas. In no type of neighborhood, however, does the team teaching approach carry with it a warranty of success. It is simply a tool. But there is little doubt that team teaching can be used
as a sturdy weapon with which to disturb the wall of apathy, of misunderstanding, and folklore that surrounds the learning problems of educationally disadvantaged children.

Variations on the Team Approach

Mario Fantini and Gerald Weinstein (15), writing in the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development publication, *Curriculum Decisions and Social Realities*, discuss their concept of a three-tiered model which describes the use of teacher (staff) talent in urban schools. In one sense, they support a variation of the traditional team approach in order to utilize most productively the talents and abilities of urban teachers.

In the three-tiered model, teachers would be assigned to tiers on the basis of their strengths and interests. In addition, people from the community would also be assigned to each of the tiers on the same basis. For example, Tier I would include technically-inclined and subject-oriented teachers, tutors, and parents. Tier II would include one-to-one and activities-oriented teachers and parents who show creativity and wide ranges of interests. Tier III would include more inductive, open-ended, child situation-oriented teachers and parents who would collaborate with the community on social action projects and identity training.
A school program arranged in three-tiered fashion would be geared to meeting the common needs of all children without sacrificing individuality or cultural diversity. Moreover, it would foster the kind of meaningful mental framework that is conducive to the learning of academic subject matter and because this learning would be personally meaningful to the pupils—the ability to transfer ideas and principles acquired in one context to another context would be engendered in the school's products. By dividing the school schedule into such segments as these three, rather than according to subject-matter learning per se, the educational process would be significantly more efficient in accomplishing its long-range aims. Indeed, only through innovating reorganization and reorientation can teacher education hope to meet American's need for the human resources which will revitalize and perpetuate the country as a healthy and self-renewing nation.

Fantini and Weinstein appear strongly committed to the need for educators to remain alert to national needs related to staffing and operating urban schools which serve large populations of disadvantaged learners.

Converting Ideas into Practice

Harry N. Rivlin, discussing the difficulty a young urban teacher has in putting ideas into practice, in
Education of the Disadvantaged, edited by A. Harry Passow (40) cites that the colleges may be right in refusing to instruct future teachers in some of the outdated practices still used in the schools, but they may be underestimating the difficulties which young teachers experience in trying to change existing practices. The problem may not be that of realistic or unrealistic preparation, but rather of the difficulty of translating an idea into practice. If the teacher education program were to continue through the teacher's probationary period of appointment, the newly appointed teacher could be helped to find ways of dealing with his current difficulties without necessarily sacrificing all hope of changing current procedures. Similarly, if the new teacher has continued support and guidance in his period of transition from novice to professional, he may be helped to solve his difficulties without either feeling frustrated or having to sacrifice his idealism for a dreary surrender to "reality."

That some young teachers are able to solve their problems and maintain their faith in themselves, in education, and in their students may be attributable to their inventiveness, adjustability, and idealism. No system of mass education can rely on such unusual success by unusual teachers. If the unusual is to become the usual
we have to see the first years of teaching as part of the process of learning to become a teacher.

Many colleges and school systems now recognize the importance of preparing urban teachers more adequately for their responsibilities. According to the results of a survey conducted recently by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), more than 200 institutions are either presently conducting programs specifically designed to prepare teachers for urban schools or are planning to introduce such programs. Given such an effort, how can we develop in prospective teachers the skills, the insight, the sense of social need, and the self-confidence that are essential for successful teaching in urban schools? To a degree, these are the same qualities that are needed by any successful beginning teacher. They must be developed to a higher degree, indeed, in a beginning urban teacher because the problems are overwhelming for those who are less than adequately prepared intellectually, professionally, and emotionally.

It is not to be assumed that preparation of teachers for the disadvantaged will completely exclude all approaches considered traditional in past programs. For that reason, the foregoing statement holds promise for the future in teacher education.
Wagner (52) reports a study which was designed to compare the written, oral, and construction responses of economically advantaged and disadvantaged sixth grade pupils in Bridgeport, Connecticut, to science demonstrations. The study was basically designed to gain a greater understanding of the academic performance of disadvantaged pupils in elementary school science. The advantaged and the disadvantaged pupils differed significantly in their suitable written and oral responses. There was no significant difference in the construction responses of the two groups. Disadvantaged pupils understand and can communicate their understandings of science concepts when placed in situations requiring limited verbal response. The findings also suggest that utilizing instructional procedures that capitalize on the individual abilities of pupils, might, to a large degree, compensate for the restricted backgrounds of disadvantaged pupils.

Kaplan's (29) study at Columbia University concluded that number conservation—the recognition that a number of a set is preserved after transformation—is essential to a full understanding of one-to-one correspondence, and hence, to the development of the number concept. For this reason, number conservation is a
critical prerequisite for school mathematics. While Piaget showed that children advance through three stages in their development of number conservation, replications of Piaget's studies have found that middle-class children reach complete conservation at approximately seven years of age. Fewer lower-class children show number conservation when compared to middle-class children of the same age. These findings support the conclusion reached by other studies and by achievement test data from metropolitan school systems that there is a clear link between disadvantaged environments and mathematics achievement.

Bernard Spodek (47) in an issue of *Theory into Practice* devoted to pressures on children, explains that the slum schools place a very different kind of pressure on children. Here, the pressures of a bureaucratic school system tend to destroy initiative and limit achievement. Books such as recent ones by Herbert Kohl (*36 Children*) and Jonathan Kozol (*Death At An Early Age*) describe how children are pressured by a big city system of education.

Pressure on the Negro youngster often takes the form of denying the child the worth of his group. The absence of books showing Negroes in a positive light, coupled with the presence or a multitude of educational material reflecting the white world conveys to children the message that the white world is good---the black world
not even worthy of description. "Balanced" statements about the Civil War, slavery, and other instances of injustice found in some social studies texts tend to support this judgment. Often, the overtly and covertly prejudicial statements of teachers or other educational personnel place additional pressures on the children. No amount of compensatory education can ever overcome the pressure which keeps children from achieving.

Spodek's observations might have real relevance to the present status of achievement in some schools serving disadvantaged children of minority groups.

Examination of Robert C. Weaver's description, in *The Urban Complex*, of life in disadvantaged urban neighborhoods reveals certain implications about learners who are products of these neighborhoods. He feels that we seldom pause to consider the human elements in the rise, development, and perpetuation of slums or the human costs of their clearance. Thus, emphasis is placed upon the buildings in the slums and little attention is paid to the people who inhabit them or to the reaction of the rest of the population to these people. Yet the values of slum dwellers are of crucial importance. They determine, in large measure, the behavior patterns of those who dwell in blight and influence the reaction of others to slum dwellers. The values of the dominant elements in urban
areas, in turn, determine, in large measure, the opportunities and mobility of the present residents in slums and blighted areas.

He further explains that slums in American cities today house families which hold a wide range of values and evidence a variety of behavior patterns. Some are households with female heads and are stable nonetheless; others may be ungrammatical but adhere to high moral standards; still others evidence all the attributes of middle class behavior and are dedicated to its values, if not recipients of its rewards. All three groups have ambition and talent, but fight an uphill battle in maintaining respectability and achievement for themselves and their children. It was from these families that public housing made its earlier selections and its initial successes. It is these families which, if they have access to decent shelter in good neighborhoods, will immediately respond to the new environment.

In addition, there are many among the residents in slums and blighted areas who, with a minimum of assistance and guidance, could and would adjust to better housing and neighborhood facilities. One has the feeling that in the current emphasis of social work upon problem families, the individuals and households of this type are neglected. Yet their numbers are large and concern for
their rapid assimilation into the mainstream of city life would materially facilitate slum clearance.

Reviewing Weaver's insight into slum family life provides positive reinforcement to professional educators who have, for many years, sought an intensive return to emphasis on human values for urban dwellers. It is significant in that it creates and supports professional optimism.

Meyer Weinberg (56) in the introduction of one of his chapters in Desegregation Research: An Appraisal, a Phi Delta Kappa publication, makes the distinction between aspirations and self-concept (if there is one) and his observation is included here because our position embodies a conviction that cognitive development and/or achievement and self-concept and aspiration are all interrelated considerably.

Aspirations and self-concept are at the core of the motivation to learn. Yet, little is known about their role in education. Through a process of circular reasoning, these elements are almost always viewed as properties of individual students. That is, if children are learning they are assumed to be expressing some degree of aspiration and a more or less sound self-concept. If they are not learning satisfactorily, there is an automatic tendency to attribute the failing to a lack of motivation.
This, in turn, is often translated as low aspirations and poor self-concept.

What, however, is to be made of the situation wherein aspirations are high and self-concept is sound—and still no satisfactory learning occurs? Attention should then shift away from the isolated child and toward social factors—race is pre-eminent among these—for possible light on the subject. A number of studies have been done dealing with both aspirations and self-concept. To be sure, there is no line between the two.

Weinberg further reports (from analyzing additional research on desegregation) that there is a peculiar and ill-understood phenomenon that appears to characterize many Negroes, adults and youth: a high, unrealistic, idealized aspiration, relatively unconnected to those actions that ordinarily lead to achievement of a goal. He continues that five years earlier, the Ausubels had summarized research as indicating that the depressed social and personal condition of Negro youths led to low academic and vocational aspirations. Thus, in a short five-year period, scientific opinion had shifted from a model of low to high Negro aspirations.

The shift in opinion was by no means arbitrary. Between 1962 and 1967 especially, Negro Americans had in fact formulated a new self-awareness that shot their
aspirations sky-high. To aspire is to hope, and the civil rights movement symbolized new hope for the oppressed. The realism and practicality of the rising aspirations are of course, open to examination. It should, however, be noted that the same can be said about all of man's hopes. Often, in the past, what appeared to be low aspirations by Negro youth sometimes turned out to be quite something else.

Weinberg's compilation of research on desegregation reveals much about both advantaged and disadvantaged learners and the implications for those concerned with the perceptions, attitudes, and cognitive development of disadvantaged learners are numerous.

In another analysis of research involving teacher competence when schools are desegregated, it is emphasized that desegregation does not increase the number of disadvantaged children. When schools are desegregated, there is not an increase in the number of disadvantaged children but they are distributed in different schools. That does not automatically mean that teachers in these schools are ill-equipped to teach them. If teachers in a desegregated school are not competent to teach, they should be trained further: only teachers in a desegregated school who are incompetent to teach the disadvantaged need additional training. The teacher who is a
skilled and fully competent professional has a good start on being successful in an interracial situation.

Science Behavior of Disadvantaged Learners

In reporting research conducted through a project called "Science--A Process Approach," Walbesser and Carter (53) report that from the beginning of the project, an interest had been demonstrated in the suitability of the materials for different socio-economic areas. This factor had been taken into consideration when the try-out centers for the project were selected. The centers were located in Tucson, Arizona; Berkeley and Palo Alto, California; Kern County, California; Tallahassee, Florida; Glencoe and the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools, Illinois; Monmouth, Illinois; Baltimore, Maryland; Ithaca, New York; Manhasset and Pelham, New York; Eugene and Portland, Oregon; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Austin, Texas; Seattle, Washington; and Oshkosh, Wisconsin.

The classes within these centers were classified into three socio-economic categories. The -A- group represents the advantaged student population with median parents incomes of $20,000 and a median parent education of two years of college. The -D- group represents the disadvantaged student population with median parent incomes of $3,500 and median parent education of eight years of elementary education. The -M- group represents
approximately the middle 25 percent income group of the student population sampled.

The hypothesis with which this investigation is concerned is the following: If behavioral objectives are stated, instructional activities written for guiding the teacher based upon the stated objectives, and behavioral hierarchies constructed from the stated objectives, then the percentage acquisition of the stated behaviors by the learners will be the same for all socio-economic groups or levels.

Although the data do support the hypothesis, it should also be observed that the advantaged and middle income groups do show greater percentage acquisition on a larger proportion of the exercise than do the disadvantaged. The disadvantaged group is successful, however. Among this group, more of the children demonstrated acquisition of a larger percentage of behaviors in 14 of the 33 exercises in the first four parts for the "simple processes" than did children from the other two groups.

There is some indication that the disadvantaged group consistently demonstrated a high level of performance. The processes of "observing" and "classifying" evidence this but this is not demonstrated to the same degree in either the "numbers" or the "communicating" processes. These data may reflect the fact that the
exercises in those processes deal with activities which may have been encountered by the more advantaged groups in their out-of-school environment.

It is probable that the more advantaged group will have been exposed to a richer and more diverse descriptive vocabulary. It is also possible that the probability of their having encountered graphs at other times is higher than it is for those children coming from lower socio-economic backgrounds. Both of these behaviors are needed and used in communicating sequence of activities.

The data supports the hypothesis that it is possible to create a set of instructional materials that can be successfully used with a wide range of the elementary school population. It does appear that the levels of verbal ability influences the level of behavior acquisition within certain processes.

It appears that the real value of Walbesser and Carter research is its use of behavioral objectives and its applicability to areas other than science.

**Educability of the Disadvantaged**

Allison Davis (11), one of the earliest pioneers among researchers on the problems of educating learners from low status families, addressing himself to the educability of the disadvantaged in a recent publication, entitled, *The Unfinished Journey: Issues in American*
Education. Davis, who believes strongly in the potential of these learners, reports that the strongest evidence of the educability potential of the masses of Negro children from low status families has been afforded by the studies of the significant increase in IQ of Southern Negro children with each year of residence in Northern cities. This marked increase in linguistic and other academic skills must be attributed (1) to the greater economic and social opportunities for their parents after migrating to the North, and (2) to the better teaching staffs, better equipment, higher per-pupil appropriation for schools, and the longer academic year. (For instance, the actual number of days in school is twice as great for Negroes in Chicago as for those in agricultural areas of Florida, southwest Georgia, Mississippi, and Alabama). Longer training in better schools with more efficient teacher and more literate classmates has produced a measurable and significant rise in the average IQ.

This increase is all the more remarkable because it has occurred in scores on intelligence tests, which, in the most intensive research on the subject, we have shown to be heavily loaded with middle class cultural problems, language, and incentives. Thus, the tremendous increase in the average IQ of Negro children from low social status is a measure of the increasing acculturation
of this group in middle-class language and other academic skills. Today, the average IQ of Negro children in Chicago is above 97 and that of Negro upper-middle-class children is 107.

This marked improvement in basic academic problem-solving, involving verbal, arithmetical and other cognitive skills constitutes most convincing evidence that our largest culturally disadvantaged group, the Negro American, is rapidly learning the symbol systems and cognitive behavior valued by the school.

Related research evidences that, given the better teaching, equipment, and longer school year available in cities like New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia, the Negro pupils who come from the South consistently improve in educational aptitude and skills, especially in language, which is the central skill in academic achievement. The average IQ for the nation as a whole is 100 and that for Negroes in the cities referred to is 97. In another decade, there will be no difference, according to Davis.

The impact of Davis' observations provides a climate and basis for optimistic approaches to improved schooling coupled with other factors involved in a child's learning. While questions could be raised regarding the precise definitions of some of his terminology, the significance of his position is essential to improved
educational attainment for the masses of disadvantaged learners who happen to be Negro.

In what appears to be taking a broad look at the problems originating from disadvantaged status, Charles H. Smith (46), in an interview entitled, "The USOE and Urban Education," published in the Phi Delta Kappan, states that the main problem of the schools is insuring quality education for every child in every school in this country. This means that attitudes must reflect the conviction that being poor is not disgraceful. And it does not mean automatically that the poor child lacks the ability to learn. One cannot sit in the halls of ivy and make the kinds of responses needed without knowing something about the population. A teacher cannot confront students every day in the classroom without knowing something about the lives they live outside of that classroom. Education is an ongoing process, and if a third of it takes place inside the classroom, that's remarkable. Education in school must become a component of the total educational process that takes place in the home and on the streets and in all the other facets of the child's environment. One part of the child's education must reinforce the other. A teacher cannot reinforce what he doesn't know anything about, and he doesn't find out about a child's environment by shuffling papers. He finds
out about it by having some very specific contact with it so that he can understand it. Teachers simply must understand the way of life of the students they attempt to teach. This is what community participation is all about.

There seems to be a strong preference for the kind of activity utilized by the Hunter College program in Smith's final words. (The Hunter College program sent student-teachers into disadvantaged schools for internship before graduation).

A Summarizing Statement

This review of selections from the many recent publications of research and literature on the disadvantaged learner and on efforts to understand and educate him leaves something of a "comprehensive feeling of apprehension" on the reviewer. Not only are there varying positions on several descriptions and suggested approaches to teaching disadvantaged learners in the classroom, but writers have been extremely vocal in their convictions about what must be done in each case.

The supply of impressions and ideas seems to be increasing but it remains that scientifically-secured data on "teacher-knowledge" about boys and girls considered socially and economically disadvantaged is glaringly scarce. It would be interesting to see, five years from now, if the trend of literature on the disadvantaged
takes a turn different from what is now available.
CHAPTER III

CREATION AND VALIDATION OF THE URBAN EDUCATION TEST ON TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED

Educational research has many dimensions and there are numerous approaches to the creation of an instrument with which to conduct the desired research. Often, the construct and the preparation of the research instrument determines much about the quantity and quality of the data which results from a given study.

In exploring the possible procedures for conducting a study of this nature, efforts were made to discover an existing instrument which would yield the kinds of knowledges and skills desired. Extensive investigation was undertaken to locate such an instrument but all to no avail. The Webster-Lund DKT Test was the only such instrument found which sought to discover any cognitive data at all about the disadvantaged as held by teachers, and it was designed for a specific purpose which limited severely its use for the nature and scope of this study.

An instrument was needed which would appropriately assess or explore the reality of knowledge held by pre-service teachers about the life and the life styles of
disadvantaged individuals and about teaching and learning in depressed areas in the United States.

The Educational Resources Information Center on the Disadvantaged at Yeshiva University in New York checked its resources for such an instrument but none was revealed. Because many researchers have focused attention on the attitudinal aspect of the problems associated with teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings, there are some tests designed to learn the status of attitudes both among teachers and administrators as well as of students and parents in depressed areas. An instrument which addresses itself primarily to cognitive knowledges appropriate for the dimensions of this research effort had to be created, developed, and validated.

A test, rather than a questionnaire, telephone survey or other similar approach, was deemed most appropriate and efforts were begun to develop same. Some items included in the published form of the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged had been used earlier (in their original form) in a course concerned with the role of the school in the social order at the Ohio State University as part of the graduate program in Curriculum and Instruction.

A Test

A test is a systematic procedure in which the
individual being tested is presented with a set of constructed stimuli to which he responds, the responses enabling the examiner to assign the testee a numeral or set of numerals from which inferences can be made about the testee's possession of whatever the test is supposed to measure. This definition explains that a test is a measurement instrument.

**Purposes of Tests**

Generally, all tests fall into two main classes which are predictive and achievement. Predictive tests are those which are designed to give some indication of the likelihood of the examinees' success in a particular endeavor. Achievement tests are those whose purpose is measuring the student's knowledge in or understanding of a given area or universe of data (or content) or measuring the student's proficiency in certain skills.

Predictive tests are:

a. Intelligence tests  
b. Aptitude tests or prognostic tests  
c. Interest inventories.

Achievement tests are:

a. Pretests (of several varieties)  
b. Subject achievement tests  
c. Diagnostic tests.

No attempt is made here to describe kinds and varieties of tests but the discussion is limited to a definition of the kind of test we deem the Urban Education
Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged to be and some of the characteristics of an effective test instrument.

The Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged, by this description, is classified as an Achievement Test with purposes that are considered basically diagnostic designed to show strengths and weaknesses in pre-service teachers' knowledge about the universe of data surrounding the lives of the disadvantaged.

Achievement Tests

Achievement tests measure the present proficiency, mastery, and understanding of general and specific areas of knowledge. Often, they are the measures of effectiveness of instruction and learning. The Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged is an instrument designed to measure the present proficiency or understanding of a given area of knowledge but the knowledge is not necessarily that gained from participation in formal study or organized classes focusing on the disadvantaged. While it is true that persons who have addressed themselves to some of the available literature or the research developed by educators, sociologists, by anthropologists and psychologists may be more intelligent regarding some of the aspects on the test, no effort was made to design the test on the basis of a particular body of that
Achievement tests used as research instruments are often the dependent variable. It is to be assumed that no exception is made in this case.

**Characteristics of An Effective Test**

An effective test, particularly one used as a research instrument, must possess a high degree of the following characteristics:

1. **Validity**—a concept which will be discussed in some detail later in this section,
2. **Reliability**
3. **Objectivity**
4. **Adequacy**
5. **Practicality**
6. **Utility**.

The first three characteristics are almost uniformly recognized and considered essential by all test specialists in educational or psychological research.

**Adequacy** refers to the quality of sufficiency. An effective test should have sufficient length and variety of content to adequately sample the area of knowledge concerned. Low adequacy generally places low premium or low quality on validity and reliability. Involved here also is the difficulty index of the test. The difficulty should be suitable to the material included in the test and to the
group being tested. Also, it should discriminate among the various levels of student achievement.

**Practicality** refers to the economical use of time required to administer and score a test as well as the financial cost of producing or preparing it. Time is saved by holding examinees' written responses to a minimum and by arranging test materials in such a way that scoring can be accurate and require little time and effort. An effective instrument accomplishes these things without loss of validity or reliability. Practicality may also include the use of answer sheets with tests that may be used more than once. The use of answer sheets does not affect the reliability of a test if the test items are constructed adequately. Answer sheets, however, should contain answer columns that are identical in design to the answer columns appearing on the tests. If answer sheets are used, the information ordinarily required in the heading of the test is usually placed on the answer sheet instead of the test.

**Utility** refers to the ability of the test to serve a needed and useful purpose. Some definite plan should exist to utilize the results. Tests should never be given for the sake of testing. In the case of this research effort, the ultimate purpose involves the improvement of preparation programs for teachers who must serve disadvan-
Objective Tests

Objective tests may be either (1) multiple choice, (2) matching, (3) completion or fill-in, or (4) True-False. There are, however, several aspects (perhaps advantaged) of the objective test which warrant listing here:

**Abilities or Achievement Measured:** Requires the examinee to select correct answers from given options, or to supply an answer limited to one word or phrase. It can also tap high levels of reasoning such as required in inference, organization of ideas, comparison and contrast. Finally, it measures knowledge of facts effectively.

**Scope:** Covers a broad field of knowledge in one test. Since objective tests may be answered quickly, one test may contain many questions. A broad coverage helps provide reliable measurement.

**Incentive to Students:** In uses for purposes other than research, such as the regular on-going classroom operation, objective tests encourage pupils to build up a broad background of knowledge and abilities.

**Ease of Preparation:** The objective test requires writing many questions for a test. Wording must avoid ambiguities and "give-aways." Distractors should
embod[y] most likely misconceptions.

Scoring: Objective tests can be scored quickly. Answers are generally scored only right or wrong, but scoring is very accurate and consistent.

The Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged is an objective, multiple-choice test.

The Construction of Objective Test Items

It is reasonably safe to assert that there is no fixed set of procedures which one can always follow in a step-by-step manner to produce a good test item. The task requires a substantial amount of time, a great deal of patience, a certain amount of creative ability, and a thorough knowledge of the mental processes of the group with whom the test will be used, as well as a knowledge of the content and objectives of the test. As each item is written, the test maker must put himself in the position of the examinee and try to answer questions such as:

1. How will this item be interpreted by students of different ability levels?
2. What cues are provided in the item or in other parts of the test?
3. Are there ambiguities present?
4. Is the meaning clear and precise?
5. Is the item too easy or too difficult?
6. Does the item deal with important data or simply trivia?
(7) Is the item too long?

(8) Is the item clearly related to important objectives?

Based on Lindeman's (33) *Educational Measurement*, the following guidelines were generally observed in the construction of items for the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged:

(1) Efforts were made to achieve clarity and to avoid ambiguity.

(2) The reading difficulty of test items was kept low relative to the ability of the group to whom the test is to be administered. (Unless one is attempting to measure language skills, reading ability should not influence the testee's responses).

(3) To decrease possibilities of rote memorization, items were not borrowed verbatim from other sources. The use of such items tend to encourage rote memorization rather than examine facts and understandings.

(4) Efforts were made to write items in such a way that one item in the test does not provide a clue to the answer for another item.

(5) Efforts were made to avoid interdependence among items. It is not good procedure to include an item which can be answered only if a previous item has been answered correctly.
About Multiple-Choice Test Items

The multiple-choice form is considered equally as good as the true-false or short answer item for measuring factual knowledge. Further, it has been found to be excellent for measuring understanding and for testing the ability to apply concepts and knowledge to unique situations. Perhaps the only kind of objective for which it is not satisfactory is that which involves the ability to organize material and to write clearly and effectively (the essay test is perhaps the only satisfactory way of assessing the achievement of such objectives).

Some of the guidelines for writing effective multiple-choice items to be observed are:

(1) Use either a direct question or an incomplete statement in the item stem. No general rule can be given concerning when to use one or the other of these forms. The test maker should keep in mind that his principal task is to express the problems as clearly and as efficiently as possible. Although the direct question is sometimes easier for the less experienced test maker to write, a clearer and more concise expression of the problem can often be attained by using an incomplete statement. The choice between these two forms, however, is often a matter of personal preference, and it can be made without
difficulty by the experienced item writer.

(2) Be certain to provide a response that competent critics can agree on as the correct answer or the best answer. When feasible, it is best to have test items reviewed by others who are well acquainted with the subject matter involved. In addition to ensuring that a correct response is provided for each item, they may offer other criticisms which can help improve the clarity and expression of the test items.

(3) Be sure that the stem of a multiple-choice item clearly states a problem or asks a question. This requirement will be achieved if the direct-question form is used, but failure to state a problem in the stem is one of the common faults of the incomplete statement variety.

(4) Include in the stem of the item any word or phrase that otherwise must be repeated in each alternative response. By adhering to this practice, one tends to reduce the time required to read the item and to increase the clarity of the statement of the problem.

(5) If possible, avoid a negatively stated item. If an item is stated negatively, however, be sure to underline, italicize, or emphasize negating phrases or words.

(6) Avoid repetition in the item responses of words
or phrases which have been used in the item stem. Such repetition may give a clue which will allow the student to answer correctly even though he does not know the information required.

(7) Try to avoid grammatical clues to the correct answer or response.

(8) Avoid the use of responses that overlap, making more than one alternative factually correct.

(9) The use of "none of these" as an alternative response should be included only in items to which an absolutely correct answer can be given. Use it as a correct answer to items early in the test but not very often thereafter. Avoid using it as the correct answer to items in which it may cover a wide range of incorrect responses. The examinee should not be able to use "none of these" as an all-purpose answer.

(10) Make all responses plausible and attractive to examinees who lack the information or ability being measured.

Other general principles, based on Nolan (57), useful in the construction of multiple-choice items are:

(11) Place the correct word or phrase in a relatively different position among the possible choices in each question.

(12) Have at least four items from which the
examinee is to select the correct responses. Fewer than four items make a choice too easy.

(13) State the item in positive form, because "no's" and "not's" are likely to be overlooked by the examinee, or such negative words tend to confuse him.

(14) Be sure that all items among the possible choices are plausible because if this quality is lacking, the choice or the correct item will be made too easy.

(15) Make the question or statement free of complex sentence structure and as short as possible.

(16) Construct the question so that the examinee is required to indicate his response by drawing a circle around the number or letter of the intended response or by writing the number or letter of the intended response in the special answer column provided as this will facilitate scoring.

Arrangement of Items in Test

The test items should first be grouped so that those the same format appear together with a single set of directions. It is usually best to progress from the easy to the more difficult items. If one begins the test with three or four easy items which nearly everyone can answer correctly, the examinees of lesser ability will be encouraged to try their best on the remaining items. The most difficult items should probably come near the end of
the test so that some students are unable to finish, they will have omitted items that they probably would not have been able to answer correctly anyway.

Within each section of the test, items of similar content should be grouped together. This practice permits the student to attempt all items dealing with a given content before moving on to the next. The test thus appears to the examinee less fragmented, and he can attack it in a more integrated fashion.

While it was not always possible to adhere rigidly to each of these guidelines in constructing and arranging items in the Urban Education Test on Teaching The Disadvantaged, the test was generally improved as development progressed.

The Concept of Validity

Whenever test construction, test selection, test administration, test scoring, or test evaluation is mentioned, the concept of validity is raised. It is perhaps the single most important characteristic of an effective test.

A test is valid when it actually measures what it purports to measure and nothing other than what it purports to measure. Validity as applied to a research instrument means the extent to which the device is good for measuring the specific objectives of the research study. The quality
cannot be thought of in absolute terms; it is always relative to the purpose for which the device is used. There is no one validity. A test or research instrument is valid for the scientific or practical purposes of its user.

A researcher, concerned with validity, must ask himself whether the instrument is measuring what he thinks it is measuring. The emphasis is on what is being measured. For example, a researcher concerned with measuring the understanding of scientific procedures but includes only factual items about scientific procedures in the instrument decreases the degree of validity of the instrument. In fact, the test is not valid because, in reality, it measures the examinee's factual knowledge of scientific procedures but leaves the concept of understanding to chance. This point is expanded by Kerlinger (30).

Four Types of Validity

In recent years, four types of validity have been identified and utilized in education research and bear some discussion here. The types of validity are:

(1) Content Validity
(2) Concurrent Validity
(3) Predictive Validity
(4) Construct Validity.

This is a functional classification, according to Hardaway
and may be more meaningful than categories of statistical validity based on the techniques used in establishing earlier studies.

**Content Validity**

Content validity is concerned with the sampling of a specified universe of content. It is the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content—the substance, the matter, the topics of a measuring instrument. Often, it is guided by the question of whether the substance or content of a measure is really representative of the universe of content presently available. Any psychological or educational property has a theoretical universe of content consisting of all the things that can possibly be said or observed about the property.

Content validation consists essentially in judgment. Alone or with others, one judges the representativeness of the items. The items of a test must be studied, each item being weighed for its presumed representativeness of the universe. Each item must be judged for its presumed relevance to the property being measured. In many cases, other "competent" judges must also judge the content of the items. The universe of content, if possible, must be clearly defined. In other words, the judges must be furnished with the specific directions for making judgments as well as with specification of what they are judging.
Then, some method of "pooling" independent judgments must be used.

**Concurrent Validity**

Concurrent validity is concerned with the relation of test scores to an accepted contemporary criterion of performance on the variable which the test is intended to measure. Concurrent and predictive validity may be perceived as much the same. It is characterized by prediction to an outside criterion, and by checking a measuring instrument, either now or in the future, against some outcome.

**Predictive Validity**

Predictive validity is concerned with the relation of test scores to measures on a criterion based on performance at some later time. In another context, research studies showing a relationship between performance on a mathematics test and performance in some future activity will be evidence of its predictive validity. A test predicts a certain kind of outcome, or it predicts some present or future state of affairs.

**Construct Validity**

Construct validity is concerned with logical inferences which can be drawn from indirect evidence that the test measures what it is claimed to measure. When the measurement expert inquires into the construct validity of a test, he is interested in knowing what psychological
property or properties can "explain" the variance of the test. In other words, he wishes to know the "meaning" of the test.

Construct validity addresses itself to the theory behind the test. Three parts are often considered essential in understanding construct validation: (1) what constructs possibly account for test performance, (2) deriving hypotheses from the theory involving the construct, and (3) testing the hypothesis empirically.

Determining Validity

Validity may be determined in several ways. It may be determined statistically in terms of comparative criteria. Thus, scores yielded by a test of unknown validity might be compared statistically with scores yielded by a standardized test measuring similar subject matter. If high agreement is found between the scores yielded by both tests, it follows that of unknown validity is as valid as the test of known validity. Validity may also be determined statistically in terms of differences in achievement between trained and untrained groups of individuals. If a test of unknown validity, used as a classroom evaluation device, is then administered to a group of individuals who have been taught expertly the curriculum materials included in the test and also to a group who have not been taught this subject matter, and if the trained group earn high
scores and the untrained group earns zero and near zero scores, then the test has definite claim to validity.

**Significance of Validity in Summary**

It appears that most of the criticism of psychological and educational measurement centers on the concept of validity. One cannot refute the fact that poor measurement can invalidate any scientific investigation. Validation is much more than a technique. Reliability is largely a technical matter. Validation bores into the essence of science and philosophy. Construct validity, particularly since it is concerned with the nature of "reality" and the nature of the properties being measured, is heavily philosophical.

The precise validation procedures used for the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged appear later in this section.

**Development of the Test**

As with any effort to construct tests, some energy must be expended in assessing the universe of content from which test items are to be drawn. A survey of the knowledge of life in depressed areas was the first step in developing items for the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged. What is actually known about learners who come from families considered socially and economically disadvantaged? What is it about the life styles of poor
families which accounts for learning practices and capabilities to be what they are among learners from these families?

Second, intensive examination was made of published research and the extent to which the accuracy of same could be incorporated into test items for a cognitive test. Initially, a total of sixty-five (65) items were developed for inclusion in the test. (The final form includes 40 items). The items were reviewed by the creators several times for clarity, for quality, and for content universality.

Third, a conceptual framework was developed and utilized for classifying the items in the test. The conceptual framework provided a theoretical base and/or perimeter from which to move in the analysis of original items. Items which sought to identify understandings as they relate to specific aspects of teaching and learning with aspects of family life styles were categorized. The numbers in the conceptual framework correspond to the number of the test item in the published form of the test.

Fourth, all items were classified as relating more specifically to either education practice, psychological base, or sociological aspects. From this classification, various forms of the test were developed but not labeled as being Psychology Form, Sociology Form, or Education Form. Each form contained five to seven items and
the form was coded.

Validation Procedure

Fifth, the various forms were sent to a group of persons considered experts on teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings. All persons invited to react to the test items were considered especially competent to do so based on the following standards:

(a) They were researchers whose work and interest had provided them with knowledge on the subject of disadvantaged learners, or

(b) They were authors of published works on the disadvantaged, or

(c) They had had long and wide experience in teacher training projects which sought to prepare teachers especially for the disadvantaged, or

(d) They had directed National Defense Education Act Workshops for Teachers of Disadvantaged Youth, or

(e) They were directly involved with the Educational Resources Information Center on the Disadvantaged.

Sixth, on the basis of responses from these experts, items were reviewed, rewritten, and compiled into the original form of the test covering all items.

Seventh, several conferences were held with personnel at the Test Development Center of the Ohio State University for reaction and responses to the full test.

Eighth, the complete 65-item test was administered
to 172 Teacher Education Students at the Ohio State University as part of the validation process.

Ninth, scoring was done by computer and a complete item analysis was done. Items were rejected on the basis of ambiguity, weak discrimination, irrelevance to the objectives of the test, difficulty of the item, and appropriateness of content involved.

Twenty-five (25) items were rejected and forty (40) were considered acceptable for purposes of research. The forty items used in the published form of the Test are included at the end of this chapter. A statistical summary follows. The twenty-five (25) rejected items are in the appendix.

**Statistical Summary**

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<tr>
<td>Lower 50 percent</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-------------------</td>
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</table>

**Figure 2.**

Conceptual Basis for Development of a Test about Education in an Urban Setting. Numbers in the cells refer to number of test item.
THE URBAN EDUCATION TEST ON TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED

James Boyer and Jack R. Frymier
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Columbus, Ohio

DIRECTIONS

This test is designed to learn how much pre-service and in-service teachers know about teaching and learning in urban areas serving socially and economically disadvantaged learners. Please read each item carefully and select the best answer from the choices given. Note the letter of your choice and shade the corresponding space on the ANSWER SHEET. The numbers on the Answer Sheet are horizontally placed.

Please do NOT write on the test instrument. Use a #2 pencil only. Be sure to make your marks heavy and black. Erase completely any answers you wish to change.

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1. Parents in disadvantaged communities are most likely to visit the schools of their children when:
   a. the child is involved in a disciplinary problem
   b. there are Parent-Teacher Meetings
   c. there is an issue regarding bond issues for schools
   d. there is a shortage of qualified teachers
   e. school personnel are engaged in curriculum revision efforts.

2. Which of the following is least likely to characterize disadvantaged homes in general?
   a. Children respond to unfamiliar adults with silence
   b. Extensive use of nicknames for members of the family
   c. There is usually no regular mealtime routine or hour
   d. Parents often read stories to children of pre-school age.

3. The "extended" family is one in which family members other than parents and minor children live in the same household. One factor which contributes to creation and maintenance of the disadvantaged "extended" family is:
   a. Relatively high rental rates for low-income families
   b. "clannish" desire of relatives to live together
   c. Continuing assistance given children with schoolwork by other relatives living in the home
   d. Common interest in ethnic group activities
   e. Governmental restrictions in effect in large cities.

4. Characteristics of minority group children who come from lower socio-economic levels which affect test performance in school include all of the following except the tendency to:
   a. be less verbal
   b. be less fearful of strangers
   c. be less motivated toward scholastic and academic achievement
   d. be less competitive in the intellectual realm
   e. reflect slower reading rates.

5. Among disadvantaged children, one is likely to find the lowest level of self-esteem and aspiration among:
   a. white boys from disadvantaged groups
   b. white girls from disadvantaged groups
   c. minority group boys from disadvantaged settings.
d. minority group girls from disadvantaged settings.

6. When one observes political participation by minority group adults in disadvantaged settings in the United States, particularly the Negro, he discovers:

a. that the Negro is more likely to participate in politics than his white counterpart
b. that Negro political participation is on the increase in the United States
c. that minority group adults are interested only in the United States presidential election
d. that voter registration drives are not conducted in the most disadvantaged areas
e. that minority group males reject female participation in political campaigns.

7. In his style of self expression, the lower class child is likely to be:

a. conceptual, abstract, and verbal
b. non-verbal, conceptual, and concrete
c. concrete, motoric, and non-verbal
d. verbal, abstract, and motoric.

8. Compared to middle class children, which of the following statements is generally least true about lower class youngsters?

a. their homes are more frequently broken and charged with inter-personal conflict
b. they have traveled more frequently and farther from home
c. they maintain organized, consistent mealtime practices
d. they use nicknames more often.

9. Which of the following statements is generally considered least accurate regarding the concept of social class?

a. Class membership expresses itself in social interaction patterns in various institutions within the community
b. Attitudes and values are associated with social class membership
c. Education is a major vehicle by which people typically move upwards in terms of social class
d. Inherited income is one criterion in distinguishing social class
American cities have two or three indistinguishable social groups whose basic styles or life can be recognized.

10. In a Negro disadvantaged community (slum), the major deficiency in family structure affecting children is:

a. too many children in a family
b. inadequacy of the mother figure
c. inadequacy of the father figure
d. lack of love for the children
e. lack of interest in child welfare

11. Which of the following statements is false?

a. Negroes maintain social class distinctions within their own group
b. Negroes as a group have school achievement levels which are lower than their white counterparts
c. Life expectancy rates of Negroes are lower than whites
d. Large percentages of southern Negroes migrate to large cities in the North
e. Negroes are more musical than whites.

12. Research indicates that the relationship of IQ and social class typically shows up in correlations which are:

a. positive and significant
b. positive but not significant
c. negative and significant
d. negative but not significant
e. zero

13. Neighborhood community action programs in slum areas tend to be ineffective primarily because:

a. the efforts lack financial support
b. the efforts lack neighborhood leadership
c. antagonistic outside groups defeat the efforts
d. neighborhood groups work in terms of selfish interests
e. neighborhoods are not geographically distinctive.

14. Lower class Negro family life is probably best described as:

a. patriarchal and stable
b. patriarchal and unstable
c. matriarchial and stable

d. matriarchial and unstable

e. equally patriarchial and matriarchial

15. From a sociological point of view, prejudice and race conflict can be greatly reduced by:

a. providing protective legislation for minority groups' human rights
b. reestablishing ethnocentrism as a basic way of life
c. remedying social abuses and reducing social conflict
d. having more non-Negro residents in urban slum communities.

16. The two factors which are most essential for the successful education of lower class children are:

a. experienced teachers and adequate facilities
b. special counseling personnel and special curriculum materials
c. extensive vocational training and adequate job placement
d. belief in their educability and commitment to them as individuals.

17. On speed-oriented tests, the disadvantaged child experiences all of the following except:

a. difficulty in undertaking deliberate or decision-making tasks in the classroom
b. difficulty in generalizing from descriptive data
c. difficulty in or delay in declaring preferences
d. difficulty in suppressing the desire to demonstrate curiosity
e. difficulty in understanding differences in alternatives.

18. Each year a large number of low-income children enter first grade with a complex of attitudes toward education which precludes learning. Usually the result of this situation is:

a. early retardation, frustration and failure
b. rejection, frustration, but moderate success
c. aggression with moderate success
d. failure without frustration
e. early retardation without frustration.
19. In comparison with children from rural areas, children from urban areas are generally:

a. more intelligent and more verbal  
b. more intelligent but less verbal  
c. less intelligent but more verbal  
d. less intelligent and less verbal  
e. equally intelligent and equally verbal.

20. Among lower class youngsters in the early school years, motivation to learn in school could probably best be described as a function of each child's:

a. self-concept and sense of values  
b. reading ability and his concept of other people  
c. sense of worth and his long range vocational objectives  
d. early start in school and father's vocation  
e. mother's vocation and extent or formal training

21. In comparison with girls in Negro families, boys in Negro families generally have:

a. More positive self-concepts and more opportunity to identify with a desirable model of the same sex  
b. more positive self-concepts but less opportunity to identify with a desirable model of the same sex  
c. less positive self-concepts but more opportunity to identify with a desirable model of the same sex  
d. less positive self-concepts and less opportunity to identify with a desirable model of the same sex  
e. equally positive self-concepts and equal opportunity to identify with a desirable model of the same sex.

22. When the average IQ of children from lower class homes is compared to the average IQ of children from middle class homes, the difference is generally less between:

a. girls and more between boys  
b. boys and more between girls  
c. younger children and more between older children  
d. older children and more between younger children.

23. The one factor which would probably produce the most positive improvement in the learning of children from economically disadvantaged areas is:

a. changing the organizational pattern of the school
b. adopting the "modern" curriculum programs which are being developed
c. maintaining year-round schools
d. developing more styles in school building construction
e. changing the attitudes of the professional staff who work in the school.

24. In culturally disadvantaged areas, the presence of many over-age children in upper elementary classrooms presents a problem due to their advanced social and physical maturity coupled with their low level achievement. Which of the following reasons is least valid for the existence of this problem?

a. interrupted school attendance due to family mobility
b. inadequate, limited schooling of the new arrivals from regions of our country, Mexico, and Puerto Rico
c. rejection of "social promotion practice" by children in primary grades
d. marked indifference to responsibility and engagement in non-purposeful activity
e. slow development of basic skills needed in school.

25. Compared to middle class children, disadvantaged children are more frequently characterized by all of the following except:

a. faulty speech patterns in terms of articulation
b. difficulty in problem solving
c. descriptive colorful vocabulary
d. difficulty in abstract thinking

26. The classroom teacher with responsibility for administering tests to disadvantaged children from minority groups, and for interpreting and using test results, is likely to discharge his responsibility better if he:

a. familiarizes himself with the cultural and social background of more advantaged children
b. interpret test results without regard to the range of situations and behaviors found in the environments of specific minority groups
c. continually re-emphasize the concept of the test as a component of teaching and learning
d. continually inform the administration of the low achievement on standardized tests.
27. In some of the most disadvantaged areas, teachers spend much time in activities which provide no instruction such as discipline maintenance, performance of routines and other activities which keep the class quiet without instructing. In the most disadvantaged areas, research indicates that the amount of class time used in this way is:

a. between 75 and 90 percent of class time
b. between 50 and 75 percent of class time
c. between 25 and 50 percent of class time
d. between 20 and 25 percent of class time
e. less than 20 percent of class time.

28. The most appropriate use of standardized achievement tests with youngsters from lower class homes would probably involve:

a. use of grade-placement scores in order to group children for instructional purposes
b. analysis of test results for each school in order to determine leadership qualities of principals
c. analysis of test results for each child in order to determine particular learning difficulties
d. comparison of grade placement scores with grades received in order to identify underachievers
e. use of test results to confirm lack of achievement.

29. Which statement provides the strongest basis for assuming that a teacher should be concerned about the children's activities outside the school?

a. Most parents are too busy to take proper care of their children
b. The child learns many things through his out-of-school experience
c. The child may learn bad habits unless he is supervised
d. The school should control the child's out-of-school experience in order to assure maximum learning
e. The child needs teachers who live in the community of the learners.

30. Studies of teachers who work in schools which serve lower class youth generally show that such teachers are least competent in the area of:

a. disciplining          d. organizing
b. grading                e. managing
c. motivating
31. Approximately what percentage of Negro children coming from essentially segregated schools in the South would normally fall below grade level in terms of reading achievement on a standardized test?

a. 20%  
b. 35%  
c. 50%  
d. 65%  
e. 80%

32. Children in a school which serves predominately lower class neighborhoods are most often characterized by:

a. high motivation and high truancy  
b. high truancy and low achievement  
c. low achievement and high self-esteem  
d. high self-esteem and low truancy  
e. low motivation and high achievement

33. Language deficiency is a well-known problem among socially and economically disadvantaged pupils. This problem is most often related to:

a. bilingualism in the home  
b. school absenteeism  
c. lack of readiness to learn language skills  
d. lack of models for correct speech in the home  
e. lack of communication in the home.

34. Many experts on urban education maintain that the greatest deterrent to higher educational achievement by disadvantaged pupils is:

a. low intelligence  
b. dislike for academic work  
c. broken home background  
d. limited exposure to experienced teachers  
e. low level of expected achievement by teachers.

35. Curriculum modification is essential to improving the academic performance of children from depressed urban areas. What would be the first step in curriculum modification?

a. curriculum reappraisal in depth in terms of precisely stated goals  
b. instruction of parents on how to work with their children at home  
c. planning of compensatory services and experiences  
d. organization of adult education classes.
36. Many lower class children have been deprived of an opportunity to respond to many varieties of stimuli to which they are capable of responding. The most probable consequence of this deprivation is:

a. difficulty in learning
b. hostile attitude toward school
c. personality disorder
d. no important consequence.

37. In comparison with teachers who work in schools which serve predominantly middle class neighborhoods, teachers who work in schools which serve predominantly lower class neighborhoods generally see their students as:

a. equally capable and no more troublesome
b. equally capable but more troublesome
c. less capable but no more troublesome
d. less capable and more troublesome
e. more capable and less troublesome.

38. More effective teaching, better instructional materials, and more dynamic leadership in lower class schools generally result in changes in children which are as follows:

a. raising of IQ scores, raising of standardized achievement scores, and reducing truancy and drop out rate
b. maintaining of IQ scores, raising of standardized achievement scores, and raising of students' expectations and aspirations
c. raising level of grades received from teachers, maintaining standardized achievement scores, and reducing drop out rate
d. maintaining standardized achievement scores, reducing parent-teacher cooperation, and reducing drop out rate
e. reducing truancy, reducing IQ scores, and reducing the drop out rate.

39. For many years the average income level of Negro males in the United States has been about _________ the average income level of white males.

a. one eighth
b. one fourth
c. one half
d. three fourths
e. equal to

40. Research studies confirm the fact that the drop out rate in U. S. is generally greater among:

a. girls than among boys
b. middle class students that among lower class students
c. students in the cities than among students in rural areas
d. students in the North than among students in the South
e. college prep. students than among vocational students.
CHAPTER IV

THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of performance on the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged by the subjects participating. All subjects were enrolled in major universities in teacher education programs in Ohio, Indiana, Wisconsin, Illinois and Michigan. All subjects were actively engaged in completing the student-teaching requirement (internship) between June 1, 1968 and June 1, 1969. Inasmuch as it is widespread practice to schedule the student-teaching experience so that it occurs just prior to graduation, it is assumed that all subjects will be eligible for teaching credentials at the beginning of the 1969-70 academic year. It is expected that their services as classroom teachers will then be available and that a significant percentage of them will be offered teaching positions in schools serving large numbers of economically and socially disadvantaged learners. All testing was administered by faculty members of participating universities and scoring was accomplished through the Test Development Center of the Ohio State University.
Participating Universities

Twelve major universities participated in the study and are listed below. In Tables which follow, however, they are not identified by universities. In Table III, for example, University #A is not The Ohio State University. Each participating university has been provided data on test performance by its student-teachers. Participating universities are:

1. The Ohio State University, Columbus
2. Bowling Green State University, Ohio
3. Ohio University, Athens
4. Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
5. Illinois State University, Normal
6. Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
7. Michigan State University, East Lansing (Detroit Center)
8. Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo
9. Indiana State University, Terre Haute
10. University of Wisconsin, Madison
11. Wisconsin State University, Oshkosh
12. Wisconsin State University, Whitewater

Summaries and Analyses

Tables 2 through 11 are presented as summaries and analyses of test performance by all subjects. The score range shown in Table 2 indicates that pre-service
teachers at the student-teaching level hold varying levels of cognitive knowledge about economically and socially disadvantaged learners and about teaching and learning in depressed settings.

Table 2
Summary of Test Performance
N = 2,054

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Score Range</th>
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<td>Male</td>
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<td>6-37</td>
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<td>23.41</td>
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<td>10-34</td>
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<td>23.24</td>
<td>23.39</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>4-37</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Total Items in Test: 40

In Table 3, test performance is shown for all subjects by participating universities. Data by teaching level (elementary or secondary) were not provided in all cases and are not reflected here.
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<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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</table>
Table 4 reflects mean differences between the upper fifty percent and the lower fifty percent of all subjects in the sample.

Table 4

Summary of Test Performance by Upper and Lower 50%

N - 2,054

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>2,054</td>
<td>23.39</td>
<td>5.17</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 reflects mean differences between the upper fifty percent and the lower fifty percent of male subjects.

### Table 5

**Summary of Test Performance by Males in Upper and Lower 50%**

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<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Median</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Score Range</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Lower 50%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td></td>
<td>22.23</td>
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<td>4-34</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 reflects mean differences between the upper fifty percent and the lower fifty percent of all female subjects.

### Table 6

**Summary of Test Performance by Females in Upper and Lower 50%**

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<td>Lower 50%</td>
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<td>19.74</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>1,376</td>
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Table 7 reflects mean differences between the upper fifty percent and the lower fifty percent of all subjects for whom sex was not indicated.

Table 7
Summary of Test Performance by Upper and Lower 50%
Sex: Unknown

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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>22.96</td>
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</table>

Conceptual Framework Coding

The Conceptual Framework Coding in Tables 8, 9, 10, and 11 refers to the areas of concentration related to teaching and learning identified as basis for development of the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged. Each item in the test was designed to reflect understanding of a particular concept considered useful in effective teaching. The areas which follow identify the code.
### Table 8

**Analysis of Test Performance**  
*(All Subjects)*

*N = 2,054*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Item</th>
<th>C-F Code</th>
<th>Correct Responses</th>
<th>Relative Difficulty</th>
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Table 8, continued

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### Test Item C-F Code Correct Responses Relative Difficulty

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| #33 | A-1 | 1301 | .63  |
| #34 | E-6 | 955  | .47  |
| #35 | D-6 | 1156 | .56  |
| #36 | B-6 | 935  | .46  |
| #37 | E-2 | 1166 | .58  |
| #38 | A-5 | 881  | .43  |
| #39 | A-3 | 869  | .42  |
| #40 | A-3 | 1442 | .70  |

**Strengths in Specific Cognitive Concepts**

Any item with a relative difficulty index of .80 or above for all subjects (2,054) is designated as an area in which pre-service teachers hold considerable knowledge. The concepts in which they reflected such knowledge follow:

1. Occasions on which parents in disadvantaged communities are likely to visit schools.

2. Extent of intellectual activity characterizing homes of the disadvantaged.

4. Matriarchial characteristic of lower class Negro family life.

5. Truancy rates and achievement levels in schools serving disadvantaged learners.

Weaknesses in Specific Cognitive Concepts

1. Accurate concepts of social class.

2. Relationship of I. Q. and social class.

3. Understanding of leadership function of neighborhood community action programs.

4. Understanding of first graders and their learning problems when they come from low income families.

5. Comparison of intelligence and verbal facility between rural and urban children.


7. Reasons for over-age children in elementary classrooms in disadvantaged schools.

8. Concept of tests, test interpretation and use.

9. Extent of non-teaching activities in many classrooms in the most depressed areas.

10. Reading achievement of Negro children in essentially segregated schools in the South.

11. Impact of teacher personality and social commitment of teacher on educational achievement.

12. Understanding of sources of learning difficulties.
13. The effect of dynamic leadership, instruc-tional materials and resourceful teaching on learners.

14. Income levels of Negro males compared to white males in the United States.

Any item with a relative difficulty index of .40 or below (suggesting that forty percent or fewer of the 2,054 subjects responded correctly to the test item) is designated as an area in which pre-service teachers lack adequate knowledge. The preceding weaknesses were identified as areas of inadequate understanding.

**Major Areas of Weaknesses**

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### Table Notes:
- **X** indicates an area of weakness.
- Each column represents a different area of focus.

**Columns:**
- Language Development
- Intelligence
- Motivation
- Academic Achievement
- Personality
- Vocational Aspirations
Table 9
Analysis of Test Performance
Males

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Male Strengths in Specific Concepts

Prospective male teachers showed considerable knowledge (.80 relative difficulty) in the following concepts regarding teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings:

1. Occasions on which parents in disadvantaged communities are likely to visit schools.
2. Truancy rates and achievement levels in schools serving disadvantaged learners.

Male Weaknesses in Specific Concepts

Prospective male teachers showed a lack of knowledge (.40 relative difficulty) in the following concepts regarding teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings:

1. Accurate concepts of social class.
2. Comparison of intelligence and verbal facility between rural and urban children.
4. Reasons for over-age children in elementary classrooms in disadvantaged schools.
5. Concept of tests, test interpretation and use.
6. Extent of non-teaching activities in many classrooms in the most depressed areas.
7. Reading achievement of Negro children in essentially segregated schools in the South.
8. Impact of teacher personality and social commitment of teacher on educational achievement.

9. Understanding of sources of learning difficulties.

10. The effect of dynamic leadership, instructional materials and resourceful teaching on learners.

11. Income levels of Negro males compared to white males in the United States.
Table 10

Analysis of Test Performance
Females

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Female Strengths in Specific Concepts

Prospective female teachers showed considerable knowledge (.80 relative difficulty) in the following concepts regarding teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings:

1. Occasions on which parents in disadvantaged communities are likely to visit schools.
2. Extent of intellectual activity characterizing homes of the disadvantaged.
4. Matriarchial characteristic of lower class Negro family life.
5. Truancy rates and achievement levels in schools serving disadvantaged learners.

Female Weaknesses in Specific Concepts

Prospective female teachers showed lack of knowledge (.40 relative difficulty) in the following concepts regarding teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings:

1. Accurate concepts of social class.
2. Comparison of intelligence and verbal facility between rural and urban children.
3. Concept of tests, test interpretation and use.
4. Reading achievement of Negro children in essentially segregated schools in the South.
5. Income levels of Negro males compared to white males in the United States.
Table 11

Analysis of Test Performance
Sex: Unknown

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Strengths in Specific Concepts - Sex: Unknown

Prospective teachers for whom sex was not indicated showed considerable knowledge (.80 relative difficulty) in the following concepts regarding teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings:

1. Occasions on which parents in disadvantaged communities are likely to visit schools.

2. Extent of intellectual activity characterizing homes of the disadvantaged.


4. Truancy rates and achievement levels in schools serving disadvantaged learners.

Weaknesses in Specific Concepts - Sex: Unknown

Prospective teachers for whom sex was not indicated showed lack of knowledge (.40 relative difficulty) in the following concepts regarding teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings:

1. Accurate concepts of social class.

2. Factors affecting family structure in disadvantaged communities.

3. Understanding of first graders and their learning problems when they come from low income families.

4. Comparison of intelligence and verbal facility between rural and urban children.

5. Reasons for over-age children in elementary classrooms in disadvantaged schools.
6. Concept of tests, test interpretation and use.

7. Extent of non-teaching activities in many classrooms in the most depressed areas.

8. Reading achievement of Negro children in essentially segregated schools in the South.

9. Income levels of Negro males compared to white males in the United States.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While the study indicates that more than 2,000 pre-service teachers in a five-state area lack some specific knowledges about learners in disadvantaged communities, this does not necessarily suggest that most of our teacher training programs are generally inadequate. There are components of present programs which, if strengthened, would still contribute greatly to improved preparation of teachers for the economically and socially disadvantaged.

Even if one were to propose a special baccalaureate program leading to a degree labeled especially for teaching the disadvantaged, there are some other components in present teacher-education programs which, if given a different emphasis, would lead to improved preparation of teachers. The entire orientation to the professional practices of educators is one such component. Professional behavior implies a strong commitment to providing an essential service without which the client cannot function adequately. Additionally, this service, when provided, should be at the highest possible level and designed to
alleviate the problem. In this case, the problem is lack of adequate academic achievement and lack of social and economic advantage. But teachers of the disadvantaged would do well to assess the degree of their professional commitment to rendering an essential service to clients who perhaps need it more than any other group of clients known.

Teachers of the disadvantaged also need to possess a high level of tolerance which allows the teacher to create the kind of learning situation in which disadvantaged learners can be helped to seek higher, more accurate levels of academic achievement in threat-free environments.

Based on the premise that current practices in Teacher Education have been less rewarding than educators would like with respect to the preparation of teachers prepared to teach the economically and socially disadvantaged learner, it is here proposed that certain variations be incorporated in programs of teacher education to emphasize a cognitive understanding of the life styles and learning difficulties of boys and girls whose economic status has either remained static in a country with rising costs in labor, production, and the total economy, or whose living standards have actually
deteriorated due to the changing economy. Stated differently, the poor people of the United States have a two-fold facet to their life styles which teachers must be prepared to deal with if they are to become more effective with the learners. Teacher must know and understand the various components of the learner's life which are results of his home and community environment. What effect does the home and community environment have on the life style? Teachers must also understand the life style in order to interpret the particular learning difficulty being experienced by the learner. While this is an interrelated task of understanding, it is felt that a more effective teacher can be developed if certain of his training experiences could be re-structured or re-directed.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, it is concluded:

1. That pre-service teachers hold considerable knowledge of existing practices or truancy and of prevailing achievement levels in many schools serving disadvantaged learners.

2. That pre-service teachers hold considerable knowledge of the structure and intellectual activity
patterns of family life in many low-income families.

3. That pre-service teachers lack adequate cognitive understandings about the general cultural situation in which economically and socially disadvantaged learners live.

4. That pre-service teachers lack considerable knowledge about the impact of family relationships, of peer influence, and of methods and organization on vocational aspirations of economically disadvantaged learners.

5. That pre-service teachers lack cognitive knowledge about the relationship of academic achievement to the cultural situation of which the learner is a part.

6. That pre-service teachers lack adequate understanding of the impact of teacher personality on learners to achieve academically.

7. That pre-service teachers lack knowledge of certain economic factors which exist regarding income levels of minority group males.

8. That pre-service teachers have limited understanding of the concept of social class in the United States and its manifestations in behavior and life styles, particularly its relationship to achievement.
9. That pre-service teachers lack knowledge of differences which exist between rural and urban children.

10. That pre-service teachers lack knowledge of the most productive use of the concept of testing, test interpretation and use with economically and socially disadvantaged learners.

Recommendations

Specific recommendations suggesting that some of the emphasis of existing teacher education programs be re-directed are:

1. Induction of the prospective teacher into the observation experience in disadvantaged elementary and secondary learning situations very early in the collegiate training sequence. Such opportunities should begin not later than the latter third of the freshman year, and should be a required experience.

   a. The observation experience should be required on a no-credit basis until the teacher candidate can begin to perceive changes in his own outlook regarding the responsibility of teaching learners from varying backgrounds.

   b. All observation should be in relation to specified university course experiences (sociology,
psychology, learning theory, economics) in which the teacher candidate may be engaged.

2. Prospective teachers of the disadvantaged should be actively engaged in community agency research in poor areas. This recommendation suggests that pre-service teachers should research five (5) or more of the community agencies directly affecting the lives of the learners in economically disadvantaged areas. The community agencies referred to here could be (1) church, (2) a recreation establishment, (3) a business establishment, (4) a child care facility, (5) a medical or health preservation facility, (6) a political or government agency with primary responsibility for impoverished citizenry, (7) a social welfare agency, (8) a home. Research should take place over a period of time so that the prospective teacher gains insight into the agency operation and into its impact on learners.

3. Prospective teachers should engage in university-directed seminars on the community agencies in an effort to further understand agency relationship to learning difficulties which learners bring to the school.
4. Prospective teachers should, prior to entry into the professional ranks, be allowed to participate in school-related organizations such as the Parent-Teacher Association and other similar groups which would allow them to gain additional insight into the problems and concerns of parents in situations different from that of the prospective teacher's. Such experience would serve to broaden the pre-service teacher's understanding of learning problems and difficulties which he has to face in the classroom.

5. That pre-service teachers be given more comprehensive opportunities to assess the role of the teacher and the impact of his personality on learner academic motivation.

6. Pre-service teachers should have more comprehensive mediated sociological instruction on aspects of economic and social deprivation. Mediated instruction would allow greater use of educational media for the acquisition of factual data and could be made available on tapes (audio and visual) in a listening--viewing center so that the prospective teacher may view and review the information at his convenience. The prospective teacher may then be asked to pass a cognitive examination on the sociological data before moving into
more advanced levels of teacher preparation. This recom-
mendation includes both rural and urban sociological un-
derstandings.

7. Pre-service teachers should have mediated instruction on prevailing economic and labor practices as they affect the life styles of learners from a given community. Such instruction would help the pre-service teacher in providing a learning climate which de-emphasizes the impact of low income.

8. Pre-service teachers should have training experiences which help them to understand more appropriate uses and interpretations of tests with low-income learners. Particularly should they be helped to utilize the concept of tests so that learners will perceive testing, not as an anxiety producing element, but as a regular component of teaching and learning. (Disadvantaged learners often perceive the experience of testing as a teaching device designed to contribute to their failure rather than evaluation of progress in which pride may be taken).

9. Pre-service teachers should engage in on-campus "senior seminars" in individual conferences or in small groups which would focus on learning problems in disadvantaged communities as they are identified by
teaching specialty (mathematics, English, etc.) in efforts to understand the nature of learning problems to be found, the sources of the difficulties, and the varying approaches to remediation. More professor-time should be spent in "small seminars" of this type than in large lecture sessions on data which can be mediated.

Following the recommendations for revisions in programs of teacher education for preparing more productive teachers for the economically disadvantaged, the Component Model of Experiences is presented to reflect the concept of the totality of the recommendations. The model attempts to indicate primary and secondary phases of experiential training and it reflects a heavy concentration on first-hand experiences (labeled Concurrent Preparatory Experiences and later, Concurrent Professional Experiences) involving prospective with various aspects of the life styles of economically disadvantaged learners as well as opportunity for concentration on cognitive understandings of these life styles as they emerge from the cultural situation.

Knowledge about learners, their educational and social environments and their families will not automatically produce a more democratic, more socially
committed teacher for the disadvantaged, but it is hoped that this knowledge combined with opportunities to reflect on the reality of the knowledge and its relationship to teaching and learning would seem to be a beginning point toward the solution of the critical learning and social problems of the disadvantaged.
### COMPONENT MODEL OF EXPERIENCES

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<th>PHASE I</th>
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<td><strong>BASIC</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>COLLEGIATE</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>STUDIES</strong>&lt;br&gt;University Basic Studies providing foundation for excellence in pre-service teacher's becoming educated for one's self.&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;Particular attention is given to perceptual screens utilized by teacher candidates.</td>
<td><strong>INTRODUCTORY PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION EXPERIENCES</strong>&lt;br&gt;with&lt;br&gt;Intensive study of living conditions of economically disadvantaged citizenry to understand nature of learning difficulties.&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;Studies in rural and urban sociology, in the psychology of deprivation, and in the history of minority groups who make up the citizenry of disadvantaged communities.</td>
<td><strong>COGNITIVE LEARNING EXPERIENCES</strong>&lt;br&gt;Productive use of tests, functional interpretation of test results in advantaged and in disadvantaged settings.&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;<strong>CPE - LEVEL A</strong>&lt;br&gt;EXTENDED LABORATORY EXPERIENCE&lt;br&gt;Student teaching in all-day sessions.&lt;br&gt;Minimum: 9-10 weeks.</td>
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<td><strong>CPE - Level D</strong>&lt;br&gt;On-campus concentrated comparison study of varying life styles.&lt;br&gt;Minimum: 10 wks.</td>
<td><strong>CPE - Level C</strong>&lt;br&gt;Initial Observation of Learning in economically disadvantaged settings.&lt;br&gt;Minimum: 12-15 wks.</td>
<td><strong>CPE - Level B</strong>&lt;br&gt;Agency Research and experiences as aides and helpers in various settings.&lt;br&gt;Minimum: 6-10 wks.</td>
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Figure 4.
A prevailing aspect of the Component Model of Experiences and of the recommendations is the emphasis of concurrent experiences designed to help the prospective teacher of the disadvantaged gain a more functional understanding of the personal needs and deficiencies of learners from disadvantaged settings. Such understanding would be beneficial to the teacher in selecting, planning, and organizing learning experiences which can be built on the daily life experiences of disadvantaged learners to help increase academic achievement and improve the social-personal growth of learners in significant ways. Nothing is more vital than the reality of experience. Therefore, if the prospective teacher of disadvantaged learners can know, first-hand, some of the normal activities and perceptions of the learners, he is better equipped to direct academic learning activities for them.

The concurrent experiences suggest a degree of physical involvement and it is felt that the degree of such involvement often becomes a measure of the degree of a teacher's effectiveness with poor children. The involvement is supportive to the teacher's understanding of the child.
Presently, most teacher-training programs limit themselves to the final student-teaching experience as the only direct involvement aspect of its culminating introduction to the all-encompassing profession of teaching. With the economically disadvantaged learner, a more intensive orientation for teachers is needed. But teacher-training programs must now address themselves to the following:

1. What values are most critical to the teacher who is successful with disadvantaged learners? (Rather than what specific techniques will work?)

2. How does a teacher-trainee (or a fully enculturated individual) become more involved in a sub-culture—enough to become effective with learners from the sub-culture?

3. How can the entire process contribute to the over-all development of the professionally-trained teacher? What are the guidelines which, if followed, contribute to the most productive levels of teacher education programs?

Responses to inquiries such as the above would yield significant understandings and discoveries which would imply that those who offer their services as
teachers of the disadvantaged must be flexible in their personalities and open to new experience to the point of allowing themselves to be a part of, yet a symbol of improved academic achievement in, the learner's life.

Prospective teachers with predominantly middle-class backgrounds might need to re-assess their own levels of commitment to a social reality before offering their services as teachers. Prospective teachers must also reflect a secure, democratic personality which allows them to see the learner's world (environment and frustrations) and specifically his perception of the learning tasks, without directly experiencing the negative emotions which the learner may have.

Direct involvement in the learner's world during the teacher-training period seems to be an appropriate undertaking for the prospective teacher in order to yield more effective preparation.

It is to this end that this study has addressed itself.

Suggested Further Research

This study has revealed certain strengths and weaknesses as they now reflect themselves in knowledges held by pre-service teachers at the elementary and the
secondary levels. There are still unanswered questions about the nature of these strengths and weaknesses which could be revealed through further research.

Additional research, undertaken in this area, might address itself to:

1. A comparison of pre-service teachers' knowledge with in-service teachers on the same test instrument. Does teaching experience in any school constitute a real factor in the acquisition of knowledges and skills about economic and social disadvantage?

2. A comparison of pre-service teachers knowledge who were trained in predominantly black schools in the United States with knowledges held by pre-service teachers trained in major universities. Does the teacher trained in predominantly black colleges have greater knowledge of the problems of teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings than the teachers trained elsewhere?

3. A comparison of performance on the test by university seniors majoring in education with those majoring in liberal arts. Is there an advantage of one program of preparation over the other for possessing knowledge about economic and social deprivation as it is related to teaching and learning?
4. A longitudinal study over at least a five-year period to discover if the possession of certain knowledges was functional to the pre-service teacher in his effectiveness in urban schools. Is it possible that even greater revision may need to take place in in-service education for teachers staffing urban schools?

5. A factor analysis to determine which factors had more significance for effectiveness in instruction in disadvantaged communities. Are there specific items on the test instrument, or specific areas of cognitive data which are more pertinent to teacher effectiveness than some others included in the instrument?
APPENDIX A

INITIAL LETTER TO DEANS
REQUESTING PARTICIPATION IN STUDY
Dean
College of Education
Illinois State University
Normal, Illinois - 61716

Dear Sir:

As part of a doctoral dissertation, I am attempting to learn the extent of cognitive concepts about teaching and learning in disadvantaged settings now held by pre-service teachers approaching the completion of their studies.

This letter comes to ask if it would be possible for pre-service teachers at the student-teaching level in your institution to respond by taking the Urban Education Test on Teaching the Disadvantaged. This instrument is a multiple choice test with approximately fifty (50) items which would take about one hour to complete. All scoring would be done by the investigator and results would be provided if the participating institution desires.

We would like to have the test administered anytime during December, 1968, or January, 1969. A brief abstract of the study is enclosed.

If it is possible for your student teachers to participate, please inform us of the name of the person who should be contacted for this kind of assistance. We will then talk with this person and discuss the matter or, if necessary, visit the campus. Your consideration will be greatly appreciated.

Very truly yours,

James B. Boyer

Dr. Jack R. Frymier, Major Adviser
APPENDIX B

EXPERTS RESPONDING TO ITEMS INCLUDED IN THE URBAN EDUCATION TEST ON TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED
EXPERTS RESPONDING TO ITEMS INCLUDED IN THE URBAN EDUCATION TEST ON TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED

1. Dr. Louis Smith  
   Washington University, St. Louis

2. Dr. Ronald Corwin  
   The Ohio State University, Columbus

3. Dr. Nason Hall  
   The Ohio State University, Columbus

4. Dr. Florence L. Roane  
   Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach

5. Dr. Reginald Jones  
   The Ohio State University, Columbus

6. Dr. Staten W. Webster  
   University of California at Berkeley

7. Dr. Miriam Goldberg  
   Teachers College, Columbia University

8. Dr. Clare Herald  
   Kent State University, Kent, Ohio

9. Dr. Shailer Thomas  
   The Ohio State University, Columbus

10. Dr. Edmund Gordon—A. Jablonsky  
    Educational Resources Information Center  
    Yeshiva University, New York, New York
APPENDIX C

PERSONS ASSISTING IN ADMINISTRATION OF TEST
PERSONS ASSISTING IN ADMINISTRATION OF TEST

The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
Mr. Horace C. Hawn

Ohio University
Athens, Ohio
Dr. James Thompson

Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio
Dr. Lorene Love Ort

Western Michigan University
East Lansing, Michigan
Dr. John B. Bergeson

Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan
Mr. Robert Hatfield

Indiana State University
Terre Haute, Indiana
Dr. Dale Gene Findley

The University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin
Dr. Robert G. Petzold

Wisconsin State University
Whitewater, Wisconsin
Dr. Everett M. White

Wisconsin State University
Oshkosh, Wisconsin
Dr. Norman J. Frenzel

Illinois State University
Normal, Illinois
Dr. James H. Mendenhall

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Northern Illinois University
De Kalb, Illinois
Dr. Norman C. Jacobs

Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois
Dr. J. R. Verduin, Jr.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


